

Sequence, Structure and Functional space of *Drosophila de novo* proteins

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Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Abstract

During *de novo* emergence, new protein coding genes emerge from previously non-genic sequences. The *de novo* proteins they encode are dissimilar in composition and predicted biochemical properties to conserved proteins. However, many functional *de novo* proteins indeed exist. Both identification of functional *de novo* proteins and their structural characterisation are experimentally laborious. To identify functional and structured *de novo* proteins *in silico*, we applied recently developed machine learning based tools and refined the results for *de novo* proteins. We found that most *de novo* proteins are indeed different from conserved proteins both in their structure and sequence. However, some *de novo* proteins are predicted to adopt known protein folds, participate in cellular reactions, and to form biomolecular condensates. Apart from broadening our understanding of *de novo* protein evolution, our study also provides a large set of testable hypotheses for focused experimental studies on structure and function of *de novo* proteins in *Drosophila*.

keywords: *de novo* proteins, protein function, structural comparison, protein structure, structure predictions, sequence space

1 Introduction

2 Once considered impossible [Zuckerlandl, 1975, Jacob, 1977], many lines of evidence suggest
3 that functional proteins can emerge from random sequences that have not been subjected to sev-
4 eral generations of evolution [Keefe and Szostak, 2001, Hecht et al., 2004, Babina et al., 2023]. For
5 example, high throughput selection experiments with a large number of random sequences have
6 shown, that some random proteins can mitigate auxotrophy [the inability to metabolize nutrients;
7 Knopp et al., 2021], provide resistance against toxins [Frumkin and Laub, 2023], and even cat-
8 alyze biochemical reactions [Chao et al., 2013, Yamauchi et al., 2002]. In accordance with the fact
9 that protein folding is often a critical requirement for protein function, many random proteins have
10 been also shown to have secondary structures [Davidson and Sauer, 1994, Davidson et al., 1995,
11 Tretyachenko et al., 2017, Surdo et al., 2004, Mansy et al., 2007]. *De novo* emergence is a phe-
12 nomenon through which novel protein coding genes arise from non-genic regions of the genome
13 [Tautz and Domazet-Lošo, 2011, Carvunis et al., 2012, Oss and Carvunis, 2019, Vakirlis et al.,
14 2020a, Bornberg-Bauer et al., 2021, Schmitz and Bornberg-Bauer, 2017]. The *de novo* proteins
15 thus emerged have been considered to be the natural equivalent of random sequences, because
16 they emerge from supposedly “random” intergenic regions, and some of their predicted properties
17 such as length, structural disorder and aggregation propensity, resemble that of random proteins,
18 more than that of conserved proteins [Heames et al., 2023, Bornberg-Bauer et al., 2021, Ángyán
19 et al., 2012, Bhave and Tautz, 2021, Castro and Tautz, 2021, Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Aubel
20 et al., 2024]. For example, *de novo* proteins in *Drosophila*, are predicted to be more disordered than
21 conserved proteins [Heames et al., 2020, Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Peng and Zhao, 2023],
22 which can be partially explained due to higher GC content of the former [Landry et al., 2015, Zheng
23 and Zhao, 2022]. While the structure of large sets of *de novo* proteins have been computationally
24 analyzed [Schmitz et al., 2018, Heames et al., 2020, Peng and Zhao, 2023, Basile et al., 2017,
25 Chen et al., 2023, Vakirlis et al., 2020b], the structures of only four *de novo* proteins have been
26 experimentally approximated [Lange et al., 2021, Bungard et al., 2017, Baalsrud et al., 2018, Mat-
27 suo et al., 2021]. Determining the function of *de novo* genes and proteins is another challenging
28 task. It involves identifying the cell types and stages in which *de novo* proteins may be involved
29 and testing their phenotypic effects using genetic tools [Chen et al., 2010a, Gubala et al., 2017,
30 Lange et al., 2021, Reinhardt et al., 2013]. Nonetheless, functional *de novo* proteins indeed exist
31 and have been identified in organisms as diverse as insects, plants (*Arabidopsis thaliana*), fungi

32 (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), arctic codfish , mice (*Mus musculus*) and humans (*Homo sapiens*)
33 [[McLysaght and Guerzoni, 2015](#), [Li et al., 2009](#), [Cai et al., 2008](#), [Chen et al., 2010a](#), [Gubala et al.,](#)
34 [2017](#), [Lange et al., 2021](#), [Zhuang et al., 2019](#), [Reinhardt et al., 2013](#), [Heinen et al., 2009](#), [Li et al.,](#)
35 [2010a](#), [Xie et al., 2019](#), [Li et al., 2014](#), [Vakirlis et al., 2022](#), [Linnenbrink et al., 2024](#), [Klasberg et al.,](#)
36 [2018](#), [Li et al., 2010b](#), [Matsuo et al., 2021](#), [Rivard et al., 2021](#), [Begun et al., 2007](#)]. Experimental
37 structure determination is a laborious process that cannot be performed in a high throughput
38 manner. This is especially difficult for *de novo* proteins because of high aggregation propensity
39 and low solubility *in vitro* [[Eicholt et al., 2022](#)]. Despite the increasing numbers of solved struc-
40 tures, novel structures, whether they be folds or domains, were rarely ever found [[Grant et al.,](#)
41 [2004](#), [Levitt, 2009](#), [Tóth-Petróczy and Tawfik, 2014](#)]. However, the recent advancements in high-
42 throughput structure predictions through computational techniques, have led to discovery of novel
43 folds [[Durairaj et al., 2023](#)]. Since *de novo* proteins are void of ancestry from conserved protein
44 families, they could provide rare structural novelty [[Bornberg-Bauer et al., 2021](#)]. From another per-
45 spective, the occurrence of conserved or ancient structural folds in *de novo* proteins could suggest
46 a high level of evolutionary accessibility in sequence space. This might explain the emergence
47 of these folds during the early stages of protein evolution [[Lupas et al., 2001](#), [Kopec and Lupas,](#)
48 [2013](#), [Alva et al., 2010, 2015](#), [Romero Romero et al., 2016](#)]. A protein's structure can provide some
49 clues about its function [[Orengo et al., 1999](#)]. For example, one can reasonably guess the func-
50 tion of an uncharacterized protein by comparing its structure to that of a known functional protein
51 [[Nomburg et al., 2024](#)]. Although, protein function is often attributed to its structure, and unfolded
52 proteins were assumed to be toxic, many studies show that disordered proteins can be functional
53 [[Deiana et al., 2019](#), [Jemth et al., 2018](#), [Ali and Ivarsson, 2018](#)]. For example, disordered proteins
54 can help form intracellular condensates (or membrane less organelles) that have been shown to
55 play a major role in the cellular physiology of diverse organisms [[Lin et al., 2017](#), [Hyman et al.,](#)
56 [2014](#)]. Because *de novo* proteins could be a source of novelty, with regards to both structure and
57 function, we aimed to understand their structures and possible functions through computational
58 analyses. To this end, we studied a previously characterized set of 2510 putative *de novo* pro-
59 teins from the *Drosophila* clade [[Heames et al., 2020](#), [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024](#)]. We used
60 a multi-faceted approach analyze these *de novo* proteins. First, we used Foldseek [[van Kempen](#)
61 [et al., 2023](#)] to find experimentally known protein structures [Protein Data Bank, [Berman et al.,](#)
62 [2000](#)] and predicted protein structures [AlphaFold database, [Varadi et al., 2021](#)] that are similar
63 to the AlphaFold2 (AF2) [[Jumper et al., 2021](#)] predicted structures of our *de novo* proteins. Sec-

64 ond, we predicted the functions of our *de novo* proteins using DeepFRI [Gligorijević et al., 2021],
65 a machine learning-based tool that predicts functional annotations (gene ontology terms) using
66 protein structure and sequence features. Because many of our *de novo* proteins were predicted to
67 be disordered *de novo* proteins, we hypothesized that they could form biomolecular condensates
68 [Uversky, 2017]. To test this hypothesis, we predicted the condensate forming propensity of our
69 *de novo* using PICNIC [Hadarovich et al., 2023], an algorithm that is based on predicted structure
70 (AlphaFold2), predicted disorder (IUPred2A), as well as sequence complexity. Understanding the
71 condensate forming behavior of *de novo* proteins would elucidate their potential involvement in the
72 formation of membraneless organelles, offering an evolutionarily and biophysically feasible mech-
73 anism for their integration with the cellular physiology. Finally, we mapped the *de novo* proteins on
74 the protein sequence space in relation to random and conserved proteins. To this end, we used
75 protein language models that can predict several biophysical features from sequences, embedding
76 their abstracted properties in the form of numerical values [Lin et al., 2023]. Our method allowed
77 us to map different sequences with better resolution than by the analyses of individual properties
78 separately [Weidmann et al., 2019, Agozzino and Dill, 2018, Heames et al., 2023, Aibel et al.,
79 2024]. With these multi-faceted analyses we found that some *de novo* proteins can indeed adopt
80 structures similar to known proteins and can have possible cellular activities including localization
81 to specific organelles. We also found that some *de novo* proteins are likely to form biomolecular
82 condensates. However, with our language model analysis we found that the majority of *de novo*
83 proteins look distinct from conserved proteins of similar length, and resemble more the random
84 proteins. Overall, our work enhances our understanding of how *de novo* proteins can not only
85 develop features already known to the living systems, but can also be a source for evolutionary
86 novelty.

