Molecular characteristics of diel rhythmic diversity reveal disconnection between different levels of organismal rhythmicity

AUTHORS

N. Sören Häfker[1,2,*], Laurenz Holcik[1,3,4], Karim Vadiwala[1,2,‡], Isabel Beets[5], Alexander W. Stockinger[1,2,3], Stefan Hammer[1,§], Liliane Schoofs[5], Florian Raible[1,2], Kristin Tessmar-Raible[1,2,*]

AFFILIATIONS

[1] Max Perutz Labs, University of Vienna, Vienna BioCenter, Dr. Bohr-Gasse 9/4, 1030 Vienna, Austria

[2] Research Platform "Rhythms of Life", University of Vienna, Vienna BioCenter, Dr. Bohr-Gasse 9/4, 1030 Vienna, Austria

[3] Vienna BioCenter PhD Program, Doctoral School of the University of Vienna, Medical University of Vienna, 1030 Vienna, Austria

[4] Center for Integrative Bioinformatics Vienna, Max Perutz Labs, University of Vienna, Medical University of Vienna, Dr. Bohr-Gasse 9/4, 1030 Vienna, Austria

[5] Division of animal Physiology and Neurobiology, KU Leuven, Naamsestraat 59, 3000 Leuven, Belgium

[‡] current address: EUCODIS Bioscience GmbH, Campus Vienna Biocenter 2, 1030 Vienna, Austria

[§] current address: Institut für Diskrete Mathematik, TU Graz, Steyrergasse 30/III, A-8010 Graz, Austria

[*] Correspondence: kristin.tessmar@mfpl.ac.at (K.T.-R.), soeren_haefker@web.de (N.S.H.)

HIGHLIGHTS

- Individual worms show diverse yet persistent diel behavioral rhythms.

- Behavioral rhythm diversity does not match clock gene expression and *pdf* function.

- Behaviorally arrhythmic worms exhibit strong diel cycling of metabolic transcripts.

- Behaviorally rhythmic worms exhibit strong diel cycling of neuronal transcripts.

ABSTRACT

The 24 hour day/night cycle prominently controls behavior and physiology. Most diel behaviors are under circadian clock control, but behavioral rhythmicity also exhibits significant individual diversity. Even genetically identical clones raised under the same conditions can develop distinct behavioral mannerisms[1,2]. While terrestrial model systems have provided key molecular insights, the variability and molecular basis of diel rhythms in marine animals are much less investigated, although critically informative for evolutionary and ecological hypotheses.

Here we investigate the phenotypic diversity of diel locomotor rhythms in the marine annelid *Platynereis dumerilii*. Individual-specific diel activity patterns are maintained over time, but differ strongly even between co-raised siblings. Knock-out of pigment-dispersing factor (PDF), a neuropeptide central to diel rhythmicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*[3], reveals only limited contributions of PDF to rhythmic behavioral diversity. Diel transcriptomes sampled from behaviorally rhythmic versus arrhythmic worms show no differences in circadian core clock transcript oscillations. Instead, behaviorally rhythmic worms exhibit a distinct enrichment of cycling transcripts related to behavior and neuronal differentiation, while behaviorally arrhythmic worms show an enrichment of metabolic and transport-related diel-cycling transcripts. Cycling of matrix metalloproteinases suggests that individual rhythmicity may be influenced via extracellular matrix remodeling and neuropeptide processing[4].

Our results emphasize that organismal rhythmicity is highly complex and not

necessarily properly reflected by a single read-out (like behavior or clock gene expression).

We hypothesize that diversity in diel behavioral patterns allows for an adjustment to

(micro)habitat conditions in the wild, thereby impacting on population fitness and adaptability

to changing environmental conditions.

KEY WORDS

individuality, *Platynereis*, behavior, metabolism, diel rhythmicity, circadian, clock, pigment-

dispersing factor, chronotype, transcriptome, matrix metalloproteinase, adaptation

INTRODUCTION

Life on earth has been evolving in the presence of numerous environmental cycles. This is

particularly prominent in the marine environment[5,6], where rhythms even exist in the deep

sea[7]. In the oceans, biological rhythms can be the major factors shaping ecosystem structure

and productivity, and they significantly contribute to biogeochemical cycling[8–10], but

compared to the terrestrial environment our understanding of the factors and mechanisms

driving marine rhythmicity is still severely limited[6]. This is particularly concerning in the

context of climate change as it is largely unknown how marine timing systems and associated

species fitness on the individual and population level will be affected by changing

environmental conditions[6,11].

Rhythmic adaptations on the level of behavior, physiology and gene expression are

central in shaping an animal's interaction with the abiotic and biotic environment. Many of

these rhythms are under the control of endogenous timing mechanisms (clocks)[11,12]. By far

best studied is the circadian clock that enables organisms to synchronize (entrain) to, and to

anticipate the 24 hour day/night cycle[13], thereby significantly contributing to fitness[14,15].

Animal behavior can be highly diverse among individuals, even if they are closely

related or were raised under the same conditions. This behavioral individuality – also referred

to as 'personality', 'behavioral syndrome' or 'coping style' – is consistent over time and has

been described in a variety of organisms from invertebrates to mammals[16–18]. Individual

phenotypes can be explained by genetic predisposition[19–21], epigenetic effects [22,23], or

conditions experienced in the (micro)environment[1,24]. However, a broader understanding of

gene expression dynamics and metabolic pathways differing between phenotypically distinct

individuals is in general still limited and even non-existent for marine species [21,25–27].

Behavioral diversity can be displayed in many forms including differences in overall

activity, responses to stimuli, and social interactions[17,28] and is also highly prominent in diel

rhythms of behavior [29,30]. Studies in terrestrial organisms, like drosophilid flies, identified

differences in the expression of circadian clock genes and the neuropeptide pigment-

dispersing factor (PDF) to be responsible for species- and population-specific patterns of diel

activity[3,20,21,31–33]. Similarly, differences in clock gene expression rhythms were linked to

caste-specific activity phenotypes in ants[26]. Comparisons of fly strains and species from

different latitudes further indicate that behavioral rhythmicity depends on the localization of

circadian core clock genes expression in the brain [32,34] and clock gene alleles [35,36].

Furthermore, behavioral phenotypes including arrhythmicity can also depend on the circadian

clock output pathways[33]. However, there are no studies that address individual rhythmic

diversity and its possible interplay with endogenous timers in marine animals.

The marine polychaete *Platynereis dumerilii* is a molecularly slowly evolving annelid

that has emerged as a functional model for marine chronobiology with a life cycle

representative for various marine invertebrates[37–40]. After a planktonic phase during which

larvae get dispersed by currents, the worm switches to a benthic lifestyle[37]. For marine

broadcast spawners like *P. dumerilii*, the possibilities to select the habitat they encounter upon

settling can be very limited. The worms inhabit temperate to tropical shores worldwide,

typically at depths of 0-10 m[41,42].

Here, we explore diel behavioral diversity of *P. dumerilii* strains and individuals, its

transcriptome-wide consequences and the role of PDF, an important neuropeptide for

behavioral rhythmicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*[3,31]. Worms display strain-specific

characteristics as well as strong and reproducible inter-individual variability in diel behavior,

even among co-raised siblings. Worms carrying knock-out mutations for the *pdf* gene can

exhibit behavioral rhythmicity reduction, but the phenotype is strongly strain-dependent. This

suggests additional internal factors as prominent regulators of diel behavioral patterns.

Indeed, diel transcriptome comparisons of behaviorally rhythmic versus arrhythmic worms

show no differences in the expression of circadian clock genes or *pdf*. The data reveal clear

differences in the oscillation amplitudes of diel cyclic transcripts, especially for transcripts

involved in neuronal signaling versus metabolic processes. Our findings further point towards

a potential role of neuronal differentiation/remodeling processes in the establishment of

rhythmic individual phenotypes. Considering the complexity of the cyclic environment in

marine habitats[5,6], unraveling the molecular processes shaping phenotypic rhythms and their

diversity will be important to understand how marine species adapt to these conditions, and

how individuals and populations cope the ongoing shifts in habitat conditions due to climate

change.

RESULTS

<u>*P. dumerilii* diel behavioral rhythmicity differs between strains and especially individuals</u>

In our previous studies, we repeatedly noticed a high diversity in the diel/circadian behavior

of immature and premature *Platynereis dumerilii* bristle worms[39,43,44]. This prompted us to

systematically investigate the worms' diversity in diel locomotor rhythmicity patterns. Below

we use the term 'rhythmicity/arrhythmicity' to specifically refer to behavior, while we use the

term 'cycling' in the context of gene expression.

We chose 3 worm strains (VIO & PIN: collected from the Bay of Naples, Italy more

than 50 years ago and continuously incrossed over the past 14 years; NAP: newly collected

from the Bay of Naples in 2009 and maintained as a non-incrossed, closed culture)[40,45]. We

repeatedly recorded locomotor behavior of immature/premature sibling worms for 4 days of

16h:8h light/dark-cycle (LD) followed by 4 days of constant darkness (DD) (Fig.1A). All

strains   were   generally   nocturnal   and   showed   little   inter-strain   differences   in

morning/afternoon/night activity (Fig.1B). However, when we analyzed diel rhythmicity

(20h-28h period range) under LD and DD in more detail, we saw strain-specific rhythmicity

patterns and rhythm power varied significantly between strains (Fig.1A,C-G, Fig.S2). Aside

the inter-strain differences, all strains displayed pronounced inter-individual variability in

rhythm power that is best described as a behavioral continuum reaching from highly rhythmic

to fully arrhythmic worms (Fig.1C,D and Fig.D1 in the Dryad dataset of this paper).

To closer investigate the observed individual diversity, we performed repetition runs on a

total of 30 worms (PIN n= 12, NAP n=5, VIO n=13) 1-2 months after the initial recordings.

Actograms of the first and second recordings were very reproducible for most individual

worms showing the same behavioral characteristics in both runs (Fig.1E-G, Fig.S2). Of note,

after the initial run we kept all worms individually for identification, which are different

conditions from the "group maintenance" that the worms experienced before the initial run.

The highest diversity of behavioral patterns was observed in PIN worms, which, however,

also exhibited the highest consistency between initial and repeated runs. Compared to the

differences between strains (Fig.1A-D), inter-individual diversity in behavioral rhythms is

much larger. This shows that diel activity patterns in *P. dumerilii* are not only highly variable

between siblings, but are also highly reproducible in individuals over time.

