

# 1 Expression-based machine learning models for predicting plant 2 tissue identity

3  
4 Sourabh Palande<sup>1</sup>, Jeremy Arsenault<sup>2</sup>, Patricia Basurto-Lozada<sup>3</sup>, Andrew Bleich<sup>4</sup>, Brianna N. I. Brown<sup>4</sup>,  
5 Sophia F. Buysse<sup>4,5,6</sup>, Noelle A. Connors<sup>7</sup>, Sikta Das Adhikari<sup>1,8</sup>, Kara C. Dobson<sup>5,9</sup>, Francisco Xavier  
6 Guerra-Castillo<sup>10,11</sup>, Maria F. Guerrero-Carrillo<sup>12</sup>, Sophia Harlow<sup>7</sup>, Héctor Herrera-Orozco<sup>13,14</sup>, Asia T.  
7 Hightower<sup>4,5</sup>, Paulo Izquierdo<sup>15</sup>, MacKenzie Jacobs<sup>16,17</sup>, Nicholas A. Johnson<sup>5,18</sup>, Wendy Leuenberger<sup>5,9</sup>,  
8 Alessandro Lopez-Hernandez<sup>3,19</sup>, Alicia Luckie-Duque<sup>12</sup>, Camila Martínez-Avila<sup>20</sup>, Eddy J. Mendoza-  
9 Galindo<sup>12</sup>, David Plancarte<sup>21</sup>, Jenny M. Schuster<sup>22,17</sup>, Harry Shomer<sup>2</sup>, Sidney C. Sitar<sup>15,23,24</sup>, Anne K.  
10 Steensma<sup>4,17,25</sup>, Joanne Elise Thomson<sup>17,22</sup>, Damián Villaseñor-Amador<sup>26</sup>, Robin Waterman<sup>4,5,6</sup>, Brandon  
11 M. Webster<sup>4</sup>, Madison Whyte<sup>15</sup>, Sofía Zorilla-Azcué<sup>27</sup>, Beronda L. Montgomery<sup>28</sup>, Aman Y. Husbands<sup>29</sup>,  
12 Arjun Krishnan<sup>30</sup>, Sarah Percival<sup>1</sup>, Elizabeth Munch<sup>1,31</sup>, Robert VanBuren<sup>7,32</sup>, Daniel H. Chitwood<sup>1,7,\*</sup>,  
13 Alejandra Rougon-Cardoso<sup>12,33\*</sup>

14  
15 <sup>1</sup>Department of Computational Mathematics, Science and Engineering, Michigan State University, USA

16 <sup>2</sup>Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Michigan State University, USA

17 <sup>3</sup>Laboratorio Internacional de Investigación sobre el Genoma Humano (LIIGH), Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

18 <sup>4</sup>Department of Plant Biology, Michigan State University, USA

19 <sup>5</sup>Ecology, Evolution, and Behavior Program, Michigan State University, USA

20 <sup>6</sup>Kellogg Biological Station, Michigan State University, USA

21 <sup>7</sup>Department of Horticulture, Michigan State University, USA

22 <sup>8</sup>Department of Statistics and Probability, Michigan State University, USA

23 <sup>9</sup>Department of Integrative Biology, Michigan State University, USA

24 <sup>10</sup>Unidad de Investigación Médica en Inmunología e Infectología, Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social, México

25 <sup>11</sup>Programa de Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

26 <sup>12</sup>Laboratory of Agrigenomic Sciences, Escuela Nacional de Estudios Superiores Unidad León, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

27 <sup>13</sup>Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

28 <sup>14</sup>Laboratorio de Ecología Evolutiva y Conservación de Anfibios y Reptiles. Facultad de Estudios Superiores Iztacala, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

29 <sup>15</sup>Department of Plant, Soil, and Microbial Sciences, Michigan State University, USA

30 <sup>16</sup>Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Michigan State University, USA

31 <sup>17</sup>Molecular Plant Sciences Program, Michigan State University, USA

32 <sup>18</sup>Genetics and Genome Sciences, Michigan State University, USA

33 <sup>19</sup>Computational Population Genetics Group, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

34 <sup>20</sup>Colección Nacional de Aves, Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

35 <sup>21</sup>Departamento de Botánica, Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

36 <sup>22</sup>Cell and Molecular Biology, Michigan State University, USA

37 <sup>23</sup>Plant Breeding, Genetics, and Biotechnology, Michigan State University, USA

38 <sup>24</sup>Crop and Soil Sciences Program, Michigan State University, USA

39 <sup>25</sup>MSU-DOE Plant Research Laboratory, Michigan State University, USA

40 <sup>26</sup>Programa de Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

41 <sup>27</sup>Programa de Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Escuela Nacional de Estudios Superiores (ENES), Unidad Morelia, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México

42 <sup>28</sup>Department of Biology, Grinnell College, USA

43 <sup>29</sup>Department of Biology, University of Pennsylvania, USA

44 <sup>30</sup>Department of Biomedical Informatics, Center for Health AI, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, USA

45 <sup>31</sup>Department of Mathematics, Michigan State University, USA

46 <sup>32</sup>Plant Resilience Institute, Michigan State University, USA

47 <sup>33</sup>Plantecc National Laboratory, ENES-León, México

48 \*Corresponding authors

49 Dr. Alejandra Rougon-Cardoso, [arougon@enes.unam.mx](mailto:arougon@enes.unam.mx)

50 Dr. Daniel H. Chitwood, [dhchitwood@gmail.com](mailto:dhchitwood@gmail.com)

57 **ABSTRACT**

58

59 The selection of *Arabidopsis* as a model organism played a pivotal role in advancing genomic  
60 science, firmly establishing the cornerstone of today's plant molecular biology. Competing  
61 frameworks to select an agricultural- or ecological-based model species, or to decentralize plant  
62 science and study a multitude of diverse species, were selected against in favor of building core  
63 knowledge in a species that would facilitate genome-enabled research that could assumedly be  
64 transferred to other plants. Here, we examine the ability of models based on *Arabidopsis* gene  
65 expression data to predict tissue identity in other flowering plant species. Comparing different  
66 machine learning algorithms, models trained and tested on *Arabidopsis* data achieved near  
67 perfect precision and recall values using the K-Nearest Neighbor method, whereas when tissue  
68 identity is predicted across the flowering plants using models trained on *Arabidopsis* data,  
69 precision values range from 0.69 to 0.74 and recall from 0.54 to 0.64, depending on the  
70 algorithm used. Below-ground tissue is more predictable than other tissue types, and the ability  
71 to predict tissue identity is not correlated with phylogenetic distance from *Arabidopsis*. This  
72 suggests that gene expression signatures rather than marker genes are more valuable to create  
73 models for tissue and cell type prediction in plants. Our data-driven results highlight that, in  
74 hindsight, the assertion that knowledge from *Arabidopsis* is translatable to other plants is not  
75 always true. Considering the current landscape of abundant sequencing data and computational  
76 resources, it may be prudent to reevaluate the scientific emphasis on *Arabidopsis* and to  
77 prioritize the exploration of plant diversity.

78

79 **INTRODUCTION**

80

81 Historically, plant biology has focused on inferring genetic, molecular, physiological, and  
82 ecological mechanisms. Conventionally, through quantifying phenomena and applying statistics,  
83 hypotheses are tested and decisions of most likely scenarios are determined. New technologies  
84 and computational approaches have caused a shift from hypothesis- to data-driven research  
85 (Mazzocchi, 2015). Moreover, plant biology has embraced the inclusion of machine learning  
86 methods in addition to traditional statistical approaches (Ij, 2018). Both a deluge of data and  
87 new computational methods have allowed for predictive, rather than inferential, methods. Both  
88 statistics and machine learning can be used for inference and prediction, but machine learning  
89 methods more often classify and predict on class labels rather than inferring statistical  
90 parameters of a population. In plant biology, such predictive approaches underlie the  
91 frameworks of phenotyping (Coppens et al., 2017), precision agriculture (Zhang et al., 2002),  
92 genomic prediction (Crossa et al., 2014), linking transcriptomic profiles to phenotype (Azodi et  
93 al., 2020), and protein structure determination (Jumper et al., 2021). Just as inferential statistics  
94 has its limitations, the robustness and ability to extrapolate predictive models are also  
95 constrained by the empirical context from which the data originates. Although data-driven  
96 research is slowly becoming more theoretical and predictive (Hogeweg, 2011), the creation of  
97 universal plant models is hindered by their overwhelming diversity. Not only is the phylogenetic  
98 diversity among flowering plants immense (The Angiosperm Phylogeny Group et al., 2016), but  
99 plants are exceptionally responsive to their environments (Sultan, 2000) and have evolved  
100 symbiotic interactions with and defense mechanisms against innumerable microbes (Mitchell et

101 al., 2006). Furthermore, technical variability in data acquisition makes it difficult to exploit the  
102 huge amount of expression data archived in databases. The number of ways we sample  
103 molecular profiles from plant tissues and the interaction effects that arise between  
104 phylogenetically diverse species with environments, stresses, and biotic interactions is  
105 countless and prevents extrapolating results between studies.

