

1 **Title:** Pleiotropy increases with gene age in six model multicellular eukaryotes

2 **Authors:** Martin, Reese^{1,2*}, and Tate, Ann.T.^{1,2^a}

3 ¹Department of Biological Sciences, Vanderbilt University, Nashville TN, 37235

4 ²Evolutionary Studies Initiative, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA

5 *Email address: reese.a.martin@vanderbilt.edu

6 ^aCorresponding email address: a.tate@vanderbilt.edu. ORCID: 0000-0001-6601-0234

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 Fundamental traits of genes, including function, length and GC content, all vary with
12 gene age. Pleiotropy, where a single gene affects multiple traits, arises through selection for
13 novel traits and is expected to be removed from the genome through subfunctionalization
14 following duplication events. It is unclear, however, how these opposing forces shape the
15 prevalence of pleiotropy through time. We hypothesized that the prevalence of pleiotropy would
16 be lowest in young genes, peak in middle aged genes, and then either decrease to a middling
17 level in ancient genes or stay near the middle-aged peak, depending on the balance between
18 exaptation and subfunctionalization. To address this question, we have calculated gene age and
19 pleiotropic status for several model multicellular eukaryotes, including *Homo sapiens*, *Mus*
20 *musculus*, *Danio rerio*, *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and *Arabidopsis*
21 *thaliana*. Gene age was determined by finding the most distantly related species that shared an
22 ortholog using the Open Tree of Life and the Orthologous Matrix Database (OMADB).
23 Pleiotropic status was determined using both protein-protein interactions (STRINGdb) and
24 associated biological processes (Gene Ontology). We found that middle-aged and ancient genes
25 tend to be more pleiotropic than young genes, and that this relationship holds across all species
26 evaluated and across both modalities of measuring pleiotropy. We also found absolute
27 differences in the degree of pleiotropy based on gene functional class, but only when looking at
28 biological process count. From these results we propose that there is a fundamental relationship
29 between pleiotropy and gene age and further study of this relationship may shed light on the
30 mechanism behind the functional changes genes undergo as they age.

31 **Impact statement:** Pleiotropy, the phenomenon where a single gene acts on multiple traits, is
32 fundamental to genomic organization and has profound consequences for fitness. This work

33 identifies a previously unknown relationship between pleiotropy and gene age, highlighting the
34 dynamism of pleiotropy across time. This relationship holds across six distantly related model
35 organisms, suggesting that it could be a highly generalizable finding, at least among multicellular
36 eukaryotes. Following from this work, future investigation into mechanisms dictating the
37 prevalence of pleiotropy at the gene or cellular level could provide fundamental insight into the
38 maintenance of pleiotropy despite the potential for constraining rapid adaptation.

39 Introduction

40 Pleiotropy is the phenomenon in which a single gene effects multiple traits, and has wide
41 ranging effects on development (Cheverud, 1996), genetic disease (Sivakumaran *et al.*, 2011;
42 Ittisoponpisan *et al.*, 2017), signaling robustness (Guillaume & Otto, 2012; Papakostas *et al.*,
43 2014), the evolution of new traits (Lenski *et al.*, 2003; Armbruster *et al.*, 2009) and organismal
44 adaptability (Fraïsse *et al.*, 2019; Hämälä *et al.*, 2020; Kinsler *et al.*, 2020). Pleiotropy is
45 expected to arise in the genome as a result of exaptation, the process through which existing
46 genes and genetic architecture are coopted for use in novel traits. The role of exaptation in
47 promoting pleiotropy has been demonstrated theoretically using computational models of
48 complex trait evolution (Lenski *et al.*, 2003) and empirically in the flowering vine genus
49 *Dalechampia* (Armbruster *et al.*, 2009), where pollinator attractant traits are coopted for plant
50 defense and vice versa. Pleiotropy has also been proposed to arise as a result of co-selection on
51 traits, such as the integration between the growth of the cranial vault and facial masticatory
52 apparatus reported in several primates (Cheverud, 1996). These mechanisms for increasing the
53 number of pleiotropic genes and the number of traits that pleiotropic genes affect suggest that the
54 prevalence of pleiotropy should be positively correlated with gene age. Supporting this idea in
55 humans, older genes have elevated protein-protein interactions (PPI), a commonly used metric to
56 determine the pleiotropic status of a gene (Yin *et al.*, 2016).

57 The prevalence of pleiotropy does not strictly increase over time, as subfunctionalization
58 following gene duplication events decreases the frequency of pleiotropy in the genome (Lynch &
59 Wagner, 2008; Schmid & Sánchez-Villagra, 2010; Guillaume & Otto, 2012).
60 Subfunctionalization in duplicated genes is predicted to arise through a process of
61 complimentary degenerate mutations in the duplicated genes, leading to loss or degradation of

62 multiple functions in the gene duplicates (Force *et al.*, 1999) and promoting the maintenance of
63 duplicated genes in the genome (Lynch & Force, 2000). In the case where the parent gene's
64 functions are completely segregated between the copies with no overlap in function, the overall
65 prevalence of pleiotropy in the genome should be reduced as two genes are now performing the
66 work of a single gene. Aside from subfunctionalization removing pleiotropic genes from the
67 genome, a gene's future adaptability is limited by the acquisition of novel traits (Fraïsse *et al.*,
68 2019), placing a soft limit on the number of processes a gene can be involved in. These forces,
69 acting in opposition to the constant growth in pleiotropy from exaptation and co-selection, could
70 produce a wide range of distributions of pleiotropy across the gene age spectrum.