Figure 1: Inter-strain and inter-individual variability in diel behavioral rhythmicity. The diel locomotor activities of the three *P. dumerilii* strains PIN (n=25, blue), NAP (n=20, green) and VIO (n=37, red) are compared. (A) Double-plotted actograms showing mean locomotor activity over 4 days of a 16h:8h light/dark-cycle (LD) followed by 4 days of constant darkness (DD). Individual worm actograms were submitted to Dryad (Fig.D1). (B) Cumulative activity over the early day (0-8), late day (8-16) and night (16-24) in LD and DD (shaded background). Box indicates median and 25%/75% percentiles, whiskers indicate min/max values. Each circle represents an individual worm. (C,D) Period/power of locomotor rhythms in the diel/circadian range (20h-28h) in LD and DD (shaded background) determined by Lomb-Scargle periodogram. Each circle represents an individual worm. Dashed horizontal lines indicate thresholds for weak rhythm power (<200) and arrhythmicity (<100) based on visual actogram inspection. (E-G) Actograms of PIN, NAP and VIO individual worms investigated in two consecutive runs (initial/repeated). Per strain, three individuals are shown. # indicates the individual worm number. In total,

165   12 PIN worms, 5 NAP worms and 13 VIO worms were investigated twice. Statistical differences were
166   determined via Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA on Ranks (panels B,D) or Welch's ANOVA (panel C).
167   Significance levels: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. Actograms of repeated individuals
168   not shown here are provided in Fig.S1.
169

<u>Characterization of pigment-dispersing factor</u>

To gain deeper insight into potential molecular causes of the observed individual rhythmic

diversity, we investigated pigment-dispersing factor (PDF), a conserved neuropeptide that is

central to the communication and output of circadian clock neurons, thereby shaping diel

rhythmicity in drosophilid flies and other insects[3,46]. *P. dumerilii* sequences of the PDF

precursor protein (prepro-PDF) and PDF-receptor (PDFR) were identified (see methods) and

compared to similar sequences from other species in phylogenetic analyses (Fig.2A,B,

Tab.S1). This confirmed the identity of our PDF and PDFR sequences and the separation of

PDFR from the closely related calcitonin-/diuretic hormone 31-receptors [47].

<u>Figure 2: PDF and PDF-receptor phylogeny and deorphanization.</u> Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees
of (A) the pigment-dispersing factor precursor protein (prepro-PDF) and (B) the pigment-dispersing factor
receptor (PDF-receptor) as well as calcitonin-receptor and diuretic hormone 31 (DH31) receptor. See
supplement for peptide sequences used for tree construction (Tab.S1). (C) Activation curve of the
P.dumerilii PDF-receptor by PDF (blue) with EC_{50} indicating the concentration needed for 50% receptor

activation (n=10-12 per concentration). Red dots indicate activation after transfection with empty control
vector (n=6 per concentration). Mean values ± SEM are shown (Tab.S2).

To validate the functionality of the PDF/PDFR-system in *P. dumerilii, pdfr* was expressed in

CHO cells employing an *apoaequorin/human Gα16 subunit* reporter system[48]. The assay

confirmed that in *P. dumerilii* PDFR can be activated by PDF at physiological concentrations

(EC_{50}=6.3 nM, Fig.2C).

Next, we induced mutations in the *pdf* gene of VIO wildtype worms using TALENs[49],

resulting in insertion/deletions in the 3rd exon preceding the start of the mature peptide

sequence (Fig.3A,B). We checked F_1-outcrossed worms for changes in the *pdf* sequence.

Worms that showed frame-shift mutations and early stop codons were again crossed against

VIO wildtypes, and the resulting heterozygous offspring were incrossed. Thereby we

established two mutant lines with a -14bp deletion and a +4bp insertion, respectively

(Fig.3A,B). Both alleles are predicted to result in a complete failure of mature peptide

generation (Fig.3B).

Figure 3: TALENs-induced *pdf* gene knockout and effects on clock genes. (A) TALENs (transcription
activator-like effector nucleases) targeting exon 3 of the *pdf* gene were used to induce frame shift mutations
in the coding sequence (CDS). Two mutant strain with a -14bp deletion and a +4bp insertion were
established, respectively. (B) Translated peptide sequence of the *pdf* gene. Start codon methionine (green
M), signal sequence for cellular export (red background), cleavage regions (green background) and mature
peptide (blue background) are indicated. Both frame shift mutations led to a premature stop codon (*) and a
complete loos of the mature PDF peptide. (C) Circadian expression of the clock genes *bmal*, *per*, and *tr-cry*
in *pdf* wildtypes and mutants. Samples were collected on the 2nd day of DD after previous LD (16h:8h)
entrainment. Per time point, n=3 replicates were measured (n=2 for circadian time 10). Student's t-tests for

each time points found no significant differences between wildtypes and mutants. Raw C_t-values are
provided in the supplement (Tab.S3).

To determine potential effects of *pdf* loss on the circadian clock, we compared the expression

of the clock genes *bmal*, *per* and *tr-cry* in *pdf* wildtypes and -14/-14 mutants (VIO

background). Worms were entrained to a LD cycle (16h:8h) and expression in the head was

analyzed by qPCR on the 2nd day of DD at 5 circadian time points. Unpaired 2-side t-tests

found no significant differences between wildtypes and mutants for any gene and time point

(Fig.3C-E).

pdf mutants show strain-dependent reduction in diel behavioral rhythmicity

To investigate the role of PDF in *P. dumerilii* diel locomotor rhythms, the activity of *pdf*

wildtypes and mutants in the VIO strain background were recorded in LD (16h:8h) and DD

(Fig.4A). *pdf* mutants showed significantly lower rhythm power in both LD and DD. In

contrast, the same mutation in the PIN strain background did not show this phenotype

(Fig.4B). Under LD, PIN-crossed wildtypes were in fact slightly less rhythmic than mutants.

The behavioral characterizations showed no within-strain differences between mutant alleles

(-14/-14, +4/+4), as well as transheterozygous worms (-14/+4), and thus data were combined

(Fig.D2 in Dryad). The results suggest that PDF is not a major determinant of diel behavioral

rhythmicity in *P. dumerilii*, indicative of additional important molecular players with major

effects on worm rhythmicity and individual phenotypes.

Transcriptomics reveal cycling clock genes in both rhythmic and arrhythmic worm

phenotypes

To gain a broader understanding of the molecular characteristics associated with diel

behavioral rhythmicity, we investigated the diel transcriptome of rhythmic and arrhythmic

wildtype worms. We focused on worms of the PIN strain, as their diel activity patterns

showed the most pronounced inter-individual diversity, but also the strongest within-

individual consistency (Fig.1, FigS2).

Figure 4: Role of *pdf* in diel behavioral rhythmicity. (A) Diel/circadian locomotor activity of VIO-strain *pdf*
wildtypes (n=34, black) and mutants (n=43, red) under 4 days of LD and 5 or 8 days of DD. (B)
Diel/circadian locomotor activity of PIN-strain crossed wildtypes (n=45, black) and mutants (n=54, red)
under 4 days of LD and 4 or 8 days of DD. For each strain, double-plotted mean actograms as well as
period/power of locomotor rhythms in the diel/circadian range (20h-28h) in LD and DD (shaded
background) are shown. Dashed horizontal lines indicate thresholds for weak rhythm power (<200) and
arrhythmicity (<100) based on visual actogram inspection. Statistical differences were determined via
Mann-Whitney U-test. Significance levels: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. Individual
worm actograms were submitted to Dryad (Fig.D2).

Behavior of wildtype worms was recorded for 3 LD days and 3 DD days, and worms were

characterized as either rhythmic (clear 24h rhythmicity), arrhythmic (no rhythmicity) or

unclear (everything in between) based on visual actogram inspection and ActogramJ rhythm

analysis (Fig.5A and Fig.D3 in Dryad). As already observed for the strain comparison, there

was a behavioral continuum with many worms showing intermediate phenotypes. Head

samples of clearly rhythmic and clearly arrhythmic worms were then collected under LD in

4h intervals starting at ZT0 (lights on), and with 3 replicates per time point. Due to the work-

intensive phenotypic characterization, samples had to be collected discontinuously and not 'in

one go'. Transcriptomics were performed on a NextSeq550 System (Illumina, USA) and

resulted in a total of 445,553,522 raw reads (Fig.5B). Trimming/filtering caused a 0.48% read

loss and trimmed reads were mapped against an independently generated transcriptome (see

methods). The mapping results were filtered to exclude transcripts that were not/hardly

expressed and/or were <500bp, resulting in 48,605 distinct expressed transcripts (Tab.S4).

Figure 5: Transcriptome generation from rhythmic/arrhythmic *P. dumerilii* wildtype worms. (A) Diel
locomotor behavior of PIN-strain wildtypes was characterized as rhythmic (blue) or arrhythmic (red).
Individual actograms including characterizations were submitted to Dryad. Worm heads were sampled
discontinuously over a 16h:8h LD cycle (n=3 per time point, 3 heads pooled per replicate) and samples
were processed for NextSeq transcriptome sequencing. (B) Overview of the reads and expressed transcripts
produced by the sequencing. (C-N) Diel expression patterns of circadian clock genes and *pdf*. p-values
show results of RAIN rhythm analysis with bolt values indicating significant 24h cycling. Per time point,
n=3 replicates were measured. For abbreviations of clock genes and detailed RAIN results see Tab.S4.

We first focused on core circadian clock genes (Fig.5C-N) and overall transcriptome

rhythmicity. Core circadian clock genes of the behaviorally rhythmic worms also served as

benchmark to assess if the discontinuous sampling (see above) affected transcriptome

rhythmicity. Reassuringly, core circadian clock gene cycling closely mirrored previous

reports[39,43,50]. Of note, neither the core circadian clock transcripts, nor the *pdf* transcript

showed significant differences in cyclic expression between rhythmic and arrhythmic worms

(Fig.5C-N).

To further look for possible differences in transcriptomic cycling between rhythmic and

arrhythmic worms, we identified transcripts with 24h cyclic expression via RAIN[51]. The

analysis detected a total of 1451 transcripts (2.99% of all expressed transcripts) with 24h

cycling in rhythmic worms (n=603), arrhythmic worms (n=554), or both phenotypes (n=294)

(Fig.6A, Tab.S4). For the core circadian clock genes, RAIN found significant cycling in all of

them for both phenotypes, except for *l-cry*, *tmo* and *pdf* (Fig.5C-N), consistent with previous

results[43,50,52]. Aside from the core circadian clock transcripts, both phenotypes showed

significant cycling of transcripts for *6-4 photolyase*, *r-opsin3*, *G_o-opsin1* and *myocyte*

enhancer factor 2 (*mef2*) (Tab.S4). Furthermore, several transcripts encoding matrix

metalloproteinases (MMPs) were found to cycle in rhythmic worms (n=3), arrhythmic worms

(n=2), or both phenotypes (n=3) (Fig.S3, Tab.S6).

Gene ontology analyses point at strong metabolic rhythmicity in behaviorally arrhythmic

worms

To identify cyclic biological functions and processes associated with rhythmic or arrhythmic

worms, we performed a systematic gene ontology (GO) analyses. RAIN-significant

transcripts cycling in rhythmic, arrhythmic or both phenotypes were compared against all

expressed 48,605 unique transcript IDs to determine overrepresented GO-terms for each

group (Fig.6, Tab.S5). Compared to all expressed transcripts, 77 GO-terms were enriched in

the transcript cycling in rhythmic worms, 29 in the transcripts cycling in arrhythmic worms,

and 25 terms in the transcripts cycling in both phenotypes (Tab.S5).

Figure 6: Transcriptome RAIN analysis and gene ontologies. (A) RAIN analysis identified 1643 transcript with significant 24 hour cycling in rhythmic worms (blue), arrhythmic worms (red), or both. (Tab.S4). (B-D) The top 10 GO-terms for each group are shown, and full lists of significant terms are provided in the supplement (Tab.S5). Diel expression of RAIN-significant transcripts for each group are plotted as heatmaps for rhythmic and arrhythmic worms. Heatmaps are based on mean VST-counts and are sorted by diel peak expression times. Expression is normalized for both phenotypes together, meaning amplitudes are comparable between rhythmic and arrhythmic worms, but not between different transcripts. For detailed RAIN results see Tab.S4.

