The earliest circadian clock in the mammalian brain emerges in the

embryonic choroid plexus

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Abstract

Maternal chronodisruption is linked to miscarriages and neurodevelopmental risks, yet the earliest brain circadian oscillator in the embryo and the mechanism of its emergence remain unknown. Using bioluminescent reporters for PER2 and *Bmal1*, we tracked the onset of autonomous ~24 h oscillations *ex vivo*. While the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) is widely considered the first circadian structure at embryonic day (E) 14.5-15.5, we find that the fourth ventricle choroid plexus (4VCP) exhibits PER2 oscillations by E11.5-E12.5. These oscillations show hallmarks of a saddle-node on an invariant circle (SNIC) bifurcation, characterized by an initially long period converging toward 24 h and pronounced sensitivity to sub-degree temperature cycles mimicking physiological maternal cues. Transcriptional profiling of maternal and embryonic 4VCPs unveiled three epochs in clock gene expression that parallel tissue differentiation. We identify the 4VCP as the earliest detectable brain circadian oscillator, and

24 demonstrate how its bifurcation dynamics allow the nascent clock to couple to maternal

25 rhythms.

28 **Keywords:** circadian clock ontogeny, choroid plexus, maternal-fetal interaction, SNIC

29 bifurcation, embryonic brain development, temperature entrainment, suprachiasmatic nucleus

Introduction

Circadian clocks are autonomous pacemakers that align physiological processes with Earth's 24-h cycle, maintained by a robust transcription-translation feedback loop (TTFL). The transcription factors BMAL1 and CLOCK heterodimerize to activate the transcription of negative feedback components, including the *Period* (*Per1/2/3)* and *Cryptochrome* (*Cry1/2*) genes. The resulting PER and CRY proteins accumulate, form complexes, and undergo post-translational modifications that introduce a delay that sets the circadian timescale. These complexes translocate into the nucleus to repress their own transcription to complete the loop. The transcription of *Bmal1* is further regulated by REV-ERB and ROR, conferring additional robustness to the oscillation. The assemblage of these loops creates tissue-specific phase organization of clock gene expression (Myung et al., 2025). In adult mammals, the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) in the hypothalamus acts as the central clock, synchronizing peripheral clocks throughout the body (Finger et al., 2020). Understanding when and how this system first emerges during development is important, as maternal chronodisruption is associated with preterm birth, miscarriage, and adverse neurodevelopmental outcomes (Astiz and Oster, 2021); yet, neither the identity nor the onset mechanism of the earliest embryonic brain clock has been established.

Circadian rhythms have been detected prenatally in humans, non-human primates, and rodents (Serón-Ferré et al., 2012; Landgraf et al., 2014). However, detection is technically challenging, due to low-amplitude oscillations and tissue-specific differences in clock gene expression. Although *Per* and *Bmal1* show no clear rhythms in whole-embryo preparations (E10-E17) (Cao et al., 2022; Dolatshad et al., 2010; Serón-Ferré et al., 2012), circadian rhythmicity of PER2 has been detected in the SCN *ex vivo* around E14.5 to E15.5 (Wreschnig et al., 2014; Carmona-

Alcocer et al., 2018). Whether the SCN is truly the first circadian structure in the embryonic brain,

however, has not been systematically examined.

A strong candidate for an even earlier clock is the choroid plexus (CP). In adult mice, the CP acts

as a robust clock capable of entraining the SCN through a diffusive pathway (Myung et al., 2018).

This non-neuronal tissue lines the brain ventricles and filters blood to produce cerebrospinal fluid

(CSF) and a distinct secretome (Saunders et al., 2023; Chau et al., 2015; Courtney et al., 2025;

Edelbo et al., 2023). Among the CPs, the fourth ventricle CP (4VCP) is the first to develop, arising

from the lower rhombic lip as early as E9.5, expressing *Wnt1*, *Ttr*, and *Kcne2*, with development

rate peaking at E11-E12.5 (Lun et al., 2015; Hunter and Dymecki, 2007). By E14, the 4VCP

becomes anatomically apparent and is thought to be differentiated, although proliferation

continues postnatally (Lun et al., 2015).

Beyond mechanical support, CSF is a key volumetric regulator of early brain development.

Embryonic CSF is present at neural tube closure (E9.5), initially derived from enclosed amniotic

fluid before transitioning to CP-produced fluid between E10.5 and E14.5 (Chau et al., 2015).

Because CP-derived volume transmission dominates early brain-wide signaling (E10.5-E11.5)

and the adult CP secretome is under circadian control (Edelbo et al., 2023), an embryonic CP

clock could provide early time cues for neural progenitor programs (Miyan et al., 2003; Martin et

al., 2009; Gato et al., 2005).

How might such a clock emerge? The early embryo operates on timescales of hours for cell

division and somitogenesis, far shorter than the 24 h cycle, and an abrupt transition from the

"somitogenesis era" to the "circadian era" has been proposed (Caviness et al., 1995; Yagita,

2024). From a nonlinear dynamics perspective, a quiescent state can transition to stable

oscillation through a bifurcation. Circadian clocks, along with many oscillations in biology, are

often modelled as a supercritical Hopf bifurcation, in which amplitude grows gradually while the

period remains constant (Murayama et al., 2017). However, developmental transitions, such as

the onset of the first heartbeat in zebrafish, can arise via a noisy saddle-node on an invariant

circle (SNIC) bifurcation (Jia et al., 2023). A SNIC produces finite amplitude oscillations abruptly,

with an initially long period that shortens toward ~24 h. Near threshold, the slow dynamics makes

oscillation frequency highly sensitive to weak external forcing, so that even small maternal cues

could effectively entrain a nascent clock. Distinguishing between these two mechanisms requires

tracking both period and amplitude across development, which have not previously been

available for any embryonic circadian tissue.

In this study, we pinpoint when circadian rhythms first emerge in the embryonic mouse brain.

Using bioluminescent reporters for PER2 and *Bmal1*, we identify that the 4VCP is the earliest

detectable clock, governed by SNIC-like bifurcation dynamics. We demonstrate that this onset

mechanism renders the nascent clock highly sensitive to mid-gestational fluctuations in the

maternal clock. Transcriptional profiling of mother and embryo throughout pregnancy reveals

three distinct epochs in clock gene expression coinciding with 4VCP differentiation. Initially

coupled to the mother, both maternal and embryonic clocks undergo transient destabilization,

after which the embryo establishes autonomous circadian organization approaching canonical

TTFL architecture. As the 4VCP matures, it ceases to entrain to external temperature cycles and

transitions toward robust, self-sustained oscillation.

