1	Full title:
2	Reduced plasticity in coupling strength in the SCN clock in aging as revealed
3	by Kuramoto modelling
4	Short title:
5	Coupling strength estimation in the SCN
6	
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### 20 Abstract

21 The mammalian circadian clock is located in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) and consist of a 22 network of coupled neurons, which are entrained to the environmental light-dark cycle. The phase 23 coherence of the neurons is plastic and driven by the length of the day. With aging the capacity to 24 behaviorally adapt to changes in the light regime reduces. The mechanisms underlying photoperiodic 25 adaptation are largely unknown, but are important to unravel for the development of novel 26 interventions to improve the quality of life of the elderly. We analyzed the neuronal synchronization 27 of PER2::LUC protein expression in the SCN of young and old mice entrained to either long or short 28 photoperiod and used the synchronization levels as input for a two-community noisy Kuramoto 29 model. With the Kuramoto model we estimated the coupling strength between and within neuronal 30 subpopulations. The model revealed that the coupling strength between and within subpopulations 31 contributes to photoperiod induced changes in the phase relationship among neurons. We found that 32 the SCN of young mice adapts in coupling strength over a large range, with low coupling strength in 33 long photoperiod and higher coupling strength in short photoperiod. In aged mice we also found low 34 coupling strength in long photoperiod, but strongly reduced capacity to reach high coupling strength 35 in short photoperiod. The inability to respond with an increase in coupling strength shows that 36 manipulation of photoperiod is not a suitable strategy to enhance clock function with aging. We 37 conclude that the inability of aged mice to reach high coupling strength makes aged mice less capable 38 to seasonal adaptation than young mice.

39

### **40 Author Summary**

Circadian clocks drive daily rhythms in physiology and behavior. In mammals the clock resides in the
suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of the hypothalamus. The SCN consist of a network of coupled
neurons which are synchronized to produce a coherent rhythm. Due to plasticity of the network,
seasonal adaptation to short winter days and long summer days occurs. Disturbances in circadian
rhythmicity of the elderly have negative health effects, such as neurodegenerative diseases. With the

46 rise in life expectancy this is becoming a major issue. In our paper, we used a model to compare the 47 neuronal coupling in the SCN between young and old animals. We investigated whether exposure to 48 short photoperiod can strengthen coupling among clock cells, and thereby clock function, in old 49 animals. We observed that this is not possible, indicating that simple environmental manipulations are 50 not an option. We suggest that receptor targeted interventions are required, setting the path for further 51 investigation.

52

# 53 Introduction

54

55 Many organisms increase their chance of survival and reproduction by anticipating seasonal changes 56 in temperature and food availability. Internal clocks drive the circadian and seasonal rhythms, 57 responsible for physiological and behavioral adaptation. In mammals, the endogenous clock is located 58 in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of the anterior hypothalamus in the brain. The SCN is a 59 relatively small structure that consist of approximately 20.000 neurons [1]. Generation of circadian 60 rhythms occurs autonomously in all individual neurons and is based on a negative feedback loop 61 between clock genes and their protein products [2-4]. This renders a population of autonomous 62 oscillators that have to synchronize in order to produce a coherent rhythm at the population level 63 [5,6]. The phase coherence is plastic, and programmed by the length of the day, allowing the animal 64 to adapt to the seasonal cycles [7-10].

65

How phase coherence is established at the network level is relevant for seasonal adaptation and breeding, but also for understanding clock disturbance in aging [11]. Although it is known that differences in the phase relationship between neurons underlie photoperiodic adaptation, the mechanism is unknown. One may intuitively expect that a decrease in coupling strength leads to a broadened phase distribution. Alternatively, phase differences can be driven by an active process, for example due to repulsive coupling between subpopulations of SCN neurons [12]. In such a scenario, coupling within these subpopulations could be equally strong in long and short photoperiod.