Cycling transcripts shared by worms of both phenotypes showed enrichment in GO-terms

associated in rhythmic/circadian processes such as 'circadian regulation of gene expression'

that were represented mostly through clock gene transcripts (Fig.6C). There were further a

number of GO-terms associated with light perception like 'protein-chromophore linkage' and

'cellular response to light stimulus'. Transcripts significantly cycling only in rhythmic worms

showed enrichment for a variety of GO-terms with a notable accumulation of terms associated

with specific behaviors like 'neuromuscular process controlling balance' or 'mechanosensory

behavior' (Fig.6A,B). Further, these cycling transcripts showed an enrichment in metal ion

regulation processes (e.g. 'manganese ion homeostasis') and in GO-terms related to neuronal

differentiation such as 'regulation of long-term neuronal synaptic plasticity' and 'axon

regeneration' (Fig.6B), while similar terms were not enriched in transcripts cycling only in

arrhythmic worms (Fig.6D).

In arrhythmic worms, the number of transcripts with significantly diel cycling was

comparable to rhythmic worms (Fig.6A). This suggests that behavioral arrhythmicity does not

imply a generally lower rhythmicity on the level of physiology and gene expression.

However, the types of significantly cycling transcripts markedly differed from those of

behaviorally rhythmic worms. They showed an enrichment for GO-terms associated with

several metabolic pathways and cellular transport processes like 'fatty acid beta-oxidation

using acyl-CoA dehydrogenase', 'tricarboxylic acid metabolic process', and 'mitochondrial

transmembrane transport' (Fig.6D), highlighting that behavioral rhythmicity and

physiological rhythmicity do not necessarily correlate.

In addition to these "neuronal/behavioral" versus "metabolic" terms, there were several

GO-terms involved in the modification of the extracellular matrix such as 'collagen catabolic

process' (rhythmic worms), 'ossification' (arrhythmic worms) and 'extracellular matrix

disassembly' (both phenotypes). An investigation of the associated transcripts showed that

many encode for extracellular peptidases of the matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) family. We

next scanned all expressed transcripts (see methods) for potential MMPs, followed by

validation via BLASTx against the NCBI nr-database focusing on the characteristic ZnMc-

peptidase and hemopexin domains[53–55]. We were thereby able to identify at least 20 putative

P. dumerilii MMPs. Sequence matches for these MMPs in the *Platynereis* genome (Simakov

et al. in prep.) further confirmed that the respective transcripts derived from individual genes.

A total of 8 of the MMP transcripts showed RAIN-significant cycling in rhythmic worms

(n=3), arrhythmic worms (n=2) or both phenotypes (n=3) (Fig.6, Tab.S5).

For the heatmaps (Fig.6B-D), counts of a given transcript were normalized together

across rhythmic and arrhythmic worms in order to allow for a direct comparison of this

transcript between the different phenotypes. This plotting of the RAIN-significant transcripts

revealed that transcripts cycling in either rhythmic (Fig.6B) or arrhythmic worms (Fig.6D)

sometimes, but not always showed similar cyclic tendencies in the respective other phenotype

(Fig.6B-D). As illustrated by the heatmaps, the distinction by RAIN between cyclic and non-

cyclic expression was in many cases related to oscillation amplitudes. These differences in

amplitude could in principle arise in two ways. Scenario 1: Individual worms could still be

rhythmic for a given transcript over time, but the phases of this transcript would be less

synchronized across different worms. As we sampled multiple worm heads for each time

point, this would – due to averaging – result in a seemingly lowered amplitude or even the

loss of rhythmicity for a given transcript. Scenario 2: A given transcript could indeed oscillate

at lower amplitude or exhibit no diel oscillations in the respective phenotype.

The two scenarios should be discernable based on their variance. A reduction of phase

synchronization of transcript between different worms while maintaining amplitude (first

scenario) should result in an overall increased variance between biological replicates (i.e.

standard deviation). If the transcripts indeed cycle less in individual worms (second scenario),

the variance should overall not be affected across the different biological replicates. The

inspection of subgroups of transcripts significantly cycling only in rhythmic worms (GO-

terms related to behavior or neuronal processes) or only in arrhythmic worms (GO-terms

related to metabolism) showed that indeed both scenarios can be found (Fig.S4).

DISCUSSION

Behavioral individuality is ubiquitous in animals, but the molecular changes associated with

distinct phenotypes are still poorly understood. Here we uncovered diel behavior patterns of

the marine polychaete *Platynereis dumerilii*, which are individual-specific and persist over

time. Molecular analyses and mutant characterization reveal that the circadian clock and the

neuropeptide PDF are not or only partially responsible for rhythmic/arrhythmic behavioral

phenotypes, but that cyclic gene expression patterns show marked differences in

neuronal/behavioral versus metabolic transcripts with the latter showing stronger cycling in

behaviorally arrhythmic worms. Expression dynamics of extracellular matrix peptidases

further point towards a potential mechanism shaping phenotypic rhythmicity.

The factors shaping rhythmic phenotype diversity

The individual diversity in worm diel phenotypes is remarkable, especially given that many of

the investigated worms were siblings and raised together in the same culture boxes. The high

consistency of behavioral patterns over time illustrates that they are not just behavioral

snapshots of phenotypic plasticity, but individual characteristics. Similarly consistent

individual behavior patterns have been described in several other species[17,25] and in a striking

example Bierbach et al.[1] raised genetically identical freshwater fish under the exact same

conditions, but nevertheless observed individual-specific behavior patterns that persisted over

several rounds of investigations.

It is believed that individual phenotypes are realized either on the level of neuronal

organization and/or on the level of epigenetic modifications, based on predisposition or

(micro)environmental conditions[17,20,21,23,24]. As bet-hedging can induce stochastic epigenetic

diversity on the level of gametes [24], we can at present not discriminate whether the observed

Platynereis phenotypes result from genetic predisposition or rather epigenetic effects in

response to (micro)environmental conditions, or both [1,24,28].

<u>The role of *pdf* in *P. dumerilii* diel rhythmicity</u>

Pigment-dispersing factor (PDF) is seen as a neuropeptide central in regulating

Drosophila diel activity and coordination of the circadian clock neurons[56]. PDF has been

connected to temporal preferences of activity phases[21], the loss of rhythmicity after 2-3 days

of DD[3], and the light regime-dependent adjustment of diel activity patterns in drosophilid

species from different latitudes[33,57]. Our investigation of *pdf* worm mutants provides a new

functional perspective on this regulator from a very different animal group and ecological

context. As in *Drosophila melanogaster*[32,58,59], diel *pdf* expression does not cycle in *P.*

dumerilii and the loss of *pdf* does not directly affect the expression of the core circadian clock

genes. On the behavioral level, we find that loss of *pdf* can reduce diel rhythmicity, but in a

strain-dependent manner. The higher phenotypic diversity and overall higher rhythmicity of

PIN-strain compared to VIO-strain worms (Fig.1C,D) may suggest a higher capacity of the

PIN strain genetic background to compensate for *pdf* loss. In *Drosophila*, while most *pdf*

mutants become arrhythmic in DD, some individuals maintain circadian rhythmicity[3]. In the

light of the worm analyses, it will be interesting to compare the phenotypic consequences of

pdf loss between different strains and individuals in other species.

<u>Transcript cycling patterns are largely clock-independent but phenotype-specific</u>

An unanticipated finding was that wildtype worms characterized as rhythmic or arrhythmic

showed identical patterns for the circadian clock genes. This partly contrasts with the few

transcriptomic investigations of individual rhythmicity existing so far. Previous studies found

correlations between diel activity pattern and different circadian clock components in forager

versus nurse ants[26], as well as phenotype-specific expression of cryptochromes in zebrafish[25].

In *Drosophila*, while a transcriptome comparison of early/late emerging flies from different

strains found no difference in clock genes[27], phenotype differences in diel activity have been

linked to the clock gene *pdp*1 as well as the output genes *pdf* and *takeout*[21]. It should be noted

that we used whole heads while most *Drosophila* studies looked at specific brain regions or

neurons. Hence, phenotype-specific clock gene patterns on the level of individual neurons

cannot be fully excluded, although such patterns have not been seen so far[43].

The fact that worms that are behaviorally clearly rhythmic or arrhythmic show much

more nuanced differences in gene expression cycling further emphasizes that rhythmicity

determined on the behavioral level or through a limited number of candidate genes (e.g. clock

genes) is not necessarily representative of overall rhythmicity. This is especially highlighted

by the considerable number of transcripts cycling exclusively in behaviorally arrhythmic

worms. As physiology can – much like behavior – be very much individual-specific[60], our

results suggest that chronobiological phenotype investigations should be more routinely

complemented with high-throughput molecular approaches.

The enriched GO-terms associated with transcript that only cycle in either rhythmic or

arrhythmic worms likely reflect the differences in the respective lifestyles. For rhythmic

worms, the cycling of transcripts annotated to be linked to behaviors like 'righting reflex' and

flight behavior as well as neuronal plasticity suggests an overall higher responsiveness and

adaptability to the environment. This could benefit an explorative lifestyle in a food poor

habitat with regular foraging excursions that require and assessment of the surroundings and

potential predation risk. In contrast, the enrichment of metabolism-related GO-terms in

arrhythmic worms could represent the adjustment to a habitat where food readily available

(e.g. the surface of a kelp leaf). Under these conditions, no major excursions are necessary

and physiology could be optimized towards nutrient processing and growth.

The observation that behaviorally arrhythmic worms show enhanced metabolic

rhythmicity (relative to behaviorally rhythmic worms) again illustrates that behavioral output

alone may not be representative and that integrative investigations of biological rhythmicity

can be highly beneficial in revealing unexpected rhythmic complexity in any species.

<u>Matrix metalloproteinases as potential mediators of rhythmic diversity</u>

Our finding that transcripts of 8 of the 20 identified putative matrix metalloproteinases

(MMPs) showed phenotype-specific cyclic expression highlights these enzymes as interesting

factors for rhythmicity. MMPs are endopeptidases that are involved in the disassembly of

extracellular matrix proteins, thereby contributing several aspects of tissue development[53,54].

They play a major role in neuronal development and plasticity[55], and have been linked

specifically to motor axons in *Drosophila*[54,61,62]. Notably, the number of 20 *Platynereis*

MMPs exceeds those in *Drosophila melanogaster* (2 MMPs) and *Caenorhabditis elegans* (6

MMPs), and resembles those numbers found in zebrafish, the frog *Xenopus laevis* and a sea

urchin[54]. It is currently unknown, if this might reflect a general trend for higher MMP

numbers in aquatic species. One existing link between MMPs and rhythmicity is provided by

Drosophila MMP1 that can degrade PDF in clock neurons and is involved in circadian axonal

remodeling, with both overexpression and knockdown resulting in overall reduced activity

and partial arrhythmicity[4]. Circadian neuronal and vascular modifications based on MMPs

were also described in mammals[63,64].

Consistent with a deeper conservation of such mechanisms, a differential expression of

MMPs and associated differences in diel neuronal remodeling could be partially responsible

for the behavioral differences between rhythmic and arrhythmic worms. This is in line with

the cycling of *mef2* (transcript TRINITY_DN2510_c0_g1) in both phenotypes, as the gene is

under circadian control in *Drosophila* where it is also involved in neuronal development and

diel axonal remodeling of clock neurons [65].

Phenotype-specific expression of MMPs and associated neuronal remodeling could

present one way in which behavioral diversity is realized on the molecular/neuronal level.

MMPs thus present promising targets for investigations on how behavioral diversity and

rhythmic phenotypes are determined within individuals. Investigations of MMP-patterns may

also help explaining differences in diel rhythmicity patterns across species and

habitats[32,33,35,66].