87 Results

88 A few *de novo* proteins can indeed adopt known structures

89 To understand if *de novo* proteins can form known protein structures, we compared their predicted
90 structure to that of conserved proteins. Recent studies have shown that structure predictions are
91 not very reliable for *de novo* proteins [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Aubel et al., 2023, Liu et al.,
92 2023], and that many predicted structures are also thermodynamically unstable [Peng and Zhao,
93 2023]. Therefore, we refined the predicted structures of *Drosophila de novo* proteins from our pre-
94 vious study Middendorf and Eicholt [2024], using molecular dynamics simulations, performing 3
95 replicate simulations per protein for 100ns. We thus refined the predicted structures of 1,468 *de*
96 *novo* proteins. Our MD simulations suggest that most *de novo* proteins exhibit structural flexibil-
97 ity, as indicated by the large root mean square deviation (RMSD) values (Figure Figure 1A and
98 Figure S3). Next, we searched for conserved proteins that have predicted structures similar to
99 those of *de novo* proteins, using Foldseek [van Kempen et al., 2023]. Specifically, with MD refined
100 structures as queries, and the AFDB50 [Varadi et al., 2021] as the target, we observed that the
101 majority of *de novo* proteins did not have a significant structural similarity to the conserved proteins
102 in AFDB50 (TM score <0.5, Figure 1B). This was also the case for AF2 predicted structures of *de*
103 *novo* and random proteins without MD simulations (Figure S1 and Figure S2). This observation,
104 supports the *de novo* status of our proteins, aligning with the notion that structure is more con-
105 served than sequence [Illergård et al., 2009]. To investigate whether these *de novo* proteins can
106 adopt known structures, we performed structural mapping of *de novo* proteins with experimentally
107 validated structures in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) [Berman et al., 2000], using Foldseek. We
108 then extracted the ECOD domain annotations for matches found in the PDB [Cheng et al., 2014].
109 Out of the 1,468 *de novo* proteins analyzed, 42 showed structural alignment with proteins having an
110 architecture annotation in ECOD (Figure 1C). Prior to MD simulation, 119 predicted structures were
111 mappable to PDB structures (Figure S1). Figure 1D presents examples of these findings consisting
112 of a structurally unalignable *de novo* protein, one similar to an SH3 fold, and another resembling an
113 HTH fold. Both SH3 and HTH folds are considered highly conserved and ancient folds [Kishan and
114 Agrawal, 2005, Alvarez-Carreño et al., 2021, Rosinski and Atchley, 1999, Grishin, 2000]. These
115 three example proteins have emerged less than 5 million years ago (mya) [Heames et al., 2020].
116 Overall, our structure search analysis shows that, while most *de novo* proteins are likely to have

¹¹⁷ novel or uncommon structures, a minority of them can indeed adopt well known protein structures.

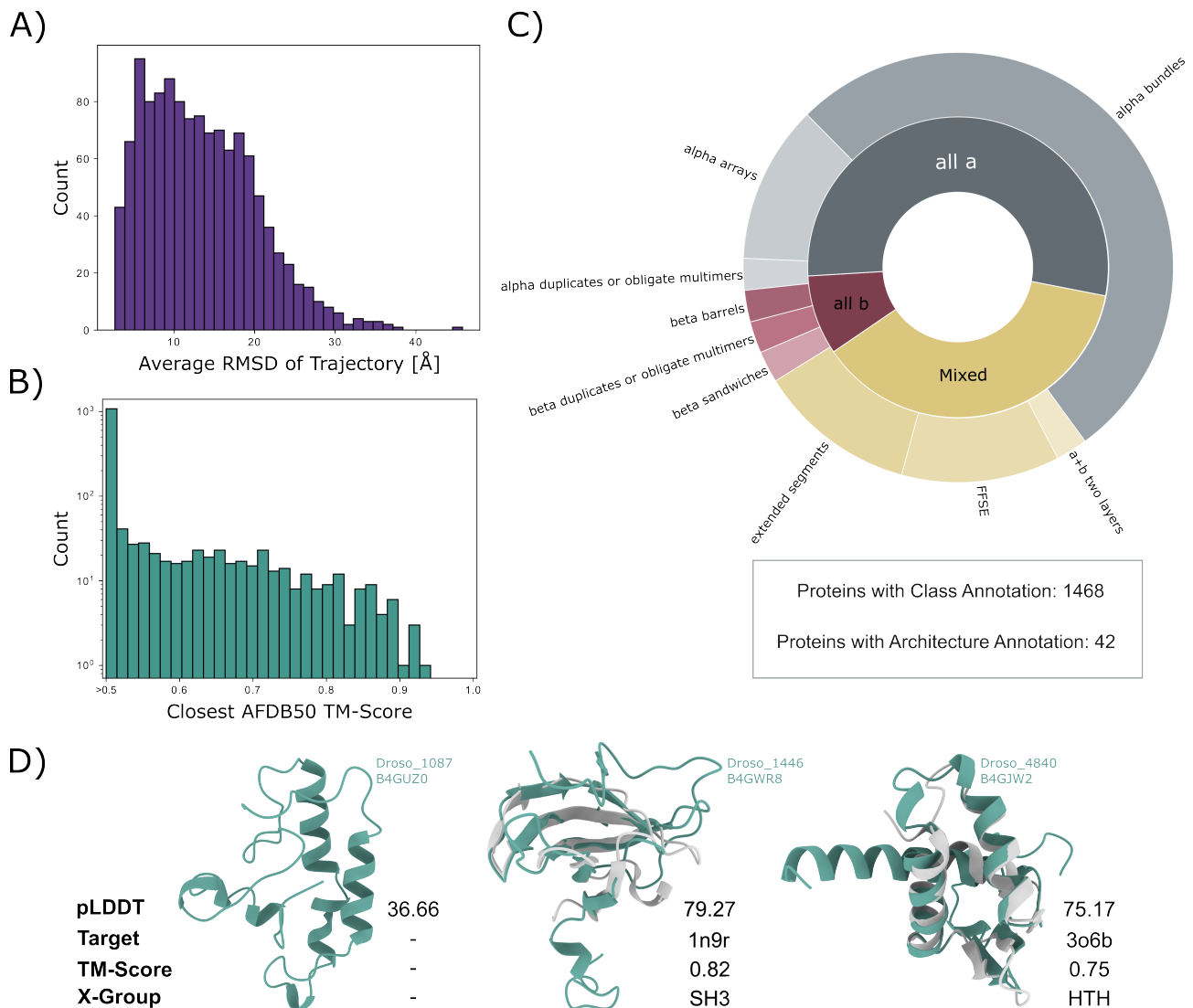


Figure 1: Structural diversity of *de novo* evolved proteins. (A) Distribution of the average root mean square deviation (RMSD, horizontal axis) per MD simulation trajectory. We display the average RMSD of three MD simulation replicates per *de novo* protein, only for proteins with i) less than 30% disorder predicted by fIDPnn, and ii) less than 95% of their residues annotated as α -helices via DSSP (1468 of 2510 proteins). (B) Distribution of the TM-score (horizontal axis) for the mapping of *de novo* proteins (MD-refined structures) to the most similar protein structure in the AlphaFold database (AFDB50), excluding proteins from *Drosophila*. TM-scores below 0.5 indicate no similarity to any protein structure in the AlphaFold database. (C) Structural classification of *de novo* proteins. We assigned a structural class to each of the 1468 *de novo* proteins based on the DSSP annotations of their predicted structures (inner circle). To identify annotated protein domains in *de novo* proteins, we aligned their MD refined structures to structures in the PDB. We assigned each *de novo* protein with the ECOD domain of its highest scoring hit from the PDB, given the TM-score was greater than 0.5 and the alignment covered at least 80% of the PDB target. We assigned the 42 *de novo* proteins, that qualified the above criteria, with an ECOD domain from multiple domain architectures (outer circle). (C) Examples of *de novo* proteins without structural similarity to proteins in the AlphaFold database (Droso_1087), or with similar structure to an ECOD X-group (Droso_1446 & Droso_4840; aligned with their closest hit in the PDB).