73 Subpopulations of SCN neurons form phase clusters, that map approximately to the core and shell 74 SCN, and to the anterior and posterior SCN [7,13,14]. The question addressed in this study is whether 75 we can explain the changes in synchronization of the activity phase of the neurons between different 76 photoperiods by changes in coupling strength. Particularly we will investigate the ability of older mice 77 to adjust to changes in daylength. 78 79 For optimal functioning of the SCN a combination of molecular (e.g. clock gene expression), cellular 80 (e.g. electrical activity) and network (e.g. neurotransmitters) elements are important [15]. 81 Neurotransmitters play a crucial role in synchronizing the neurons in the SCN. An age-related decline 82 in expression of neurotransmitters has been reported [16], probably causing reduced communication 83 among neurons in the aged SCN [17]. It has been suggested that weakened circadian rhythmicity of 84 the elderly have negative health effects, and is causal to a broad array of diseases [18]. Therefore, 85 strengthening the clock in the aged is important, and strategies to do so rely on an identification of 86 underlying mechanisms. Here we investigated whether mechanisms underlying age-related changes in 87 synchronization are the same as mechanisms underlying photoperiod induced changes in 88 synchronization. 89 90 We used data from bioluminescence imaging of single-cell PER2::LUC gene expression rhythms as 91 input for a Kuramoto model [19,20] to estimate the coupling strength within and between neuronal 92 subpopulations in young and old mice entrained to long (LP, LD 16:8) and short (SP, LD 8:16) 93 photoperiod [7,15]. Neuronal subpopulations of the SCN were identified with an unbiased clustering 94 algorithm [21]. We took into account that the coupling strengths are not the same within and between 95 the different neuronal subpopulations, since it is known that in the SCN the core projects densely to 96 the shell while the shell projects only sparsely to the core [4]. We found evidence that coupling 97 strength within and between subpopulations contributes to photoperiod induced changes in the phase 98 relationship among neurons. Moreover, the SCN of young animals is able to adjust the coupling 99 strength over a larger range, with lower coupling strength in long photoperiod and higher coupling

- strength in short photoperiod. Old animals appear to have a diminished range in coupling strength,
- 101 and particularly are unable to increase coupling in short photoperiod.

102

# 103 **Results**

104

# 105 Synchronization of PER2::LUC rhythms in the SCN

106 We calculated the order parameter (r) and peak time dispersion from the smoothed bioluminescence

traces (Fig 1A) for all SCN slices in the different experimental conditions. To test whether the order

108 parameter is an appropriate measure for synchronization we calculated the Pearson correlation

109 coefficient between r and peak time dispersion, which was taken as a measure for synchronization in

- 110 [7,15]. The correlation coefficient showed a strong negative correlation between *r* and peak time
- dispersion (R=-0.91; Fig 1B), which is expected as high dispersion should lead to lower synchrony
- 112 (*r*). Furthermore, we compared the values of *r* between the different experimental conditions.
- 113 Independent t-tests showed that the *r* value was always significantly higher in SP than in LP in both
- young and old mice (young anterior, LP: 0.49±0.23, n=4, young anterior, SP: 0.87±0.04, n=5, p<0.05;
- 115 young posterior, LP: 0.77±0.12, n=4, young posterior, SP: 0.91±0.03, n=5, p<0.05; old anterior, LP:
- $116 \qquad 0.53 \pm 0.23, n=7, old anterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08, n=10, p<0.01; old posterior, LP: 0.77 \pm 0.06, n=9, old anterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08, n=10, p<0.01; old posterior, LP: 0.77 \pm 0.06, n=9, old anterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08, n=10, p<0.01; old posterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08, n=10, p>0.01; old posterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08, n=10, p>0.01; old posterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08, p>0.01; old posterior, SP: 0.80 \pm 0.08; old posterior, SP: 0.$
- posterior, SP: 0.83±0.04, n=10, p<0.05; Fig 1C). These results are in agreement with the results of
- **118** [15].
- 119



Fig 1. Synchronization of the SCN. (A) Example of smoothed intensity traces of PER2::LUC expression from
single-cells in the anterior SCN of a young mice in short photoperiod. (B) Pearson correlation between r and
peak time dispersion for all recordings (n=54, R=-0.91). (C) The order parameter r is calculated for all slices and
is shown for anterior and posterior slices in long (green dots) and short photoperiod (blue dots) in young and old
mice. The black crosses indicate the mean; \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01.</li>

126

### 127 Coupling strength and noise estimation

128 To determine the coupling strength (K) between the neurons in the SCN for the different experimental 129 conditions, we used r as input to the one-community Kuramoto model. Furthermore, we estimated the 130 level of noise (D) in the model. For both the coupling strength and the noise we calculated for each 131 slice an upper and lower bound (Fig S1). A one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that K and 132 D were not normally distributed (p>0.05). To compare the bounds of K and D between the 133 experimental conditions we used non-parametric independent-samples median tests. The lower and 134 upper bound of K is always significantly higher in SP than LP (p<0.05), except for the upper bound of 135 the posterior SCN in old mice (Fig S1A). There were no significant differences in the lower and upper

136 bound of D between the experimental conditions (Fig S1B). Next, the ranges between the medians of 137 the upper and lower bounds for K and D in the different experimental conditions were calculated (Fig 2). For young mice the range for K in LP does not overlap with the range for K in SP. Therefore the 138 139 coupling strength is definitely higher in SP than LP in young mice. For old mice the range of K in SP 140 lies within the upper half of the range of K in LP, which indicates that K again is higher in SP than 141 LP, although this is not significant. The range between the upper and lower bound for D is larger for 142 LP than SP in both young and old mice, however the range does not differ significantly between the 143 experimental conditions. The mean value between the upper bound and lower bound of D is close to 144 one for all experimental conditions. This shows that D will not significantly impact the results of the 145 two-community Kuramoto model, provided that D has a constant value that is independent of the 146 synchronization level.