<u>Ecological benefits of phenotypic diversity – beyond the individual</u>

Individual-specific phenotypes are not only advantageous for single animals, but may also

improve the overall fitness and resilience of populations and ecosystems. The offspring of

marine broadcast spawners like *P. dumerilii* spend their first life phase as part of the plankton

getting dispersed by currents, meaning they have limited influence on where they can settle

on the seafloor. A diversity of lifestyles can increase the chances of survival in heterogeneous

habitats and can help securing the persistence of the population. Phenotypic diversity can

further reduce competition due to a diversification of resource usage and spatial/temporal

niches[67,68]. Distinct individual phenotypes may be more beneficial in heterogeneous or

variable habitats like coral reefs, intertidal shores, forest or urban areas that provide a higher

potential for different lifestyles[22,69]. In contrast, in homogenous habitats like the open ocean

or grasslands, individual diversity may still be beneficial as it could prevent predators from

optimizing their foraging strategies and could also make populations more resilient to changes

of environmental parameters[70].

Individual diversity is an important factor to consider when determining tolerance

ranges to environmental conditions. Tolerance ranges are commonly reported as averages or

50% lethality limits for entire populations or species. Our transcriptome analysis shows that

rhythmic/arrhythmic individual phenotypes are associated with different physiological

adjustments, and physiological patterns in general can be individual-specific[60]. This likely

also affects the individual tolerance ranges for environmental conditions. Furthermore,

patterns of behavioral rhythmicity can directly determine the conditions experienced by an

animal[71]. Thus, a careful assessment of how many individuals one investigates, and how these

are selected, is important to properly cover the individual diversity extant within a given

group. This will help to make realistic predictions about a species' or population's tolerance

windows. Exploring phenotypic diversity of behavior and physiology can thus also advance

understanding of population-level responses to changing environmental conditions.

<u>Conclusions</u>

We identify extensive and consistent diel behavioral diversity among *P. dumerilii* strains and

individuals which is correlated with several unanticipated observations. Individuality is a trait

commonly associated only with 'higher' vertebrates. However, it is also a common behavioral

feature in 'simple' invertebrates[17]. We find that on the rhythmic behavioral level, individual

Platynereis worms can be discriminated based on their reproducible behavioral patterns.

The power of the behavioral rhythmic phenotypes is independent of the power of core

circadian clock transcript cycling and, in contrast to *Drosophila*[56], genetic ablation of the

neuropeptide PDF has no consistent effects in *P. dumerilii*. Our results argue that circadian

rhythmicity can neither be defined through stereotypic behavioral phenotypes nor indicator

genes alone, but that it is the sum of various processes acting on different levels of

organization. Most notably, our observation of enhanced rhythmicity of metabolic transcripts

in behaviorally arrhythmic worms highlights the complex relationship between the circadian

clock and its behavioral and physiological outputs. We further find indications for a possibly

conserved role of MMPs in the regulation of circadian clock output and diel rhythmic

phenotypes, and find a general expansion of MMP numbers, which might be a shared feature

in aquatic species. Investigating the factors that shape phenotypic and rhythmic diversity will

help to understand how animals adapt to specific (micro)habitats and how these factors can

contribute to overall population fitness and ecosystem resilience. It highlights the importance

of treating biological variation not as 'background noise', but as an additional aspect of

biodiversity that needs to be considered for the mechanistic and the ecological context[16,72].

MATERIAL & METHODS

Table of resources

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
OneTaq® 2X Master Mix	New England BioLabs, USA	M0482S
RNAzol® RT	Sigma-Aldrich, USA	R4533
Synthetic amidated PDF peptide for deorphanization (sequence: NH2-NPGTLDAVLDMPDLMSL-COOH)	this paper	N/A
pdf fwd TALEN (RVDs: NI-NI-NG-NN-NG-NN-NN-NI-NG-NG-NG-HD-NI-NI-NI-NN-HD)	this paper	N/A
pdf rev TALEN (RVDs: HD-HD-NI-NN-NG-NN-NG-NN-HD-HD-NI-NN-NN-NN-NG-NG-NN)	this paper	N/A
Critical commercial assays		
Direct-Zol RNA MiniPrep kit	Zymo Research, USA	R2052
LunaScript® RT SuperMix kit	New England BioLabs, USA	205313
Luna® Universal qPCR Master Mix	New England BioLabs, USA	M3003S
GelGreen® Nucleic Acid Gel Stain	Biotium, USA	41005
NEBNext® Multiplex Oligos for Illumina®	New England BioLabs, USA	E6440S
Deposited data		
Individual actograms of *P. dumerilii* strain comparison	this paper	please contact authors
Individual actograms of *P. dumerilii pdf* wildtype vs. mutant comparison	this paper	please contact authors
Individual actograms of *P. dumerilii* behavioral characterization	this paper	please contact authors
P. dumerilii tail reference transcriptome for mapping	this paper	please contact authors
.fastq-files with trimmed forward and reverse reads (2 files/sample)	this paper	please contact authors
.fastqc-files with quality report for trimmed .fastq-files	this paper	please contact authors
Experimental models: Cell lines		
Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells	PerkinElmer, Belgium	ES-000-A2
E. coli competent cells (XL1-blue)	Tessmar-Raible group, Max Perutz Labs	N/A
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
P. dumerilii PIN strain	Zantke et al. 2014[45]	N/A

P. dumerilii VIO strain	Zantke et al. 2014[45]	N/A
P. dumerilii NAP strain	Zantke et al. 2014[45]	N/A
P. dumerilii pdf[14/-14] mutant strain	this paper	N/A
P. dumerilii pdf[+4/+4] mutant strain	this paper	N/A
Oligonucleotides		
pdf genotyping primers fwd: 5'- GCGCTATGCTGCAAAAATAGCTCGC-3' rev: 5'- CGAGGGACATAAGGTCGGGCAT-3'	this paper	N/A
pdfr cloning primers fwd: 5'-GCTAAGCTTGCCACCATGCACGCCCTTCC-3' rev: 5'-GGCTCTAGATCACCCCCCTGGACGTTGGTCAC-3'	this paper	N/A
bmal qPCR primers fwd: 5'- TCCGATTTATCTCCACGAGAA-3' rev: 5'- TCCGTCTTTACAGGCAGCA-3'	Veedin-Rajan et al. 2021[39]	N/A
per qPCR primers fwd: 5'-GGTCAACATGAAGTCGTACAGG-3' rev: 5'- CACTGGTTTTCGGCTCAAG-3'	Veedin-Rajan et al. 2021[39]	N/A
trcry qPCR primers fwd: 5'- TGTTCAAATTCCATGGGACA-3' rev: 5'- TGTTTTAGCCTCAGCCCATT-3'	Veedin-Rajan et al. 2021[39]	N/A
cdc5 qPCR primers fwd: 5'- CCTATTGACATGGACGAAGATG-3' rev: 5'- TTCCCTGTGTGTTCGCAAG-3'	Veedin-Rajan et al. 2021[39]	N/A
Recombinant DNA		
pCDNA3.1(+) cloning vector	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA	V79020
pjet1.2 blunt vector (CloneJET[TM] PCR Cloning Kit)	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA	K1231
pGEM®-T Easy Vector (pGEM®-T Easy Vector Systems Kit)	Promega, USA	A1360
Software and algorithms		
RStudio v.1.1.453	R Development Core Team 2013[75]	https://www.r-project.org
R-package 'DESeq2' v.1.30.1	Love et al. 2014[76]	https://bioconductor.org/packages/DESeq2/
R-package 'RAIN' v.1.24.0	Thabe & Westermark 2014[51]	https://bioconductor.org/packages/rain/
R-package 'topGO' v.2.46.0	Alexa & Rahnenführer 2009[77]	https://bioconductor.org/packages/topGO/
R-package 'gplot' v.3.1.1	Warnes et al. 2016[78]	https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gplots
R-package 'RColorBrewer' v.1.1-2	Neuwirth 2014[79]	https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=RColorBrewer
ImageJ/Fiji v.1.52d	Schindelin et al. 2012[80]	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/index.html
ActogramJ v.1.0	Schmid et al. 2011[81]	https://bene51.github.io/ActogramJ/
StepOne v.2.3 Software for qPCR analysis	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA	https://www.thermofisher.com
salmon v.1.4	Patro et al. 2017[82]	https://combine-lab.github.io/salmon/

SAMtools v.1.3.1	Li et al. 2009[83]	http://samtools.sourceforge.net
cutadapt v.1.12	Martin 2011[84]	https://cutadapt.readthedocs.io/en/stable/index.html
FastQC v. 0.11.9	Andrews 2010[85]	http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/
GraphPad Prism v.9.2.0	GraphPad Software, USA	https://www.graphpad.com
Adobe Illustrator v.25.3.1	Adobe, USA	https://www.adobe.com/at/products/illustrator.html
TransDecoder	Haas et al.	https://github.com/TransDecoder/TransDecoder
HMMER v.3.3.1	Mistry et al. 2021[86]	http://hmmer.org
Other		
Meersalz CLASSIC sea salt	Tropic Marine, Switzerland	10134
Organic Spirulina powder	Micro Ingredients, USA	SPA-0520
TetraMin fish flakes	Tetra GmbH, Germany	769939

Contact for resource sharing

524 Additional information of used reagents, sequence resources and bioinformatics analysis can

525 be requested from the corresponding authors Kristin Tessmar-Raible

526 (kristin.tessmar@mfpl.ac.at) and Sören Häfker (soeren_haefker@web.de).

Experimental model & subject details

We performed all investigations on the marine annelid *Platynereis dumerilii* (Audouin &

Milne Edwards, 1833). The worms used in the initial behavioral comparison of strains and

individuals (Fig.1) originated from 3 wildtype strains, which all originated from Worms

collected in the Gulf of Naples, Italy (40.7°N, 14.2E). The PIN and VIO strains have been in

culture for ~70 years and have been incrossed at least 10 times[40,45]. The NAP strain was

established in 2009 and has been kept as non-incrossed closed culture at Max Perutz Labs

(Vienna, Austria). p*df* mutants and were generated in VIO worms with corresponding

wildtypes obtained from the same heterozygous worms. Later, mutants were crossed into the

PIN strain and the resulting mutants and corresponding wildtypes were used for additional

behavior experiments (Fig.3A,B, Fig.4). qPCR measurement were performed with worms

from a VIO background (Fig.3C-E) For the comparison of rhythmic/arrhythmic worms

(Fig.5,6) we used only PIN worms. For all experiments we used only immature/premature

worms (age: 3-7 months, min. length: ~2.5 cm) that did not show any signs of metamorphosis

to the adult (epitoke) form.

Method details

<u>Worm culture conditions</u>

All worms used in the described experiments were cultured at the Max Perutz Labs (Vienna,

Austria) in a 1:1 mix of natural and artificial seawater (Meersalz CLASSIC, Tropic Marine

AG, Switzerland) that was pumped through 1 μm filters before use and was exchanged at

least every 2 weeks. Worms were kept in transparent plastic boxes (30x20 cm, 100-150

indv./box) in temperature controlled rooms at 19.5±1.0°C under a rectangular 16h:8h

light/dark-cycle (LD) with fluorescent tubes ($4.78*10^{14}$ photons$*cm^{-2}*s^{-1}$, Master TL5 HO

54W/865, Philips, Netherlands, Fig.S1A,C). To account for *P. dumerilii*'s lunar reproductive

cycle[43,87,88], we simulated a moonlight cycle by an LED lamp (Warm White 2700K A60 9W,

Philips, Netherlands) that was switched on for 8 nights centered on the outdoor full moon

times (see Zurl et al. 2022[44] for details). Larvae worms were fed a mix of living *Tetraselmis*

algae and *Spirulina* (Organic Spirulina Powder, Micro Ingredients, USA) 2-3 times a week

until they started forming their living tubes. Thereafter, worms were fed shredded spinach and

powdered fish flakes (TetraMin, Tetra GmbH, Germany) (once a week, each). Under these

conditions, *P. dumerilii* has a generation time of min. 3 months.