118 **Some *de novo* proteins may bind to nucleic acids, and are predicted to have** 119 **enzymatic activities**

120 Information on biological activities and functions, is available for only a handful of *de novo* proteins
121 [Bornberg-Bauer et al., 2021, Weisman, 2022]. The existence and gain of biological activity would
122 be critical factor determining the evolutionary fixation of *de novo* proteins. However, the lack of
123 homology, makes functional annotation challenging. Therefore, we used DeepFRI to functionally
124 annotate *de novo* proteins with Gene Ontology (GO) terms. Unlike homology based techniques,
125 DeepFRI combines a protein language model, trained on the sequences of PFAM domains, and a
126 graph convolutional network that represents amino acid interactions derived from protein structure
127 [Gligorijević et al., 2021]. DeepFRI is also trained on the GO terms associated with different struc-
128 tures. We did not filter protein sequences according to any structural criteria, because DeepFRI
129 can de-noise predicted protein structures [Gligorijević et al., 2021]. We summarized and clustered
130 the predicted GO terms based on their semantic similarity, and projected them in a 2-dimensional
131 semantic space using REVIGO [Supek et al., 2011] (Figure 2A & B). We identified these GO term
132 clusters visually and manually annotated them based on the GO terms within the cluster. We per-
133 formed this analysis for both *de novo* and random proteins. With our analysis, we found that a small
134 fraction of *de novo* and random proteins could be confidently annotated with GO terms for all the
135 three GO classes (Molecular Function, Biological Process, and Cellular Component; Figure 2C).
136 The GO term class *Cellular Component* had the highest fraction of confident predictions with $\approx 31\%$
137 and $\approx 17\%$ for *de novo* and random proteins, respectively. However, we could not find any overarch-
138 ing GO terms within the cellular component category, for both *de novo* and random proteins. This
139 suggests that both these kind of proteins can localize to many different cellular compartments.
140 Specifically, we found that these proteins, can possibly localize to the following compartments:
141 nucleus (GO:0005634), mitochondrion (GO:0005739), vesicles (GO:0031982), and membranes
142 (GO:0016020).

143 Both *de novo* proteins and random sequences both show a broad variety of GO terms in other two
144 GO classes with only a few prominent clusters within the semantic space (Figure 2A & B). Inter-
145 estingly, *de novo* proteins and random sequences appear to have similar molecular functions and
146 to be involved in similar categories of biological processes. Regarding their molecular function,
147 they both showed multiple GO terms in relation to “hydrolase activity”, “transferase activity”, and
148 “nucleic acid binding”. The biological processes in which *de novo* proteins and random sequences

149 are both predicted to be involved were “stimuli response”, “regulation” and “transport”. Next, we
150 analyzed the impact of evolutionary age on functional annotation using GO terms. As young *de*
151 *nov* proteins were more frequent than older proteins in the dataset, we normalized the number of
152 proteins with predicted GO terms to the number of proteins in the respective age group. In all three
153 categories of GO terms, the oldest *de novo* proteins (emerged >30 Mya) were more often predicted
154 with a GO term, than younger proteins (Figure 2D). Only for the GO term category *Cellular Com-*
155 *ponent*, old *de novo* proteins were annotated more frequently than expected by chance (Pearson’s
156 χ^2 -Test; $P < 10^{-10}$).

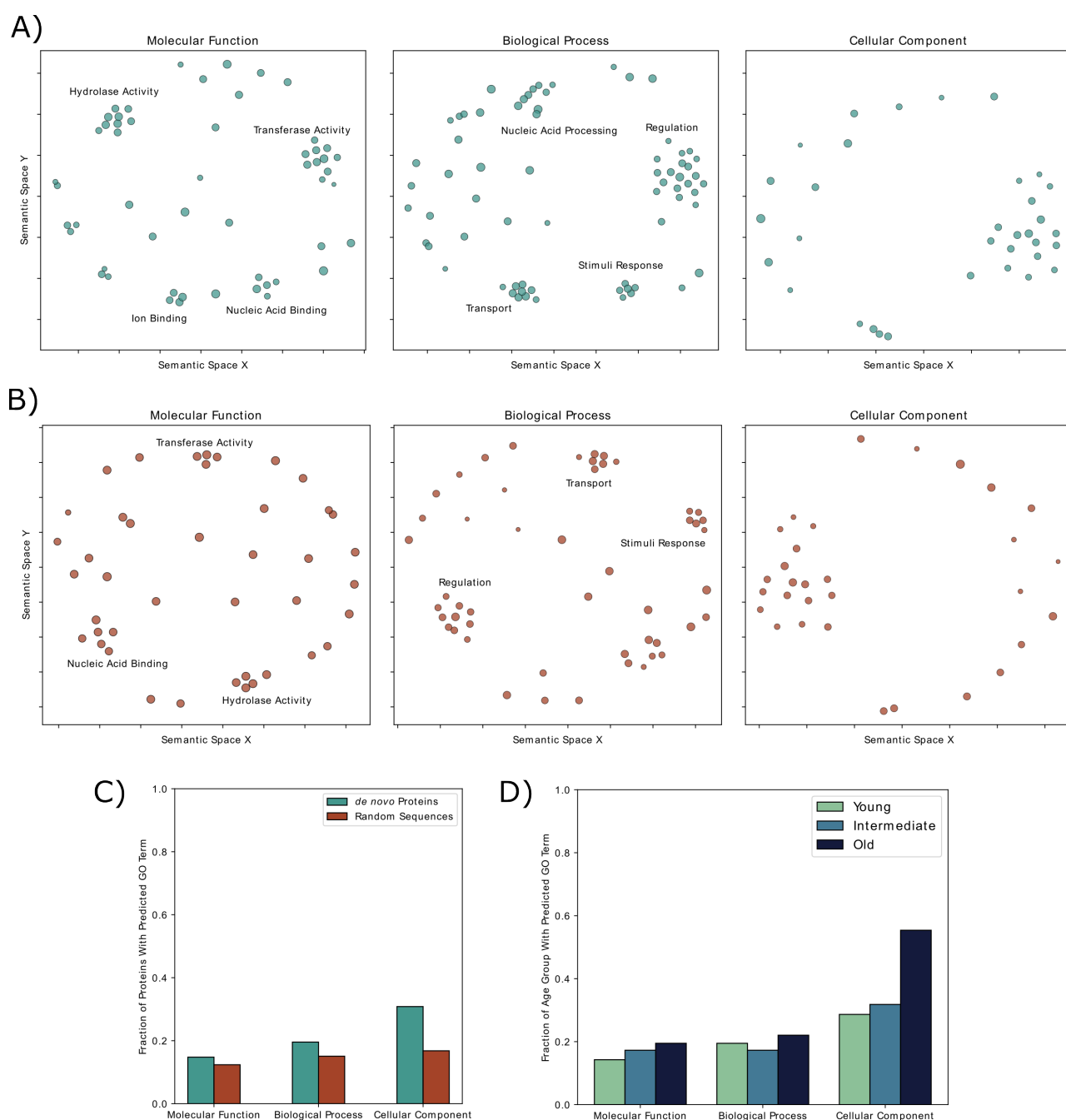


Figure 2: GO terms of random and *de novo* proteins predicted with DeepFRI

We predicted GO terms of *de novo* proteins (A) and random sequences (B) with DeepFRI and clustered them based on semantic similarity with REVIGO. We visually identified GO term clusters manually annotated with a generic term that describes all the GO terms within the respective cluster. (C) Fraction of *de novo* and random proteins (vertical axis) predicted with a GO term per GO term category (horizontal axis). (D) Fraction of *de novo* proteins in different age groups (vertical axis) with a predicted GO term (horizontal axis). *Old de novo* proteins were significantly more often annotated with a GO term in the *Cellular Component* category than expected by chance (Pearson's χ^2 -Test; $P < 10^{-10}$).