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Fig 2. Range of *K* and *D* in different experimental conditions. (A) Range for the coupling strength between neurons in anterior and posterior slices in long (green) and short (blue) photoperiod in young and old mice. The range is based on the distance between the median of the upper and lower bound of *K* in each condition. The black cross indicates the mean of the range. (B) Range for the noise term in anterior and posterior slices in long (green) and short (blue) photoperiod in young and old mice. The range is based on the distance between the median of the upper and lower bound of *D* in each condition. The black cross indicates the mean of the range.

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### 157 Synchronization of the neuronal subpopulations

158 Next, we calculated the order parameter for the two neuronal subpopulations, that were identified 159 using an unbiased community detection algorithm [21]. Note that the spatial distribution of the 160 neuronal subpopulations only partially corresponds with the division of the SCN in dorsomedial 161 (shell) and ventrolateral (core) SCN based on neuropeptide content [24] and differs between the 162 anterior and posterior slices (Fig 3A). From now on we will refer to the ventromedial cluster from 163 anterior slices and the medial cluster from posterior slices the *medially oriented cluster*. We will refer 164 to the dorsolateral cluster from anterior slices and the lateral cluster from posterior slices the *laterally* 165 *oriented cluster* for simplicity. Paired-sampled t-tests showed that r was always significantly higher in 166 each of the neuronal subpopulations than in the SCN as a whole (p<0.05, result not shown). For the 167 medially oriented cluster there was only a significant difference in r between LP and SP in the 168 anterior SCN of young mice (young anterior, LP: 0.66±0.12, n=4, young anterior, SP: 0.92±0.02, n=5, 169 p<0.05; Fig 3B). For the laterally oriented cluster r was significantly higher in SP than in LP in nearly all conditions, except for the posterior SCN of young mice (young anterior, LP: 0.78±0.08, n=4, 170 171 young anterior, SP: 0.95±0.01, n=5, p<0.01; young posterior, LP: 0.85±0.09, n=4, young posterior, 172 SP: 0.92±0.02, n=5, p=0.286; old anterior, LP: 0.74±0.08, n=7, old anterior, SP: 0.92±0.03, n=10, 173 p<0.01; old posterior, LP: 0.80±0.08, n=9, old posterior, SP: 0.89±0.04, n=10, p<0.01; Fig 3C).

174





177 Fig 3. Synchronization in the SCN neuronal subpopulations. (A) Cell location projected on bright field 178 image of the anterior (left) and posterior (right) SCN. The blue cells represent the medial oriented cluster and 179 the orange cells the lateral oriented cluster. (B/C) The order parameter is calculated for both subpopulations of 180 all slices and is shown for anterior and posterior slices in long (green dots) and short photoperiod (blue dots) in 181 young and old mice. The black crosses indicate the mean of the experimental condition. Fig B shows the result 182 of the medial oriented cluster and Fig C of the lateral oriented cluster; \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01.

183

#### Estimation within and between community coupling strength 184

185 Next, we used the order parameter as calculated for the subpopulations in the different experimental 186 conditions as input for the extended Kuramoto model [19,20]. We made the assumption that D=1 for

187 all experimental conditions, since the changes in D were minor in the results of the one-community

188 Kuramoto model. To estimate the relationship between  $K_1$  and  $L_1$  and  $K_2$  and  $L_2$  the following

- 189 equations, which are based on the extended Kuramoto model [19,20] were solved for each
- 190 experimental condition. The equation

191 
$$V(K_1r_1 + L_1r_2) = r_1$$
 (1)

shows the relation between  $K_1$  and  $L_1$ . Where  $K_1$  represents the coupling strength within the medially oriented cluster,  $L_1$  represents the interaction strength from the lateral oriented cluster to the medial oriented cluster and  $r_1$  is the order parameter for the medial oriented cluster. And the equation  $V(K_2r_2 + L_2r_1) = r_2$  (2) shows the relation between  $K_2$  and  $L_2$ . Where  $K_2$  represents the coupling strength within the lateral oriented cluster,  $L_2$  represents the interaction strength from the medial oriented cluster to the lateral oriented cluster and  $r_2$  is the order parameter for the lateral oriented cluster. Fig 4 shows a simplified

representation of the model.