71 While we have insight into some relationships between the age of a gene and its
72 fundamental characteristics – old genes tend to be more essential (Chen *et al.*, 2012), for
73 example, and have increased GC content and length (Yin *et al.*, 2016) – we do not have a clear
74 picture of how these different forces shake out to affect relationships between gene age and
75 pleiotropy, in terms of both mean and variance among genes and species. For example, it is
76 unclear if changes in the prevalence of pleiotropy over time are consistent among different
77 metrics of estimating pleiotropy, such as PPI and biological process count. It is also unclear if the
78 relationship between gene age and pleiotropy depends on the focal organism or if it is
79 generalizable to large swathes of the tree of life. While previous studies have suggested that
80 pleiotropic genes are more essential than their non-pleiotropic counterparts (Ittisoponpisan *et al.*,
81 2017), this could be related to either the essentiality of old genes or the tendency of pleiotropic
82 proteins to be hubs in gene signaling networks (De Bruyne *et al.*, 2014; Sadhukhan *et al.*, 2021).
83 Furthermore, the exact dynamics of how the prevalence of pleiotropy changes with a gene's age

84 are unknown; while previous work demonstrated significant differences in PPI between old and
85 young genes, little is known about changes on a more continuous scale (Yin *et al.*, 2016).

86 We hypothesized that young genes would have the lowest prevalence of pleiotropy,
87 accounting for the limited time they would have had to become involved in other traits. This
88 expectation also aligns with previous work showing that young genes are less essential than old
89 genes (Chen *et al.*, 2012) and that pleiotropic genes tend to be highly essential. We hypothesized
90 that middle-aged genes would be more pleiotropic than young genes, reflecting the increased
91 time for genes to be recruited into other traits via exaptation. For the oldest genes we expected
92 either that the prevalence of pleiotropy would continue to climb or that it would reach an
93 equilibrium state, meaning the mean prevalence of pleiotropy in all age bins past a certain age
94 would be equal, reflecting the net outcomes of forces adding and removing pleiotropy from the
95 genome.

96 To address our hypothesis, we calculated the age and pleiotropic status of protein-coding
97 genes from *Homo sapiens*, *Mus musculus*, *Danio rerio*, *Drosophila melanogaster*,
98 *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and *Arabidopsis thaliana*. We selected these organisms in an attempt to
99 cover a wide range of multicellular eukaryotic life, but were limited to model organisms with
100 well-annotated genomes and protein resources. These organisms, while limited in scope
101 compared to the true diversity of the tree of life, allow us to identify potentially generalizable
102 and species-specific trends in the prevalence of pleiotropy. For a given species, a gene's age was
103 determined by finding the most distantly related common ancestor that shared an ortholog of that
104 gene. Orthologs were collected from the Orthologous Matrix Database (OMADB) (Altenhoff *et*
105 *al.*, 2021) and common ancestors were identified on a phylogeny generated from the Open Tree
106 of Life (synthesis 14.8) (Redelings & Holder, 2017) that included 1900 species from the

107 OMAdb. To evaluate the prevalence of pleiotropy in genes, we used Gene Ontology (Gene
108 Ontology Consortium, 2021) Biological process (BP) labels for each gene, as well as protein-
109 protein interactions (PPI) from the String DB (Szklarczyk *et al.*, 2023). We elected to use both
110 Gene Ontology Biological processes and PPI as these are complimentary measures of pleiotropy
111 (He & Zhang, 2006). Biological processes assess the kinds of distinct actions a protein may carry
112 out, often with different active sites, while PPI measures total interacting partners and does not
113 capture what a protein is doing with those partners, or which active sites are involved in the
114 interaction (He & Zhang, 2006). Our primary goal with this study is to provide a high-level but
115 generalizable understanding of the evolution of pleiotropy, laying the groundwork for future
116 exploration of this fundamental genomic phenomenon.

117 **Methods**

118 Because the datasets for each species were retrieved from databases that used similar
119 terms and formatting, we were able to apply the same pipelines for the analysis of each species
120 individually. The one exception is *A. thaliana*, which lacked gene duplication data in the
121 Ensembl database and was therefore excluded from singleton vs duplicate analysis. With that in
122 mind, the following sections reference the *H. sapiens* dataset and its analysis but apply to all
123 species unless otherwise noted.

124 For each species we retrieved the following number of genes: *Homo sapiens* (n = 19,467), *Mus*
125 *musculus* (n = 21,128), *Danio rerio* (n = 27,897), *Drosophila melanogaster* (n = 13,659),
126 *Caenorhabditis elegans* (n = 16,050), and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (n = 25,125).