157 **Subset of *de novo* proteins may form biomolecular condensates**

158 Biomolecular condensates are membraneless compartments formed by proteins via liquid-liquid
159 phase separation, and are involved in several biological processes such as stress response and
160 regulation of transcription [Tsang et al., 2020, Hyman et al., 2014]. We observed that that GO
161 terms concerning RNA binding, transferase activity, and hydrolase activity that predicted for *de*
162 *novo* proteins (Figure 2), are also important features of condensate-forming proteins [Hadarovich
163 et al., 2023]. Therefore, we predicted the propensity of *de novo* proteins for condensate-formation.
164 To this end, we used another prediction tool called PICNIC [Hadarovich et al., 2023]. However, PIC-
165 NIC uses AF2 predicted structures and a disorder prediction tool IUPred2A, to predict condensate
166 formation propensity. It has been shown, that both AF2 and IUPred can make qualitatively discor-
167 dant predictions of *de novo* proteins [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Aubel et al., 2023]. Therefore,
168 we performed additional analyses to ensure a high-confidence prediction of condensate-forming
169 *de novo* proteins (Figure 3A). Specifically, we retrieved 175 known condensate-forming conserved
170 proteins from the CD-CODE database [Rostam et al., 2023] and used them as a positive control
171 dataset. For all these proteins, we calculated the sequence features that are associated with the
172 biological function of their intrinsically disordered regions, e.g. amino acid homorepeats, sequence
173 complexity, and net charge [Zarin et al., 2021]. We clustered sequences based on these sequence
174 features using Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) [McInnes et al., 2018], a
175 commonly non-linear dimensionality reduction tool (in contrast to principal component analysis,
176 which is linear; Figure 3B). We identified seven clusters of different sizes. Of these, cluster 1 and
177 cluster 3 contained most proteins (88.6%) of the CD-CODE database that we used in our analy-
178 sis (Figure 3C). The *de novo* proteins in cluster 1 and cluster 3 with a PICNIC score greater than
179 0.5 can be considered high-confidence condensate forming proteins, because they are not only
180 predicted by PICNIC according to its own criteria, but they also have a similar sequence com-
181 position as experimentally validated condensate-forming proteins. In total, we identified 63 such
182 high-confidence condensate-forming *de novo* proteins. We next analysed the age groups of these
183 condensate forming *de novo* proteins. When normalized by the number of proteins per age group,
184 we found intermediate and old *de novo* proteins to be 5.9- and 6.6-fold more often predicted to
185 form condensates than young *de novo* proteins, respectively (Figure 3D). Furthermore, interme-
186 diate and old *de novo* proteins contained significantly more high-confidence condensate-forming
187 proteins than expected by chance (Pearson's χ^2 -Test; $P < 5 \times 10^{-54}$).

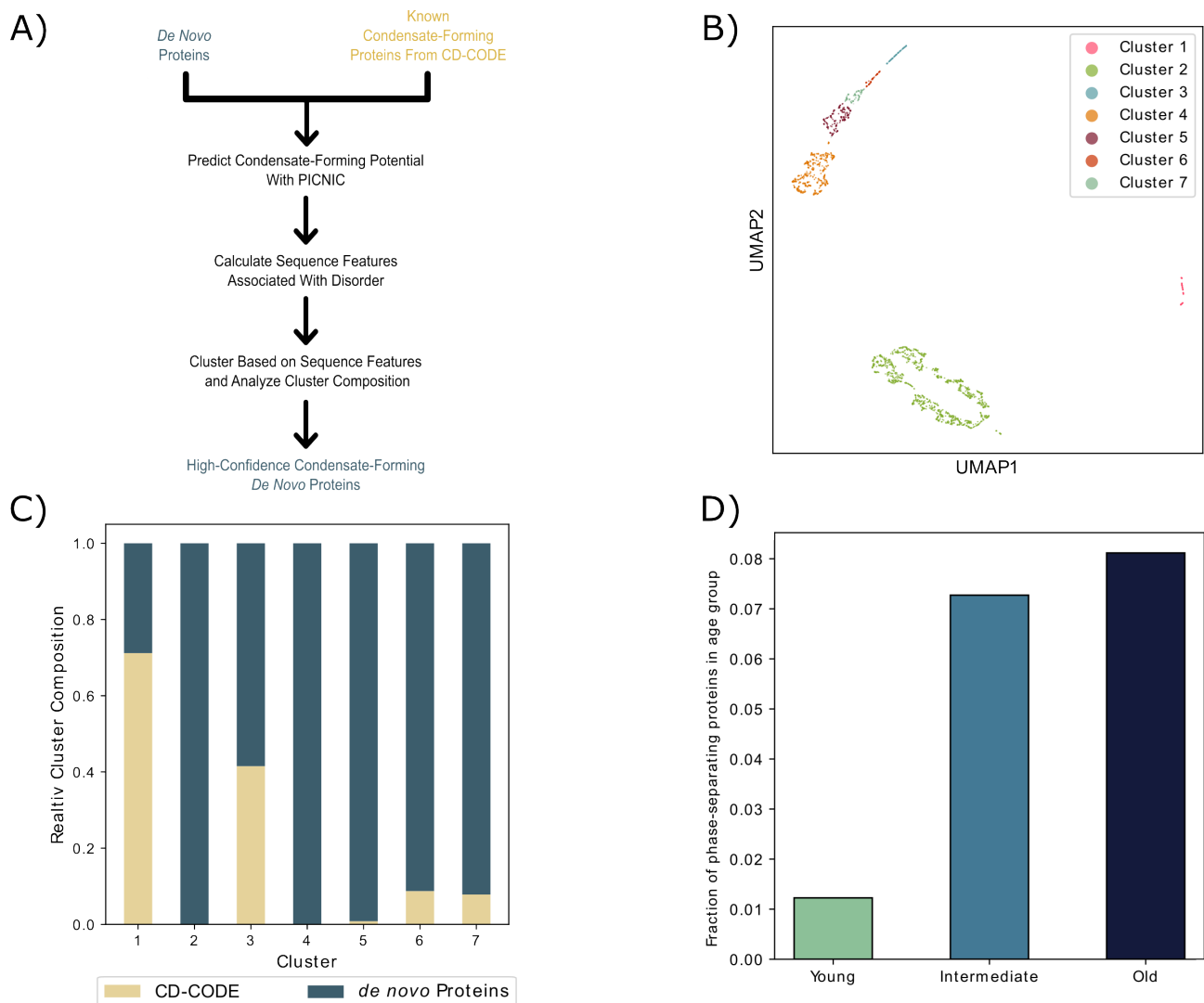


Figure 3: Identification of condensate-forming *de novo* proteins.

(A) Workflow for the identification of condensate-forming *de novo* proteins. We predicted condensate-forming potential of *de novo* proteins and known condensate-forming proteins from the CD-CODE database with PICNIC. For both groups of proteins, we calculated the sequence features associated with the functions of intrinsically disordered regions were calculated. Subsequently, we clustered all proteins based on these sequence features using hdbscan, and the analyzed the clusters for their constituent proteins. (B) Clusters of *de novo* proteins and known condensate-forming proteins based on sequence features associated with the function of intrinsically disordered proteins. (C) Constitution of the identified clusters based on protein type. We classified the 63 *de novo* proteins from clusters 1 and 3 were as high-confidence condensate-forming proteins. (D) Fraction of *de novo* proteins from the respective age groups that were classified as high-confidence condensate-forming proteins. The age groups *Intermediate* and *Old* contained significantly more high-confidence condensate-forming proteins than expected by chance (Pearson's χ^2 -Test; $P < 5 \times 10^{-54}$).

Protein language models show that *de novo* and conserved proteins occupy distinct regions of the sequence space

Although we found that some *de novo* proteins may be structurally similar to known proteins, we don't yet know if evolutionary origin indeed determines the structural properties of a protein. Indeed, many studies have compared a handful of features such as structural disorder, protein composition, and aggregation propensity between *de novo* and conserved proteins [Knowles and McLysaght, 2009, Ekman and Elofsson, 2010, Landry et al., 2015, Wilson et al., 2017, Vakirlis et al., 2018, Klasberg et al., 2018, Schmitz et al., 2018, Heames et al., 2020, 2023, Peng and Zhao, 2023, Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024]. However, these analyses may not provide reliable inferences because they use tools depending on limited data (e.g. TANGO/IUPred) [Fernandez-Escamilla et al., 2004, Erdős et al., 2021], and because the different features are analysed in isolation. Language models use machine learning to analyse several hidden parameters (and their interactions) simultaneously using sequence information alone. Indeed, protein language models have proved extremely adept at predicting and designing protein structures [Heinzinger et al., 2019, Madani et al., 2023, Alley et al., 2019, Chowdhury et al., 2022, Ferruz and Höcker, 2022, Ferruz et al., 2023, Lin et al., 2023]. Therefore, we used the ESM2 protein language model to compare the three different kinds of protein sequences in our dataset (random, *de novo* and conserved proteins). Specifically, we generated a numerical vector for each protein sequence using the ESM2 language model with 650 million parameters (ESM2-650M) [Lin et al., 2023]. Each vector contains 1280 elements, that denote an abstraction of different sequence features predicted by the model. We used UMAP [McInnes et al., 2018] to visualize the protein sequences in sequence space, and found that *de novo*, random, and conserved proteins indeed occupy distinct regions in the sequence space (Figure 4). To quantify these observations, we calculated the Manhattan distance (or L1 norm) between every pair of protein numerical sequences, a method particularly effective for multidimensional data with potential extreme outliers [Barrodale, 1968]. Our findings indicate that the distances between *de novo* and conserved proteins are generally larger than those between sequences within each of these categories (one-sided Mann-Whitney U test; $P < 10^{-99}$). We also found that the distances between the *de novo* and conserved proteins are generally larger than the distances between the *de novo* and the random proteins (one-sided Mann-Whitney U test; $P < 10^{-99}$). The generated random proteins were based on the same length and amino acid distributions as the *de novo* proteins [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Heames et al., 2023]. Therefore, the nearness between these

219 two sets of protein sequences could be an artifact of our method. To verify if this is the case, we
220 generated random protein sequences with same distribution of composition as our conserved se-
221 quences. We found that *de novo* proteins were closer to these new random proteins than with
222 conserved proteins (one-sided Mann-Whitney U test; $P < 10^{-99}$; Figure S4). Overall our analyses
223 suggest that despite certain structural similarities, *de novo* proteins are, distinct from conserved
224 proteins at the sequence level, and bear a closer resemblance to random sequences.