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Fig 4. Simplified representation of the two-community Kuramoto model. The blue area represent the medial oriented cluster in which the coupling strength is denoted by  $K_1$  and the orange area represents the lateral oriented cluster in which the coupling strength is denoted by  $K_2$ .  $L_1$  shows the interaction strength from the lateral oriented cluster to the medial oriented cluster and  $L_2$  shows the interaction strength from the medial oriented cluster to the lateral oriented cluster.

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In Fig 5 the relationship between K and L is shown for the different experimental conditions. For both subpopulations we found a negative linear relation between K and L. The coupling strength (K) within a neuronal subpopulation is always positive and the interaction strength (L) between the neuronal subpopulations can both be positive or negative, in which a negative strength indicates an inhibitory connection. A high level of synchronization within a cluster can either be reached with high coupling strength within the cluster and when the cluster receives low interaction strength from the other

213 cluster or with moderate coupling strength within the cluster and moderate interaction strength from

the other cluster.

Taken more general we can describe the relation between  $K_1$  and  $L_1$  as the linear line

216 
$$K_1 = a_1 L_1 + b_1$$
 (3)

217 in which  $a_1 = -\frac{r_2}{r_1}$  and  $b_1$  is only dependent on  $r_1$  in an exponential manner. Therefore, when  $r_1$  is

**218** greater than  $r_2$  the slope of the line is greater than -1 and when  $r_1$  is smaller than  $r_2$  the slope of the

219 line is smaller than -1. Furthermore, when  $r_1$  increases the line shifts vertically upwards and when  $r_1$ 

decreases the line shifts vertically downwards. The relationship between  $K_2$  and  $L_2$  can be described in

221 the same way, by interchanging the role of  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ .

From our available experimental data it is difficult to obtain precise values for  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ ,  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ . We

found that the synchronization in the neuronal subpopulations is always higher than the

synchronization of the SCN as a whole and from the relation between r and K we know that K goes to

infinity when *r* reaches 1. This suggests that the coupling strength within the neuronal subpopulations

is higher than the coupling strength in the SCN in general. However, we were not able to measure the

single cell traces from the neuronal subpopulations independent of each other. Therefore it is unclear

228 whether the increased level of synchronization within the neuronal subpopulations is caused by an

increase in coupling strength within the clusters or due to the interaction strength between the clusters

230 or due to a combination of both.

Although we cannot estimate the precise values for  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ ,  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  for the different experimental

conditions, we can already learn more about the coupling strength in the SCN from the relations

between K and L for the different experimental conditions. For instance, for the complete range of L,

the lines from young mice in SP and LP are further apart than the lines from old mice in SP and LP.

235 This indicates that the range over which young mice can adapt their coupling strength is larger than

the range over which old animals can adapt their coupling strength.



237

Fig 5. Coupling strength within and between neuronal subpopulations of the SCN. (A) The relation between the coupling strength  $(K_1)$  within the medial oriented cluster and the interaction strength  $(L_1)$  from the lateral oriented cluster to the medial oriented cluster are shown for the different experimental conditions. The green line are old mice in LP, the blue line old mice in SP, the orange line are young mice in LP and the purple line are young mice in SP. There is a range of values for  $K_1$  and  $L_1$  that result in the same synchronization as observed in the bioluminescence data. (B) The same as Fig A for the coupling strength  $(K_2)$  within the lateral oriented cluster and the interaction strength  $(L_2)$  from the medial oriented cluster to the lateral oriented cluster.

## 246 **Discussion**

247

248 In this study we analyzed single-cell PER2::LUC gene expression rhythms of SCN neurons to 249 determine the synchronization levels in the SCN as a whole and within the neuronal subpopulations in 250 the SCN for young and old mice in long and short photoperiod. By use of the Kuramoto model we 251 identified that the SCN of old animals is less able to adjust to a short photoperiod because of an 252 inability to respond to short photoperiod with an increase in coupling strength. There is no difference 253 between young and old animals in long photoperiod, when only a low degree of coupling is required. 254 Hence, exposure to short photoperiod is not a successful strategy in order to boost the rhythm of old 255 animals.