Results

The 4VCP exhibits autonomous circadian oscillations prior to the SCN

The embryonic SCN is widely recognized as the earliest reported brain region to exhibit a detectable circadian rhythm, emerging between E14.5 and E15.5 (Wreschnig et al., 2014; Carmona-Alcocer et al., 2018). To test whether this holds across the brain, we prepared brain slices from E15.5 PER2::LUC$^{+/-}$ embryos and performed bioluminescence imaging for 5-7 days (**Fig. 1A**-**C**, **Movie S1**). Spectral analysis revealed two consistent loci with ~24 h periods, circadian power exceeding 30% (see Materials and Methods), and high RMS amplitude (**Fig. 1Ca**,**1Cb**, **Fig. S4**). The ventral locus (white arrow) was RORA-positive, confirming its identity as the SCN (VanDunk et al., 2011), whereas the posterior structure (red arrow) was TTR-positive, a known marker for the CP (Kaiser and Bryja, 2020) (**Fig. 1Cc**). When analysis was restricted strictly to these regions, robust rhythms with periods between 20 and 28 h were detected, with circadian power of 59.4 ± 0.8% in the SCN and 40.4 ± 0.4% in the 4VCP (**Fig. 1Cd**). The pituitary gland also exhibited rhythmicity (46.9 ± 0.4%), but with lower RMS amplitude (10.2 ± 0.2 AU vs. SCN: 15.5 ± 0.9 AU, 4VCP: 15.5 ± 0.5 AU; both $p < 0.0001$) (**Fig. S4**).

At E13.5, no circadian oscillations were detected in ventral structures corresponding to SCN progenitors, consistent with previous reports (Wreschnig et al., 2014; Carmona-Alcocer et al., 2018) (**Fig. 1D**, **Movie S2**). However, the 4VCP (red arrow) exhibited a near-24 h rhythm with strong circadian power of 30.0 ± 0.7% (vs. hypothalamus: 20.7 ± 0.1%) and high RMS amplitude (**Fig. 1Db**, **Fig. S4**), which we confirmed after restricting the analysis to the 4VCP (**Fig. 1Dd**). At E11.5, no significant circadian rhythm was detected in whole brain slices (**Fig. 1E**, **Movie S3**). To confirm that this rhythm was endogenous, we dissected E13.5 4VCPs and recorded bioluminescence *ex vivo* (**Fig. 1F**, **Movie S4**). The isolated 4VCP explant exhibited robust

rhythmicity with circadian power of ~40%, well above the detection threshold determined from

blank luciferase medium (Blk, < 20%) (**Fig. 1Fb**).

Tracking the precise timeline of 4VCP clock emergence

To pinpoint the exact onset of clock emergence, we tracked PER2::LUC bioluminescence in

isolated 4VCPs from E9.5, when the CSF compartment first forms (Chau et al., 2015), through to

postnatal stages via LumiCycle, recording from 110 embryos (3-11 per stage, from at least 2-3

litters) for 5-7 days (**Fig. 2**). The oscillation period was initially long and highly dispersed at E9.5

(27.50 ± 2.12 h; $p < 0.0001$, $n = 3$ detectable oscillations), converging toward a stable 24 h by

E11.5 (24.98 ± 0.54 h; $p > 0.1$, $n = 11$). This marked the onset of detectable oscillations, as

circadian power exceeded 20% (31.42 ± 1.90% at E11.5, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 15$; vs. 18.01 ± 2.43%

at E10.5, $p > 0.05$, $n = 15$) (**Fig. 2A**,**C**,**D**). These early oscillations were weakly sustained with low

RMS amplitude. By E12.5, they persisted throughout recording, with amplitude increasing further

at E13.5. The rhythm became fully circadian at E15.5 (24.47 ± 0.60 h; $n = 5$), with high circadian

power (50.96 ± 3.42%; $n = 5$) approaching the 2-day window ceiling of ~60% (**Fig. 2A,C,D**).

To characterize the molecular assembly of this clock, we also measured from the *Bmal1-ELuc*

reporter strain. Interestingly, *Bmal1-ELuc* oscillations with a ~24 h period were only observed

from E13.5 to E14.5, approximately two days after the emergence of PER2 oscillations (**Fig.**

2B,C,D). Sigmoidal fits to circadian power trajectories estimated the exact emergence time (T_e)

(see Materials and Methods). PER2::LUC oscillations became circadian at E11.7 ± 0.1, whereas

Bmal1-ELuc oscillations emerged later at E13.5 ± 0.7 *ex vivo* (**Fig. 2D**). This delayed *Bmal1* aligns

with the sudden upward shift in PER2::LUC circadian power above 20% observed at E12.5-

E13.5 (**Fig. S5A**).

Because the circadian clock and developmental programs are deeply intertwined, we mapped

the embryonic 4VCP's developmental trajectory by quantifying progenitor markers (*Gli3*, *Ki67*,

Wnt1, *Nanog*) (Awatramani et al., 2003; Hunter and Dymecki, 2007) and differentiation markers

(*Aqp1*, *Otx2, Ttr*, *Wnt5a*) (Lun et al., 2015; Langford et al., 2020). Progenitor markers

predominated from E9.5 to E11.5, whereas differentiation genes dominated from E14.5 onward

(**Fig. 2E**). Sigmoidal fits estimated the progenitor half-minimum at E13.6 ± 0.8 and the

differentiation half-maximum at E13.5 ± 0.2, coinciding with *Bmal1-ELuc* emergence (T_e = E13.5

± 0.7) (**Fig. 2G**). This defines three epochs: the undifferentiated state (E9.5-E12), the transition

state (E12-E15), and the differentiated state (E15-E16.5). Notably, PER2::LUC oscillations (T_e =

E11.7 ± 0.1) appear during the early transition, preceding both *Bmal1* rhythmicity and the

differentiation switch, an order that is atypical for a canonical TTFL where *Bmal1* drives *Per*

transcription (**Fig. 2G**).

Finally, we compared the emergence time of PER2::LUC rhythms across the brain and peripheral

organs in isolated explant culture. Among all tissues tested, the 4VCP was the first to become

circadian, preceding the lateral ventricle CP (LVCP: E12.4 ± 0.2), the SCN (E14.2 ± 0.4), and

peripheral organs such as the liver (E14.5 ± 0.6) and kidney (E15.1 ± 0.3) (**Fig. 2F**,**G**). In the SCN,

the period approached 24 h at E14.5 (24.47 ± 2.35 h, *n* = 7) and became fully circadian at E15.5

with high circadian power (44.56 ± 2.48%, *n* = 3).

Abrupt, SNIC-like onset and synchronization of clock emergence

The type of bifurcation underlying oscillation onset can be deduced by tracking how amplitude

and period evolve over development. Circadian clocks have long been modelled as supercritical

Hopf bifurcations, which behave analogously to resonance: amplitude grows smoothly while the

period remains fixed. A SNIC bifurcation is fundamentally different and oscillations appear

abruptly at full amplitude but with an initially long period that shortens toward ~24 h. SNIC

oscillation also displays pronounced phase sensitivity to weak perturbations (Ermentrout, 1996).

In single-cell PER2::LUC imaging, we observed a sharply defined clock onset with a stepwise

amplitude increase (**Fig. 3A**) and an initially long period (**Fig. 3B**), hallmarks of a SNIC bifurcation.