<u>Recording and characterization of behavior and diel rhythmicity</u>

We investigated worm locomotor activity in light-tight chambers developed in cooperation

with loopbio GmbH, Austria[39,89]. The worms were last fed (spinach) 4 days before the start of

the investigation. Worms were always taken from culture boxes of similar animal densities

and age to avoid potential effect on behavior. To prevent potential behavioral changes

associated with the simulated lunar cycle (see above), we conducted all recordings in the 2

weeks around new moon. For recording, the worms were transferred to 5x5 well plates and

were filmed at 15 fps using infrared-illumination and a camera equipped with a long-pass IR-

filter (acA2040-90um, Basler AG, Germany). A custom-build LED-array was used to create a

natural 16h:8h LD-cycle ($1.40*10^{15}$ photons$*cm^{-2}*s^{-1}$, Marine Breeding Systems GmbH,

Switzerland, Fig.S1B,C). All recordings were done at culture temperature and diel oscillations

were ~1°C in LD and <0.5°C in constant darkness (DD).

The number of days in LD or DD depended on the specific investigation. For the

comparison of the PIN, NAP and VIO wildtype strains (Fig.1), we exposed the worms to 4

days of LD followed by 4 days of DD. Worms in the comparison of *pdf* mutants and

wildtypes (Fig.4) experienced 4 LD days followed by 4, 5 or 8 DD days. The fractions of

worms experiencing a give number of DD days did not differ between wildtypes and mutants.

During the characterization for RNASeq analysis (Fig.5,6) we exposed PIN strain wildtypes

to 3 LD days and 3 DD days. Actograms of individual worms used in strain comparison, *pdf*

wildtype/mutant comparison, and characterization for RNASeq were submitted to Dryad

(Fig.D1-3).

We excluded data from worms that matured/spawned during or within one week after

the recording. Data of worms that crawled out of the well and could no longer be recorded

were omitted, if less than 3 days of data were available for the respective recoding phase (LD

or DD). Worms that were recorded repeatedly were kept separately in smaller boxes after the

initial recording to avoid the confusion of individuals. The *pdf* genotypes of all mutants and

the associated wildtype worms were verified at least 1 month before the behavior recording or

directly afterwards (as described below). Sex determination in a limited number of wildtype

worms showed no consistent differences in locomotor behavior of males and females (Fig.D1

in Dryad).

We quantified locomotor activity by determining x/y-coordinates of the center of the

detected worm shape (Fig.5A) and measuring the distance moved between frames using the

Motif automated tracking software (loopbio GmbH, Austria, see Veedin-Rajan et al.[39] for

details). We used a 1-min moving average to reduce noise. Period and power of diel

rhythmicity was determined via Lomb-Scargle periodograms with the ActogramJ[81] plug-in in

ImageJ/Fiji[80]. Analysis focused on the 20h-28h range of diel/circadian rhythmicity. Overall

activity was binned into morning (ZT0-8), afternoon (ZT8-16) and night (ZT16-0) for the LD

phase and into subjective morning (circadian time, CT0-8), subjective afternoon (CT8-16)

and subjective night (CT16-0) for the DD phase with all days of the respective phases being

pooled.

Description of *P. dumerilii* pigment-dispersing factor (*pdf*) and receptor (*pdfr*) sequences

An initial *P. dumerilii pdf* gene fragment was identified from Expressed Sequence Tags

(ESTs)[73]. The resulting 567bp fragment was subsequently extended to 804bp, which included

the complete coding sequence (CDS) of the prepropetide (accession no°: GU322426.1).

A first fragment of the *P. dumerilii* PDF-receptor (*pdfr*) sequence was obtained by

degenerated PCR and subsequently extended by RACE-PCR[74]. A 1604bp sequence

containing the full CDS was cloned into a pGEM®-T Easy Vector (pGEM®-T Easy Vector

Systems Kit, Promega, USA) and sequenced (accession no°: OL606759). A draft genome of

P.dumerilii (Simakov et al. in prep.) was searched for possible gene duplicates of *pdf* using a

hidden Markov model, but no further copies were identified. For the construction of

phylogenetic trees for prepro-PDF and PDF-receptor (Fig.2A,B), we collected sequences

from NCBI via PSI-BLAST (3 iterations), aligned them with MUSCLE[90] and then

constructed the trees using the IQ-TREE online tool with default settings[91]. Sequences used

for tree construction are provided in the supplement (Tab.S1).

<u>Deorphanization of pigment-dispersing factor receptor</u>

To validate that the identified *pdfr* sequence encodes a functional receptor activated by PDF,

a fragment of the *pdfr* gene including the full coding sequence was amplified by PCR and

cloned into the HindIII/XbaI sites of the pCDNA3.1(+) cloning vector. We assessed receptor

activation as previously described[48]. Briefly, *pdfr*-transfected Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO)

cells expressing *apoaequorin* and the *human Gα16 subunit* were incubated with 10^{-13}-10^{-4} M

of synthetic amidated PDF (see Key Resource Table) with n=10-12 measurements per

concentration. PDF was provided by the Mass Spectrometry Facility of the Institute for

Molecular Pathology, Vienna; and assessed by the Chemistry Department of the University of

Vienna for purity using matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass

spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS). We recorded calcium responses for 30 sec using a Mithras

LB 940 luminometer (Berthold Technologies, Germany). After these ligand-stimulated

calcium measurements, Triton X-100 (0.1%) was added to each sample well to obtain a

measure of the maximum calcium response and calculate dose responses. Percentage

activation values were plotted, with cells transfected with an empty pCDNA3.1(+) vector

serving as negative controls with n=6 per concentration (Fig.2C, Tab.S2). The half-maximal

effective concentration (EC_{50}) was calculated using a computerized nonlinear regression

analysis with a sigmoidal dose–response equation using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software

Inc., USA).

<u>Generation of *pdf*-mutant strain using TALENs</u>

To achieve a knockout of the *P. dumerilii pdf* gene, we followed a reverse genetic approach

using TALENs (transcription activator-like effector nucleases) as previously described[49].

Repeat-variable di-residue (RVD) sequence of TALENs were designed based on the

previously identified *pdf* sequence (accession nr: GU322426.1) to target a site in the 3rd exon

preceding the start of the mature peptide sequence (see Key Resource Table). VIO strain

worm zygotes 1 hour post fertilization were digested with proteinase K (23 sec) and were then

injected with 10 µL injection solution, which consistent of 200 ng/µL of each TALEN, 8 µL

RNAse-free H_2O and 2 µL TRITC-dextrane (3% in 0.2 M KCl). Before injection, the solution

was filtered through 0.45 mm PVDF centrifugal filters (Ultrafree-MC-HV, Merck Millipore,

USA)[49].

Once grown to maturity, we outcrossed injected worms against VIO wildtype worms,

and the resulting offspring were genotyped to identify changes in the PCR-product length of

the *pdf* locus using the HotSHOT-method[92] and primers covering the TALENs cleavage site.

PCR products were run on agarose gels[93]. When changes in length compared to the wildtype

were found, the bands were cut out and sub-cloned according to manufacturer protocols into

either a pjet1.2 blunt vector (CloneJET[TM] PCR Cloning Kit, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA)

or a pGEM[®]-T Easy Vector (pGEM[®]-T Easy Vector Systems Kit, Promega, USA) depending

on the Taq-polymerase used for PCR (blunt vs. sticky ends). The vectors were used to

transform competent *E. coli* cells (XL1-blue, raised by lab technician), of which individual

colonies were picked. Success of the transformation was verified by PCR followed by

sequencing of the insert to identify base deletions/insertions[93]. We thereby established a -14bp

deletion mutant strain, a +4bp insertion mutant strain, as well as a corresponding wildtype

strain (Fig.3A). The mutations resulted in early stop codons and a complete loss of the mature

peptide sequence (Fig.2B). The strains were outcrossed against VIO wildtypes at least 3 times

before later also being crossed against PIN wildtypes.

qPCR measurements

After entrainment to a 16h:8h LD cycle, we sampled worm heads of *pdf* wildtypes and -14/-

14 mutants (both VIO background) on the 2nd day of constant darkness at circadian time (CT)

6, CT10, CT15, CT19 and CT24. For this, we anesthetized worms in 7.5% (w/v) $MgCl_2$

mixed 1:1 with sterile filtered seawater for 5 minutes and heads were cut before the first pair

of parapodia under a dissection microscope before being fixed in liquid nitrogen. Animals

were only briefly exposed to light during dissection. At each time point, 3 replicates of mutant

and wildtype worms were collected with 5 heads pooled per replicate (only 2 replicates for

ZT10).

For RNA extraction, we homogenized samples in 350 µL RNAzol® (Sigma-Aldrich, USA)

with a TissueLyser (Qiagen, Netherlands) for 2 min at 30Hz and extracted RNA using the

Direct-Zol RNA MiniPrep kit (Zymo Research, USA) with on-column DNA digest according

to the manufacturer protocol. RNA was eluded in 25µL Nuclease-free H_2O and was stored at -

80°C. We spectrometrically determined RNA concentration and purity (Nanodrop 2000,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). 1 µg RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA (LunaScript RT

SuperMix, New England BioLabs, USA).

We measured the expression of the circadian clock genes *brain and muscle Arnt-like*

protein (*bmal*), *period* (*per*) and *tr-cryptochrome* (*tr-cry*) via real-time qPCR

(StepOnePlus[TM], Applied Biosystems, USA) using previously established primers[39] and the

expression of *cell division cycle 5* (*cdc5*) acting as a reference[94] (Fig.3C-E, Tab.S3). All

samples were measured as technical duplicates.

Characterization and sampling for RNASeq analysis

To investigate the manifestation of differences in phenotypic rhythmicity on the transcriptome

level, we performed a total of 13 behavioral recordings (see above) over the course of 6

months using worms from 5 different mating batches. We characterized worms as rhythmic

(n=102) or arrhythmic (n=75) based on Lomb-Scargle periodogram analysis and visual

inspection of actograms. For the characterization, rhythmicity in DD was considered more

important than in LD. Worm that could not be clearly associated with one phenotype were

considered unclear and were not used further (n=148, includes maturing/spawning worms).

While the relative abundance of phenotypes did partially differ between recordings, all

included rhythmic and arrhythmic worms. Actograms of all individual worms including their

characterizations were submitted to Dryad (Fig.D3).

We sorted characterized worms to culture boxes based on phenotype and kept them

under standard conditions (LD 16h:8h + lunar cycle) until sampling at the next new moon (i.e.