256

257 The extended Kuramoto model appeared to be useful to determine the coupling strengths between 258 neurons in the SCN based on PER2::LUC data, once the noise component was separated from the 259 coupling strength. From the relation between K and L we have found, we can make two statements 260 regarding coupling strength in the SCN. First, for the whole range of interaction strengths ( $L_1$  and  $L_2$ ), 261 the coupling strength ( $K_1$  and  $K_2$ ) is higher in SP than LP in both young and old mice. Higher coupling 262 strength in SP than LP confirms that the higher synchronization seen in SP is supported by changes in 263 coupling strength. Second, the range over which young mice can adapt their coupling strength 264 between SP and LP is larger for both subpopulations than the range over which old mice can adapt 265 their coupling strength between SP and LP. This indicates that old mice are less capable of adapting to 266 different photoperiods. This is in agreement with previous data [15], showing that old mice had 267 behaviorally a strongly reduced ability to adapt to different photoperiods. 268 269 There will always be variability between animals within an experimental group. For neuronal 270 synchronization in the SCN it is known that there is experimentally more variability in the level of 271 phase coherence between old mice than between young mice as well as there is more variability 272 between mice in LP than in SP [15,25]. This is in agreement with our results for neuronal 273 synchronization in the SCN. In old mice there is a larger variability in synchronization within any 274 experimental condition than in young mice and for both young and old mice there is a larger 275 variability in synchronization in LP than in SP. 276 277 Previous studies showed that synchronization between neurons was increased in short photoperiod

and decreased in long photoperiod [7,10]. In Fig 2A can be seen that for young mice the upper bound
of the coupling strength in LP is lower than the lower bound of the coupling strength in SP. Thus,
there is no overlap in the coupling strength levels between SP and LP, meaning that the coupling
strength in SP is always higher than in LP. For old animals the ranges of the coupling strength do
overlap between SP and LP. However, the lower bound of the coupling strength in SP lies within the
upper half of the range for the coupling strength in LP, indicating that it is plausible that the coupling
strength is higher in SP than LP, also for old animals. The noise is approximately the same in all

experimental conditions, which is to be expected since the thermal environment of the neurons does
not change between experimental conditions. This finding indicates that the increment in variability in
old mice do not result from an increment in noise level.

288

289 The order parameter, representing the synchronization, was normalized to obtain a value between 0

and 1, in which 0 means that the phases of the single-cells are randomly distributed and 1 implies

291 perfect synchrony [26,27]. A limitation of the extended Kuramoto model is that coupling strength

would become infinite when the neuronal synchronization of the SCN is 100%. This problem is

theoretical rather than practical: due to the differences in intrinsic characteristics of the neurons and

noise in the system, perfect synchronization will never be reached [28].

295

296 One unique property of the extended Kuramoto model used in this study is that the coupling strengths 297 between and within the two communities can vary from each other. From chemical coupling it is 298 known that the dorsal SCN receives strong input from the ventral SCN, whereas the ventral SCN 299 receives scarce input from the dorsal SCN [29,30]. This can be taken into account when using the 300 model by taking different values for  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  to make the simulations more realistic. However, we do 301 not know whether the constraints for chemical and molecular coupling are the same. Identifying 302 constraints for coupling strength between (and within) communities could help in further specifying 303 the dynamics in the SCN, using a modeling approach.

304

305 Previous modeling work by Myung and Pauls [31] describes the interaction between two functional 306 oscillators: one in the dorsal and one in the ventral SCN. Their work pioneered in showing the 307 existence of repulsive coupling from the ventral part of the SCN to the dorsal part of the SCN and 308 attractive coupling from the dorsal part of the SCN to the ventral part of the SCN. Myung and Pauls 309 furthermore suggested that the repulsive coupling strength is higher in LP than in SP, creating a wider 310 peak time dispersion between neurons in LP. We could translate the results of Myung and Pauls as 311 constraints into our model, but then we have to keep in mind that the model of Myung and Pauls was 312 not aimed nor designed to describe coupling among the neuronal oscillators within the dorsal or

313 within the ventral SCN, but was aimed to describe coupling only between the dorsal and ventral SCN. 314 The addition of parameters for the coupling strength within neuronal subpopulations makes our model 315 more realistic, but makes it computationally more complicated. Their ventral cluster would 316 approximately match with our medially oriented cluster and their dorsal cluster would approximately 317 match with our laterally oriented cluster. Increasing the repulsive interaction strength between the 318 medially oriented cluster and the laterally oriented cluster in LP compared to SP is possible in our 319 model. This would have as result that the differences in coupling strength within the clusters (K)320 between photoperiods would decrease in comparison with a situation where the coupling between 321 clusters (L) would be similar between photoperiods (Fig 6).



Fig 6. Constrain for the Kuramoto model. A study by Myung and Pauls [31] suggested that the negative
coupling strength from the ventral part to the dorsal part of the SCN is stronger in LP than in SP. The black stars
show how this would influence our model. The difference in coupling strength (K<sub>2</sub>) would be small between LP
(green line) and SP (blue line).