Information-theoretic model comparison favored a discrete amplitude step and period decay,

consistent with SNIC dynamics rather than the gradual emergence expected from a Hopf

bifurcation (**Fig. S5C**). This was further supported at the tissue level: whole-tissue luminometry

confirmed a long initial period at E9.5 (26.4 ± 4.3 h), which converged to ~24 h by E17.5 (24.3 ±

1.1 h) (**Fig. 2C**), and period scatter plots fit the SNIC scaling law $1/\sqrt{(t - t_0)}$. While the whole-

tissue luminometry amplitude increased linearly, this reflected growth in 4VCP cell number

across development (**Fig. S5B**). *In vivo*, *Per2* transcript periods similarly reached ~28 h at E9.5

before converging toward 24 h (**Fig. S8**).

At the population level, we observed an abrupt rise in cellular synchronization between E13.5

and E14.5 (**Fig. 3C**, **Fig. S6A**) quantified by the Kuramoto order parameter (0 indicates the

absence of synchronization; 1 denotes complete synchronization). This shift parallels the sudden

synchronization onset reported in the SCN (Carmona-Alcocer et al., 2018). These changes

demonstrate that the clock emergence process at both single-cell and population levels is not

gradual ramp-up, but rather a discretely staged event occurring in specific developmental

epochs.

Temperature cycles drive embryonic 4VCP rhythmicity until E16.5

Since systems near a SNIC bifurcation are highly sensitive to low-amplitude stimuli, we hypothesized that subtle maternal circadian temperature cycles could serve as an early, non-blood-borne driver of the nascent clock. During pregnancy, the amplitude of the maternal core body temperature rhythm dampens to ~1 °C and further drops to ~0.5 °C by mid-gestation (Smarr et al., 2016). This ~0.5 °C fluctuation is considered too small to entrain adult peripheral clocks *in vitro* (~4 °C, Brown et al., 2002; ~2.5 °C, Buhr et al., 2010; ~1.5 °C, Abraham et al., 2010).

To test this directly, we recorded PER2::LUC activity in cultured embryonic explants subjected to temperature entrainment. Since maternal body temperature at E6 varies between 37.5 °C and 37 °C (Wharfe et al., 2016), we applied an initial temperature of 37 °C for 2 days, followed by 12 days of a 37-37.5 °C (Δ0.5 °C) square-wave cycle with a 26 h period (**Fig. 3D**). We evaluated explants of the 4VCP and lung at E14, E16, and E18 and observed a clear, stage-dependent transition in entrainability (**Fig. 3E**). At E14, the 4VCP PER2 rhythm phase-locked to the 26 h temperature cycle (circular SD = 0.47 rad; n = 5). At E16, entrainment occurred only after an initial transient (circular SD = 0.70 rad; n = 4). By E18, the 4VCP was resistant to entrainment, failing to phase-lock to the 26 h cycle (circular SD = 1.16 rad; n = 4) (**Fig. 3F**). The lung entrained at all stages, reflecting its prolonged maturation and weaker intercellular coupling (Abraham et al., 2010) (**Fig. 3E,F**). The LVCP mirrored the 4VCP, losing entrainability by E18, whereas the SCN remained entrainable at E18, consistent with its network immaturity at this stage (Bedont and Blackshaw, 2015) (**Fig. S6B**, **Table S2**).

By E18, the 4VCP behaved as a robust, adult-like limit cycle oscillator, resistant to small

perturbations. Despite receiving higher-amplitude blood-borne signals from ~E16 onward, the

fully differentiated 4VCP effectively "closed" its window of extreme sensitivity to low-amplitude

ambient fluctuations to operate as an independent pacemaker.

Transcriptional profiling reveals non-canonical early rhythms in three epochs

We sampled embryonic 4VCPs from 127 PER2::LUC litters across E9-E16 at four circadian time

points (ZT2, ZT8, ZT14, ZT20) per embryonic day for RT-qPCR. The highest transcript levels

were those of *Clock, Rora,* and *Chrono*, rather than *Bmal1* and *Per1/2/3* as expected from adult

TTFL networks (**Fig. 4A**). Transcripts followed distinct developmental trajectories: some

increased gradually (*Clock, Dbp, Rev-Erbα/β, Bmal1*, *Per1*), others peaked sharply around E14.5

(*Rora, Chrono*, *Per2/3*), and a few remained relatively stable (*Rorc*, *Cry2*). The divergent

trajectories of *Bmal1* and *Per2* likely explain the onset-timing discrepancy between *Bmal1-ELuc*

and PER2::LUC reporters (**Fig. 2G**).

To characterize developmental evolution of the molecular rhythms, we quantified the circadian

power of each transcript using SST-CWT analysis (Materials and Methods; **Fig. S7A**, **S8**).

Hierarchical clustering of circadian power revealed five clusters with unique onset patterns (**Fig.**

4B): *Clock* (Cluster 1) becomes highly circadian from E9.5; *Per3/Cry2* (Cluster 2) are circadian

early on (E9.5-E10.5) with a maximum power of ~40-50%; *Rorc/Per1* (Cluster 3) emerge as

circadian later, around E13.5; *Rora/Rev-Erbα/Per2/Chrono/Bmal1* (Cluster 4) show early

rhythmicity from E9.5 (except for *Bmal1*) but lose it during the E12-E15 epoch; *Dbp/Rev-Erbβ*

(Cluster 5) lack circadian rhythmicity across all measured stages. Several clock genes thus

oscillate around E10.5, well before structural differentiation. Surprisingly, these empirical clusters

do not align with the promoter-motif architecture expected from canonical TTFL logic (Ukai-

Tadenuma et al., 2008), nor with the normalized density of transcription factor binding motifs

quantified near their transcription start site (**Fig. S7B**). For instance, *Per1* and *Per2* both contain

glucocorticoid and cAMP response elements (GREs and CREs) that can reset the CP clock (Liška

et al., 2021), yet they fall into completely different onset clusters. This suggests that early

embryonic circadian gene expression dynamics in the 4VCP cannot be solely explained by the

transcriptional logic of the TTFL.

Spectral analysis across stages revealed unstable periods, visible as broad smears for most

genes between E12 and E15 (**Fig. 4C**, **Fig. S7A**,**S8**), contrasting with the stable *Bmal1* period in

maternal 4VCP (**Fig. 5B**, **Fig. S10A**). To quantify this globally, we calculated normalized spectral

entropy, where high values indicate power dispersed across frequencies. Mean entropy peaked

between E12.3 and E15.3, confirming a significant transition epoch (permutation clustering, $p <$

0.05; **Fig. 4C**).

To investigate the functional consequences of this early clock, we tracked the expression of

clock-controlled genes (CCGs) encoding tight junctions (*Cldn1/2/3/11*, *Ocln*) known to be

present in both adult and embryonic CP epithelium (Wolburg et al., 2001; Steinemann et al.,

2016). Functional E-boxes have been identified in several tight junction genes (Mei et al., 2015;

Oh-oka et al., 2014), and we confirmed the robust expression of these transcripts in the

embryonic 4VCP from E9.5 onwards (**Fig. S9A**). Consistent with this, *Cldn1* and *Cldn3* showed

strong temporal correlations with *Per1* and *Rev-Erbβ* expression, respectively (**Fig. S9C**).