127 **Gene age determination**

128 The entire set of ortholog groups was downloaded from the OMA database (Altenhoff *et*
129 *al.*, 2021), and the full database was trimmed to only include those ortholog groups with an entry

130 from the focal species (e.g. *H. sapiens*). From these ortholog groups, a list was generated
131 including each unique species that were present in a *H. sapiens* ortholog group. A phylogenetic
132 tree including only these unique species was trimmed from the Open Tree of Life. The Open
133 Tree of Life is a purely relational tree and does not include branch length data, so all branch
134 lengths were set to 1 during the creation of the OMA-specific phylogeny. The distance from the
135 root of the tree to the most recent common ancestor of each species and *H. sapiens* was
136 calculated and the age of each ortholog was set to the age of the oldest common ancestor
137 between *H. sapiens* and the species in which the ortholog was found. For example, if an ortholog
138 was present in several species, with the oldest one being *A. thaliana*, then the age of the ortholog
139 would be the distance of the last common ancestor between *H. sapiens* and *A. thaliana* to the
140 root of the tree. This means that orthologs with a lower distance from the base of the tree are
141 older than those with a greater distance. If an ortholog could not have an age assigned to it for
142 any reason, it was excluded from the analysis. This process removed 12 *A. thaliana* genes, 7 *D.*
143 *rerio* genes, and no genes for *C. elegans*, *D. melanogaster*, or *M. musculus*. 455 genes were
144 removed in *H. sapiens*; while this is noticeably more than the other species, it still left 98% of the
145 initial human gene set intact.

146 ***Age binning***

147 The number of orthologs assigned to any specific age is widely variable, with older age
148 groups, such as those genes present in the last common ancestor of all eukaryotes, comprising
149 thousands of genes while more modern age groups, like the genes found only in primates, could
150 have tens of genes or no genes at all. To overcome this uneven sampling across ages, orthologs
151 were grouped into age bins with at least 1000 orthologs. This binning process started in the
152 oldest ages and progressed by collapsing ages into a single bin until the total ortholog count

153 exceeded 1000, then a new bin would be created and the process would repeat. Due to
154 differences in total gene counts and the specific distributions of genes, each species has a slightly
155 different count of total age bins.

156 ***Determining the prevalence of pleiotropy***

157 The prevalence of pleiotropy was determined on a per-gene basis using two methods:
158 Gene Ontology unique biological processes (BP) and STRING database protein-protein
159 interactions (PPI). These measures were selected because they provide complimentary insight
160 into the pleiotropic characteristics of a gene. A gene's BP count relates to a purely functional
161 view of pleiotropy, where each unique function the gene carries out is counted as a BP and
162 having a greater BP count indicates that the gene affects more traits (He & Zhang, 2006;
163 Papakostas *et al.*, 2014; Williams *et al.*, 2023). A gene's PPI count instead is agnostic to
164 annotated functional traits and focuses instead on the number of other proteins it interacts with,
165 which provides a different kind of proxy for the degree of pleiotropy (He & Zhang, 2006;
166 Papakostas *et al.*, 2014; Williams *et al.*, 2023). BP counts were calculated by retrieving Gene
167 Ontology data associated with that gene from the OMA database using the omadb python API
168 (Altenhoff *et al.*, 2021). All GO evidence types were used to determine total biological process
169 involvement, but multiple entries of the same process were ignored. PPI counts were determined
170 for each protein by counting the number of interactions in the STRING database that surpassed
171 the .66 confidence score threshold. Confidence scores are provided for each interaction in
172 STRING, generated using the available evidence for a protein-protein interaction, and the chosen
173 threshold indicated high confidence that the given interaction exists (Szklarczyk *et al.*, 2023).
174 For both BP counts and PPI, larger numbers indicated more pleiotropy. At no point did we

175 deploy a hard cutoff to determine if a gene was pleiotropic or non-pleiotropic, instead opting to
176 derive distributions of these pleiotropic measures across ages.

177 ***Determination of broad function***

178 Using the Gene Ontology hierarchy of terms, we determined the broad category that each
179 specific GO term was associated with, for example *pyrimidine nucleobase biosynthetic process*
180 is a specific (leaf) term that falls under the *metabolic process* GO term. The broad categories into
181 which we grouped genes were the child terms of the Biological_Process term (GO:0008150),
182 which is the root of the biological process ontology. To each protein we then assigned
183 association to a broad functional category if one of its functions fell in that category. Ultimately,
184 16 functional categories were present in each species, but for simplicity we elected to analyze
185 only the metabolic, cellular, and developmental processes as these were among the most
186 abundant in each species. We plotted immune system processes for the *M. musculus* and *H.*
187 *sapiens* datasets as well, because the immune system is thought to be highly pleiotropic
188 (Sivakumaran *et al.*, 2011) and provided a basis of comparison to other selected processes. We
189 plotted immune system processes only for *M. musculus* and *H. sapiens* because other species had
190 immune system process gene counts that were too low for effective comparison.