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To recapitulate, with the extended Kuramoto model we could determine the coupling strengths between neurons in the SCN, after we measured the synchronization of the neurons, if there was a constant thermal environment (which can be provided). We found evidence that coupling strength within and between subpopulations contributes to photoperiod induced changes in the phase relationship between neurons. In long photoperiod we found lower coupling strengths, and in short photoperiod higher coupling strengths both between and within populations. In young mice, the coupling strengths are higher during short photoperiod than in old mice, as aged mice appear to have a

- reduced capacity to reach a higher coupling strength in the SCN. The extended Kuramoto model
- appeared to be highly suitable to determine network properties of the SCN, that are not directly
- measurable, but can be derived on the basis of available empirical data.
- 338

## 339 Methods

340

# 341 Bioluminescence Imaging and Analysis

342 To obtain the parameters for the Kuramoto model, the PERIOD2::LUCIFERASE (PER2::LUC) gene 343 expression data from the studies [7,15] was used. The dataset consisted of bioluminescence data from 344 young (4-8 months) and old (22-28 months) homozygous PER2::LUC mice entrained to either long 345 photoperiod (LD 16:8) or short photoperiod (LD 8:16). For details on the data collection see Buijink 346 et al. In short, mice were killed 1 to 3 h before lights-off. The brain was dissected and the SCN was 347 sliced in coronal slices with a VT 1000S vibrating microtome (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, 348 Germany). Slices containing the SCN were optically identified and placed in a petri dish. The dish 349 was transferred to a temperature-controlled  $(37^{\circ}C)$  light-tight chamber, equipped with an upright 350 microscope and a cooled charge-coupled device camera (ORCA-UU-BT-1024, Hamamatsu Photonics 351 Europe, Herrsching am Ammersee, Germany). Bioluminescence images were collected with a 1-h 352 time resolution. 353 To analyze the time series of bioluminescence images a custom-made MATLAB-based (Mathworks, 354 Natick, MA, USA) program was used, as described in [7]. Briefly, groups of adjacent pixels with 355 luminescence intensity above the noise level were defined as regions of interest (ROIs). Each ROI is 356 referred to as a 'single cell'. The average bioluminescence of all pixels in each ROI was calculated for 357 the image series, which resulted in the bioluminescence traces representing PER2::LUC expression 358 for all single-cell ROIs. For the analysis of rhythm characteristics, such as peak time and period, the 359 raw PER2::LUC expression traces were smoothed and resampled to one data point per minute. Only

360 single-cell traces containing at least three cycles with a period length between 20-28 hours were

included for further analysis.

The phase distribution and the Kuramoto order parameter (*r*) were calculated for all SCN slices. Phase distribution was defined as the standard deviation (*SD*) of the peak times from all cells in a slice of the specified cycle in vitro. The order parameter is a measure for synchronization and is based on the relative phase of the single cells. The order parameter was determined by first calculating the mean peak time  $(\tilde{t}_p)$  of PER2::LUC expression of all cells ( $j = 1 \dots N$ ) for the specified cycle:

367 
$$\bar{t}_p = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N t_{p,j}}{N}.$$
 (4)

368 Then the relative phase of each cell was approximated by first subtracting the peak time of the

individual cell from the averaged peak time of all cells to get the relative peak time and then

370 converting the relative peak time to its relative phase  $(\theta_r)$ :

$$\theta_{r,j} = \frac{(t_p - t_{p,j})}{\tau} 2\pi, \tag{5}$$

where  $\tau$  is the period in hours. The relative phase can be approximated because the sin(x) function is linear for small x and the relative peak times are small in comparison with the period. Thereafter, the relative phase was transformed with Euler's formula and the absolute value was taken to get the order parameter (*r*):

$$r = \left| \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} e^{i\theta_{r,j}}}{N} \right|.$$
(6)

377 The order parameter can take values between 0 and 1, in which 0 means that the neurons are

378 completely unsynchronized and 1 means perfect synchrony.

379

#### **380** Community Detection

381 To identify functional clusters in the SCN neuronal network, we used a community detection method

that was previously described by [21]. In brief, from the raw time series of PER2::LUC

383 bioluminescence traces a cross-correlation matrix was constructed. Next, with the use of random 384 matrix theory, the global (SCN-wide) and local (neuron-specific) noise components were filtered out 385 of the cross-correlation matrix. Clusters were detected with optimally contrasted functional signature, 386 resulting in a positive overall correlation within clusters and a negative overall correlation between 387 clusters, relative to the global SCN activity. Although the clustering algorithm was not bound to a pre-388 defined number of groups, the community detection method results consistently in two main groups of 389 cells with a robust spatial distribution. The spatial distribution differed slightly for the anterior and 390 posterior slices [7,15]. Hence, the resulting clusters were visually labeled as ventromedial and 391 dorsolateral in the anterior SCN and as medial and lateral in the posterior SCN slices.