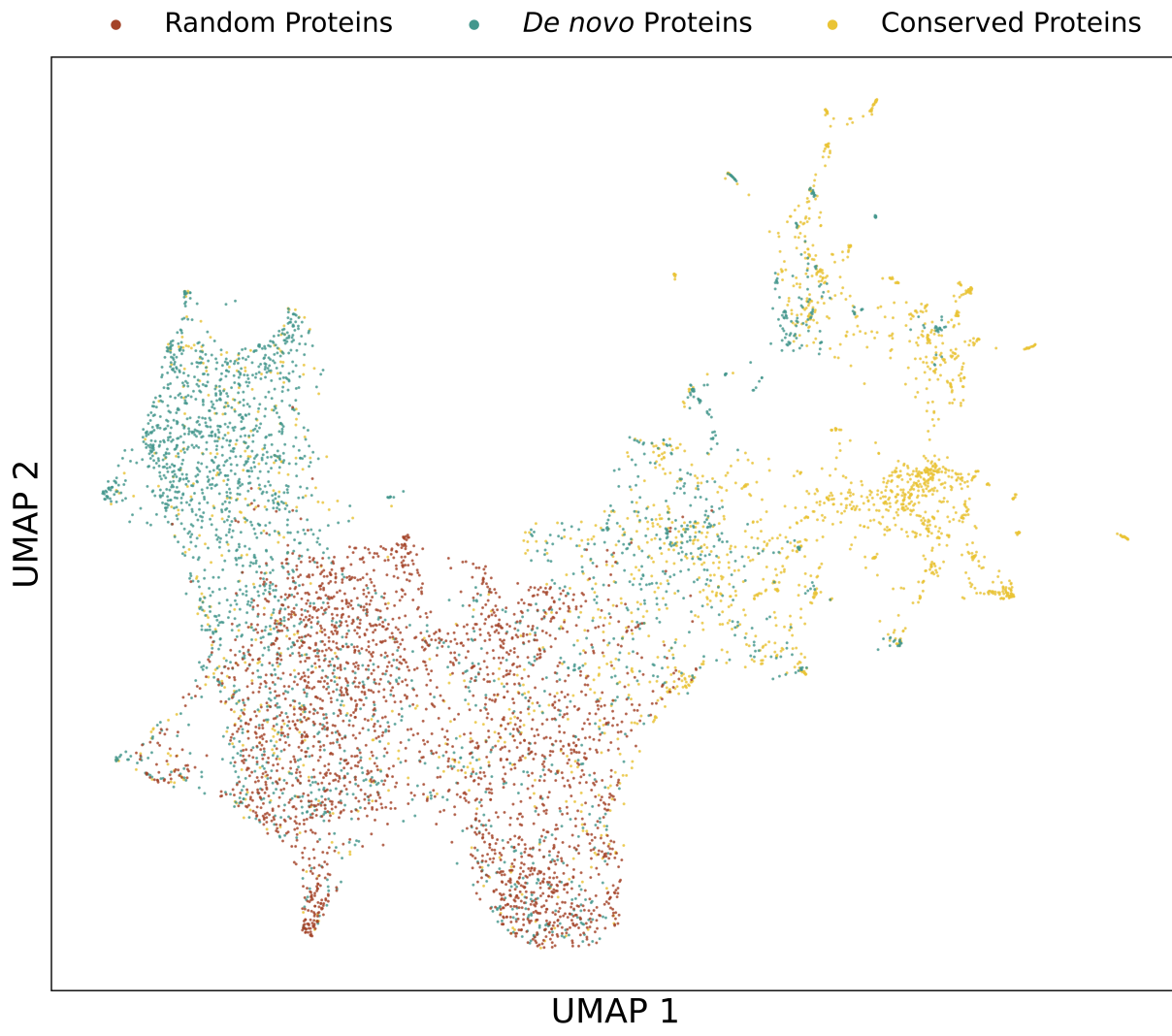


Figure 4: Location of our protein sequences in the sequence space

We used the protein language model ESM2-650M to generate a numerical representation of the *de novo*, random and conserved proteins sequences. We projected and plotted these numerical sequences into a two dimensional space using UMAP.

Discussion

Most proteins can be grouped into families based on their sequence similarity, evolutionary ancestry, structural folds, and biochemical functions [Chothia, 1992]. *De novo* proteins are exceptions as they do not belong to any established protein family, because they not only originate from non-genic DNA sequences (lack of ancestry), but also lack sequence and structural homology to other proteins [Bornberg-Bauer et al., 2021, Schlötterer, 2015]. This makes it challenging to annotate functions to *de novo* proteins based on our knowledge of conserved proteins. Despite their dissimilarity with known proteins, *de novo* proteins have been shown to perform biological functions and improve the survival and fitness of the organisms that express them [McLysaght and Guerzoni, 2015, Li et al., 2009, Cai et al., 2008, Chen et al., 2010a, Gubala et al., 2017, Lange et al., 2021, Zhuang et al., 2019, Reinhardt et al., 2013, Heinen et al., 2009, Li et al., 2010a, Xie et al., 2019, Li et al., 2014, Chen et al., 2010b]. Advanced computational methods using deep learning have been able to solve problems at an unprecedented scale. For example, AlphaFold2 resulted in an exponential increase in the number of computationally predicted protein structures [Varadi et al., 2021] Therefore, we applied some of these deep learning based tools to elucidate the possible structure and function of *de novo* proteins.

First, we searched for conserved proteins that may be structurally similar to *de novo* proteins using Foldseek. Most *de novo* proteins did not bear a significant resemblance to known protein structures, in accordance with their non-genic evolutionary origin, and distinctiveness of their sequence and biophysical properties as shown by previous studies [Heames et al., 2023, Aubel et al., 2024]. This lack of resemblance could exist because *de novo* proteins are highly disordered [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Peng and Zhao, 2023], and can contain rare secondary structures like 3_{10} - or π -helices [Chen et al., 2023], that could make structural alignment complicated.

While we attempted to refine AF2 predicted structures of *de novo* proteins through molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, it is important to note that many *de novo* proteins may reside in non-aqueous environments such as cell membranes (Figure Figure 2) [Vakirlis et al., 2020b], may only fold upon interaction with other proteins [Chen et al., 2023], and may be part of multimers [Lynch, 2012, Schulz et al., 2022, Jayaraman et al., 2022, Malik et al., 2024]. We did not consider all these possibilities in our MD simulations due to computational limitations. Nonetheless, the majority of individual *de novo* proteins were predicted to be disordered or, if structured, to predominantly form simple α -helices [Heames et al., 2023, Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024, Aubel et al., 2024, Peng and

256 [Zhao, 2023](#)], a trend attributed to many *de novo* proteins being too short to form globular structures
257 [[Aubel et al., 2024](#), [Shen et al., 2005](#)]. Our current study corroborates these observations. The
258 frequent emergence of single α -helices in *de novo* proteins can be attributed to the lower stereo-
259 chemical and thermodynamical requirements of α -helices [[Barlow and Thornton, 1988](#), [Greenwald
260 and Riek, 2012](#)]. On rare occasions where *de novo* proteins exhibit structural configurations beyond
261 single α -helices, they can resemble common and ancient folds such as SH3 or HTH (Figure 1D).
262 This observation implies that these widespread evolutionary folds, which are evolutionary success-
263 ful and easily tolerated by cells, are more accessible in sequence space [[Taverna and Goldstein,
264 2000](#), [Shakhnovich et al., 2005](#), [Goldstein, 2008](#)], even for sequences that have not been shaped
265 by millions of generations of evolution. Despite identifying some *de novo* proteins with structural
266 homology to existing structures, we did not find any novel folds among our candidate proteins, un-
267 like other studies that investigated a much larger set of proteins [[Durairaj et al., 2023](#)] (Figure 1B
268 & D).

269 By employing the deep learning based functional annotation tool, DeepFRI [[Gligorijević et al.,
270 2021](#)], we found that *de novo* proteins are associated with a wide array of Gene Ontology (GO)
271 terms, spanning all three GO categories, with several distinct clusters emerging within the seman-
272 tic field. We show that *de novo* proteins, despite their recent emergence and lack of evolutionary
273 ancestry, are more often predicted to be functional than a comparable random set of sequences
274 (Figure 2C). Their involvement in a range of molecular functions (like hydrolase activity, transferase
275 activity, and nucleic acid binding) and biological processes (such as stimuli response, regulation,
276 and transport) underscores their potential impact on the cellular physiology. Interestingly, the simi-
277 larity in molecular functions and involvement in biological processes between *de novo* proteins and
278 random sequences could imply a certain level of functional redundancy in the sequence space.
279 This observation might suggest that the emergence of function from novel proteins, even through
280 random sequences, could be a more probable phenomena than previously thought. Finally we
281 emphasize that, while efforts to deduce protein function based on structural similarity is ongoing
282 [[Nomburg et al., 2024](#), [Gligorijević et al., 2021](#)], numerous instances exist where proteins with simi-
283 lar structures perform different functions, and *vice versa* [[Finkelstein et al., 1993](#), [Govindarajan and
284 Goldstein, 1996](#), [Galperin et al., 1998](#), [Martin et al., 1998](#)].