191 ***Duplicated gene analysis***

192 Using the ensembl biomart (Harrison *et al.*, 2024), we identified the total set of
193 duplicated genes for *H. sapiens*, *M. musculus*, *D. rerio*, *D. melanogaster*, and *C. elegans*. *A.*
194 *thaliana* was excluded from this analysis because it was not available in the biomart dataset.
195 Each gene was then assigned a value based on the number of paralogs it had in the dataset, and
196 any gene with at least one paralog was considered to be duplicated in further analysis.

197

198 **Results**

199 *The prevalence of pleiotropy increases with gene age across eukaryotes*

200 Generally speaking, genes in middle-aged and older time bins have more pleiotropy, as
201 measured by biological process count, than genes in younger time bins (Fig. 1). This finding is
202 also recapitulated in the protein-protein interaction (PPI) results (Fig. S1). In older age bins the
203 distribution of biological processes tends to be unimodally distributed around the median value,
204 but younger genes develop skewed or bimodal distribution of biological process count, with a
205 prominent peak near the mean and a second peak around the single-process baseline. These
206 secondary peaks are not observed in the PPI plots, where even the age bins with the lowest mean
207 PPI are still well above the floor of 1 PPI. The statistical relationship between gene age and BP
208 count was tested using a one-way ANOVA, and for each species there is a significant
209 relationship between gene age and BP count (Table 1) as well as between gene age and PPI
210 (Table S1).

211 While, broadly speaking, younger gene age corresponds to less pleiotropy than middle
212 and older age, the qualitative dynamics of this pattern are relatively species-specific. In *H.*
213 *sapiens* and *M. musculus*, the mean BP rapidly climbs as genes age and then levels out across the
214 remaining ages. In *D. rerio* there is more variability in BP accumulation as age increases, with
215 some age bins having lower mean BP counts than the next youngest age bin. *D. melanogaster*
216 and *A. thaliana* exhibit a stepwise increase in BP count rather than a smooth accumulation of
217 biological processes. *C. elegans* diverges the most from the other organisms, with its youngest
218 age bins having approximately equal BP counts, and only the very old genes increasing in mean
219 BP count. These patterns only manifest in the BP plots; when looking at PPI there is a
220 universally smooth trend of constant accumulation of interactions as orthologs age.

221 ***The prevalence of pleiotropy differs across age and functional groups***

222 The prevalence of pleiotropy is distinct among groups of functions (Figs. 2, S2).
223 Metabolic processes almost always have the lowest prevalence of pleiotropy, and in *H. sapiens*
224 and *M. musculus*, the highest prevalence of pleiotropy occurs in the immune gene set in the
225 oldest age group. For *D. rerio*, *D. melanogaster*, *C. elegans*, and *A. thaliana* (for which immune
226 processes were not included) the developmental genes in the oldest age are the most pleiotropic.
227 Interestingly these differences are not consistent between the PPI and BP plots, likely due to the
228 kind of pleiotropy they represent (Fig. S2). Affirming our genome-wide findings, no young
229 functional group has a higher prevalence of pleiotropy than the corresponding old functional
230 group in the same organism. For each species, a two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate
231 the relationship between age category, trait, and BP. The relationships between both age group
232 and BP as well as trait and BP were significant for all species (Table 2). The relationship
233 between age group and PPI was significant for all species, and the relationship between trait and
234 PPI was significant in all species except for *D. rerio* (Table S2).

235 The number of genes in each functional group differs significantly, so we calculated a
236 bootstrapped mean for each functional group based on the group with the smallest number of
237 orthologs per species. We then determined 95% confidence intervals around these bootstrapped
238 means and found that these means were distinct based on their disjoint confidence intervals
239 (Figs. S4, S5), suggesting that the observed differences in distributions were likely not due to
240 sample size.

241 ***Gene duplication events do not decrease the prevalence of pleiotropy***

242 For each species, a two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the extent to which gene
243 age and duplication status could explain biological process count. The relationships between age

244 and BP as well as duplication status and BP were significant for all species (Table 3). The
245 relationship between gene age and PPI was significant for all species, and the relationship
246 between duplication status and PPI was significant in all species except *D. melanogaster* (Table
247 S3). Genes without paralogs generally have fewer biological processes associated with them than
248 genes with paralogs. Several individual age bins across the species show duplicated genes with a
249 prevalence of pleiotropy that was less than or equal to the non-duplicated genes, but the overall
250 trend supports increased pleiotropy in genes with paralogs (Fig. 3). This trend is also seen when
251 PPI is the measure of pleiotropy (Fig. S3). Furthermore, the exact trends between species vary,
252 with some species showing consistent differences between duplicated and singleton genes
253 throughout the entire age range (*H. sapiens*, *D. rerio*, *D. melanogaster*) while others have
254 inconsistent patterns across gene age (*M. musculus*). The *C. elegans* plots are challenging to
255 interpret due to the extremely limited duplicated gene counts.