106

107 Due to the clear advantages of studying a single model species, the early days of the genomics  
108 era tended to overlook the importance of prioritizing plant diversity. The candidates considered  
109 for the first sequenced genome were either easily transformable (e.g., species within  
110 Solanaceae; Knapp et al., 2004) or were already used for genetics (e.g., maize; Strable and  
111 Scanlon, 2009), but never was biodiversity considered (Meyerowitz, 2001). Reasons for  
112 choosing *Arabidopsis* as the first sequenced plant genome (*Arabidopsis* Genome Initiative,  
113 2000) include ease of transformation (Clough and Bent, 1998), its small genome (Bennett et al.,  
114 2003), and life history traits that allow for genetics through crossing, and short generation times  
115 (Meyerowitz, 1987). The justification for initially sequencing the genome of a single model  
116 species was that such focus would allow unprecedented molecular discoveries that could be  
117 translated into other species and improve our understanding of all plants (Bevan and Walsh,  
118 2005). The strategy to focus on a single model species was successful, and *Arabidopsis* is the  
119 most cited plant in the last 20 years, even surpassing key crops and all other plant species  
120 (Marks et al., 2023). Our molecular knowledge in plants was purposefully constructed to focus  
121 on *Arabidopsis* over crops and plant genetic diversity. However, such a choice has little  
122 relevance in a changing climate with dwindling natural resources and vanishing biodiversity that  
123 have become the most pressing concerns of our time. The cultural dynamics that influenced the  
124 choice of *Arabidopsis* as the first sequenced genome are reflected in subsequently sequenced  
125 plant genomes. Plants intrinsic to Indigenous cultures and territories have been sequenced by  
126 colonial powers (Marks et al., 2021; Dyer et al., 2022). While sequencing *Arabidopsis* has  
127 certainly expanded our knowledge of molecular processes, due to such an intense focus, our  
128 understanding in other species remains limited. This leaves us questioning the extent to which  
129 the insights from *Arabidopsis* can be extrapolated to the rest of flowering plants.

130

131 In the 20 years since the release of the *Arabidopsis* genome sequence (*Arabidopsis* Genome  
132 Initiative, 2000), the number of sequenced plant genomes has dramatically risen (Michael and  
133 Jackson, 2013; Li and Harkess, 2018; Marks et al., 2021) leading to a greater understanding of  
134 the evolutionary origin and genetic mechanisms underlying numerous traits across the green  
135 lineage. Next-generation sequencing, for example, has enabled unprecedented surveys of  
136 genome-scale features across species, tissue types, environments, and interactions between  
137 plants with abiotic and biotic factors. There are currently over 300,000 public gene expression  
138 datasets spanning thousands of diverse plant species (Lim et al., 2022). Cross-species  
139 comparisons of gene expression across plants have usually been limited by the number of  
140 species analyzed (Proost and Mutwil, 2018) or their sampling breadth. Most studies have  
141 generated datasets from scratch (Julca et al., 2021) instead of leveraging public repositories.  
142 Databases and datasets curating and making vast amounts of gene expression profiles and  
143 their associated metadata have been created. For example, an *Arabidopsis* RNA-seq database  
144 (ARS) compiles 20,068 publicly available *Arabidopsis* RNA-Seq libraries (Zhang et al., 2020),

145 and the Plant Public RNA-seq Database has ~45,000 maize, rice, wheat, soybean and cotton  
146 samples (Yu et al. 2022). Previously we had curated a dataset of 2,671 publicly available gene  
147 expression profiles from 54 flowering plant species across 7 developmental tissue types and  
148 nine stresses (Palande et al., 2023). More than 20 years after the release of the *Arabidopsis*  
149 genome, not only have we accumulated enough data across plants to ask unprecedented  
150 questions but new computational tools are available that permit comparative approaches to  
151 analyze such massive amounts of data.

152  
153 Here, building upon large, curated databases of *Arabidopsis* (Zhang et al., 2020) and flowering  
154 plant gene expression profiles (Palande et al., 2023), we examine how predictive *Arabidopsis* is  
155 as a model species relative to the rest of the flowering plants and to what degree we can  
156 extrapolate our knowledge from model organisms to diverse plant species. Dimension reduction  
157 through principal component analysis (PCA) reveals that biotic stress response and tissue type  
158 are primary, orthogonal sources of structure in gene expression data from *Arabidopsis*, and  
159 while angiosperm data projected onto this space retains some structure, the regions occupied  
160 between tissue types become less distinct. We next compare the performance of different  
161 machine learning models. The k-nearest neighbor (KNN) method yields precision and recall  
162 values of up to 0.99 with models trained and tested on *Arabidopsis* data. Model performance  
163 drops significantly, with higher precision than recall values, when data from across flowering  
164 plants is tested using models trained on *Arabidopsis* data. Below-ground tissue is more  
165 separated from and predictable than other tissue types, and phylogenetic distance from  
166 *Arabidopsis* does not appear to influence prediction rates. We end with a discussion of the  
167 implications of our results for the current structure of the plant science community,  
168 acknowledging that the past focus on *Arabidopsis* as a model organism based on decisions  
169 decades ago was effective at that time; however, we now advocate for a shift in approach due  
170 to changing circumstances, particularly in light of the pressing issue of biodiversity loss. We  
171 argue for a more decentralized and inclusive research framework that better encompasses the  
172 diversity of plants and the human cultures that represent them, adapting to current  
173 environmental and scientific challenges.

174  
175 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**  
176

177 *Datasets*  
178

179 We used two curated databases in this analysis. The first contained 28,165 *Arabidopsis* gene  
180 expression profiles across 37,334 genes (Zhang et al. 2020). The second contained 2,671  
181 flowering plant expression profiles across 6,327 orthogroups (Palande et al. 2023). Metadata  
182 labels for each sample from both of the databases was assigned one of four tissue type labels  
183 (above-ground, below-ground, whole plant, or other). The categories are purposefully  
184 encompassing and chosen to facilitate accurate assignment across the broad categories of  
185 experimental data we analyzed, focusing on above-ground and below-ground tissue identity as  
186 one of the simplest cases to test tissue predictability. After removing samples with missing  
187 metadata and samples with low unique mapped rate (<75%), the *Arabidopsis* database was left  
188 with 19,415 samples. A conserved *Arabidopsis* database was also constructed by keeping only

189 the genes mapped to the orthogroups from the flowering plant database. The conserved  
190 *Arabidopsis* database contained the same number of samples, but with much smaller  
191 expression profiles across only the 6,327 orthogroups shared with the angiosperm dataset.  
192

193 *Classification models*

194

195 Classification is a common machine learning task where, given data points belonging to two or  
196 more classes, the goal is to *learn* a function that best differentiates between points from different  
197 classes. Then, given a new data point, the function can be used to decide which class the point  
198 belongs to. The classifier function can be learned in many different ways, leading to various  
199 types of machine learning models. For each classifier model in this study, we employed the  
200 following modeling methods:

201

202 *Linear support vector classifier (SVC)*: In linear classification, each point is viewed as a vector in  
203  $k$ -dimensional space (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995). The goal is to find  $(k-1)$ -dimensional  
204 hyperplanes that separate the points belonging to different classes. There are many possible  
205 choices for hyperplanes that can classify the points. A reasonable choice is to find the ones that  
206 maximize the separation between points from different classes. These are known as maximum-  
207 margin hyperplanes. Geometrically, the max-margin hyperplanes are defined by the points that  
208 lie closest to them; therefore, such points are called support vectors.

209

210 *Multi-layer perceptron (MLP)*: The SVC model assumes that the classes are linearly separable,  
211 which may not be true. MLPs are a class of artificial neural networks (Haykin, 1998) with three  
212 or more layers of “perceptrons” with non-linear activation. An MLP consists of an input and an  
213 output layer, with one or more hidden layers of neurons. We experimented with one and two  
214 hidden-layer MLPs and used rectified linear unit (ReLU) activation in all cases. In ReLU, a  
215 neuron’s activation is the weighted sum of its inputs, if the sum is non-negative, and zero  
216 otherwise. Even with this simple nonlinear activation function, MLPs are able to outperform the  
217 linear SVC.

218

219 *Random forest (RF)*: Random forests (Ho, 1995) perform classification by constructing an  
220 ensemble of decision trees. Each decision tree outputs a class label for the given sample and  
221 the output of the RF is the class label predicted by the majority of the trees. In a decision tree,  
222 each internal node is labeled by an input feature and the leaf nodes are labeled by the class  
223 labels. Starting from the root node, the input set is recursively partitioned into children nodes  
224 using the input feature associated with the node. The recursion ends when all data points in the  
225 node belong to the same class, or some pre-specified termination criteria, such as maximum  
226 depth of the tree, are met. Which feature to split the data on at each level is determined using  
227 information criteria such as gini impurity or entropy that measure how consistent the subsets are  
228 with respect to the class labels after the split.