285 The association of *de novo* proteins with biophysical reactions such as RNA binding, and biochemi-
286 cal reactions similar to transferases, and hydrolases, presents an intriguing avenue for understand-
287 ing their functional capacities and evolutionary significance. This is especially interesting because

288 RNA binding and hydrolase-activity are thought to be conferred even by primordial folds [Seal et al.,
289 2022, Weil-Ktorza et al., 2023, Vyas et al., 2021, Longo et al., 2022], and could possibly been im-
290 portant during origin of life. Both these molecular activities, and a highly disordered structure, are
291 also exhibited by condensate-forming proteins [Hadarovich et al., 2023]. Therefore, we investi-
292 gated the possibility of *de novo* proteins to be involved in formation of biomolecular condensates.
293 Biomolecular condensates, formed through liquid-liquid phase separation by proteins, are critical in
294 various biological processes and such a propensity exists even for proteins with ancient and simple
295 folds [Longo et al., 2020]. The use of PICNIC [Hadarovich et al., 2023] to predict the involvement of
296 *de novo* proteins in biomolecular condensates represents an innovative approach, albeit with limi-
297 tations. The reliance on AlphaFold2 predictions and IUPred2A as input requirements, introduces a
298 degree of uncertainty, especially given the discordant predictions of these tools between *de novo*
299 and conserved proteins [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024]. This necessitated further analysis to es-
300 tablish a high-confidence set of condensate-forming *de novo* proteins, leveraging the CD-CODE
301 database [Rostam et al., 2023] as a reference.

302 The identification of clusters based on sequence features associated with intrinsically disordered
303 regions of proteins is particularly noteworthy. The fact that clusters 1 and 3, which have a high
304 fraction of members from the CD-CODE database, include $\approx 12\%$ of all *de novo* proteins with a
305 PICNIC score greater than 0.5, is compelling. It suggests that these *de novo* proteins not only
306 have the potential to form condensates but also share sequence composition with experimentally
307 validated condensate-forming proteins. The discovery of 63 high-confidence condensate-forming
308 *de novo* proteins contributes to our understanding of the functional diversity of these proteins. This
309 finding expands the realm of *de novo* protein functionality beyond traditional views, indicating their
310 potential involvement in complex cellular mechanisms like phase separation. Considering that
311 phase separation is involved in spermatogenesis [Kang et al., 2022, Parvinen, 2005], and that *de*
312 *novo* proteins show biased expression in testis [Levine et al., 2006, Heames et al., 2020, Zhao
313 et al., 2014, Palmieri et al., 2014, Peng and Zhao, 2023, Nyberg and Carthew, 2017, Kondo et al.,
314 2017, Neme and Tautz, 2013], being involved in biomolecular condensates suggests a possible
315 mechanism by which *de novo* proteins could play a role in spermatogenesis [Lange et al., 2021,
316 Gubala et al., 2017, Rivard et al., 2021]. Moreover, our analysis of the age groups of these *de novo*
317 proteins revealed that intermediate and old *de novo* proteins are significantly more likely to form
318 condensates than their younger counterparts. This observation is intriguing as it could imply two
319 scenarios. First, as *de novo* protein evolve and mature, they acquire and refine their ability to par-

320 ticipate in cellular processes like biomolecular condensation and thereby their function. Under this
321 scenario, the *de novo* proteins could be positively selected. Second, the ability to form biomolecu-
322 lar condensates could minimize toxic protein aggregation, and could protect *de novo* proteins from
323 being purged by negative selection.

324 To understand if *de novo* proteins can indeed be a source of evolutionary novelty, we analyzed
325 their distribution in the protein sequence space relative to that of conserved and random pro-
326 teins, using the protein language model ESM2-650M. Our analysis shows that *de novo* proteins,
327 arisen from non-coding sequences, have unique sequence characteristics that distinguish them
328 from conserved proteins, but more similar to random proteins, as hypothesized before [[Bornberg-
329 Bauer et al., 2021](#)]. Nevertheless, some *de novo* proteins indeed had a conserved protein, closely
330 located to them in the sequence space ([Figure 4](#)). Together with our Foldseek analysis, this ob-
331 servation indicates an inherent capacity of amino acid sequences to adopt structures, and that
332 a broad spectrum of sequence space is capable of evolving into foldable proteins [[Tretyachenko
333 et al., 2017](#), [Heames et al., 2023](#), [Aubel et al., 2024](#)].

334 Our analysis is based on computational tools, which are always prone to some level of erroneous
335 predictions. Furthermore, many of the deep learning based tools have not been trained on *de novo*
336 proteins and can possibly make biased predictions [[Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024](#)]. Therefore,
337 our study may not provide exact and perfect answers to the different open questions about *de*
338 *novo* proteins. All computational predictions need experimental validation. Experimental studies,
339 especially on *de novo* proteins are bottlenecked by serendipity, and labor intensive techniques
340 that are not fully optimized for proteins with such an unusual biochemistry [[Eicholt et al., 2022](#)].
341 However, our exhaustive approach can help guide focused experimental studies, and can reduce
342 the need for trial and error, and accidental discoveries. For example, the candidate *de novo* proteins
343 with a possible structure, a specific molecular function (like hydrolysis, or RNA binding), and a
344 propensity to form condensates, can be experimentally probed for these specific properties. Our
345 sequence space analysis can also identify *de novo* proteins that are likely to adopt more conserved-
346 protein-like properties, as a consequence of evolution. Overall, our study not only broadens our
347 understanding of the dynamic nature of protein evolution but also serves as a guidebook for future
348 experimental studies.

349 **Materials & Methods**

350 **Dataset curation**

351 We used the sequence datasets from our previous study [[Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024](#)]. Specifi-
352 cally, we first obtained 6716 orphan protein sequences from the *Drosophila* clade, and their corre-
353 sponding evolutionary age, from [Heames et al. \[2020\]](#). From this dataset, we discarded sequences
354 that were annotated with the same FlyBase ID. Next, we extracted the sequences whose emer-
355 gence origin was annotated as "*denovo*" (intergenic *de novo* protein) or "*denovo-intron*" (intronic *de*
356 *novo* protein) by [Heames et al. \[2020\]](#), for further analysis. Out of the 2510 proteins sequences thus
357 obtained, 1481 were annotated as "*denovo*," while 1029 were described as "*denovo-intron*". Based
358 on their date of emergence, the *de novo* proteins were classified as young (<5 mya), intermediate
359 (5-30 mya), and old (>30 mya) proteins [[Heames et al., 2020](#), [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024](#)]. In
360 our filtered dataset, the three age groups consisted of 2205, 110, and 195 proteins, respectively.
361 We generated 2507 random sequences with the same distributions of amino acid composition
362 and sequence length, as the 2510 *de novo* sequences set, using a technique used in previous
363 studies [[Heames et al., 2023](#), [Middendorf and Eicholt, 2024](#)]. We generated a set of conserved
364 protein sequences with the same sequence length distribution as the *de novo* proteins, by randomly
365 sampling protein sequences from the combined proteome of 12 *Drosophila* species. After removing
366 sequences that were duplicated or were redundant with our set of *de novo* proteins, we obtained a
367 set of 2235 unique conserved proteins.

368 We performed structure predictions using AlphaFold2 [v2.1.1, [Jumper et al., 2021](#)] on the High
369 Performance Computing Cluster, PALMA II (University of Muenster). We used the predictions
370 with the highest mean pLDDT for further analysis. We downloaded AlphaFold2 based structure
371 predictions of conserved *Drosophila* proteins from the AlphaFold Protein Structure database [[Varadi](#)
372 [et al., 2021](#)] for our initial analyses.

373 **Molecular Dynamics simulations to refine structure predictions**

374 To analyze the stability of the predicted structures of *de novo* proteins, we performed molecular
375 dynamics (MD) simulations using a previously described method [[Ferruz et al., 2022](#)], with minor
376 modifications. We only simulated protein structures with i) less than 30% disorder predicted by
377 fIDPnn [[Hu et al., 2021](#)], and ii) less than 95% of their residues predicted as α -helices by DSSP

378 [Kabsch and Sander, 1983] (1468 unique proteins). We constructed the MD model and performed
379 the simulations using the HTMD python package [Doerr et al., 2016]. The model systems were built
380 to form solvated all-atom cubic boxes. We centered our proteins at the origin of the simulation box
381 coordinates. We used water as the solvent, and added NaCl ions to neutralize the system. We used
382 the AMBER 14SB force field [Maier et al., 2015] for all simulations. We minimized, equilibrated,
383 and simulated each system for 100 ns, using the ACEMD engine [Harvey et al., 2009] with the
384 default settings in triplicates. We evaluated the simulations with the HTMD [Doerr et al., 2016] and
385 MDAAnalysis [Michaud-Agrawal et al., 2011] python packages. We calculated the average RMSD
386 value per trajectory for every replicate simulation for a protein, and in turn calculated a single
387 averaged value from three replicates.