However, their circadian power varied across epochs: *Cldn1* was circadian from ~E12.5, *Cldn3*

from E10.5 to E14.5, and others (*Cldn2/11*, *Ocln*) did not exhibit strong rhythms until E15.5 (**Fig.**

4F, **Fig. S9D**). Similar to the core clock genes, the developmental timeline of circadian power in

tight junction transcripts clustered independently of their promoter motifs (e.g., *Cldn1/3* and *Ocln*

did not cluster together despite the presence of validated E-boxes) (**Fig. 4E, Fig. S9B**). If these

transcripts translate to rhythmic protein levels, it would imply that the 4VCP can functionally gate

the blood-CSF barrier circadianly as early as ~E12.5, with CLDN3 acting as the first circadian

gatekeeper, later relayed by CLDN1. Tight junction-mediated paracellular transport is a key

pathway through which the blood-CSF barrier regulates the CSF (Ghersi-Egea et al., 2018).

Gene expression phases from E9 to E16 revealed a progressive maturation of the molecular

circuit (**Fig. 4G**): phases were broadly distributed at E10.5, shifted dramatically into the

complementary 12-h window by E14.5, and underwent strict bipartite polarization by E16.5, with

Clock, *Chrono*, and *Cry2* antiphasic to the main group. This organization approaches the

canonical TTFL phase organization but remains immature, as *Bmal1* is still in-phase with the E-

box-driven group.

These patterns confirm three epochs of clock development: the undifferentiated epoch (E9.5-

E12), with weak, non-canonical oscillations; the transition epoch (E12-E15), with period instability

and phase reorganization; and the differentiated epoch (E15 onward), with stable, highly

circadian oscillators approaching the phase organization of the mature TTFL.

Maternal clock instability and feto-maternal reorganization

The absence of sustained *Bmal1-ELuc* rhythms in the embryonic 4VCP between E10.5 and E12.5

ex vivo (**Fig. 2B**), despite clear day-night variation *in vivo* over the same interval (**Fig. S8**),

suggests that early circadian gene expression depends on maternal cues (Wong et al., 2022).

Yet direct systemic maternal influence via the bloodstream is absent at this early stage. We

performed spectral profiling of clock gene expression in the 4VCP of 102 wild-type dams (**Fig.**

S10A). While all genes exhibited circadian rhythmicity at the transcript level (**Fig. 5A,B**; **Fig.**

S10A), the circadian power, period, and phase of *Per2*, *Rora*, and *Rorc* decreased or fluctuated

significantly as pregnancy progressed (**Fig. 5B,C**).

Comparison with non-pregnant controls revealed that pregnancy drastically altered both the

amplitude and phase of clock transcripts, with the most profound shift at G12.5-G13.5,

producing a distinct phase organization in the maternal 4VCP (**Fig. 5D**, **Fig. S10B,C**). Behavioral

monitoring of free-running locomotor activity confirmed a significant drop in circadian power

during pregnancy (*$p < 0.05$; two-sample *t*-test; **Fig. 5E,F**) consistent with reported declines in

wheel-running during gestation (Yaw et al., 2021). In cases of presumed resorption, robust

circadian rhythmicity was restored rapidly, accompanied by the return of the estrous cycle

rhythm (**Fig. 5E**). These data demonstrate that the maternal circadian rhythm is transiently

disrupted during pregnancy at both molecular and behavioral levels.

Pairwise correlations between dam and embryo clock gene expression revealed a global loss of

maternal-fetal correlation at E12.5, contrasting with highly organized patterns at E16.5 (**Fig. 5G**,

Fig. S11A,B). Maternal-embryonic coupling undergoes a transient destabilization around E12-

E13 before re-establishing tighter correlation patterns after E14. Dual-radius phase plots

revealed that correlation shifts were rarely one-sided (with *Bmal1* as a notable exception) (**Fig.**

5H), and the shift in maternal *Per2* phase coincided precisely with the reorganization of coupling

patterns (**Fig. S11C,D**).

Finally, since both 4VCP clocks are destabilized during mid-pregnancy, we examined whether

their physical interface, the placenta, was similarly affected. As the placenta matures, embryonic

nutrient supply shifts from histiotrophic (yolk sac-based) to hemotrophic (blood-based),

beginning around E10 and becoming fully functional by E12.5-E13.5 (Elmore et al., 2022). We

separated embryonic and maternal placental tissues and recorded PER2::LUC and *Bmal1-ELuc*

bioluminescence *ex vivo* from E9.5 to E20.5. The embryonic placenta lacked autonomous

circadian oscillations (Čečmanová et al., 2019) (**Fig. S12A**), whereas the maternal placenta

exhibited robust rhythms that underwent transient attenuation during mid-gestation (E13-E15)

(**Fig. S12B**). Inverted Gaussian fits estimated a mid-gestational nadir in circadian power for

PER2::LUC and *Bmal1-ELuc* at ~20-30%, centered at E15.3 ± 0.4 and E15.6 ± 0.6, respectively.

This circadian dip aligns closely with the functional maturation of the hemotrophic interface

(Elmore et al., 2022).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that coupling between maternal and embryonic

clocks is highly dynamic, undergoing shared transient disorganization around E13.5 before the

embryonic system consolidates its circadian architecture.

Discussion

Our study identifies the embryonic CP as the earliest detectable brain circadian clock, emerging

~2.5 days before the SCN. We observed a staged assembly of the transcriptional clock circuit

that coincides with cellular differentiation. The emergent rhythm exhibits hallmarks of a SNIC

bifurcation, rendering the nascent clock highly sensitive to low-amplitude stimuli such as

maternal core body temperature. Circadian profiling across embryonic development revealed

three epochs characterizing *in vivo* clock emergence that closely track the differentiation

program of the 4VCP. Strikingly, the middle transition epoch exhibits a transient destabilization

of both maternal and embryonic 4VCP clocks (**Fig. S13**).

Contrary to the prevailing assumption that the SCN is the first circadian structure in the

mammalian embryo, our data show that the 4VCP clock emerges significantly earlier. While our

survey was limited to selected sagittal sections rather than the full three-dimensional extent of

the brain, the 4VCP was consistently the earliest structure to display autonomous circadian

rhythmicity. Of note, the first three structures identified as circadian by E15.5, the CP, SCN, and

pituitary gland, are positioned to regulate brain homeostasis and endocrine signaling, and they

maintain strong oscillations postnatally (Myung et al., 2018).

As the first clock in the embryonic brain, the 4VCP carries profound functional implications.

Because the adult CP is a robust oscillator capable of entraining the SCN both *ex vivo* and *in*

vivo (Myung et al., 2018), the early 4VCP clock could similarly influence the subsequent

emergence of the SCN clock. Furthermore, as a secretory tissue, a circadian CP could

rhythmically regulate CSF volume and composition, periodically releasing morphogens and

growth factors (Kaiser and Bryja, 2020; Saunders et al., 2023; Lun et al., 2015). The

neuroepithelium lining the ventricles would thereby receive temporally patterned cues capable

of modulating transcription factor expression in neural progenitors and influencing cell fate

decisions (Lamus et al., 2020; Lehtinen et al., 2011; Subashini et al., 2017). For example,

oscillations of basic-helix-loop-helix (bHLH) factors (e.g., *Hes1*, *Ascl1*, *Olig2*) promote cell

proliferation, whereas sustained expression drives differentiation (Imayoshi et al., 2013). By

temporally gating differentiation, the progenitor pool can expand sufficiently before neurogenesis

begins, a prerequisite for establishing the correct number of neurons and neural progenitors in

the adult brain (Caviness et al., 1995; Kriegstein and Alvarez-Buylla, 2009).