229

230 *Histogram-based gradient boosting (HGB)*: Gradient boosting (Mason et al., 1999) is another  
231 class of methods that uses a large ensemble of decision trees. In histogram-based boosting, the  
232 real-valued input features are first discretized into a few (typically 256) bins using histograms.

233 This allows the training algorithm to run much more efficiently and construct a much larger  
234 ensemble of decision trees to support the classification.

235

236 *K-nearest neighbor (KNN) classifier:* In KNN classifiers (Cover and Hart, 1967) class labels are  
237 assigned based on a majority vote of the K nearest training points. The distance metric and the  
238 number of neighbors are specified by the user. In our experiments, correlation distance between  
239 the expression profiles was used to train the KNN classifier.

240

#### 241 *Experimental design*

242

243 To establish the utility of gene expression profiles in predicting tissue type, we trained the  
244 supervised machine learning models to classify the *Arabidopsis* data by tissue types (**Table 1**).  
245 The database was split into training and test sets (70%-30% split). To ensure comparability, all  
246 five models were trained and tested on the same training and test sets. Next, we wanted to  
247 examine how predictive *Arabidopsis* is to the rest of the flowering plants (**Table 2**). To test this,  
248 we used a set of conserved *Arabidopsis* transcripts with orthogroups across angiosperms, split  
249 into training and test sets (70%-30% split) as before. The same five machine learning models  
250 were trained on the conserved *Arabidopsis* training set. The performance of these models was  
251 first tested on the conserved gene *Arabidopsis* test set to make sure that the models were still  
252 able to predict the tissue types with a significantly smaller number of features. We then used the  
253 same models to classify the angiosperm data to test how well they extrapolate to species other  
254 than *Arabidopsis*. Each machine learning model employed in our experiments requires  
255 additional hyperparameters that need to be tuned to optimize model performance. We used the  
256 Bayesian optimization procedure implemented in the hyperopt package in Python (Bergstra et  
257 al., 2013). To gain insights into the functional annotation and enrichment of our gene list, we  
258 performed a Gene Ontology term analysis using the DAVID Functional Annotation Clustering  
259 tool (version 2021) from the web interface <http://david.ncifcrf.gov> (Huang et al., 2009). We  
260 filtered the 200 genes with the most positive and negative PC1 loading values. The annotation  
261 was performed using TAIR IDs and selecting Gene Ontology terms from levels 3 and 4 of  
262 Molecular Function and Biological Process categories. All data and code to reproduce the  
263 results in this manuscript are available at <https://github.com/PlantsAndPython/arabidopsis-gene-expression>.

264

## 265 **RESULTS**

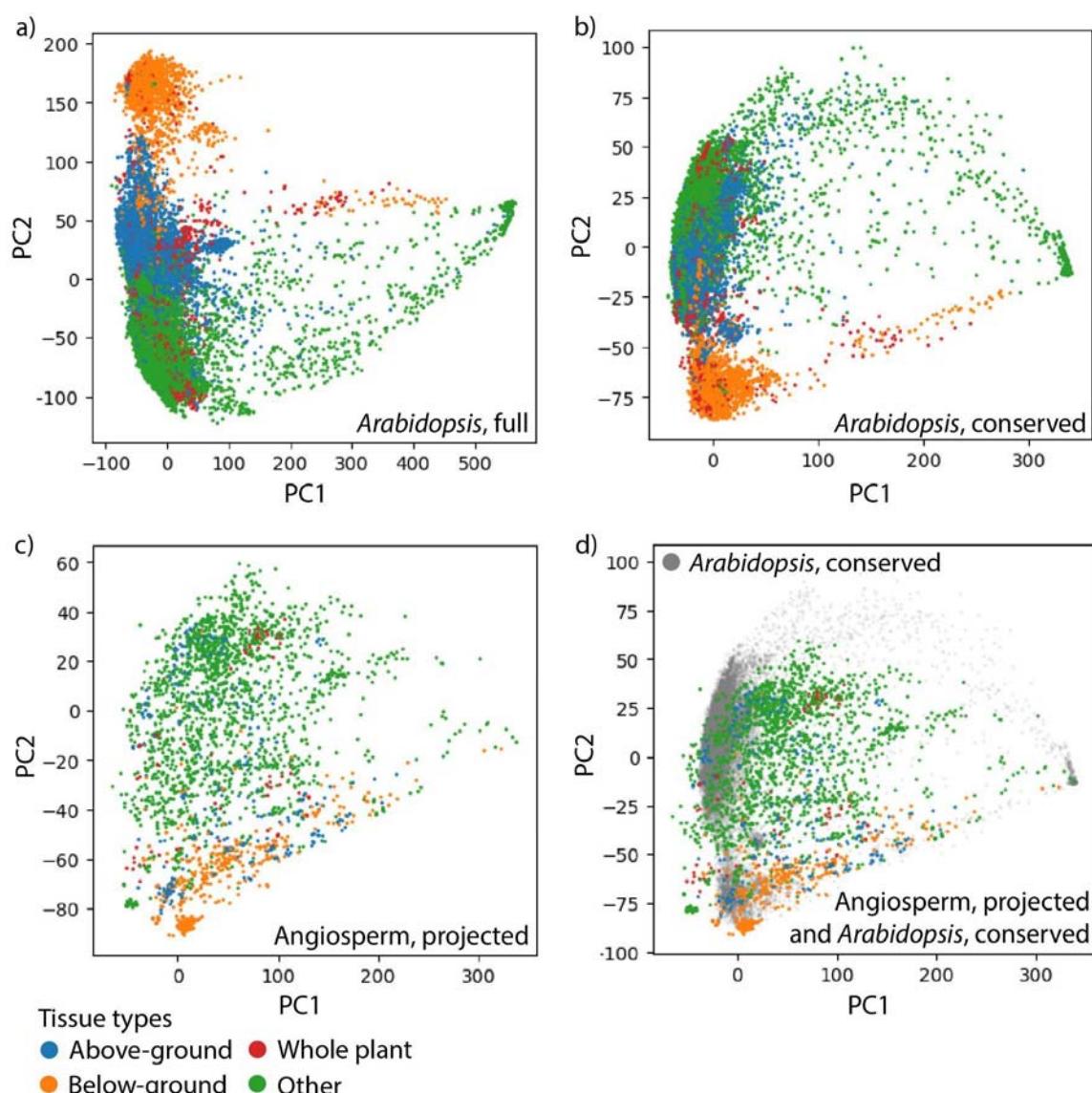
266

### 267 *Dimension reduction and alignment between Arabidopsis and angiosperm gene expression* 268 *datasets*

269

270 A principal component analysis (PCA) performed on the full dataset of 19,415 *Arabidopsis*  
271 RNAseq samples shows a clear separation by tissue type (**Fig. 1a**). For simplicity, we  
272 categorized samples into bins of above-ground, below-ground, whole plant, and other. The  
273 above-ground, below-ground, and other tissue types are well-separated from each other, but the  
274 below-ground tissue has the least overlap with other tissues. The whole plant tissue type,  
275 composed of different combinations of the other tissues, is not well separated, as we would

277 expect. The separation of tissues occurs along a gradient defined by PC2, demonstrating that  
278 tissue type is not the primary source of variance in the data. Rather, a small proportion of  
279 samples are strewn across PC1 in an additive, orthogonal manner, preserving the separation of  
280 tissue types defined by PC2. To investigate the underlying cause responsible for the primary  
281 source of variation in the data, we performed GO enrichment on genes with the most extreme  
282 PC1 loading values that are most responsible for defining PC1. In the full *Arabidopsis* dataset  
283 (**Fig. 1a**), high PC1 values, which include a small number of samples that contribute to a  
284 disproportionate amount of variance in the data, are defined by high expression of genes  
285 associated with response to biotic stress and oxidative damage GO terms (**Table S1**). Low PC1



**Figure 1: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of gene expression profiles.** PCAs with gene expression profiles colored by above-ground (blue), below-ground (orange), whole plant (red), and other (green) tissue types for **a**) the full *Arabidopsis* dataset, **b**) the conserved *Arabidopsis* data set, **c**) the angiosperm dataset projected onto the conserved *Arabidopsis* PCA from b), and **d**) the same as c), but with conserved *Arabidopsis* gene expression profiles in the background (transparent gray).