388 **Identifying similar protein structures using Foldseek**

389 We searched the AlphaFold Protein Structure database [Varadi et al., 2021] clustered at 50% se-
390 quence identity (AFDB50), for structures similar to the predicted structures of our *de novo*, random,
391 and conserved proteins, using Foldseek [v.8.ef4e960, van Kempen et al., 2023]. We applied the
392 same filtering criteria our query proteins that we used for the MD simulations. For *de novo* proteins,
393 we used the protein structures refined after 100ns of MD simulation. We downloaded pre-computed
394 AFDB50 database via Foldseek's database module. We searched for similar structures using the
395 "easy-search" module of Foldseek with the default settings. We did not filter the results or queries
396 based on the pLDDT values. We discarded all hits to proteins within the *Drosophila* clade, to ex-
397 clude hits to orthologous *de novo* proteins.

398 To identify and annotate potential known protein structural domains in the *de novo* proteins, we
399 searched the protein data bank database [PDB, January 2024; Berman et al., 2000] for structures
400 that were similar to that of *de novo* proteins (MD-refined). We used Foldseek for this analysis with
401 the same settings as we did before for AFDB50. We discarded hits with a TM-score less than 0.5
402 [Xu and Zhang, 2010]. We retrieved the annotated ECOD domains of the highest scoring hits, from
403 the ECOD database [Release: 20230309, Cheng et al., 2014] if the structural alignment of the *de*
404 *novo* protein covered at least 80% of the target structure from the PDB. In all cases, we only used
405 the highest scoring hit out of the three MD replicates for further analysis.

406 **Predicting protein function using DeepFri**

407 To understand the potential function of *de novo*, and random proteins, we predicted their gene
408 ontology (GO) terms using DeepFri [[Gligorijević et al., 2021](#)]. We used their AlphaFold2 predicted
409 3D-structures as the input and identified hits with a score ≥ 0.5 . We summarized the predicted GO
410 terms to a small list of terms using using REVIGO [[Supek et al., 2011](#)], and measured semantic
411 similarity using SimRel [[Sæbø et al., 2015](#)]. We visually, identified clusters within the semantic
412 space and annotated them with a term that summarizes the GO terms within them.

413 **Analysis of *de novo* proteins that form biomolecular condensates**

414 We predicted the potential of *de novo* proteins to form biomolecular condensates, using PICNIC
415 [[Hadarovich et al., 2023](#)]. Because PICNIC makes predictions based on metrics derived from
416 AlphaFold2 and IUPred2A predictions, we applied further filtering steps of the results in order to
417 obtain a set of high-confidence condensate-forming *de novo* proteins. To this end, we retrieved all
418 the proteins from the CD-CODE database [[Rostam et al., 2023](#)], that were experimentally shown
419 from biomolecular condensates *in cellulo* or *in vivo*. This set of 175 proteins served as our positive
420 control. Next, we retrieved sequence features associated with the biological functions of intrinsically
421 disordered regions of proteins [[Zarin et al., 2021](#)], using the scripts provided in the [idr.mol.feats](#)
422 [GitHub repository](#). We discarded the specific features – *aromatic_spacing*, *omega_aromatic**, and
423 *kappa**, and features that count the appearance of specific binding motifs. We normalized all
424 the features that are directly influenced by the sequence length (e.g. amino acid counts), to the
425 sequence length of the corresponding proteins. We subsequently clustered the sequences based
426 on the computed features using hdbscan [[McInnes et al., 2017](#)] with a minimal cluster size of 100
427 the *min_samples* parameter set to a value of 50. We considered a *de novo* protein to be a high-
428 confidence condensate-forming protein, if it shared a cluster with a large fraction of proteins from
429 the CD-CODE database, and had a PICNIC score ≥ 0.5 .

430 **Mapping protein sequences to a numerical space using protein language** 431 **model**

432 To understand how *de novo* and random protein sequences are located within the protein sequence
433 space relative to conserved proteins, we used the protein language model ESM2 with 650 million
434 parameters (ESM2-650M) [[Lin et al., 2023](#)]. Specifically, we used the language model to convert

435 each sequence to a numerical vector with 1280 elements. More specifically, ESM2-650M assigns
436 each amino acid residue in a protein sequence, a 1280-dimensional vector of “embeddings”. For
437 each protein we calculated the multivariate mean of the embedding vectors from every amino acid
438 residue. We calculated the Manhattan distance (or L1 norm) between the numerical sequences
439 of every pair of proteins in our combined dataset of *de novo*, random and conserved proteins. We
440 applied Mann-Whitney test to the pairwise distances to analyse if proteins of one class (*e.g.* *de*
441 *novo*) are farther from that of another class (*e.g.* conserved), than with each other. For proteins of
442 one class, we also used the pairwise distances to identify the nearest neighboring protein from the
443 other class. To visualize the location of different proteins in the sequence space, we used UMAP
444 to project and visualize the proteins (numerical sequence) in a two dimensional space [V 0.5.3,
445 [McInnes et al., 2018](#)]. We used UMAP with the default settings (`n_neighbours = 15`, `min_distance`
446 `= 0.1`), except for choosing Manhattan distance as the distance metric and optimizing the low di-
447 mensional embedding for 5000 instead of 200 epochs.

448 **Data & statistical analysis**

449 We analyzed most data with Python programming language (v3.9.18) [[Van Rossum and Drake,](#)
450 [2009](#)], using the following packages: Pandas (v1.5.3) [[Reback et al., 2022](#)], NumPy (v1.26) [[Harris](#)
451 [et al., 2020](#)], SciPy (v1.11.3) [[Virtanen et al., 2020](#)], and BioPython (v1.80) [[Cock et al., 2009](#)]. We
452 generated the plots using Matplotlib (v3.4.3) [[Hunter, 2007](#)]. We performed the Pearson’s χ^2 -tests
453 using the "chisquare" from the `scipy.stats` package. We analyzed protein sequence space with
454 Julia programming language using the packages `Distances.jl` (v0.10.11) and `HypothesisTests.jl` (v
455 0.11.0)

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457 We thank Alun Jones for his advice on statistical tests.

458 **Supporting information**

459 Supporting information is available on Zenodo [10.5281/zenodo.10557890](https://zenodo.org/doi/10.5281/zenodo.10557890).

460 **Code and Data Availability**

461 Datasets are publicly available on [Zenodo](https://zenodo.org/). All scripts are freely available on GitHub:

462 <https://github.com/LasseMiddendorf/SequenceAndFunctionalSpaceOfDrosophilaDeNovoProteins>