Studying the embryonic 4VCP clock both *in vivo* (with maternal entrainment) and *ex vivo*

(isolated) allowed us to map the relationship between clock assembly and the tissue

differentiation program through three epochs. During the initial undifferentiated stage (E9.5-

E11.5), despite a progenitor profile dominated by markers such as *Gli3* and *Ki67* (**Fig. 2E**), we

observed early circadian expression of select clock genes (*Per2/3, Rora, Clock, Chrono*) *in vivo*

(**Fig. S8**). This contrasts with *in vitro* studies showing that induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs),

embryonic stem cells (ESCs), and other pluripotent stem cells (PSCs) lack circadian clocks

(Yagita et al., 2010; Kowalska et al., 2010; Kaneko et al., 2023). This discrepancy likely arises

because the *in vivo* embryonic 4VCP is exposed to maternally driven signals. Since the embryo

lacks a direct blood connection to the dam at this stage, these signals must be ambient and low

in amplitude. We demonstrated that the periodicity of maternal body temperature provides one

such environmental cycle within the uterus, capable of driving the 4VCP clock until E16.5.

Because this early ambient driving is restricted to highly responsive tissues such as the 4VCP, it

underscores the importance of evaluating clock rhythmicity in a tissue-specific manner. Whole-

embryo analyses, which dilute these localized rhythmic signals with non-rhythmic bulk, have

previously missed these early clocks (Cao et al., 2022; Dolatshad et al., 2010).

During the transition phase (E12-E15), cellular differentiation is a prerequisite for full clock

autonomy (Yagita, 2024; Yagita et al., 2010; Kowalska et al., 2010; Kaneko et al., 2023; Umemura

et al., 2017). However, we note that *ex vivo*, the rhythm of the canonical activator *Bmal1* appears

much later than that of *Per2*, suggesting that this embryonic clock is not initially established by

classic BMAL1:CLOCK-driven feedback. *In vivo*, as differentiation begins, the embryonic rhythm

is notably weakened, although transcripts like *Clock*, *Cry2*, and *Cldn3* remain circadian. This

unstable epoch is mirrored in the maternal 4VCP and placenta, where we observed a significant

decrease in PER2::LUC and *Bmal1-ELuc* circadian power, but not in maternal peripheral organs

like the liver (Canaple et al., 2018). The mid-gestational instability coincides with increased

activity of 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 2 (11β-HSD2; E12.5-E16.5), which

inactivates glucocorticoids (Salvante et al., 2017). As the placenta matures, this selective

endocrine gating likely attenuates maternal influence (Astiz and Oster, 2021), creating a shielded

developmental window for the embryonic clock to undergo autonomous self-organization.

The discrepancy between our *in vivo* and *ex vivo Per2* data during this epoch warrants careful

interpretation. One possibility, proposed by others (Yagita, 2024), is that the loss of circadian

rhythmicity in many transcripts around E12-E15 reflects active suppression of the embryonic

clock to permit differentiation. Since the 4VCP clock is autonomous *ex vivo* by E12.5, fluctuating

maternal signals, which are themselves unstable during this window, could exert this inhibitory

effect on the embryonic clock. An alternative interpretation is that the period instability during

the transition epoch (E12-E14.5) reflects a transient state of low intra-tissue synchrony rather

than active suppression. Before E12, nascent 4VCP oscillators near the SNIC threshold possess

intrinsically variable periods but are frequency-locked by maternal temperature cycles. Around

E12-E13, the maternal clock destabilizes. Compounded by progressive placental shielding, the

maternal drive withdraws before endogenous intercellular coupling has matured, even as the

underlying cellular bifurcation dynamics shifts toward a Hopf regime during TTFL maturation.

Consequently, the tissue-level readout averages over desynchronized cells, effectively blunting

any underlying rhythms. By E14.5, intrinsic coupling rises abruptly, and individual cellular

rhythms become coherently detectable in whole-tissue *in vivo* quantification. Beyond the effects

of entrainment or synchrony, the apparent delay in *Per2* rhythmicity may simply reflect the

different biomolecules being measured. At E11.7, PER2 protein oscillates with a ~24 h period *ex*

vivo, whereas *Per2* transcripts do not yet cycle *in vivo*. This discrepancy is expected, as robustly

cycling proteins frequently originate from non-cycling transcripts through post-transcriptional

regulation (Qian et al., 2023; Robles et al., 2014; Mauvoisin et al., 2014). Conversely, BMAL1

protein can be post-translationally modified to remain functionally inactive, potentially preventing

premature interference with ongoing developmental programs (Umemura et al., 2022). This

illustrates why transcript presence does not always equate to functional integration into the TTFL

circuit.

Following this transient destabilization, the fully differentiated 4VCP (E15-E16.5) exhibits a more

robust, autonomous clock *ex vivo*. *In vivo*, the majority of embryonic clock genes regain circadian

rhythmicity and organize their phases into two antiphasic groups, with *Clock* adopting the

opposing phase. This restoration likely reflects the combined influence of SCN emergence,

strengthened intercellular synchrony, and the intrinsic capacity of *Bmal1* to oscillate. In the dam,

although the 4VCP clock appears restored, the free-running behavioral rhythm remains impaired,

potentially reflecting continued instability in the SCN. By contrast, in the 4VCP, both maternal

and embryonic genes align in phase during this epoch, suggesting a synchronized maternal-fetal

relationship. However, our study design does not allow us to determine the directionality of

maternal-embryonic coupling.

Multiple lines of evidence indicate a relatively autonomous embryonic clock by late gestation. In

mice, maternal influence on pup behavioral synchrony occurs early rather than late in gestation

(Davis and Gorski, 1988; Jud and Albrecht, 2006), and in humans, preterm infants display

detectable circadian-like rhythms in body temperature, heart rate, and rest-activity in the NICU

(Bueno and Menna-Barreto, 2016; Govindan et al., 2024), with 24 h sleep-wake rhythms

appearing earlier in preterm than in full-term infants (Guyer et al., 2015). Our data show that the

4VCP remains sensitive to 0.5 °C temperature cycles at E16 but not E18, consistent with

entrainment observed in late embryos following maternal restricted feeding (Canaple et al.,

2018).

The early emergence of the circadian clock in the 4VCP at E11.5-E12.5 challenges the long-held

view of the SCN as the origin of circadian pacemaking in the mammalian brain and, by extension,

the presumed locus of developmental onset. Our findings further reveal that the clock emergence

in the CP is a discrete, non-canonical developmental process, with rhythmic expression of *Rora*,

Per2/3, and *Chrono* detectable as early as E9.5. Furthermore, while mature circadian oscillators

are classically modelled by Hopf bifurcations, this early developmental transition is governed by

highly sensitive SNIC bifurcation dynamics. The multi-stage assembly and sudden external

emergence of the clock strongly support the paradigm that circadian clock onset is a

programmed developmental event. By characterizing the precise timing, locus, and mechanism

of the brain's first clock, this work provides a new framework for understanding maternal-fetal

interactions and insights into early circadian homeostasis with direct relevance to preterm and

neonatal   care.