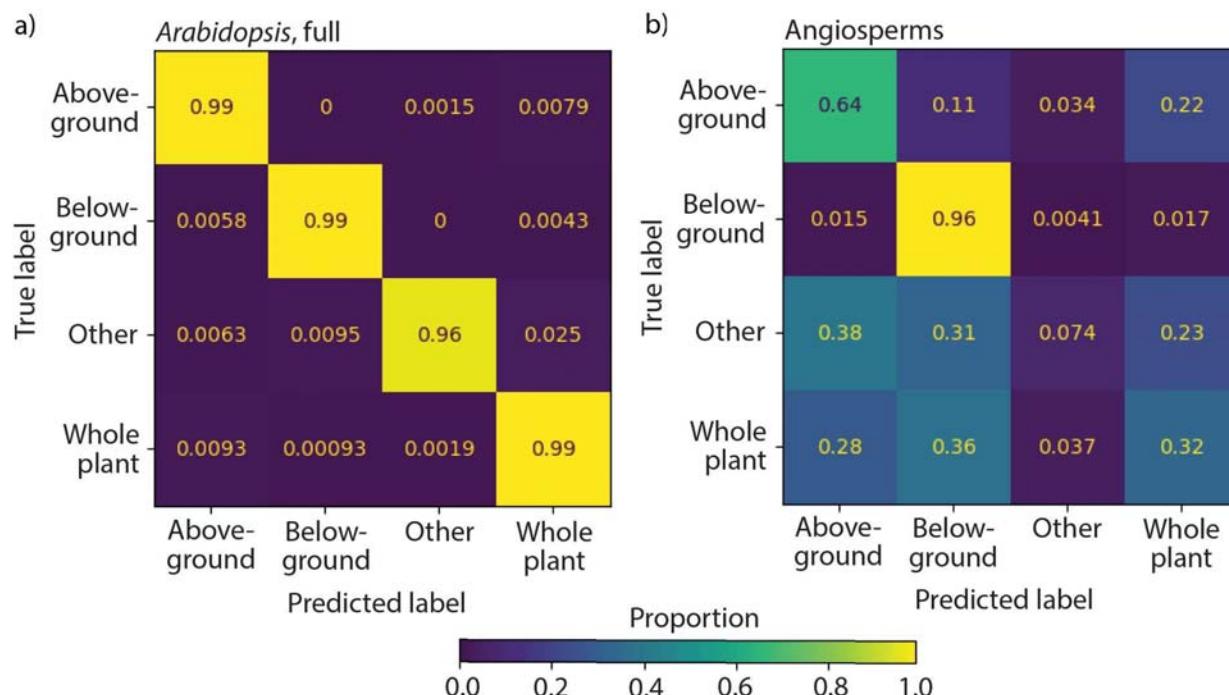
286 values, which include a majority of samples across tissues and which we assume arise from  
287 plants grown under regular conditions associated with the less stress, are defined by high  
288 expression of genes with GO terms associated with biosynthesis, biogenesis, and cell growth.  
289 Remarkably, in the full *Arabidopsis* dataset, negative PC1 loading values are enriched for  
290 glucosinolate biosynthetic and other metabolic processes (FDR <0.05) .  
291

292 From these large-scale datasets, we developed a predictive model to test if tissue type could be  
293 inferred from expression patterns alone and if this *Arabidopsis*-trained model could be  
294 transferred to other flowering plants. We previously created a set of 6,328 low copy orthogroups  
295 that are deeply conserved across flowering plants (Palande et al., 2023) and used a set of 6,327  
296 *Arabidopsis* genes corresponding to these orthogroups for all downstream analyses. A PCA  
297 performed on this subset of 6,327 conserved flowering plant genes shows mostly the same  
298 structure as the analysis with all *Arabidopsis* genes included (Fig. 1b). However, while the  
299 below-ground tissue type remains distinct from the rest of the data, the above-ground tissue  
300 type overlaps more with whole plant and other tissue types. Note that the sign of principal  
301 components is arbitrary, which explains the “flip” of PC2 values relative to the full set of  
302 *Arabidopsis* genes. An analysis of the enriched GO terms for PC1 loading values from the  
303 conserved gene PCA reveals that high PC1 values are associated with biotic responses, but  
304 also with anther- and pollen-related GO terms (Table S1). Low PC1 values are associated  
305 overwhelmingly with photosynthesis. Because the two datasets have corresponding orthogroup  
306 features, we are able to project the angiosperm dataset onto the PCA defined by the conserved  
307 gene *Arabidopsis* dataset (Fig. 1c-d). While the overall structure defining the distributions of  
308 tissue types is maintained in the projected angiosperm data, there is substantial overlap  
309 between above-ground and below-ground tissue types. We conclude that indeed there is  
310 conservation of tissue-specific expression between *Arabidopsis* and the rest of the flowering  
311 plants, but that as expected, the alignment of the underlying structures of gene expression  
312 patterns defining tissue type identity are not identical.  
313

#### 314 *Predictive modeling of plant tissue from gene expression*

315  
316 We used supervised learning classifiers to test if gene expression profiles could predict tissue  
317 type in *Arabidopsis* and if these *Arabidopsis* trained models could be applied more broadly to  
318 flowering plants. We first split the *Arabidopsis* data into testing and training sets with samples  
319 split into four classes of above-ground, below-ground, whole-plant, or other as described above.  
320 Models trained on *Arabidopsis* expression data and used to predict tissue type in *Arabidopsis*,  
321 whether the full or conserved gene datasets, achieved high precision and recall scores. The  
322 highest f1-scores (the harmonic mean of precision and recall) for the full and conserved  
323 datasets were achieved using a K-Nearest Neighbors algorithm (KNN) (0.99 and 0.99,  
324 respectively; Tables 1 and 2) and the lowest using Linear Support Vector Classification (SVC)  
325 (0.78 and 0.75). Histogram-Based Gradient Boosting (HGB) also achieved high f1-scores (0.98  
326 and 0.97) while the results for Random Forest (RF) (0.83 and 0.86) and Multilayer Perceptron  
327 (MLP) (0.83 and 0.82) were intermediate. When used to predict *Arabidopsis* data, the precision  
328 and recall values for each model were similar to each other, indicating similar positive prediction  
329 value (precision, true positives divided by true positives and false positives) and sensitivity

330 (recall, true positives divided by true positives and false negatives). The relative prediction rates  
331 of different tissue types to each other were equivalent for the full *Arabidopsis* dataset (**Fig. 2a**).



**Figure 2: Confusion matrices using the KNN-classifier.** Confusion matrices showing true label identity (vertical axis) and the proportion of samples assigned to predicted label identities (horizontal axis) for **a**) the full *Arabidopsis* dataset and **b**) the angiosperm dataset. Proportion indicated by viridis color scale.

332  
333 The projection of gene expression patterns from across flowering plants onto a PCA using a  
334 conserved set of genes from *Arabidopsis* shows considerable variability (**Fig. 1c-d**). Using  
335 models trained on *Arabidopsis* data and tested on flowering plants, prediction rates are more  
336 similar to each other using different algorithms than *Arabidopsis* alone but perform much worse,  
337 and with higher precision than recall rates (**Table 2**). For KNN, HGB, RF, MLP, and SVC  
338 methods, precision values were 0.73, 0.74, 0.75, 0.73, and 0.70, respectively, whereas the rates  
339 of recall were 0.64, 0.57, 0.57, 0.55, and 0.58. Although these rates are moderately high, they  
340 must be interpreted in the context of using only four tissue type labels. The relatively higher  
341 precision rates compared to recall indicate that when a sample is retrieved, there is a higher  
342 rate of the models calling a true positive (positive prediction value) compared to the fraction of  
343 relevant samples retrieved (sensitivity). The prediction rates across tissue types were not evenly  
344 distributed (**Fig. 2b**). Below-ground tissue was accurately classified, at a rate of 0.96, while  
345 above-ground tissue was only correctly predicted at a rate of 0.64. Other and whole plant tissue  
346 types were classified poorly (0.074 and 0.32, respectively), and almost no samples were  
347 predicted as other tissue type, including other samples themselves. Although the prediction  
348 accuracy varies considerably across plant families (**Fig. 3**), from around 0.4 to 0.8, we could not  
349 identify any phylogenetic signal or find any support that prediction of tissue identity is inversely  
350 correlated with distance of a plant family from *Arabidopsis* in the Brassicaceae.