256

257 **Discussion**

258 In this study, we have identified a potentially generalizable relationship between gene age
259 and the prevalence of pleiotropy. Our results suggest that young genes accumulate functions as
260 they age, eventually trending toward a plateau that could be indicative of a carrying capacity of
261 function rather than a balance between gain and loss of function rates. We have also shown that
262 genes belonging to metabolic, developmental, cellular, and immune functional groups differ in
263 their prevalence of pleiotropy, and these differences are preserved within age groups. These
264 results lay the groundwork to better understand the evolution and maintenance of pleiotropy in
265 multicellular eukaryotes.

266 While previous studies suggest that both PPI and BP act as complementary proxies of
267 pleiotropy (Williams *et al.*, 2023), there are differences between the two measures that may
268 explain the qualitative differences observed. Namely, PPI measures the number of interacting
269 partners a protein has and is agnostic to the action of the focal protein on those partners. BP
270 describes distinct actions a protein carries out, but any one of those processes could have many
271 protein-protein interactions associated with it. In the most extreme cases, as with the human
272 CAPN13 protein, a protein can be associated with a single BP (proteolysis) and have more than
273 750 annotated protein-protein interactions (Sorimachi *et al.*, 2011). The definition of pleiotropy
274 based on BP count is closely related to the concept of moonlighting, where a protein carries out
275 distinct actions in different contexts (Matos *et al.*, 2022). We could therefore interpret our results
276 as indicating that gaining more interactions is easier than developing novel functionality, which
277 matches expectations of protein evolution (i.e. micro- and macrotransitions) (Jayaraman *et al.*,
278 2022). This explanation concurs with the observed results, where increases in PPI are largely
279 consistent between ages (Fig. S2) while increases in BP are more abrupt and taper off
280 significantly with age (Fig. 2).

281 Previous work has implicated immune systems as being highly pleiotropic (Sivakumaran
282 *et al.*, 2011; Williams *et al.*, 2023), and our work has expanded on these findings by directly
283 comparing the abundance of pleiotropy in genes across a set of traits, enabling us to determine
284 more systemic variations in the prevalence of pleiotropy. We have shown that metabolic genes
285 tend to have low levels of pleiotropy, as measured by PPI and BP, compared to cellular process
286 and developmental genes. These findings are largely stable across the species we investigated
287 (Figs. 2, S2). It is unclear if these relationships are due to differences in the ability of each trait to
288 tolerate pleiotropy or if some traits are simply more liable to become pleiotropic through

289 evolutionary processes. We do not expect that the differences observed are strictly due to the
290 importance (in a fitness sense) of the traits in question as development, metabolism, and cellular
291 processes are all fundamental to the survival and reproduction of multicellular organisms. The
292 difference could instead be attributed to the nature of the proteins that are associated with each
293 process. For example, signaling proteins tend to be more pleiotropic than other protein classes
294 (Williams *et al.*, 2023), potentially indicating that the abundance of signaling proteins associated
295 with immunity and development are partially responsible for inflating the prevalence of
296 pleiotropy in genes associated with these traits.

297 Despite our expectation that gene duplications would reduce the prevalence of pleiotropy,
298 the vast majority of duplicated genes either maintain, or even increase, their prevalence of
299 pleiotropy compared to age-matched singleton genes. A review of the functional changes
300 associated with duplicated genes has found that complete subfunctionalization following gene
301 duplication is likely to be rare (Janiak *et al.*, 2019; Kuzmin *et al.*, 2022). Several processes may
302 act together to promote the maintenance of pleiotropy in these genes, including partial
303 subfunctionalization where both genes maintain at least some activity for each function, neo-
304 functionalization following subfunctionalization, dosage amplification where the excess gene
305 products associated with multiple copies is beneficial, and backup compensation where having a
306 second copy of a critical gene safeguards against loss of function (Kuzmin *et al.*, 2022). When
307 paralogs form complexes, selective pressure can lead to correlated mutations and provide another
308 avenue for paralogs to actively increase pleiotropy, as one member of a complex acquiring a
309 novel function can force others to acquire that same function (Marchant *et al.*, 2019). Critically,
310 our measures of pleiotropy cannot assess how well duplicated genes carry out their shared
311 functions. Thus, a gene that has lost much but not all of its functional capacity following a

312 duplication event (partial subfunctionalization) would still be pleiotropic in our analyses (Janiak
313 *et al.*, 2019). When looking for direct examples of this kind of interaction in our data we find that
314 many duplicates, such as *myogenic differentiation 1 (MYOD1)* and *myogenic factor 5 (MYF5)* in
315 mice, share a significant number of biological processes despite these genes having distinct and
316 independent roles in specialization and differentiation (Conerly *et al.*, 2016). Critically, even
317 though *MYF5* does not induce robust transcription while *MYOD1* does, it is still associated with
318 the biological process ‘regulation of DNA-templated transcription’. We are then left to believe
319 that duplication events play a relatively small role in the reduction of pleiotropy in the genome,
320 supporting the hypothesis that the accumulation of pleiotropic functions is instead limited by
321 reduced evolvability as genes acquire novel functions (Fraïsse *et al.*, 2019).