~1 month after the behavioral characterization). Samples for RNASeq analysis were collected

at ZT0 (lights on), ZT4, ZT8, ZT16 (lights off) and ZT20 (Fig.5A). Due to the work-intensive

characterization procedure and the loss of characterized worms due to maturation, we could

not collect all samples for the diel time series 'in one go', but sampled discontinuously over

several months while making sure that replicates of the same rhythmic phenotype/time point

were not collected simultaneously. Worm age at the time of sampling was 4-7 months. We

last fed the worms 5 days before sample collection and transferred them to sterile filtered

seawater containing 0.063 mg/mL streptomycin-sulfate and 0.250 mg/mL ampicillin 2 days

prior to sampling to minimize bacterial contaminations. Worms were anesthetized in $MgCl_2$

and heads were sampled and fixed as described above for qPCR measurements with 3 heads

pooled per replicate. For each time point, we collected 3 replicates of rhythmic and

arrhythmic worms, respectively. RNA was extracted as described above and was stored at -

80°C.

Quantification & statistical analysis

Behavioral comparisons

For the comparison of wildtype strains, we performed locomotor activity recordings of n=25

PIN worms, n=21 NAP worms and n=38 VIO worms (Fig.1 and Fig.D1 in Dryad). PIN, NAP

and VIO worms for the comparison originated from 2 mating batches, each. Of these,

repetition runs were done with 12 PIN worms, 5 NAP worms and 13 VIO worms (Fig.1E-G,

Fig.S2). For the behavioral comparison of *pdf* mutants and wildtypes, we performed 4

locomotor recordings for VIO-worms (wildtype n=34 from 4 batches & *pdf* -/- n=43 from 5

batches) and 5 recordings for PIN-crossed worms (wildtype n=45 from 5 batches & *pdf* -/-

n=54 from 6 batches). The VIO mutants were genotypes were -14/-14 (n=33) and -14/+4

(n=10). The PIN-crossed mutant genotypes were -14/-14 (n=16), +4/+4 (n=31) and -14/+4

(n=7). As the mutants showed no within-strain differences among genotypes (Fig.D2 in

Dryad), all of mutants with the same strain background were pooled.

We compared of diel rhythmicity power between groups, as well as activity between

time bins and between groups (see above) via 2-side unpaired Student's t-test or via One-way

ANOVA with Holm-Sidak *post-hoc* test. If data were not normally distributed and/or

homoscedasticity of variances was not given, we replaced the t-test with a Mann-Whitney U-

test and the One-way ANOVA with a Welch's ANOVA with Dunnett-T3 *post-hoc* test or a

Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA on Ranks with Dunn's *post-hoc* test. All statistical analyses were

carried out in GraphPad Prism.

Analysis of qPCR data

We normalized raw C_T-values of the clock genes *bmal*, *per* and *tr-cry* according to the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$-

Method[95] using the gene *cdcd5* as a reference (Fig.3C-E). Expression stability of *cdc5* has

previously been verified[94]. Raw C_t-values are provided in the supplement (Tab.S3).

Differences between worm groups were analyzed using GraphPad Prism via Student's t-tests

for each time point and with correction for the testing of multiple time points.

<u>Processing of RNASeq data</u>

Quality control, reverse transcription and library preparation of rhythmic/arrhythmic samples

were performed by the VBCF Next-Generation Sequencing facility services according to

standard   procedures   (VBCF-NGS,   Vienna   Biocenter   Campus,

https://www.viennabiocenter.org/vbcf/next-generation-sequencing). Samples were run on a

NextSeq550 System (Illumina, USA) with the High Output-kit as 75bp paired-end reads and

resulted in a total of 445,553,522 raw reads (sample range: 9,973,579-15,234,688 reads).

We trimmed/filtered the raw reads from NextSeq sequencing (see above) using cutadapt

(--nextseq-trim=20 -m 35 --pair-filter=any) with adapters being remove in the process[84]. This

reduced read numbers to 443,393,107 reads (0.48% loss). Read quality was checked before

and after trimming using FastQC[85]. Trimmed reads were mapped against a *P. dumerilii*

reference transcriptome generated from regenerated tail pieces (Fig.5B). Trimmed-read fastq-

files and FastQC-reports as well as transcript sequences of the reference transcriptome were

submitted to Dryad. We chose this tail transcriptome, because a BUSCO analysis[96] showed

that it contained a higher percentage of near-universal single-copy orthologs (98.9%

complete) compared to a previously published transcriptome generated from worm heads[94].

To ensure that no important transcripts were lost due to tissue-dependent expression, we

manually verified the inclusion of known clock genes, opsins, neuropeptides and other

potential genes of interest. The respective transcripts were identified using internal sequence

resources and NCBI, and were verified via BLASTx against the nr-database. If sequences

from existing resources covered larger gene stretches than the respective transcript, we

replaced the sequences in the transcriptome or merged them. Trimmed reads were mapped to

the reference transcriptome using salmon tool[82] (standard parameters incl. multi-mapping,

library type: ISR). To exclude transcripts that did not receive any reads during mapping, we

removed those transcripts from the expression matrix that had no observed expression in at

least 2 time points in the rhythmic time as well as the arrhythmic samples. We further

excluded all transcript <500bp to avoid fragments that could not be reliably annotated,

thereby obtaining a total of 48,605 expressed transcripts (Fig.5B, Tab.S4).

<u>Identification of cycling transcripts with RAIN</u>

To identify cyclic changes in transcript expression patterns, we used the R-package 'RAIN',

which employs a non-parametric approach to identify cycling independent of waveform[51]. As

RAIN assumes homoscedasticity, raw count data were transformed via the

VarianceStabilizingTransformation function of the DESeq2 package prior to analysis[76].

Cycling was investigated separately for rhythmic and arrhythmic samples with

peak.border=c(0.3,0.7) for a 24h period. We could not test for other periods due to the

discontinuous sample collection, which would have disrupted non-24h cycles (see above).

Resulting p-values were false-discovery-rate corrected via the *p.adjust()* function in R

according to the Benjamini-Hochberg-procedure[97] with p-values <0.05 considered significant

(Fig.6A, Tab.S4).

For visualization, we normalized VST-counts of RAIN-significant transcripts to a scale

of -1 to 1 and plotted them in heatmaps using the R-package *gplots*[78] and *RColorBrewer*[79].

Transcripts with cycling in rhythmic worms, arrhythmic worms, or both were plotted

separately, but always for both phenotypes (Fig.6B-D). The normalization means that

expression amplitudes of a given transcript are comparable between rhythmic and arrhythmic

worms, but not between different transcripts or groups (rhythmic, arrhythmic, both).

<u>GO-term annotation and enrichment analysis</u>

We next performed Gene Ontology (GO) analysis to determined the enrichment of biological

processes among transcripts with RAIN-significant cycling. For this, transcripts were

assigned GO-terms using the Trinotate protocol[98]. Briefly, we used TransDecoder

(https://github.com/TransDecoder/TransDecoder) to identify the most likely longest open

reading frame (ORF) peptide candidates and performed a BLASTx or BLASTp search of the

transcripts or peptide candidates against the SwissProt database (UniRef90)[99,100].

Additionally, we used the *hmmscan* function from HMMER (v3.3.1, http://hmmher.org/) to

get functional information from protein domains by searching the Pfam database[86]. For

analysis we pooled the GO-terms hits that had e-values $<1*10^{-3}$ in any of the annotation

approaches. GO-terms could be assigned to 19,096 out of the 48,605 expressed transcripts,

and to 334, 273 and 176 of the transcripts cycling in rhythmic, arrhythmic and both

phenotypes, respectively.

We determined GO-term enrichment for cycling transcripts using the R-package

'topGO'[77], using Fisher's exact test and the 'elim' algorithm[77,101]. The elim algorithm avoids

redundant scoring of more general GO-terms and thereby gives higher significance to more

specific terms than the 'classic' algorithm. GO-terms were considered significantly enriched,

if they had a p-value ≤ 0.05 and were represented by at least 3 transcripts (Fig.6B-D).

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

All data relevant to the paper are provided in the supplemental material or were submitted to

Dryad (figures included in supplement, for transcriptomic data please contact the authors). No

custom code was used. For additional information, please contact the authors directly

(kristin.tessmar@mfpl.ac.at, soeren_haefker@web.de).

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

N.S.H. was supported by a Lise-Meitner fellowship by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF, M2820). K.T.-R. received funding from the European Research Council under the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007–2013) ERC Grant Agreement #337011, the Horizon 2020 Programme ERC Grant Agreement #819952, and the FWF research platform 'Rhythms of Life' of the University of Vienna (SFB F78). I.B and L.S received support from the KU Leuven Research Council (C16/19/003). F.R. acknowledges support by the FWF (#I2972), and the European Research Council (#260564). None of the funding bodies was involved in the design of the study, the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data or in writing the manuscript.

We are further grateful to Andrij Belokurov, Margaryta Bosysova and Netsaneh Getachew (Max Perutz Labs Aquatic Facility) for sustaining worm cultures and routine genotyping support.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

N.S.H. and K.T.-R. designed the study and interpreted the results. N.S.H. wrote the manuscript with comments by K.T.-R. and review by the other coauthors. N.S.H. performed investigations of locomotor activity and phenotype characterization. S. H. identified the *pdf* gene sequence. K.V. generated *pdf* mutants and performed clock gene qPCRs. I.B., K.V. and L.S. performed deorphanization of the PDF-receptor. N.S.H. collected and prepared samples for transcriptomics. N.S.H., F.R. and A.W.S. preprocessed transcriptome data and A.W.S. assembled the reference transcriptome used for mapping. L.H. performed GO-term annotation and analysis, and N.S.H. performed RAIN analysis.

REFERENCES

1. Bierbach, D., Laskowski, K.L., and Wolf, M. (2017). Behavioural individuality in clonal
fish arises despite near-identical rearing conditions. Nat. Commun. *8*, 15361.

2. Refinetti, R., Wassmer, T., Basu, P., Cherukalady, R., Pandey, V.K., Singaravel, M.,
Giannetto, C., and Piccione, G. (2016). Variability of behavioral chronotypes of 16
mammalian species under controlled conditions. Physiol. Behav. *161*, 53–59.

3. Renn, S.C.P., Park, J.H., Rosbash, M., Hall, J.C., and Taghert, P.H. (1999). A *pdf*
Neuropeptide Gene Mutation and Ablation of PDF Neurons Each Cause Severe
Abnormalities of Behavioral Circadian Rhythms in *Drosophila*. Cell *99*, 791–802.

4. Depetris-Chauvin, A., Fernández-Gamba, Á., Gorostiza, E.A., Herrero, A., Castaño,
E.M., and Ceriani, M.F. (2014). Mmp1 Processing of the PDF Neuropeptide Regulates
Circadian Structural Plasticity of Pacemaker Neurons. PLOS Genet. *10*, e1004700.

5. Tessmar-Raible, K., Raible, F., and Arboleda, E. (2011). Another place, another timer:
Marine species and the rhythms of life. BioEssays *33*, 165–172.

6. Häfker, N.S., Andreatta, G., Manzotti, A., Falciatore, A., Raible, F., and Tessmar-Raible,
K. (accepted). Rhythms and Clocks in Marine Organisms. Annu. Rev. Mar. Sci.

7. Mat, A.M., Sarrazin, J., Markov, G.V., Apremont, V., Dubreuil, C., Eché, C., Fabioux, C.,
Klopp, C., Sarradin, P.-M., Tanguy, A., et al. (2020). Biological rhythms in the deep-sea
hydrothermal mussel *Bathymodiolus azoricus*. Nat. Commun. *11*, 3454.

8. Aguzzi, J., Sbragaglia, V., Tecchio, S., Navarro, J., and Company, J.B. (2015). Rhythmic
behaviour of marine benthopelagic species and the synchronous dynamics of benthic
communities. Deep Sea Res. Part Oceanogr. Res. Pap. *95*, 1–11.