392

#### 393 Kuramoto model

394 To model the SCN we used a Kuramoto model. The Kuramoto model is a simple model that only 395 contains phase information [22]. First we used a one-community Kuramoto model to find an upper 396 and lower bound for the coupling strength in the different experimental conditions. Furthermore we 397 used the one-community Kuramoto model to estimate the amount of noise in the model. The noise 398 term represents the thermal environment of the SCN (i.e., external noise), which should be the same 399 in all experimental conditions. With use of the one-community model we show that the amount of 400 noise is indeed approximately the same in the different experimental conditions. The same amount of 401 noise between the different experimental conditions was a requirement to extend to a two-community 402 Kuramoto model, such that the influence of the noise could be separated from the influence of the 403 coupling strength. We used the two-community Kuramoto model to find the relationship between the 404 coupling strength within each subgroup and the coupling strength between the two subgroups. Here 405 we took the upper and lower bounds for the coupling strength as found with the one-community 406 model into consideration.

407

### 408 **One-community Kuramoto model**

In the one-community Kuramoto model we consider one-community of *N* oscillators. Each oscillator corresponds to a neuron in the SCN. The oscillators interact with a strength *K* which gives a meanfield interaction strength *K*/*N*. The phase angles of the oscillators are denoted by  $\theta_{i}$ , i=1, ..., N and

represent the state of the neuron. To simplify the model we have set the natural frequency of all

413 oscillators to zero. Since any constant frequency can be rotated out by changing the frame of reference

414 of the system, any constant average natural frequency can be chosen [23]. The equation for a single

415 representative neuron is given by:

416 
$$d\theta(t) = -Kr\sin\theta(t)dt + DdW_t,$$
 (7)

417 Where *D* is the noise strength and  $W_t$  is a standard Brownian motion. The noise can be understood as

the effect of the thermal environment of the SCN or as time-dependent variations in the natural

419 frequencies of individual oscillators. Now we will integrate the SDE from 0 to *T* giving:

420  
$$\Delta_T := \theta(T) - \theta(0)$$
$$= -Kr \int_0^T \sin \theta(s) ds + D(W_T - W_0)$$
(8)

421 Which, when taking the expectation leads to

 $E[\Delta_T] = 0. (9)$ 

423 From Itô calculus we can calculate

424 
$$\theta(T)^2 = -2Kr \int_0^T \theta(s) \sin \theta(s) ds + 2D \int_0^T \theta(s) dW_s + TD^2.$$
(10)

425 In order to find upper and lower bounds on the noise strength we will take the expectation of  $\Delta_T$ 

426 using two expansions of the sinusoidal function and we will take the initial phase to be zero so that

427 
$$\theta(0) = 0$$
. Taking  $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{x!}$  gives

428 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\Delta_T^2\right] = D^2 T - 2Kr \int_0^T \mathbf{E}\left[\left(\theta(s)^2 - \frac{\theta(s)^4}{3!} + o(\theta(s)^6)\right)\right] ds, \tag{11}$$

429 Which implies that

430 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\Delta_{T}^{2}\right] \geq D^{2}T - 2Kr \int_{0}^{T} \mathbf{E}\left[\Delta_{s}^{2}\right] ds$$
(12)

19

431 And since we are in stationarity this gives an upper bound for the noise strength  $(D_+)$ 

432 
$$D^{2} \leq \frac{E\left[\Delta_{T}^{2}\right]}{T}(1+2KrT) =: D_{+}^{2}$$
(13)

433 Using one more term in the expansion for sin gives

434 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\Delta_{T}^{2}\right] \leq D^{2}T - 2Kr\int_{0}^{T}\mathbf{E}\left[\theta(s)^{2} - \frac{\theta(s)^{4}}{3!}\right]ds = D^{2}T - 2KrT\mathbf{E}\left[\Delta_{T}^{2}\right] + Kr\frac{\mathbf{E}\left[\Delta_{T}^{4}\right]}{3!}$$
(14)

435 so that the noise strength is bounded from below  $(D_{-})$  by

436 
$$D^{2} \ge \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\Delta_{T}^{2}\right]}{T}(1+2KrT) - 2Kr\frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\Delta_{T}^{4}\right]}{3!} \eqqcolon D_{-}^{2}$$
(15)

437 Since we have observations of  $\Delta_T$  we are able to numerically calculate upper and lower bounds for the 438 noise strength in terms of the interaction strength *K*. This holds in the case that sine is approximated 439 well by the expansion used, which we posit to be the case since the spread of the phases around the 440 average is small relative to the size of the entire cycle.