322 This work highlights the dynamism of pleiotropy and reveals a previously poorly
323 understood link between a gene’s pleiotropic status and its age. This relationship holds across six
324 distantly related model organisms, suggesting that it could be generalizable among multicellular
325 organisms. Further work could expand these findings to the single celled eukaryotes and other
326 domains of life to examine their broader generality. It is unlikely that the variance in the
327 prevalence of pleiotropy observed between traits is explained by the genes in the oldest age
328 groups being common to multiple species as we observed similar trends amongst the more
329 species-specific young genes. However, it would be interesting to use the pseudo-replication of
330 the same ortholog present in multiple species to study the accumulation of functions. For
331 example, does the same ortholog have the same functions across each species? If not, are there
332 some species where functions are similar while others have diverged? Such analysis could be
333 expanded to conduct maximum likelihood ancestral state reconstructions to determine if the
334 initial functions of a gene bias the other functions it may evolve over time.

335 Our work also suggests that the observation that immune genes are disproportionately
336 pleiotropic in humans (Sivakumaran *et al.*, 2011) may hold more broadly across species and gene
337 age groups. This raises profound questions about the nature of genomic organization and
338 function. For example, is the prevalence of pleiotropy dictated by the importance (in a fitness
339 related manner) of the trait or is it intrinsic to the protein type and cellular localization that are
340 necessary for the trait to function? Future investigation into mechanisms at the gene or cellular
341 level could provide fundamental insight into the maintenance of pleiotropy despite the potential
342 for constraining rapid adaptation (Guillaume & Otto, 2012; Fraisse *et al.*, 2019; Williams *et al.*,
343 2023).
344

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348

349 **Author Contributions**

350 R.A. and A.T.T. conceived the project. A.T.T. provided funding. R.A. and A.T.T.
351 designed the analyses, and R.A. conducted them. R.A. and A.T.T. wrote the manuscript.

352

353 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

354 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

355

356 **Data Accessibility**

357 The data and code used to generate these results will be made available on Dryad upon
358 manuscript acceptance (as specified by journal policy).

359

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440 with Gene Age? *Genome biology and evolution*, **8**, 3083–3089.

441 **List of Supplemental Figures**

442 **Table S1:** ANOVA tables for the relationship between the number of protein-protein interactions
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447 gene age, and gene duplication.

448 **Figure S1:** Old genes have an elevated prevalence of pleiotropy compared to young genes

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451 **Figure S4:** Bootstrapped mean biological process values for functional groups of genes

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453

454 **Tables**

455 **Table 1:** ANOVA tables for the relationship between the number of biological processes a gene
 456 is associated with and the age of that gene.

Species	Formula	df	Sum. Sq.	Mean Sq.	F	PR(>F)
<i>H. sapiens</i>	BP~Age	1	7723.26	7723.26	49.55	<2.01e-12
<i>M. Musculus</i>	BP~Age	1	2.46e4	2.46e4	163.89	<2e-16
<i>D. rerio</i>	BP~Age	1	452	452	18.33	<2e-5
<i>D. melanogaster</i>	BP~Age	1	2.3e4	2.3e4	521.29	<2e-16
<i>C. elegans</i>	BP~Age	1	7079.67	7079.67	359.06	<2e-16
<i>A. thaliana</i>	BP~Age	1	1.25e4	1.25e4	148.39	<2e-16

457

458 **Table 2:** Two-way ANOVA tables for the relationship between biological process count, gene
 459 age, and the primary trait associated with a gene.

Species	Factor	df	Sum. Sq.	Mean Sq.	F	PR(>F)
<i>H. sapiens</i>	Age	1	338.05	338.05	453.56	<2e-16
	Traits	4	166.01	41.5	55.56	<2e-16
<i>M. Musculus</i>	Age	1	359.48	359.48	453.88	<2e-16
	Traits	4	174.26	43.56	55.01	<2e-16
<i>D. rerio</i>	Age	1	76.46	76.46	140.26	<2e-16
	Traits	3	192.18	64.06	117.52	<2e-16
<i>D. melanogaster</i>	Age	1	503.41	503.41	922.33	<2e-16
	Traits	3	150.33	50.11	91.81	<2e-16
<i>C. elegans</i>	Age	1	87.75	87.75	142.13	<2e-16
	Traits	3	182.00	60.67	98.26	<2e-16
<i>A. thaliana</i>	Age	1	283.68	283.68	549.60	<2e-16
	Traits	3	292.62	97.54	188.63	<2e-16