9. Kelly, L.W., Nelson, C.E., Haas, A.F., Naliboff, D.S., Calhoun, S., Carlson, C.A.,
Edwards, R.A., Fox, M.D., Hatay, M., Johnson, M.D., et al. (2019). Diel population and
functional synchrony of microbial communities on coral reefs. Nat. Commun. *10*, 1691.

10. Bandara, K., Varpe, Ø., Wijewardene, L., Tverberg, V., and Eiane, K. (2021). Two
hundred years of zooplankton vertical migration research. Biol. Rev. *96*, 1547–1589.

11. Häfker, N.S., and Tessmar-Raible, K. (2020). Rhythms of behavior: are the times
changin'? Curr. Opin. Neurobiol. *60*, 55–66.

12. Dunlap, J.C., and Loros, J.J. (2016). Yes, circadian rhythms actually do affect almost
everything. Cell Res. *26*, 759–760.

13. Mackey, S.R. (2007). Biological Rhythms Workshop IA: Molecular Basis of Rhythms
Generation. In Cold Spring Harbor Symposia on Quantitative Biology (Cold Spring
Harbor Laboratory Press), pp. 7–19.

14. Horn, M., Mitesser, O., Hovestadt, T., Yoshii, T., Rieger, D., and Helfrich-Förster, C.
(2019). The Circadian Clock Improves Fitness in the Fruit Fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*.
Front. Physiol. *10*, 1374.

15. Spoelstra, K., Wikelski, M., Daan, S., Loudon, A.S.I., and Hau, M. (2016). Natural
selection against a circadian clock gene mutation in mice. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *113*,
686–691.

16. Dall, S.R.X., Bell, A.M., Bolnick, D.I., and Ratnieks, F.L.W. (2012). An evolutionary
ecology of individual differences. Ecol. Lett. *15*, 1189–1198.

17. Kralj-Fišer, S., and Schuett, W. (2014). Studying personality variation in invertebrates:
why bother? Anim. Behav. *91*, 41–52.

18. Demin, K.A., Lakstygal, A.M., Alekseeva, P.A., Sysoev, M., de Abreu, M.S., Alpyshov,
E.T., Serikuly, N., Wang, D., Wang, M., Tang, Z., et al. (2019). The role of intraspecies
variation in fish neurobehavioral and neuropharmacological phenotypes in aquatic
models. Aquat. Toxicol. *210*, 44–55.

19. Mueller, J.C., Korsten, P., Hermannstaedter, C., Feulner, T., Dingemanse, N.J.,
Matthysen, E., Oers, K. van, Overveld, T. van, Patrick, S.C., Quinn, J.L., et al. (2013).
Haplotype structure, adaptive history and associations with exploratory behaviour of the
DRD4 gene region in four great tit (*Parus major*) populations. Mol. Ecol. *22*, 2797–2809.

20. Nikhil, K.L., Abhilash, L., and Sharma, V.K. (2016). Molecular Correlates of Circadian
Clocks in Fruit Fly *Drosophila melanogaster* Populations Exhibiting early and late
Emergence Chronotypes. J. Biol. Rhythms *31*, 125–141.

21. Pegoraro, M., Flavell, L.M.M., Menegazzi, P., Colombi, P., Dao, P., Helfrich-Förster, C.,
and Tauber, E. (2020). The genetic basis of diurnal preference in *Drosophila*
melanogaster. BMC Genomics *21*, 596.

22. Burns, J.G., Svetec, N., Rowe, L., Mery, F., Dolan, M.J., Boyce, W.T., and Sokolowski,
M.B. (2012). Gene–environment interplay in *Drosophila melanogaster*: Chronic food
deprivation in early life affects adult exploratory and fitness traits. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.
109, 17239–17244.

23. Anreiter, I., Sokolowski, H.M., and Sokolowski, M.B. (2018). Gene–Environment
Interplay and Individual Differences in Behavior. Mind Brain Educ. *12*, 200–211.

24. Vogt, G. (2015). Stochastic developmental variation, an epigenetic source of phenotypic
diversity with far-reaching biological consequences. J. Biosci. *40*, 159–204.

25. Rey, S., Boltana, S., Vargas, R., Roher, N., and MacKenzie, S. (2013). Combining animal
personalities with transcriptomics resolves individual variation within a wild-type
zebrafish population and identifies underpinning molecular differences in brain function.
Mol. Ecol. *22*, 6100–6115.

26. Das, B., and de Bekker, C. (2022). Time-course RNASeq of *Camponotus floridanus*
forager and nurse ant brains indicate links between plasticity in the biological clock and
behavioral division of labor. BMC Genomics *23*, 57.

27. Pegoraro, M., Picot, E., Hansen, C.N., Kyriacou, C.P., Rosato, E., and Tauber, E. (2015).
Gene Expression Associated with Early and Late Chronotypes in *Drosophila*
melanogaster. Front. Neurol. *6*.

28. Sih, A., Mathot, K.J., Moirón, M., Montiglio, P.-O., Wolf, M., and Dingemanse, N.J.
(2015). Animal personality and state–behaviour feedbacks: a review and guide for
empiricists. Trends Ecol. Evol. *30*, 50–60.

29. Helm, B., Visser, M.E., Schwartz, W., Kronfeld-Schor, N., Gerkema, M., Piersma, T., and
Bloch, G. (2017). Two sides of a coin: ecological and chronobiological perspectives of
timing in the wild. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. *372*, 20160246.

30. Krylov, V.V., Izvekov, E.I., Pavlova, V.V., Pankova, N.A., and Osipova, E.A. (2020).
Circadian rhythms in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) behaviour and the sources of their
variability. Biol. Rev. *n/a*.

31. Mezan, S., Feuz, J.D., Deplancke, B., and Kadener, S. (2016). PDF Signaling Is an
Integral Part of the *Drosophila* Circadian Molecular Oscillator. Cell Rep. *17*, 708–719.

32. Menegazzi, P., Dalla Benetta, E., Beauchamp, M., Schlichting, M., Steffan-Dewenter, I.,
and Helfrich-Förster, C. (2017). Adaptation of Circadian Neuronal Network to
Photoperiod in High-Latitude European Drosophilids. Curr. Biol. *27*, 833–839.

33. Bertolini, E., Schubert, F.K., Zanini, D., Sehadová, H., and Helfrich-Förster, C. (2019).
Life at High Latitudes Does Not Require Circadian Behavioral Rhythmicity under
Constant Darkness. Curr. Biol. *29*, 3928–3936.

34. Beauchamp, M., Bertolini, E., Deppisch, P., Steubing, J., Menegazzi, P., and Helfrich-
Förster, C. (2018). Closely Related Fruit Fly Species Living at Different Latitudes
Diverge in Their Circadian Clock Anatomy and Rhythmic Behavior. J. Biol. Rhythms *33*,
602–613.

35. Deppisch, P., Prutscher, J.M., Pegoraro, M., Tauber, E., Wegener, C., and Helfrich-
Förster, C. (2022). Adaptation of *Drosophila melanogaster* to Long Photoperiods of
High-Latitude Summers Is Facilitated by the *ls-Timeless* Allele. J. Biol. Rhythms,
07487304221082448.

36. Lamaze, A., Chen, C., Leleux, S., Xu, M., George, R., and Stanewsky, R. (2022). A natural timeless polymorphism allowing circadian clock synchronization in "white nights." Nat. Commun. *13*, 1724.

37. Fischer, A., and Dorresteijn, A. (2004). The polychaete *Platynereis dumerilii* (Annelida): a laboratory animal with spiralian cleavage, lifelong segment proliferation and a mixed benthic/pelagic life cycle. BioEssays *26*, 314–325.

38. Bulla, M., Oudman, T., Bijleveld, A.I., Piersma, T., and Kyriacou, C.P. (2017). Marine biorhythms: bridging chronobiology and ecology. Phil Trans R Soc B *372*, 20160253.

39. Veedin Rajan, V.B., Häfker, N.S., Arboleda, E., Poehn, B., Gossenreiter, T., Gerrard, E., Hofbauer, M., Mühlestein, C., Bileck, A., Gerner, C., et al. (2021). Seasonal variation in UVA light drives hormonal and behavioural changes in a marine annelid via a ciliary opsin. Nat. Ecol. Evol. *5*, 204–218.

40. Özpolat, B.D., Randel, N., Williams, E.A., Bezares-Calderón, L.A., Andreatta, G., Balavoine, G., Bertucci, P.Y., Ferrier, D.E.K., Gambi, M.C., Gazave, E., et al. (2021). The Nereid on the rise: Platynereis as a model system. EvoDevo *12*, 10.

41. Ricevuto, E., Kroeker, K.J., Ferrigno, F., Micheli, F., and Gambi, M.C. (2014). Spatio-temporal variability of polychaete colonization at volcanic CO_2 vents indicates high tolerance to ocean acidification. Mar. Biol. *161*, 2909–2919.

42. Chouikh, N., Gillet, P., Langston, W.J., Cheggour, M., Maarouf, A., and Mouabad, A. (2020). Spatial distribution and structure of benthic polychaete communities of Essaouira intertidal rocky shores (Atlantic coast of Morocco). J. Oceanol. Limnol. *38*, 143–155.

43. Zantke, J., Ishikawa-Fujiwara, T., Arboleda, E., Lohs, C., Schipany, K., Hallay, N., Straw, A.D., Todo, T., and Tessmar-Raible, K. (2013). Circadian and circalunar clock interactions in a marine annelid. Cell Rep. *5*, 99–113.

44. Zurl, M., Poehn, B., Rieger, D., Krishnan, S., Rokvic, D., Veedin Rajan, V.B., Gerrard, E., Schlichting, M., Orel, L., Ćorić, A., et al. (2022). Two light sensors decode moonlight versus sunlight to adjust a plastic circadian/circalunidian clock to moon phase. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *119*, e2115725119.

45. Zantke, J., Bannister, S., Veedin-Rajan, V.B., Raible, F., and Tessmar-Raible, K. (2014). Genetic and Genomic Tools for the Marine Annelid *Platynereis dumerilii*. Genetics *197*, 19–31.

46. Beer, K., and Helfrich-Förster, C. (2020). Model and Non-model Insects in Chronobiology. Front. Behav. Neurosci. *14*, 601676.

47. Janssen, T., Husson, S.J., Lindemans, M., Mertens, I., Rademakers, S., Donck, K.V., Geysen, J., Jansen, G., and Schoofs, L. (2008). Functional Characterization of Three G

Protein-coupled Receptors for Pigment Dispersing Factors in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. J.
Biol. Chem. *283*, 15241–15249.

48. Andreatta, G., Broyart, C., Borghgraef, C., Vadiwala, K., Kozin, V., Polo, A., Bileck, A.,
Beets, I., Schoofs, L., and Gerner, C. (2020). Corazonin signaling integrates energy
homeostasis and lunar phase to regulate aspects of growth and sexual maturation in
Platynereis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *117*, 1097–1106.

49. Bannister, S., Antonova, O., Polo, A., Lohs, C., Hallay, N., Valinciute, A., Raible, F., and
Tessmar-Raible, K. (2014). TALENs Mediate Efficient and Heritable Mutation of
Endogenous Genes in the Marine Annelid *Platynereis dumerilii*. Genetics *197*, 77–89.

50. Arboleda, E., Zurl, M., Waldherr, M., and Tessmar-Raible, K. (2019). Differential
Impacts of the Head on *Platynereis dumerilii* Peripheral Circadian Rhythms. Front.
Physiol. *10*, 900.