Material and Methods

Mice

Homozygous   PER2::LUC   mice   (B6.129S6-*Per2^{tm1Jt}*/J,   RRID: IMSR_JAX:006852)   and

heterozygous *Bmal1-ELuc* mice (Nakajima et al., 2010; a gift from Daisuke Ono, Nagoya

University), maintained on the C57BL/6J background, were crossed with wild-type C57BL/6J

animals to generate heterozygous PER2::LUC$^{+/-}$ or *Bmal1-ELuc*$^{+/-}$ embryos. Mice were

maintained under equinox light-dark (LD) cycles (12h light:12h dark; lights on at 07:00, off at

19:00), with schedules controlled by LocoBox software (Truong and Myung, 2023). Ambient

temperature and humidity were maintained at 24.0 ± 1.8 °C; 50.2 ± 8.7% RH. Zeitgeber Time

(ZT) 0 was defined as the time of lights-on. For tissue sampling at ZT14 and ZT20, a reversed

dark-light (DL) cycle was used (lights on at 22:00, off at 10:00) (**Fig. S1A**). We validated that

embryonic gene expression levels under the reversed cycle matched those under standard LD

cycles at E13.5 (**Fig. S1B**). All animal protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee (IACUC) of the Taipei Medical University Laboratory Animal Center

(protocols LAC-2019-0430, LAC2022-0381, LAC2022-0477, LAC2023-0037, and LAC2023-

0038).

Circadian actimetry

Female wild-type C57BL/6J mice (6 weeks old) were housed in constant darkness (DD) for two

weeks to get their baseline activity, followed by one week under a 12:12 LD cycle to synchronize

their phase with the LD-housed males. Following a single night of mating, females were isolated,

weighed, and returned to DD for ~21 days. Locomotor activity was continuously recorded using

LocoBox (Truong and Myung, 2023). Pregnancy was confirmed by weighing females at G8.5

and/or G13.5 under DD, and activity monitoring continued until parturition. Cage changes were

restricted to G8.5 or G13.5 to minimize disruptions to locomotor recordings.

Tissue isolation and explant culture

Direct dissection. Tissue culture and bioluminescence recording were performed according to

our previous protocols (Myung et al., 2018). Pregnant female mice were anesthetized with

isoflurane and euthanized at defined ZTs. Brains and embryos were rapidly extracted into ice-

cold Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS; Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with penicillin-

streptomycin (10,000 U/mL; Gibco) and HEPES (1 M, pH 7.4). Embryonic tissues were dissected

under a stereomicroscope after decapitation. For E9.5, the prosencephalon (containing SCN and

LVCP progenitors) and rhombencephalon (containing 4VCP progenitors) were collected. For

E10.5-E12.5, the 4VCP was extracted from the inferior part of the hindbrain roof plate epithelium

(lower rhombic lip, rhombomere 2-8), located between the otic vesicles and the posterior part of

rhombomere 1 (Hunter and Dymecki, 2007). The cortical midline served as the anatomical

landmark for LVCP progenitors. After E12.5, the CP dissection was similar to that of the adult.

The precision of 4VCP isolation throughout development was validated by RT-qPCR (**Fig. S2**).

SCN progenitors from E10.5 to E13.5 were dissected from the ventral hypothalamus between

the optic cups. After E13.5, the SCN and the optic chiasm were clearly distinguishable, and

dissection was performed as in the adult. This protocol was also used to isolate maternal and

embryonic tissues in ice-cold PBS for biomolecular experiments.

Placenta dissection. The maternal decidua (light pink outer layer, representing maternal

placenta) was mechanically separated from the junctional zone and labyrinth (darker pink inner

layer, representing the embryonic placenta). The loose junction between these two layers

allowed dissection with forceps (Čečmanová et al., 2019).

Tissue slicing and explant culture. Embryonic heads or brains (E11.5, E13.5, E15.5) were

briefly submerged in two successive baths of low-melting-point agarose (2% w/v; CAS 9012-

36-6) at 37 °C, embedded in an agarose block, and sliced in ice-cold HBSS using a vibratome

(VT1000S, Leica Biosystems). Slices (300 µm thick) were cut using a diamond blade (Delaware

Diamond Knives) advancing at ~0.025 mm/s. Explants were cultured on culture membrane

inserts (PICM0RG50, Merck Millipore) in 35-mm dishes containing 1 mL DMEM (Sigma-Aldrich)

supplemented with B-27 (Gibco) and 200 µM beetle luciferin (Promega). Dishes were sealed with

high-vacuum grease (Molykote, DuPont) and maintained at a strictly controlled 37.00 ± 0.01 °C

in a hybrid refrigerator-heater incubator (MIR-154-PA, PHCbi), monitored closely by placing an

iButton (DS1921L, Maxim Integrated) adjacent to the dishes.

iDISCO tissue clearing and immunofluorescence labeling

Post-culture   brain   slices   were   cleared   using   the   standard   iDISCO   protocol

(https://idisco.info/idisco-protocol). Slices were fixed in 4% PFA, washed in PBS for 3 days,

dehydrated in a MeOH/H_2O series, and incubated overnight in 66% DCM/33% MeOH. Tissues

were bleached in 5% H_2O_2 overnight and rehydrated. Immunolabeling was performed at 37 °C,

beginning with permeabilization (1 day) and blocking (1 day), followed by primary antibody

incubation against TTR (chicken, 1:500, Genetex GTX85112; AB_10723946) for 2 days. Slices

were washed and incubated with a secondary antibody (anti-chicken Alexa Fluor 568, 1:500,

Abcam ab175477; AB_3076392) for 2 days. Following subsequent washing and blocking, slices

were incubated with a conjugated RORA antibody (1:500, Bioss BS-17164R-A350). Slices were

then transferred back to the micro glass vials to undergo final clearing, beginning with

dehydration in MeOH/H_2O followed by a 3h incubation in 66% DCM/33% MeOH at room

temperature. Finally, two 15-min incubations in 100% DCM were performed before mounting

the slices in dibenzyl ether under sealed coverslips, and imaged using a DM IL fluorescence

microscope (Leica Microsystems).

Time-lapse bioluminescence luminometry and imaging

Whole-tissue luminometry. PER2::LUC fusion protein reporters tracked PER2 abundance

through bioluminescence (RRID: IMSR_JAX:006852), while *Bmal1-ELuc* reporters tracked *Bmal1*

transcriptional activity (Nakajima et al., 2010). The overall bioluminescence from each tissue was

recorded every 15 min (108 s integration time per dish) using LumiCycle 32 (Actimetrics) with

four photomultiplier tubes (PMTs), housed in a refrigerator-heater incubator for precise

temperature control (MIR-154-PA, PHCbi). Temperature was recorded continuously throughout

the experiment.