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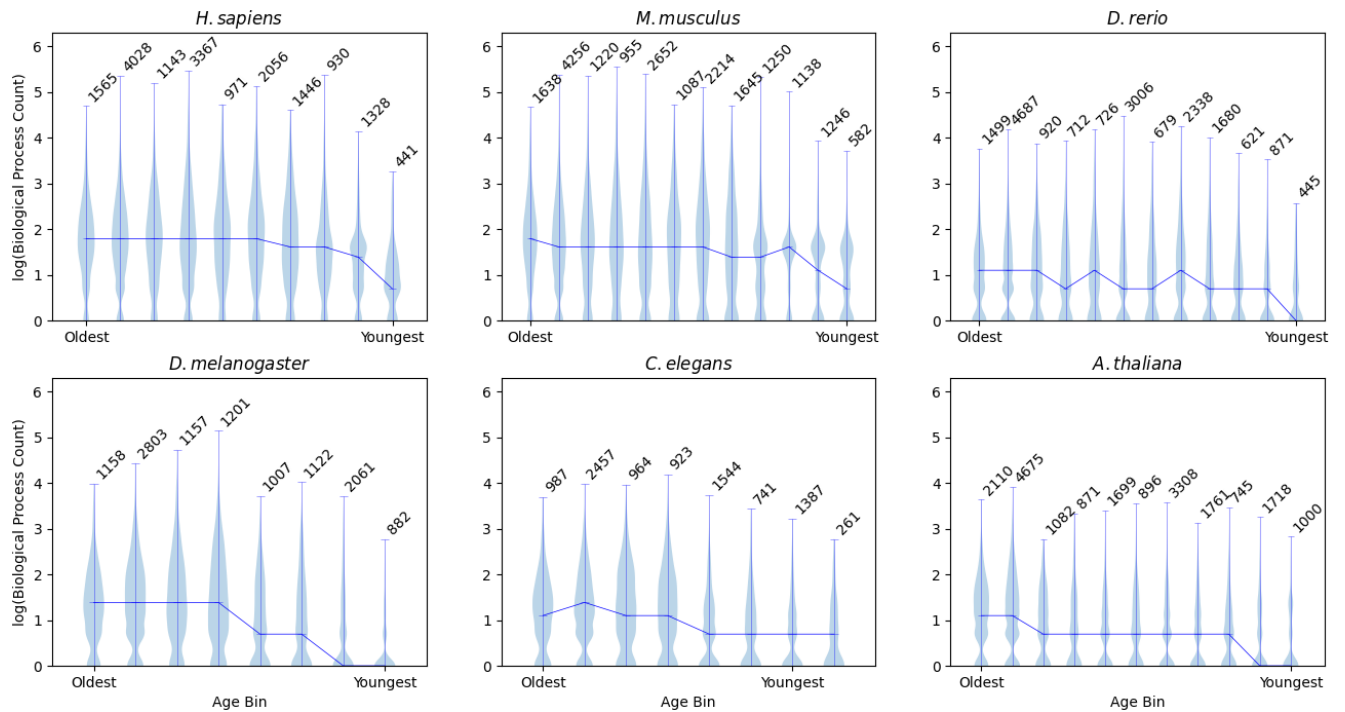
462 **Table 3:** Two-way ANOVA tables for the relationship between biological process count, gene
463 age, and gene duplication.

Species	Factor	df	Sum. Sq.	Mean Sq.	F	PR(>F)
<i>H. sapiens</i>	Age	1	8217.78	8217.78	53.16	<2e-16
	Duplication	1	2.21e4	2.21e4	142.98	<3.21e-13
<i>M. Musculus</i>	Age	1	1.64e4	1.64e4	110.97	<2e-16
	Duplication	1	4.96e4	4.96e4	334.96	<2e-16
<i>D. rerio</i>	Age	1	509.25	509.25	21.00	<4.62e-6
	Duplication	1	7658.53	7658.53	315.83	<2e-16
<i>D. melanogaster</i>	Age	1	2.23e4	2.23e4	517.50	<2e-16
	Duplication	1	597.49	597.49	13.85	1.99e-4
<i>C. elegans</i>	Age	1	6864.47	6864.47	348.57	<2e-16
	Duplication	1	455.62	455.62	23.14	1.53e-6

464

465

466 Figures



467

468 **Figure 1:** Older genes have an elevated amount of pleiotropy as measured by biological process

469 (BP) count. The y axis shows violin plots built on the $\log_{10}(\text{biological process count})$ for all