441 In order to do this we need unbiased estimators of the second and fourth moments. Since the mean is

442 zero, the fourth moment is equal to the fourth central moment for which an unbiased estimator is

443 given by the fourth h-statistic

444 
$$h_4 = \frac{3(3-2n)n^2m_2^2 + n^2(n^2 - 2n + 3n)m_4}{(n-3)(n-2)(n-1)n},$$
 (16)

445 where *n* is the sample size and  $m_p$  is the  $p^{th}$  sample central moment given by

446 
$$m_p := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m)^p$$
(17)

447 With *m* the sample mean. An unbiased estimator for the variance is

448 
$$h_2 = \frac{nm_2}{(n-1)}.$$
 (18)

449 Now if we want to calculate the parameter for a single community we must solve the equation

 $V(Cr) = r \tag{19}$ 

451 where

452 
$$V(x) = \frac{\text{Bessell}[1, x]}{\text{Bessell}[0, x]}$$
(20)

453 and BesselI[0, x] and BesselI[1, x] are modified Bessel functions of the first kind. From the

454 bioluminescence data we have calculated r so that we can use numerical methods (like FindRoot in

455 MATHEMATICA) to solve for C. In the one-community model  $C = \frac{2K}{D}$  so that we can find upper

456 and lower bounds for *K* 

$$\frac{CD_{-}}{2} \le K \le \frac{CD_{+}}{2} \tag{21}$$

458 Now both  $D_{-}$  and  $D_{+}$  depend on K so that we find

$$K_{-} \leq K \leq K_{+} \tag{22}$$

460 with

461 
$$K_{-} := \frac{1}{24} \left( C^{2} (6h_{2} - h_{4})r + \sqrt{C^{4} (h_{4} - 6h_{2})^{2} r^{2} + \frac{144C^{2}h_{2}}{T}} \right)$$
(23)

462 and

463 
$$K_{+} := \frac{1}{4} \left( C^{2} h_{2} r + \sqrt{\frac{4C^{2} h_{2} + C^{4} h_{2}^{2} r^{2} T}{T}} \right).$$
(24)

464

### 465 **Two-community Kuramoto model**

The one-community Kuramoto model was elaborated to a two-community model in which both communities consist of *N* oscillators. The oscillators in the same community interact with strength *K* and oscillators in different communities interact with strength *L*. The phase angles of the oscillators in the first community are denoted by  $\theta_{l,b}$ , i=1, ..., N and in the second community by  $\theta_{2,j}$ , j=1, ..., N. The equations governing their evolution are then:

471 
$$d\theta_{1,i}(t) = \frac{K_1}{2N} \sum_{K=1}^{N} \sin(\theta_{1,k} - \theta_{1,i}(t)) dt + \frac{L_1}{2N} \sum_{l=1}^{N} \sin(\theta_{2,l} - \theta_{1,i}(t)) dt + \sqrt{D} dW_{1,i}(t)$$
(25)

472 and

473 
$$d\theta_{2,j}(t) = \frac{K_2}{2N} \sum_{l=1}^{N} \sin(\theta_{2,l} - \theta_{2,j}(t)) dt + \frac{L_2}{2N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sin(\theta_{1,k} - \theta_{2,j}(t)) dt + \sqrt{D} dW_{2,j}(t).$$
(26)

From the one-community Kuramoto model we found that *D* does not depend on the synchronization levels and that *D* is close to 1 for all experimental conditions. Therefore we take *D* as a constant in the two-community Kuramoto model. Furthermore we made the assumption that the average phase is the same in both communities (i.e.  $\psi_1 = \psi_2 = 0$ ). Now we can calculate the relationship between  $K_1$  and  $L_1$ and between  $K_2$  and  $L_2$  by solving the equations

479 
$$V\left(\frac{K_1r_1 + L_1\cos(\psi)r_2}{D}\right) = r_1,$$
 (27)

480 
$$V\left(\frac{K_2r_2 + L_2\cos(\psi)r_1}{D}\right) = r_2,$$
 (28)

481 in the same way we did for the one-community Kuramoto model. In the above equations  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ 

482 represent the coupling strengths within respectively subpopulations 1 and 2.  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  represent the

483 interaction strength between subpopulations, where  $L_1$  is the strength from subpopulation 2 to

484 subpopulation 1 and  $L_2$  is the strength from subpopulation 1 to subpopulation 2.  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are the order

485 parameters in respectively subpopulation 1 and 2 and  $\psi$  is the phase difference between the

486 subpopulations.

487

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491

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495	Formal	analysis:	AWB,	JMM	and SA
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- 496 Methodology: AWB, JMM, SA and JHTR
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574		
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593

594 Fig S1. Estimation of the upper and lower bound of K and D in different experimental



597 photoperiod (LP) in old and young mice. The black cross indicates the median; \*p<0.05