351

## 352 DISCUSSION

353

### 354 *Arabidopsis*-only models are highly accurate

355

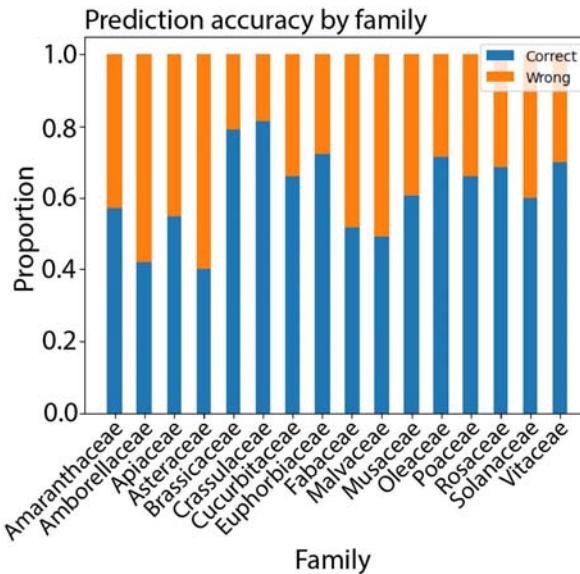
356 Although we focus on tissue identity in this  
357 study, we note that the strongest source of  
358 variance (PC1) in publicly available *Arabidopsis*  
359 gene expression profiles is a signature  
360 associated with biotic defense (**Table S1**) and  
361 that it acts in an additive, orthogonal manner  
362 with respect to tissue type which is the next  
363 strongest source of variance (PC2). Not only  
364 are higher prediction rates expected for the  
365 *Arabidopsis*-only models because the same  
366 dataset is being used for training and testing,  
367 but because of the data structure itself that  
368 separates the main factors we are testing—  
369 above and below ground tissues—as visualized  
370 in a PCA (**Fig. 1a-b**). From this perspective, it is  
371 perhaps not surprising that KNN is the best  
372 performing algorithm, based on the overall  
373 distance-based proximity of gene expression profiles for each label to each other (**Table 1**). The  
374 other methods, based on decision trees or neural networks, by focusing on individual gene  
375 expression values as parameters, fail to account for overall distance. The focus on individual  
376 gene expression values instead of the overall signature or profile is reminiscent of the molecular  
377 biology concept of “biomarkers” to indicate the tissue or stress from which a sample arises. The  
378 outperformance of KNN over other algorithms we tested may suggest that gene expression  
379 signatures (rather than focusing on individual gene expression values) are more valuable to  
380 create models for tissue and cell type prediction.

381

### 382 *Arabidopsis* gene expression as a model for other flowering plants may not be the most suitable 383 approach

384

385 Lower prediction rates are expected when testing a model on different data than its training set  
386 (**Table 2**). However, the lower precision and recall scores when a model trained on *Arabidopsis*  
387 is tested on gene expression samples across the flowering plants undermines the foundational  
388 argument for using model species: that data from *Arabidopsis* would be predictive for plants in  
389 general. This is not to say that there is not substantial conservation of tissue-specific gene  
390 expression patterns. Our own work (Palande et al., 2023) and that of others (Julca et al., 2021)  
391 strongly supports conserved tissue-specific gene expression patterns across flowering plants,  
392 as is true of animals as well (Fukushima and Pollock, 2020). Rather, the ability to leverage and  
393 predict tissue identity from conserved gene expression profiles is diminished when building a  
394 model from a single, arbitrary species.



**Figure 3: Prediction accuracy by plant family.**

Using KNN-classifier on the angiosperm dataset, the proportion of samples correctly (blue) and wrongly (orange) predicted is shown as a stacked bar plot.

395  
396 Details of the performance of our model hint at underlying biological considerations when using  
397 model species data. Not all tissue types are equally predictable, and the prediction of below-  
398 ground tissue outperforms other tissue types (**Fig. 2**). We hypothesized that the ability to predict  
399 tissue identity from *Arabidopsis* may be inversely correlated with phylogenetic distance of a  
400 sample from Brassicaceae, but we found no evidence to support this idea (**Fig. 3**). Additionally,  
401 the precision values for predicting tissue type of flowering plant data from *Arabidopsis* are much  
402 higher than recall values (**Table 2**). This may indicate that models are relatively better at calling  
403 samples with conserved tissue-specificity with *Arabidopsis* (a true positive) over those without (a  
404 false negative). These results may also be a product of our classification scheme. For example,  
405 above and whole plant tissues are often more similar to each other than below ground tissue  
406 because they are missing roots, and might more easily be misclassified with each other. The  
407 other category is composed of diverse tissues which may not have clear predictive features.  
408 These factors should be considered when evaluating the classification results (**Fig. 2**).  
409  
410 Our results potentially arise not only from genes with evolutionary differences in tissue-specific  
411 expression compared to *Arabidopsis*, but ones that may indeed have conserved expression but  
412 differ in the ways we have culturally constructed our developmental descriptions of plant  
413 species. Such a circumstance might arise when the cell type-specific expression of a gene is  
414 truly conserved, but that evolved differences in functional morphology between species lead us  
415 to apply different tissue descriptors (for example, between an herbaceous annual and a woody  
416 perennial, or a CAM succulent compared to a weedy C3 plant). The misalignment of tissue  
417 labels extends to more quantitative descriptors and to the molecular level, including Gene  
418 Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) terms that ultimately  
419 become biased to plants with sequenced genomes (Provart et al., 2016). For example, in our  
420 analysis of genes corresponding to the most positive and most negative PC1 loading values,  
421 there was a noticeable enrichment of genes associated with the glucosinolate biosynthetic and  
422 metabolic pathways in *Arabidopsis* samples (**Table S1**). However, this enrichment was absent  
423 in broader angiosperm samples, as these compounds are found almost exclusively in  
424 Brassicaceae. Glucosinolates are a diverse group of secondary metabolites that play a critical  
425 role in plant defense against herbivores and pathogens. Beyond their defensive role, they seem  
426 to be involved in growth, development, microbiota interactions, and phosphate nutrition  
427 (Kopriva, 2021). Focusing on a single organism, or small group of model species to predict  
428 attributes of all plants is flawed from both biological (arising from evolutionary novelty) as well as  
429 philosophical (due to semantic, ontological, and cultural differences in how we socially construct  
430 plants) perspectives.  
431  
432 *Moving forward and embracing plant and cultural diversity*  
433  
434 *Arabidopsis* was selected as a model species unilaterally, over raised objections, decades ago  
435 arising from mostly genetic and molecular biology considerations (Meyerowitz, 1987; Clough  
436 and Bent, 1998; *Arabidopsis* Genome Initiative, 2000; Bennett et al., 2003; Bevan and Walsh,  
437 2005). Arguments in favor of plant diversity or selecting agricultural or ecological models were  
438 ignored. These past decisions have led to continued focus on *Arabidopsis* and there is

439 continuing advocacy for a plant model species and to fund *Arabidopsis* research at the expense  
440 of plant diversity to this current day (Provart et al., 2016; Parry et al., 2020). Since then, data  
441 science and computational approaches have begun to grow. Retrospectively, after which  
442 decades of sequencing data across flowering plants has allowed us to objectively ask if the  
443 focus on a single, arbitrary plant allows us to predict the biology of other flowering plants better  
444 than if we had studied all plants equally from the start, the answer is no (**Table 2**). Using a data  
445 science approach and building machine learning models on *Arabidopsis* gene expression data  
446 to predict the tissue identity of gene expression samples from across flowering plants as we  
447 have done here, does not preclude the consideration of other, more important qualitative  
448 arguments against the model species concept that continue to limit the potential of the plant  
449 science community. Beyond just *Arabidopsis*, there is still a focus on agriculturally important  
450 species at the expense of all plants (Marks et al., 2023). More insidiously, the social construct of  
451 plants and their diversity arises from colonialism, evidenced not only by the gaze of the Global  
452 North and the plants we have chosen to research and document and how we do so, but in ways  
453 that can be quantified related to the specific discussion of *Arabidopsis* here, specifically which  
454 plant genomes have been sequenced and by whom (Marks et al., 2021), usually through  
455 extinguishing and stealing the cultural knowledge of Indigenous people (Dwer et al., 2022).  
456

457 Useful discoveries and insights have arisen from *Arabidopsis* (Arabidopsis Genome Initiative,  
458 2000). Rather than advocating for continued focus and funding for a single model species  
459 (Provart et al., 2016; Parry et al., 2020), it is long past due that we address the historical  
460 inequities that have led to our current construction of the plant sciences and that we avoid a  
461 biased focus and embrace the biological and cultural diversity of the plant world.  
462

463 **Data availability:** The code, metadata, and raw datasets from this project are available on a  
464 dedicated GitHub page: <https://github.com/PlantsAndPython/arabidopsis-gene-expression>  
465

466 **Acknowledgements:** This work was funded primarily by an NSF-NRT training grant (NSF  
467 1828149) which established the Integrated training Model in Plant And Compu-Tational  
468 Sciences (IMPACTS) program at Michigan State University. This grant funded fellows within this  
469 program as well as the project based curriculum for the Plants and Python Course that formed  
470 the backbone of this manuscript. This work is also supported by NSF Plant Genome Research  
471 Program awards IOS-2310355, IOS-2310356, and IOS-2310357, and NSF Plant, Fungal and  
472 Microbial Developmental Mechanisms award IOS-2039489. This project was supported by the  
473 USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture, and by Michigan State University  
474 AgBioResearch.  
475

## 476 REFERENCES

477  
478 Angiosperm Phylogeny Group, Chase, M.W., Christenhusz, M.J., Fay, M.F., Byng, J.W., Judd,  
479 W.S., Soltis, D.E., Mabberley, D.J., Sennikov, A.N., Soltis, P.S. and Stevens, P.F., 2016. An  
480 update of the Angiosperm Phylogeny Group classification for the orders and families of  
481 flowering plants: APG IV. *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society*, 181(1), pp.1-20.  
482

483 Arabidopsis Genome Initiative, 2000. Analysis of the genome sequence of the flowering plant  
484 *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Nature*, 408(6814), pp.796-815.