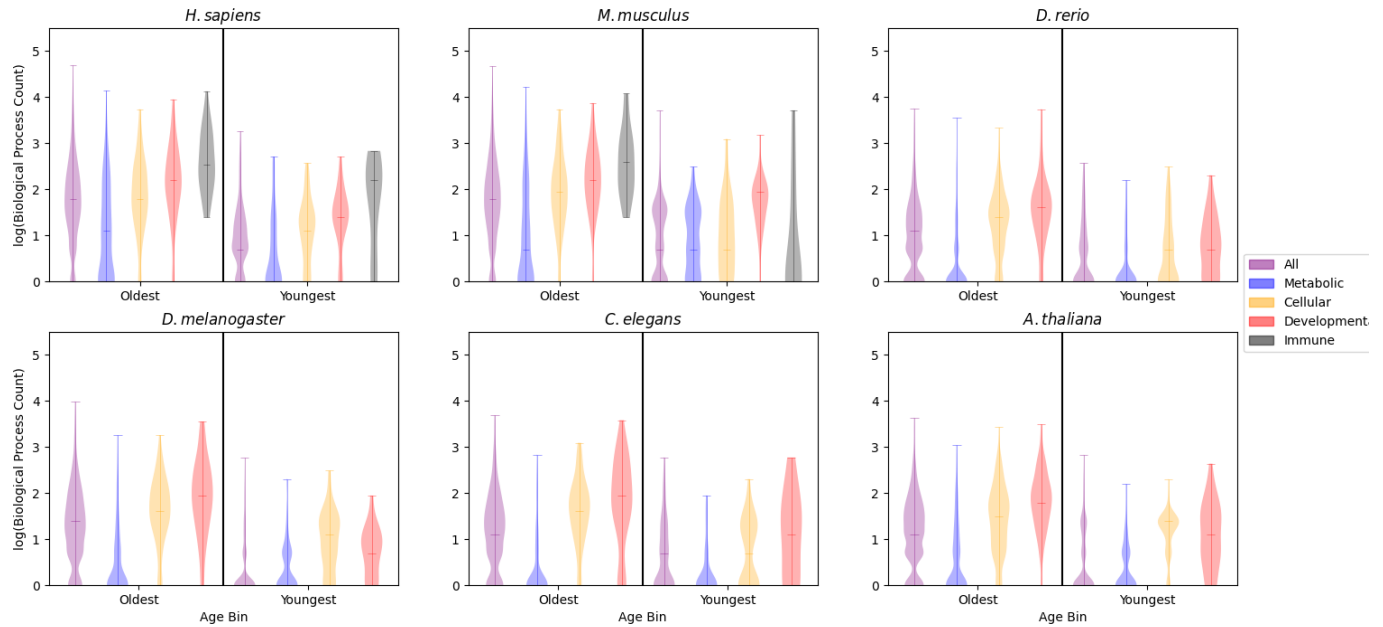
470 genes in each age bin. The x axis shows age bins for genes, from oldest on the left to the

471 youngest on the right. Orthologs that did not have a BP count were excluded from these plots.

472 The number of genes present in each binned age group is denoted above the corresponding

473 violin.

474

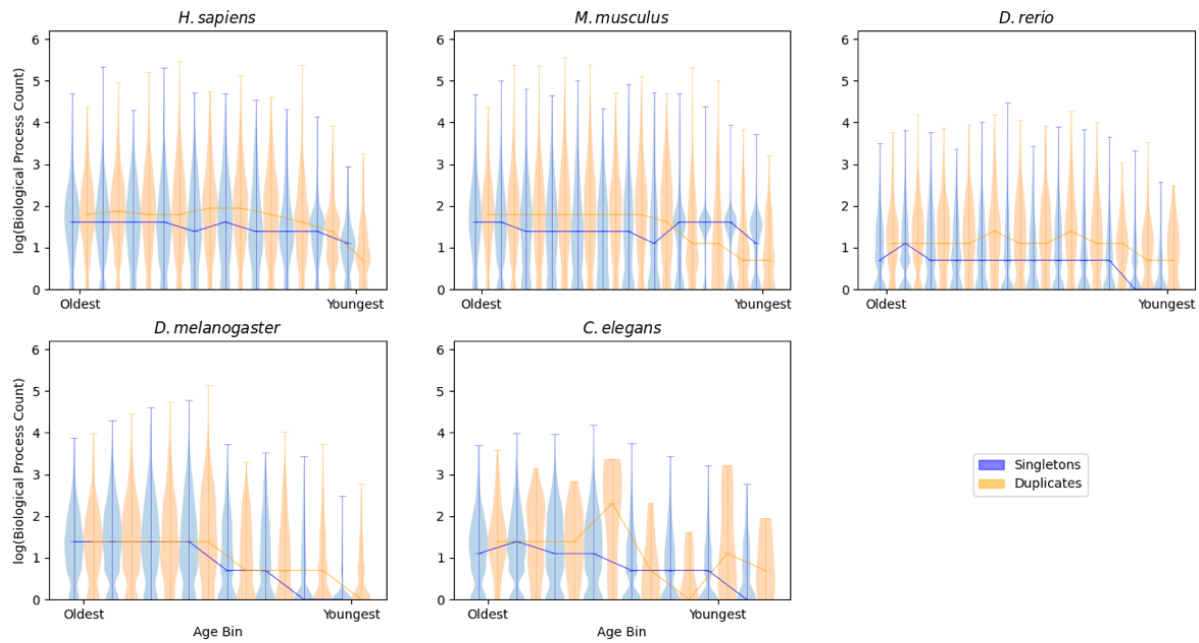


475

476 **Figure 2:** The prevalence of pleiotropy is dependent on gene function. Plots show genes in the
477 oldest and youngest time bins (labeled Oldest and Youngest). The y axis shows violin plots built
478 on the $\log_{10}(\text{biological process count})$ for all genes in a given age bin, separated into 4 functional
479 groups (metabolic, cellular process, developmental, and immune processes). Orthologs that did
480 not have a BP count were excluded from these plots.

481

482



483

484 **Figure 3:** Genes with paralogs are more pleiotropic than genes without paralogs. The y axis
485 shows violin plots built on the \log_{10} (biological process count) for all genes in a given age bin.
486 The x axis shows age bins for genes, from oldest on the left to the youngest on the right. Genes
487 with paralogs are shown in orange, genes without paralogs are shown in blue. Orthologs that did
488 not have a BP count were excluded from these plots.