Single-cell imaging. Imaging was conducted on a custom incubator-microscope system

equipped with a cooled-CCD camera (Orca R2, Hamamatsu) with water cooling, combined with

a 4x objective (NA 0.16, UPLXAPO, Olympus) coupled to a 0.35x reduction lens (U-TV0.35XC-

2, Olympus), and a stage-top incubator (INUG2-WELS, Tokai Hit). Images were acquired hourly

(60 min exposure time) with 4×4 binning using Micro-Manager 1.4 (Vale Lab, UCSF) via the

DCAM-API (Hamamatsu) driver.

Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

RNA Isolation, cDNA synthesis, and RT-qPCR. Embryonic or maternal 4VCPs collected at

ZT2, ZT8, ZT14, and ZT20 were pooled by litter (3-11 embryos/litter, minimum 2-3 litters per time

point). Total RNA isolation and RT-qPCR followed our previous protocol (Myung et al., 2018).

300 µL of TRK lysis buffer containing 2% β-mercaptoethanol was added to each sample,

followed by an equal volume of chloroform after intensive homogenization. After phase

separation and ethanol addition, microcolumns from the ENZA MicroElute Total RNA Kit (Omega

Bio-Tek) were used to collect total RNA, with a final elution volume of 21 µL in DEPC-treated

water. After evaluating the RNA concentration, cDNA was synthesized from 0.5-1 µg of total RNA

using SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with oligo(dT)$_{20}$ primers.

PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) was added to the cDNA samples, and

RT-qPCR was performed in technical triplicate on a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Primer sequences are detailed in **Table S1**.

Normalization. *Gapdh*, *Actb* (*β-actin*), and *Rpl13a* served as internal controls for embryonic

samples (Hildyard et al., 2022). G*apdh* and *Actb* were used for maternal samples. After outlier

exclusion (ROUT test, Q = 1%), the relative mRNA abundance for a given embryonic stage (*n* >

8) was calculated by normalizing to the maximum abundance observed between E9.5 and E16.5.

For example, at E9.5:

$$RNA_{\text{E9.5}} \ (\%) = \frac{\text{mean} \ (RNA_{\text{E9.5}})}{\text{max} \ (RNA_{\text{E9.5}-\text{E16.5}})} \times 100 \qquad (1)$$

Spectral analysis of bioluminescent time series and time of emergence quantification

Preprocessing. Visualization and preprocessing of bioluminescence oscillations, including

periodogram and fast Fourier transform (FFT)-based spectral analysis, were performed on

Mathematica 13 (Wolfram Research) using the custom PMTAnalysis package

(http://sourceforge.net/projects/imaginganalysis). The first 6 h of all recordings were truncated

to remove handling transients. Circadian periods were estimated using FFT, and amplitudes

were quantified as the root mean square (RMS) of detrended oscillations over fixed windows (7

days for luminometry/4VCP imaging; 4 days for whole-brain slice imaging). For image analysis

of brain slices or the 4VCP, a 2×2-pixel grid was applied to the timelapse images after removal

of outlier pixels, and each ROI's standard deviation, center of mass, and mean grey value were

measured using ImageJ (NIH).

Circadian power. Using a sliding-window FFT (2-day for luminometry, 3-day for imaging), evolution of spectral power was tracked and visualized as spectrograms over time. Circadian power for each time window was calculated by integrating the spectral power within the circadian band (24 ± 4 h) relative to the full period range (3-58 h) (**Fig. S3**). This generated a time series reflecting the robustness of the circadian rhythm that accounts for damping, period variability, and noise. In addition, the overall circadian power was computed as the average of these window-wise circadian power values across the entire recording. For a perfect sinusoid in a 2-day window, the maximal circadian power reached ~60%, whereas for transient, rapidly damped oscillations, it fell below 20% (**Fig. S3**). The blank control (luciferase medium without tissue explant) showed a maximal circadian power of ~20% (n = 10) (**Fig. 2D**). For SCN and 4VCP explants, the half-maximal level of the fitted circadian power curve across development was ~30% (30.83 ± 2.36% and 31.28 ± 1.70%, respectively).

Emergence Time (T_e). Nonlinear curve fitting using a sigmoid function was applied to rigorously identify the onset of PER2::LUC and *Bmal1-ELuc* circadian rhythms. Blank recordings were used to estimate baseline circadian power and to provide null data points prior to E9.5. T_e was defined as the time point at which one-half of the maximum circadian power was reached:

$$P(t) = \frac{A}{1 + e^{-(t-T_e)/\tau}} + C_0 \tag{2}$$

where $P(t)$ is the circadian power at time t (time of sampling for explant), A is the amplitude above baseline, τ is the time constant, and C_0 is the baseline determined from blank recordings.

Circadian promoter motif analysis

We analyzed promoter-proximal regions (-3 kb to +2 kb relative to TSS in GRCm39) of 12 core

circadian genes from our qPCR panel (**Table S1**). Gene coordinates and strand orientation were

retrieved from Ensembl via the REST API (https://rest.ensembl.org/). To ensure all windows were

extracted in the transcriptional orientation, minus-strand loci were reverse-complemented, so

that upstream and downstream were always defined relative to the direction of transcription. We

scanned these sequences for known transcription factor binding motifs relevant to circadian

regulation, including canonical and variant E-boxes (CACGTG, CACGTT, CACGTA), D-boxes

(TTATGAA, TTATGTA), REV-ERB/ROR response elements (RRE/RORE) (AGGTCA, GGGTCA,

[A/U]GGTCA), glucocorticoid response elements (GREs) including canonical palindromic

(AGAACA[ACGT]TGTTCT), *Per2*-specific variants ([AG]G[ACGT]TGT[TC]CT), as well as half-sites

([AG]G[TA]ACA, TGT[TC]CT), and cAMP response element (CRE) half-sites (CGTCA, TGACG).

Motifs were represented either as exact sequences or regular expressions to capture degenerate

variants. Both forward and reverse-complement strands were scanned. Motif hits were identified

using regular expression search with overlapping match lookahead, followed by a priority-based

deduplication scheme favoring full palindromes and canonical motifs over partial or variant sites.

Motif density was expressed as the number of motifs per kilobase of sequence for each gene

and region. These densities are visualized as normalized motif densities (**Fig. S7B, S9B**).

Hierarchical clustering and spectral analysis of gene expression profiles

Hierarchical clustering. Expression levels were normalized using the internal control genes and

standardized using Z-scores. Pairwise distances were calculated using the Pearson correlation

r_{ij} as the distance metric between expression of genes i and j, and hierarchical clustering was

implemented via the seaborn.clustermap function (v0.11.2) in Python (v3.6.13). Clustering was

performed using average linkage, and results were visualized as a cluster heatmap with a

dendrogram that represents the similarity relationships. Average linkage distance $D(A,B)$ was

calculated as:

$$D(A,B) \; = \; \frac{1}{m \cdot n} \sum_{i \in A} \sum_{j \in B} d(i,j) \qquad\qquad (3)$$

where m and n are the numbers of genes in clusters A and B, and $d(i,j)$ is the distance (1-r_{ij})

between genes i and j. We identified representative genes for each cluster by cluster centroids

calculated by averaging the Z-scored profiles of all member genes across time points. The gene

with the highest Pearson correlation to the centroid was designated as the representative, as it

best reflected the average temporal pattern of its cluster.