485

486 Azodi, C.B., Pardo, J., VanBuren, R., de Los Campos, G. and Shiu, S.H., 2020. Transcriptome-  
487 based prediction of complex traits in maize. *The Plant Cell*, 32(1), pp.139-151.

488

489 Bennett, M.D., Leitch, I.J., Price, H.J. and Johnston, J.S., 2003. Comparisons with  
490 *Caenorhabditis* (approximately 100 Mb) and *Drosophila* (approximately 175 Mb) using flow  
491 cytometry show genome size in *Arabidopsis* to be approximately 157 Mb and thus  
492 approximately 25% larger than the *Arabidopsis* genome initiative estimate of approximately 125  
493 Mb. *Annals of Botany*, 91(5), pp.547-557.

494

495 Bergstra, J., Yamins, D. and Cox, D.D., 2013. Hyperopt: A python library for optimizing the  
496 hyperparameters of machine learning algorithms. In *Proceedings of the 12th Python in Science*  
497 Conference (Vol. 13, p. 20).

498

499 Bevan, M. and Walsh, S., 2005. The *Arabidopsis* genome: a foundation for plant research.  
500 *Genome Research*, 15(12), pp.1632-1642.

501

502 Clough, S.J. and Bent, A.F., 1998. Floral dip: a simplified method for *Agrobacterium*-mediated  
503 transformation of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant Journal*, 16(6), pp.735-743.

504

505 Coppens, F., Wuyts, N., Inzé, D. and Dhondt, S., 2017. Unlocking the potential of plant  
506 phenotyping data through integration and data-driven approaches. *Current Opinion in Systems*  
507 *Biology*, 4, pp.58-63.

508

509 Cortes, C. and Vapnik, V., 1995. Support-vector networks. *Machine Learning*, 20, pp.273-297.

510

511 Cover, T. and Hart, P., 1967. Nearest neighbor pattern classification. *IEEE transactions on*  
512 *Information Theory*, 13(1), pp.21-27.

513

514 Crossa, J., Perez, P., Hickey, J., Burgueno, J., Ornella, L., Cerón-Rojas, J., Zhang, X.,  
515 Dreisigacker, S., Babu, R., Li, Y. and Bonnett, D., 2014. Genomic prediction in CIMMYT maize  
516 and wheat breeding programs. *Heredity*, 112(1), pp.48-60.

517

518 Dwyer, W., Ibe, C.N. and Rhee, S.Y., 2022. Renaming Indigenous crops and addressing  
519 colonial bias in scientific language. *Trends in Plant Science*.

520

521 Fukushima, K. and Pollock, D.D., 2020. Amalgamated cross-species transcriptomes reveal  
522 organ-specific propensity in gene expression evolution. *Nature Communications*, 11(1), p.4459.

523

524 Haykin, S., 1998. *Neural networks: a comprehensive foundation*. Prentice Hall PTR.  
525

526 Ho, T.K., 1995, August. Random decision forests. In *Proceedings of 3rd international*  
527 *conference on document analysis and recognition* (Vol. 1, pp. 278-282). IEEE.

528

529 Hogeweg, P., 2011. The roots of bioinformatics in theoretical biology. *PLoS Computational*  
530 *Biology*, 7(3), p.e1002021.

531

532 Huang, D.W., Sherman, B.T. and Lempicki, R.A., 2009. Systematic and integrative analysis of  
533 large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. *Nature Protocols*, 4(1), pp.44-57.

534

535 Ij, H., 2018. Statistics versus machine learning. *Nat Methods*, 15(4), p.233.

536

537 Julca, I., Ferrari, C., Flores-Tornero, M., Proost, S., Lindner, A.C., Hackenberg, D.,  
538 Steinbachová, L., Michaelidis, C., Gomes Pereira, S., Misra, C.S. and Kawashima, T., 2021.  
539 Comparative transcriptomic analysis reveals conserved programmes underpinning  
540 organogenesis and reproduction in land plants. *Nature Plants*, 7(8), pp.1143-1159.

541

542 Jumper, J., Evans, R., Pritzel, A., Green, T., Figurnov, M., Ronneberger, O., Tunyasuvunakool,  
543 K., Bates, R., Žídek, A., Potapenko, A. and Bridgland, A., 2021. Highly accurate protein  
544 structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature*, 596(7873), pp.583-589.

545

546 Kopriva, S. (2021). Glucosinolates revisited—A follow-up of ABR volume 80: Glucosinolates. In  
547 Advances in Botanical Research (Vol. 100, pp. 249-274). Academic Press.

548

549 Knapp S, Bohs L, Nee M, Spooner DM., 2004. Solanaceae—a model for linking genomics with  
550 biodiversity. *Comparative and Functional Genomics*. Apr;5(3):285-91.

551

552 Li, F.W. and Harkess, A., 2018. A guide to sequence your favorite plant genomes. *Applications*  
553 *in Plant Sciences*, 6(3), p.e1030.

554

555 Lim, P.K., Zheng, X., Goh, J.C. and Mutwil, M., 2022. Exploiting plant transcriptomic databases:  
556 resources, tools, and approaches. *Plant Communications*, p.100323.

557

558 Marks, R.A., Hotaling, S., Frandsen, P.B. and VanBuren, R., 2021. Representation and  
559 participation across 20 years of plant genome sequencing. *Nature Plants*, 7(12), pp.1571-1578.

560

561 Marks, R.A., Amézquita, E.J., Percival, S., Rougon-Cardoso, A., Chibici-Revneanu, C., Tebele,  
562 S.M., Farrant, J.M., Chitwood, D.H., VanBuren, R., 2023. A critical analysis of plant science  
563 literature reveals ongoing inequities. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*

564

565 Mason, L., Baxter, J., Bartlett, P. and Frean, M., 1999. Boosting algorithms as gradient descent.  
566 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 12.

567

568 Mazzocchi, F., 2015. Could Big Data be the end of theory in science? A few remarks on the  
569 epistemology of data-driven science. *EMBO Reports*, 16(10), pp.1250-1255.

570  
571 Meyerowitz, E.M., 1987. *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Annual Review of Genetics*, 21(1), pp.93-111.  
572  
573 Meyerowitz, E.M., 2001. Prehistory and history of *Arabidopsis* research. *Plant Physiology*,  
574 125(1), pp.15-19.  
575  
576 Michael, T.P. and Jackson, S., 2013. The first 50 plant genomes. *The Plant Genome*, 6(2).  
577  
578 Mitchell, C.E., Agrawal, A.A., Bever, J.D., Gilbert, G.S., Hufbauer, R.A., Klironomos, J.N.,  
579 Maron, J.L., Morris, W.F., Parker, I.M., Power, A.G. and Seabloom, E.W., 2006. Biotic  
580 interactions and plant invasions. *Ecology Letters*, 9(6), pp.726-740.  
581  
582 Palande, S., Kaste, J.A., Roberts, M.D., Aba, K.S., Claucherty, C., Dacon, J., Doko, R.,  
583 Jayakody, T.B., Jeffery, H.R., Kelly, N. and Manousidaki, A., 2023. The topological shape of  
584 gene expression across the evolution of flowering plants. *PLOS Biology*.  
585  
586 Parry, G., Provart, N.J., Brady, S.M., Uzilday, B., Multinational *Arabidopsis* Steering Committee,  
587 Adams, K., Araújo, W., Aubourg, S., Baginsky, S., Bakker, E. and Bärenfaller, K., 2020. Current  
588 status of the multinational *Arabidopsis* community. *Plant Direct*, 4(7), p.e00248.  
589  
590 Proost, S. and Mutwil, M., 2018. CoNekT: an open-source framework for comparative genomic  
591 and transcriptomic network analyses. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 46(W1), pp.W133-W140.  
592  
593 Provart, N.J., Alonso, J., Assmann, S.M., Bergmann, D., Brady, S.M., Brkljacic, J., Browse, J.,  
594 Chapple, C., Colot, V., Cutler, S. and Dangl, J., 2016. 50 years of *Arabidopsis* research:  
595 highlights and future directions. *New Phytologist*, 209(3), pp.921-944.  
596  
597 Sultan, S.E., 2000. Phenotypic plasticity for plant development, function and life history. *Trends  
598 in Plant Science*, 5(12), pp.537-542.  
599  
600 Strable J, Scanlon MJ., 2009. Maize (*Zea mays*): a model organism for basic and applied  
601 research in plant biology. *Cold Spring Harb Protoc*. Oct 1;10(2009):pdb-emo132.  
602  
603 Yu, Y., Zhang, H., Long, Y., Shu, Y. and Zhai, J., 2022. Plant public RNA-seq database: a  
604 comprehensive online database for expression analysis of~ 45 000 plant public RNA-seq  
605 libraries. *Plant Biotechnology Journal*, 20(5), p.806.  
606  
607 Zhang, N., Wang, M. and Wang, N., 2002. Precision agriculture—a worldwide overview.  
608 *Computers and Electronics in Agriculture*, 36(2-3), pp.113-132.  
609  
610 Zhang, H., Zhang, F., Yu, Y., Feng, L.I., Jia, J., Liu, B.O., Li, B., Guo, H. and Zhai, J., 2020. A  
611 comprehensive online database for exploring~ 20,000 public *Arabidopsis* RNA-seq libraries.  
612 *Molecular Plant*, 13(9), pp.1231-1233.