Supplementary Material

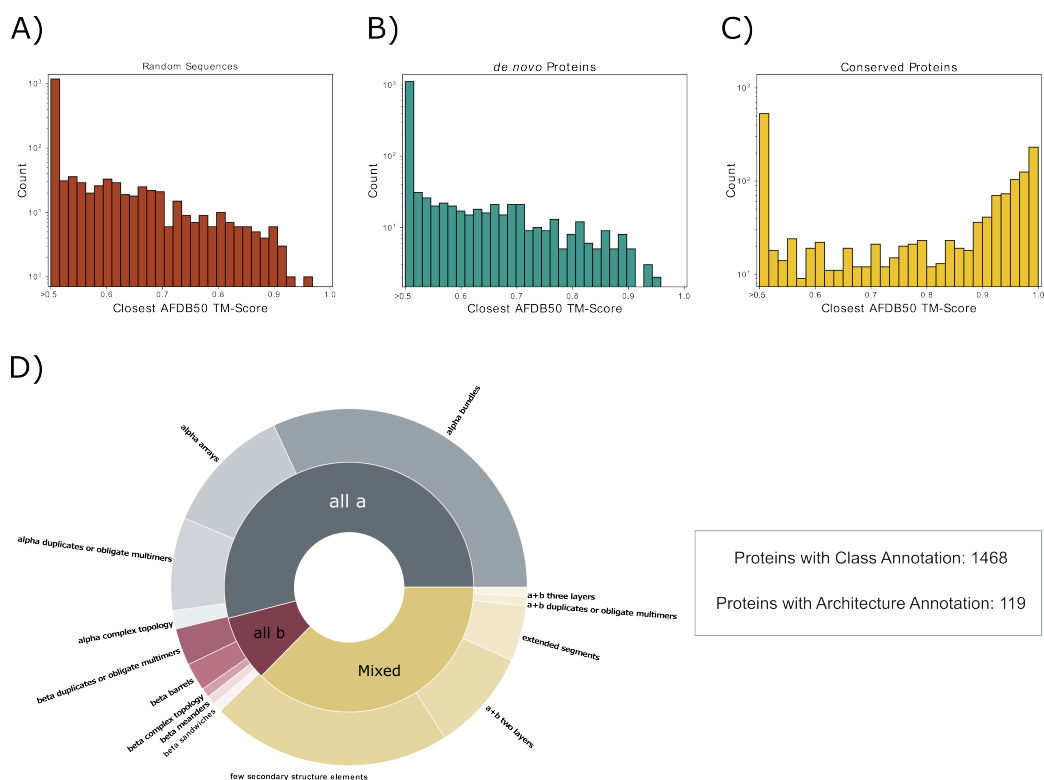


Figure S1: Structural diversity of *de novo* proteins, before MD refinement. The predicted protein structures of randomly generated sequences (A), *de novo* protein (B), and conserved proteins (C) were queried against the AlphaFold database (AFDB50) excluding proteins from *Drosophila*. Only proteins with less than 30% of their residues being predicted to be disordered and less than 95% with a DSSP annotation of being α -helical were considered for the analysis. Shown is the distribution of the highest TM-score found for each protein in the three datasets. (D) Overview of the structural classes and ECOD architectures of *de novo* proteins. The protein class (inner circle) was assigned to all *de novo* proteins queried against the AFDB50 based on the DSSP annotations of the predicted protein structures. Proteins containing no residues annotated as α -helices or β -sheets were classified as *all b* or *all a*, respectively. Protein structures containing residues annotated as α -helices and β -sheets were classified as *Mixed*. For the annotation of ECOD architectures in the predicted structures of *de novo* protein, the structures were queried against the PDB and assigned with the ECOD domain of the highest ranking hit if the alignment covered at least 80% of the target structure.

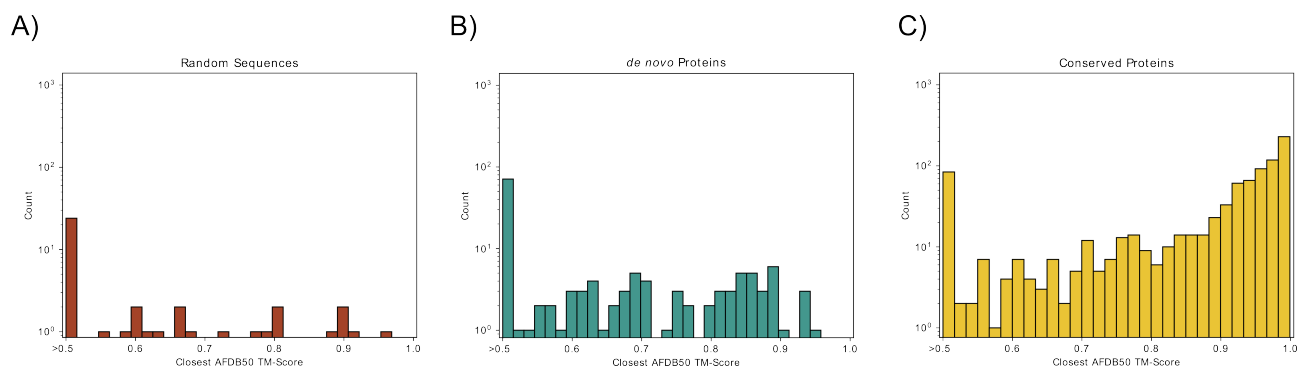


Figure S2: Structural similarity of high-pLDDT protein structures to AlphaFold database
 Similar structures in the AlphaFold database for high-pLDDT structure predictions only TM-Score distribution of predicted protein structures of **(A)** random, **(B)** *de novo*, and **(C)** conserved proteins with a pLDDT value ≥ 70 queried against the AlphaFold database (AFDB50) using Foldseek. The hit with the highest TM-score was chosen for each protein.

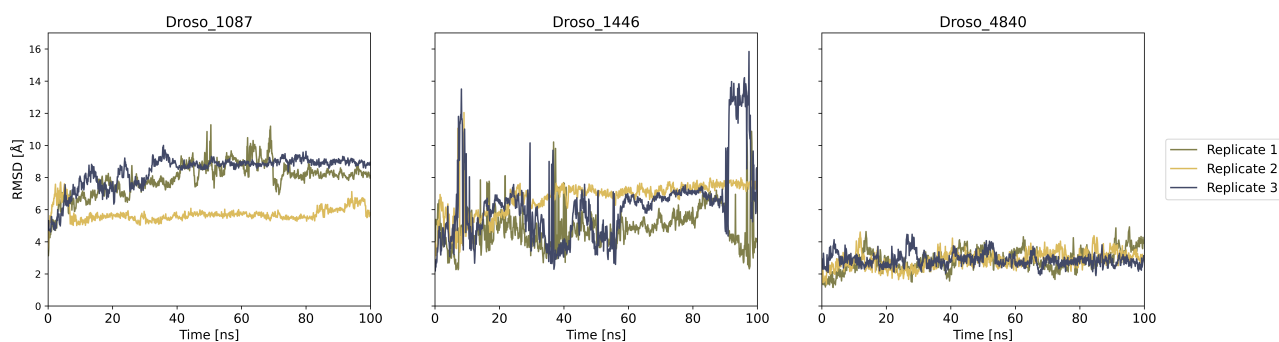


Figure S3: RMSD trajectories of selected *de novo* proteins Root mean square deviation (RMSD) of Droso_1087, Droso_1446, and Droso_4480 over 100 ns of molecular dynamics simulations. Simulations were performed as triplicates for all proteins.

• Random Proteins (DN) • *De novo* Proteins • Conserved Proteins • Random Proteins (C)

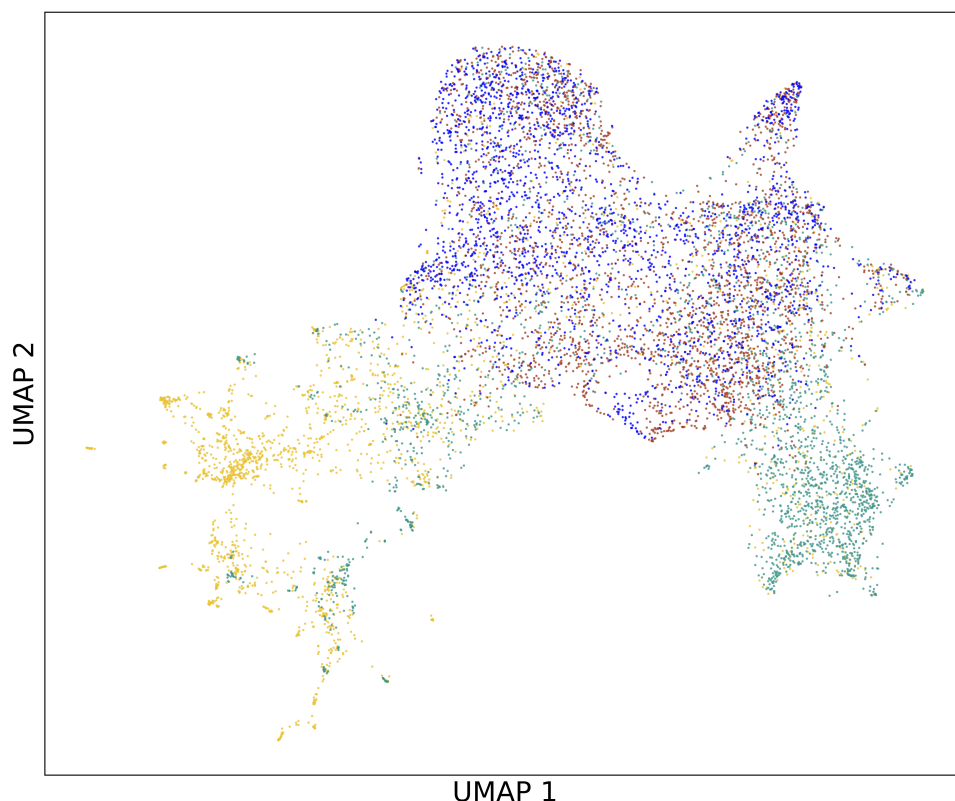


Figure S4: *De novo* proteins are closer to random sequences than conserved proteins. We used the protein language model ESM2-650M to represent the sequences of *de novo*, conserved, and random proteins as numerical vectors. In addition to random proteins that were generated to share the same amino acid distribution as *de novo* proteins (Random Proteins (DN)), we included a set of randomly generated sequences based on the properties of conserved proteins (Random Proteins (C)). We projected the representations into two dimensions using UMAP. The localization in sequence space shows that *de novo* proteins are closer to random proteins than conserved ones, regardless of the origin of the random sequences.

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