51. Thaben, P.F., and Westermark, P.O. (2014). Detecting Rhythms in Time Series with
RAIN. J. Biol. Rhythms *29*, 391–400.

52. Zantke, J., Oberlerchner, H., and Tessmar-Raible, K. (2014). Circadian and Circalunar
Clock Interactions and the Impact of Light in *Platynereis dumerilii*. In Annual, Lunar, and
Tidal Clocks (Springer, Tokyo), pp. 143–162.

53. Liu, X., Liu, D., Shen, Y., Huang, M., Gao, L., Zhang, Z., Liu, B., Zhao, B., and Pang, Q.
(2020). Matrix Metalloproteinases in Invertebrates. Protein Pept. Lett. *27*, 1068–1081.

54. Buckley, J.J., and Jessen, J.R. (2015). Matrix metalloproteinase function in non-
mammalian model organisms. Front. Biosci. *7*, 168–183.

55. Small, C.D., and Crawford, B.D. (2016). Matrix metalloproteinases in neural
development: a phylogenetically diverse perspective. Neural Regen. Res. *11*, 357–362.

56. Vaze, K.M., and Helfrich-Förster, C. (2021). The Neuropeptide PDF Is Crucial for
Delaying the Phase of *Drosophila*'s Evening Neurons Under Long Zeitgeber Periods. J.
Biol. Rhythms *36*, 442–460.

57. Menegazzi, P., Beer, K., Grebler, V., Schlichting, M., Schubert, F.K., and Helfrich-
Förster, C. (2020). A Functional Clock Within the Main Morning and Evening Neurons of
D. melanogaster Is Not Sufficient for Wild-Type Locomotor Activity Under Changing
Day Length. Front. Physiol. *11*, 229.

58. Williams, J.A., and Sehgal, A. (2001). Molecular components of the circadian system in
Drosophila. Annu. Rev. Physiol. *63*, 729–755.

59. Lin, Y., Stormo, G.D., and Taghert, P.H. (2004). The Neuropeptide Pigment-Dispersing
Factor Coordinates Pacemaker Interactions in the *Drosophila* Circadian System. J.
Neurosci. *24*, 7951–7957.

60. Biro, P.A., and Stamps, J.A. (2010). Do consistent individual differences in metabolic rate promote consistent individual differences in behavior? Trends Ecol. Evol. *25*, 653–659.

61. Claridge-Chang, A., Wijnen, H., Naef, F., Boothroyd, C., Rajewsky, N., and Young, M.W. (2001). Circadian Regulation of Gene Expression Systems in the *Drosophila* Head. Neuron *32*, 657–671.

62. Miller, C.M., Page-McCaw, A., and Broihier, H.T. (2008). Matrix metalloproteinases promote motor axon fasciculation in the *Drosophila* embryo. Development *135*, 95–109.

63. Anea, C.B., Ali, M.I., Osmond, J.M., Sullivan, J.C., Stepp, D.W., Merloiu, A.M., and Rudic, R.D. (2010). Matrix Metalloproteinase 2 and 9 Dysfunction Underlie Vascular Stiffness in Circadian Clock Mutant Mice. Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol. *30*, 2535–2543.

64. Halter, K. (2020). The role of extracellular proteases, matrix metalloproteinase-2 and -9, in regulating the mammalian circadian clock. PhD thesis, University of Tennessee, USA.

65. Sivachenko, A., Li, Y., Abruzzi, K.C., and Rosbash, M. (2013). The Transcription Factor Mef2 Links the *Drosophila* Core Clock to *Fas2*, Neuronal Morphology, and Circadian Behavior. Neuron *79*, 281–292.

66. Pivarciova, L., Vaneckova, H., Provaznik, J., Wu, B.C., Pivarci, M., Peckova, O., Bazalova, O., Cada, S., Kment, P., Kotwica-Rolinska, J., et al. (2016). Unexpected Geographic Variability of the Free Running Period in the Linden Bug *Pyrrhocoris apterus*. J. Biol. Rhythms, 0748730416671213.

67. Svanbäck, R., and Bolnick, D.I. (2007). Intraspecific competition drives increased resource use diversity within a natural population. Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. *274*, 839–844.

68. Lloyd, E., Chhouk, B., Conith, A.J., Keene, A.C., and Albertson, R.C. (2021). Diversity in rest–activity patterns among Lake Malawi cichlid fishes suggests a novel axis of habitat partitioning. J. Exp. Biol. *224*.

69. Mittelbach, G.G., Ballew, N.G., and Kjelvik, M.K. (2014). Fish behavioral types and their ecological consequences. Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci. *71*, 927–944.

70. Morozov, A., Pasternak, A.F., and Arashkevich, E.G. (2013). Revisiting the Role of Individual Variability in Population Persistence and Stability. PLOS ONE *8*, e70576.

71. Häfker, N.S., Connan-McGinty, S., Hobbs, L., McKee, D., Cohen, J.H., and Last, K.S. (2022). Animal behavior is central in shaping the realized diel light niche. Commun. Biol. *5*, 562.

72. Miller, C.T., Gire, D., Hoke, K., Huk, A.C., Kelley, D., Leopold, D.A., Smear, M.C., Theunissen, F., Yartsev, M., and Niell, C.M. (2022). Natural behavior is the language of the brain. Curr. Biol. *32*, R482–R493.

73. Keplinger, S. (2010). Influence of the adult eyes on circadian and lunar rhythms in
Platynereis dumerilii. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna, Austria.

74. Hammer, S. (2012). Target tissues of melatonin and PDF in *Platynereis*. Diploma thesis,
University of Vienna, Austria.

75. R Development Core Team (2013). R: A language and environment for statistical
computing. https://www.r-project.org.

76. Love, M.I., Huber, W., and Anders, S. (2014). Moderated estimation of fold change and
dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. *15*, 550.

77. Alexa, A., and Rahnenführer, J. (2009). Gene set enrichment analysis with topGO. R
package version 2.46.0. https://bioconductor.org/packages/topGO/.

78. Warnes, G.R., Bolker, B., Bonebakker, L., Gentleman, R., Liaw, W.H.A., Lumley, T.,
Maechler, M., Magnusson, A., Moeller, S., Schwartz, M., et al. (2016). gplots: Various R
Programming   Tools   for   Plotting   Data.   version   3.1.1.   https://CRAN.R-
project.org/package=gplots.

79. Neuwirth, E. (2014). RColorBrewer: ColorBrewer Palettes R package version 1.1-2.
https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=RColorBrewer.

80. Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T.,
Preibisch, S., Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji: an open-source
platform for biological-image analysis. Nat. Methods *9*, 676–682.

81. Schmid, B., Helfrich-Förster, C., and Yoshii, T. (2011). A New ImageJ Plug-in
"ActogramJ" for Chronobiological Analyses. J. Biol. Rhythms *26*, 464–467.

82. Patro, R., Duggal, G., Love, M.I., Irizarry, R.A., and Kingsford, C. (2017). Salmon
provides fast and bias-aware quantification of transcript expression. Nat. Methods *14*,
417–419.

83. Li, H., Handsaker, B., Wysoker, A., Fennell, T., Ruan, J., Homer, N., Marth, G.,
Abecasis, G., Durbin, R., and 1000 Genome Project Data Processing Subgroup (2009).
The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics *25*, 2078–2079.

84. Martin, M. (2011). Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput
sequencing reads. EMBnet.journal *17*, 10–12.

85. Andrews, S. (2010). FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.
Babraham   Institute,   Cambridge,   UK.
http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/.

86. Mistry, J., Chuguransky, S., Williams, L., Qureshi, M., Salazar, G.A., Sonnhammer,
E.L.L., Tosatto, S.C.E., Paladin, L., Raj, S., Richardson, L.J., et al. (2021). Pfam: The
protein families database in 2021. Nucleic Acids Res. *49*, D412–D419.

87. Hauenschild, C. (1954). Über das lunarperiodische Schwärmen von *Platynereis Dumerilii*
in Laboratoriumszuchten. Naturwissenschaften *41*, 556–557.

88. Ranzi, S. (1931). Maturita sessuale degli Anellidi e fasi lunari. Boll Soc Ital Biol Sper *6*,
18.

89. Ayers, T., Tsukamoto, H., Gühmann, M., Veedin-Rajan, V.B., and Tessmar-Raible, K.
(2018). A G_o-type opsin mediates the shadow reflex in the annelid *Platynereis dumerilii*.
BMC Biol. *16*, 41.

90. Madeira, F., Park, Y.M., Lee, J., Buso, N., Gur, T., Madhusoodanan, N., Basutkar, P.,
Tivey, A.R.N., Potter, S.C., Finn, R.D., et al. (2019). The EMBL-EBI search and
sequence analysis tools APIs in 2019. Nucleic Acids Res. *47*, W636–W641.

91. Trifinopoulos, J., Nguyen, L.-T., von Haeseler, A., and Minh, B.Q. (2016). W-IQ-TREE:
a fast online phylogenetic tool for maximum likelihood analysis. Nucleic Acids Res. *44*,
W232–W235.

92. Truett, G. e., Heeger, P., Mynatt, R. l., Truett, A. a., Walker, J. a., and Warman, M. l.
(2000). Preparation of PCR-Quality Mouse Genomic DNA with Hot Sodium Hydroxide
and Tris (HotSHOT). BioTechniques *29*, 52–54.

93. Steinkellner, E. (2012). Regulation and function of conserved *Platynereis* hormones.
Diploma thesis, University of Vienna, Austria.

94. Schenk, S., Bannister, S.C., Sedlazeck, F.J., Anrather, D., Minh, B.Q., Bileck, A., Hartl,
M., von Haeseler, A., Gerner, C., Raible, F., et al. (2019). Combined transcriptome and
proteome profiling reveals specific molecular brain signatures for sex, maturation and
circalunar clock phase. eLife *8*, e41556.

95. Livak, K.J., and Schmittgen, T.D. (2001). Analysis of relative gene expression data using
real-time quantitative PCR and the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method. Methods *25*, 402–408.

96. Manni, M., Berkeley, M.R., Seppey, M., Simão, F.A., and Zdobnov, E.M. (2021).
BUSCO Update: Novel and Streamlined Workflows along with Broader and Deeper
Phylogenetic Coverage for Scoring of Eukaryotic, Prokaryotic, and Viral Genomes. Mol.
Biol. Evol. *38*, 4647–4654.

97. Benjamini, Y., and Hochberg, Y. (1995). Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A
Practical and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B Methodol.
57, 289–300.

98. Bryant, D.M., Johnson, K., DiTommaso, T., Tickle, T., Couger, M.B., Payzin-Dogru, D.,
Lee, T.J., Leigh, N.D., Kuo, T.-H., Davis, F.G., et al. (2017). A Tissue-Mapped Axolotl
De Novo Transcriptome Enables Identification of Limb Regeneration Factors. Cell Rep.
18, 762–776.

99. Altschul, S.F., Gish, W., Miller, W., Myers, E.W., and Lipman, D.J. (1990). Basic local
alignment search tool. J. Mol. Biol. *215*, 403–410.

100.   Suzek, B.E., Wang, Y., Huang, H., McGarvey, P.B., Wu, C.H., and the UniProt
Consortium (2015). UniRef clusters: a comprehensive and scalable alternative for
improving sequence similarity searches. Bioinformatics *31*, 926–932.

101.   Alexa, A., Rahnenführer, J., and Lengauer, T. (2006). Improved scoring of functional
groups from gene expression data by decorrelating GO graph structure. Bioinformatics
22, 1600–1607.