613 **Tables**

614

615 **Table 1: Classification performance of models trained on the full *Arabidopsis* dataset.**

616

Model	Precision	Recall	f1-score
SVC	0.765131	0.80103	0.777531
MLP	0.843599	0.844979	0.832854
RF	0.845664	0.826609	0.833746
HGB	0.976665	0.976481	0.976319
KNN	0.98921	0.989185	0.989193

617

618 **Table 2: Classification performance of models trained on the conserved *Arabidopsis***

619 **dataset and tested on conserved *Arabidopsis* or Angiosperm datasets.**

620

Model	Test Set	Precision	Recall	f1-score
SVC	Arabidopsis	0.740855	0.778026	0.754276
	Angiosperm	0.695691	0.576189	0.591683
MLP	Arabidopsis	0.822682	0.828155	0.824351
	Angiosperm	0.734603	0.547361	0.611767
RF	Arabidopsis	0.862941	0.864721	0.861927
	Angiosperm	0.747272	0.569075	0.622122
HGB	Arabidopsis	0.971034	0.970987	0.970574
	Angiosperm	0.741902	0.567952	0.640741
KNN	Arabidopsis	0.987804	0.987811	0.987803
	Angiosperm	0.733478	0.643205	0.663313

621

622 **Figure Legends**

623

624 **Figure 1: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of gene expression profiles.** PCAs with

625 gene expression profiles colored by above-ground (blue), below-ground (orange), whole plant

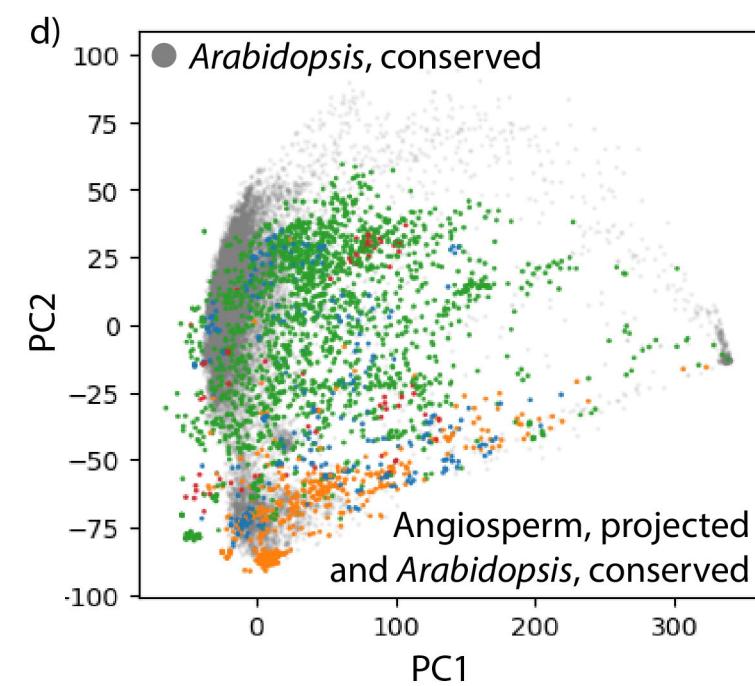
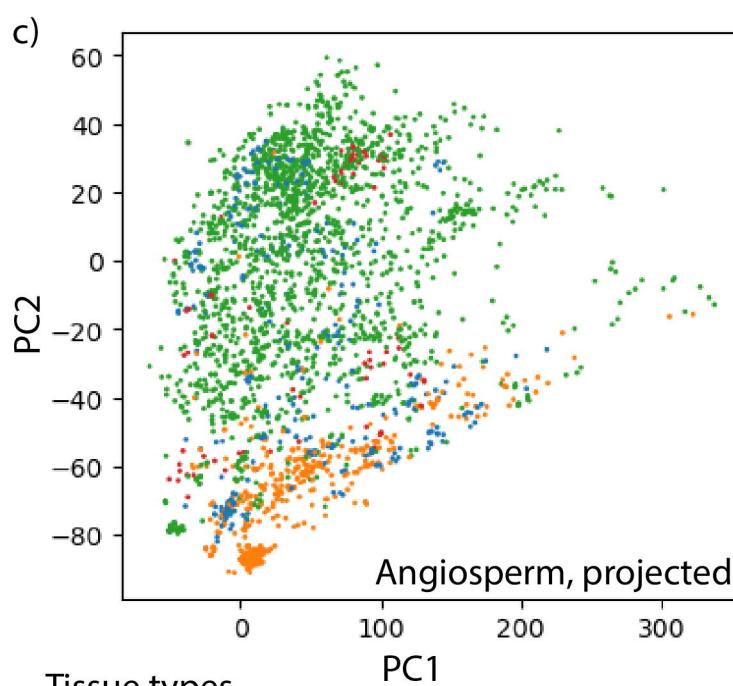
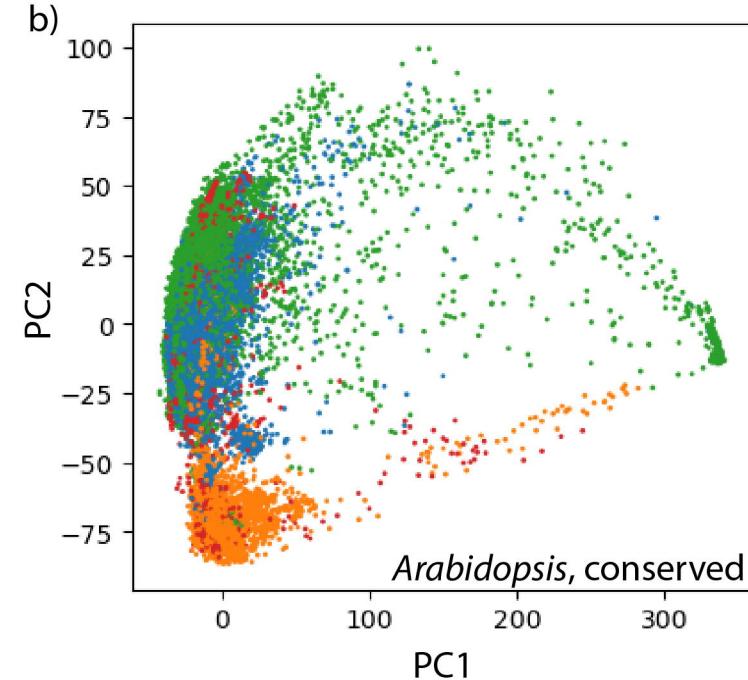
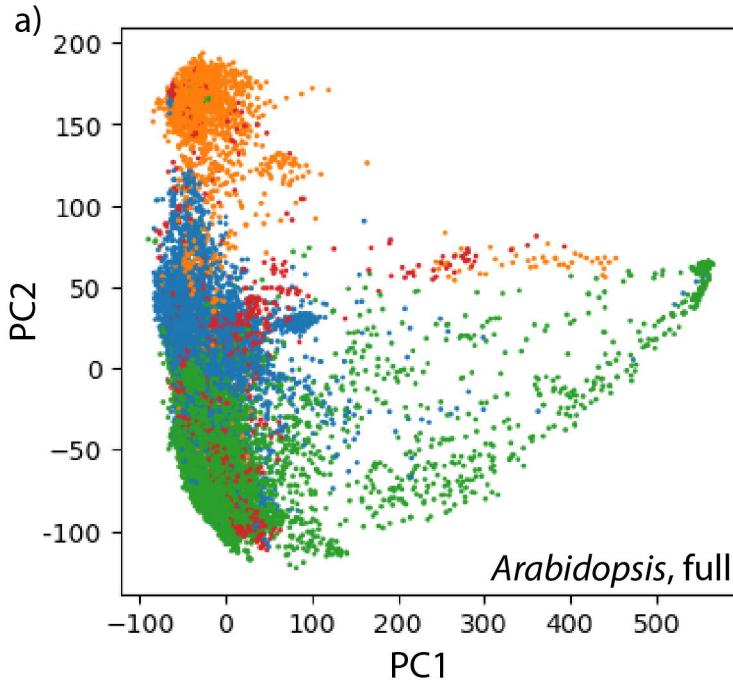
626 (red), and other (green) tissue types for **a**) the full *Arabidopsis* dataset, **b**) the conserved  
627 *Arabidopsis* data set, **c**) the angiosperm dataset projected onto the conserved *Arabidopsis* PCA  
628 from b), and **d**) the same as c), but with conserved *Arabidopsis* gene expression profiles in the  
629 background (transparent gray).

630

631 **Figure 2: Confusion matrices using the KNN-classifier.** Confusion matrices showing true  
632 label identity (vertical axis) and the proportion of samples assigned to predicted label identities  
633 (horizontal axis) for **a**) the full *Arabidopsis* dataset and **b**) the angiosperm dataset. Proportion  
634 indicated by viridis color scale.

635

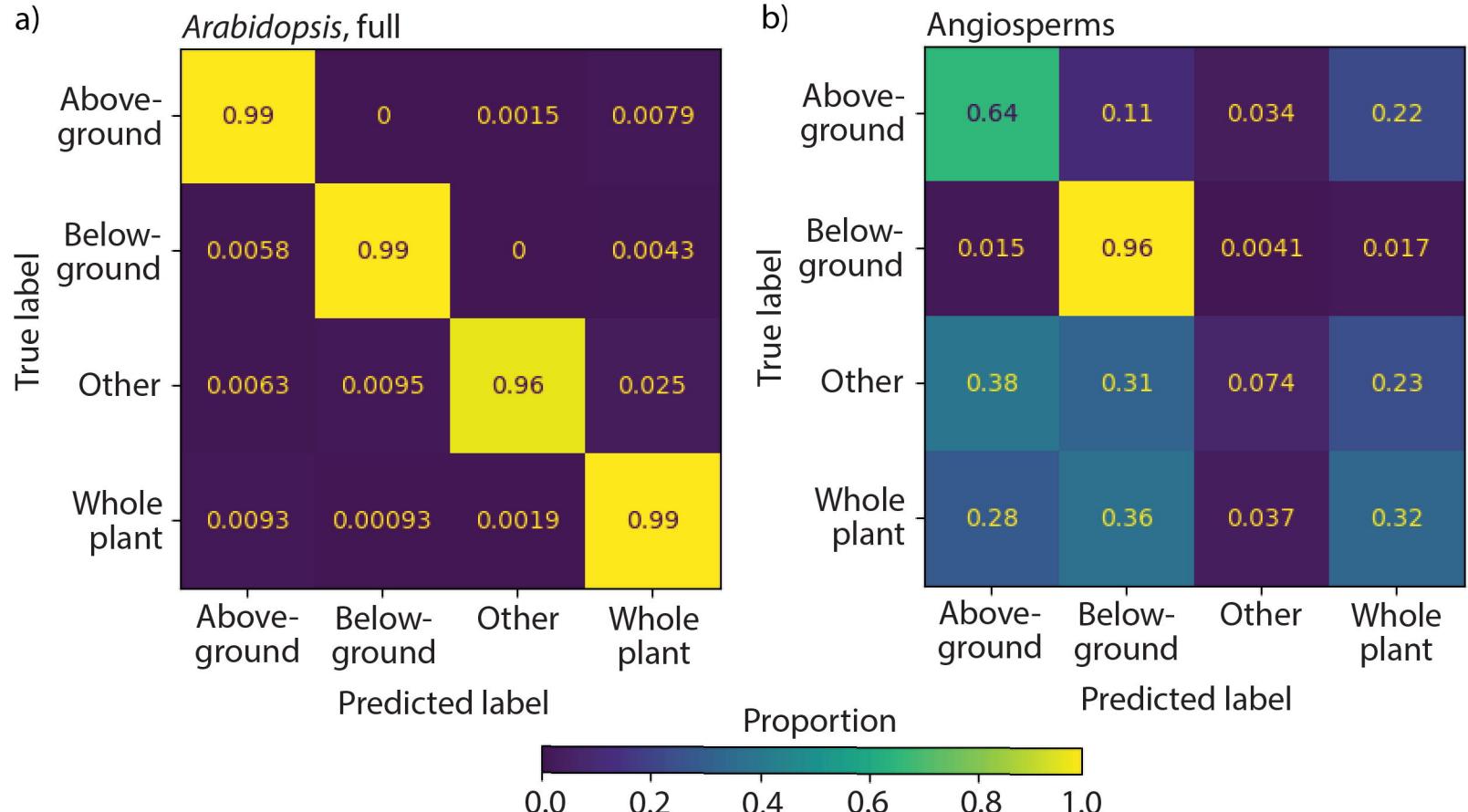
636 **Figure 3: Prediction accuracy by plant family.** Using KNN-classifier on the angiosperm  
637 dataset, the proportion of samples correctly (blue) and wrongly (orange) predicted from  
638 *Arabidopsis* data is shown as a stacked bar plot.



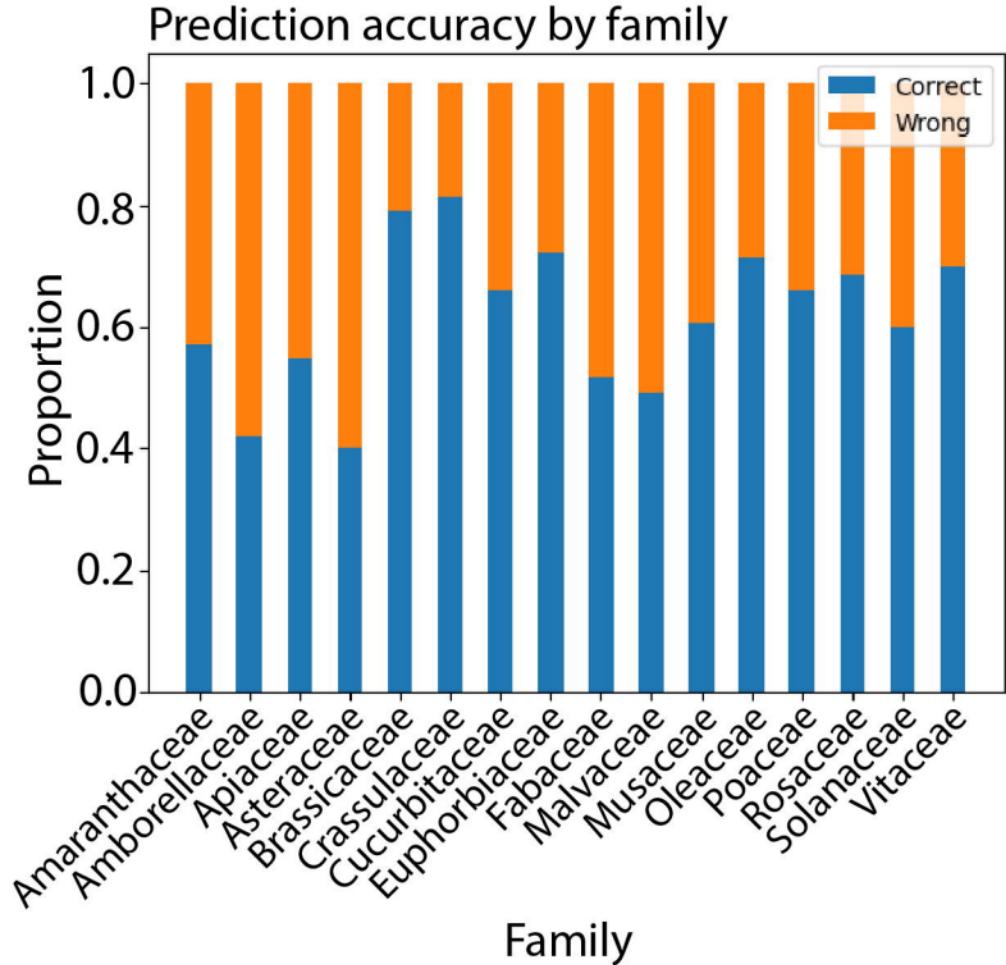
Tissue types

- Above-ground
- Whole plant
- Below-ground
- Other

**Figure 1: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of gene expression profiles.** PCAs with gene expression profiles colored by above-ground (blue), below-ground (orange), whole plant (red), and other (green) tissue types for **a)** the full *Arabidopsis* dataset, **b)** the conserved *Arabidopsis* data set, **c)** the angiosperm dataset projected onto the conserved *Arabidopsis* PCA from **b**), and **d)** the same as **c**), but with conserved *Arabidopsis* gene expression profiles in the background (transparent gray).



**Figure 2: Confusion matrices using the KNN-classifier.** Confusion matrices showing true label identity (vertical axis) and the proportion of samples assigned to predicted label identities (horizontal axis) for **a)** the full *Arabidopsis* dataset and **b)** the angiosperm dataset. Proportion indicated by viridis color scale.



**Figure 3: Prediction accuracy by plant family.**

Using KNN-classifier on the angiosperm dataset, the proportion of samples correctly (blue) and wrongly (orange) predicted is shown as a stacked bar plot.