Synchrosqueezed continuous wavelet transform (SST-CWT). To analyze sparsely sampled,

non-stationary embryonic gene profiles, we applied SST-CWT to sharpen time-frequency

estimates, which reassigns CWT coefficients from a range of supporting frequencies to a more

precise instantaneous frequency (Daubechies et al., 2011). We implemented it using the Python

cwt_sst   function   from   the   ssqueezepy   library   (v0.6.5;

https://github.com/OverLordGoldDragon/ssqueezepy). Normalized gene expression time series

were detrended, mirrored, and extended prior to transform using a Morlet wavelet (90 voices per

octave). Although SST-CWT yields an amplitude spectrum, we refer to it here as a "power

spectrum" (the true power is the squared amplitude). Circadian power was calculated identically

to the bioluminescence data (24 ± 4 h band relative to the 3-58 h full range).

Phase dynamics and visualization. We estimated instantaneous phase (radians) along ridges

of the time-frequency representation. Instead of plotting phase alone, we generated phase-

weighted spectrograms, which multiply SST-CWT amplitude by its corresponding phase angle

to highlight dominant oscillatory components with phase context. To improve visual clarity,

colormap normalization and adaptive contrast scaling were applied using the maximum absolute

value of each map. An illustration of this approach using simulated data is shown in **Fig. S7A**.

Circular phase plots. To track phase across development (E10.5, E12.5, E14.5, E16.5), we

constructed circular phase plots based on the estimated instantaneous phase within the

circadian range (20-28 h). For each embryonic cluster, the representative gene was plotted

clockwise in a phase plot resembling a conventional clock, with 0 rad positioned at 12 o'clock.

Nonrepresentative genes from the same cluster were plotted with smaller, semi-transparent

markers for comparison. The left semicircle was shaded to distinguish early vs late phases.

Marker shape and color indicated cluster identity, and genes with circadian power $\geq$ 20% were

outlined in black. To assess potential maternal-embryonic coordination, dual-radius phase plots

were used: the inner ring showed embryonic cluster representatives, and the outer ring showed

selected maternal genes. Maternal-embryonic pairs were connected with dotted lines when both

exhibited circadian power $\geq$ 20% and their phase difference was $< \pi/2$ rad ($\leq$ 6 h), indicating

possible phase alignment.

Sliding-window correlation. To assess temporal coordination among maternal and embryonic

genes, time series were padded by duplicating the first and last two points, and 5-timepoint

sliding windows were applied. Pearson correlation matrices were computed for each window,

generating a time-resolved sequence of correlations. Examples of dynamic correlation are

shown in **Fig. S11A**.

Normalized spectral entropy and identification of transition epoch. To quantify the

periodicity complexity in each detrended bioluminescence trace, we calculated the spectral

entropy from the SST-CWT of each gene's time series as:

$$H(t) = -\sum_i P_i(t) \frac{\log P_i(t)}{\log N} \tag{4}$$

where $P_i(t)$ is the normalized power in the i-th frequency bin at time t, and N is the number of

frequency bins. Low entropy corresponds to power concentrated in a single frequency, while

high entropy indicates power dispersed across multiple frequencies. To define the transition

epoch without relying on an arbitrary threshold, we employed a permutation clustering approach

on the pooled embryonic clock gene entropy trajectories. Mean normalized spectral entropy

across all genes was computed at each time point, and contiguous time points exceeding the

median were identified as candidate clusters. To assess significance, we generated a null

distribution of maximum cluster sizes by independently permuting each gene's entropy trace

1,000 times. Clusters whose size exceeded the 95th percentile of the null distribution were

considered significant transition epochs and visualized as shaded intervals on the mean entropy

trajectory.

Statistical Analysis

Data are reported as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) unless otherwise specified.

Circular phases are presented as mean ± circular standard deviation (SD). For parametric curve

fits, we report best fit estimate ± standard error (SE), obtained from the asymptotic covariance

matrix of the nonlinear least-squares fit. Statistical comparisons used unpaired or one-sample *t*-

tests for two-group comparisons, the Mann-Whitney U test for non-parametric comparisons

(**Fig. S1**), one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test for multiple groups, and two-way ANOVA

followed by the appropriate post hoc test for interactions over time. Linear relationships were

assessed using ordinary least-squares regression with the coefficient of determination (R^2) as

goodness of fit, and a two-sided p value. For nonlinear fits, model selection was guided by the

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). For temperature

entrainment experiments (**Fig. 3F**), phase drift relative to zero was assessed using two one-sided

tests for equivalence (TOST; equivalence bounds ±0.483 rad/cycle) together with one-sample t-

tests. At E14, 4VCP drift was not statistically different from zero (-0.154 ± 0.109 rad/cycle, p =

0.254), whereas lung drift was statistically equivalent to zero (0.078 ± 0.025 rad/cycle, p = 0.053).

At E16, both tissues showed drift equivalent to zero (4VCP: 0.174 ± 0.089 rad/cycle, p = 0.146;

lung: 0.018 ± 0.010 rad/cycle, p = 0.137). At E18, the 4VCP displayed significant negative drift

exceeding equivalence bounds (-0.473 ± 0.042 rad/cycle, p = 0.0015), whereas the lung

remained equivalent to zero (0.068 ± 0.019 rad/cycle, p = 0.0396). No data were excluded as

outliers except in the following cases: spurious FFT-derived period estimates in non-periodic

time series, clear failures in RNA quantification, and dispersed amplitude or period values from

4VCP ROIs, where outliers were identified using the ROUT test (Q = 1%). All statistical analyses

were performed in GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad) and Mathematica 13 (Wolfram Research).

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

The data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author

upon reasonable request.

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917
918 **Figure 1. Location of the first clock in the mouse embryonic brain. (A)** Workflow of
919 PER2::LUC bioluminescence recording from embryonic brain/head slices (left; C-E) or

isolated 4VCP explants (right; F). (**B**) Developmental timeline summarizing that 4VCP PER2::LUC rhythms precede those in the SCN. (**C**) E15.5 PER2::LUC brain slice. **a**: Bright-field (left) and bioluminescence (right) images. **b**: Maps of FFT-derived period (left) and circadian power (right; see Materials and Methods). **c**: Post hoc immunofluorescence for RORA (left) and the CP marker TTR (right) after tissue clearing. **d**: Detrended PER2::LUC time series from the regions indicated by white boxes in Cc; see **Movie S1**. Representative of 3 experiments (5 slices total). (**D**) E13.5 PER2::LUC head slice. **a**: Bright-field (left) and bioluminescence (right) images. **b**: Period (left) and circadian power (right) maps as in Cb. **c**: White boxes indicate the putative hypothalamus/SCN region (left) and 4VCP (right). **d**: Detrended time series from the regions in Dc; see **Movie S2**. Representative of 3 experiments (4 slices total). (**E**) E11.5 PER2::LUC head slice. **a**: Bright-field (left) and bioluminescence (right) images. **b**: Period (left) and circadian power (right) maps. **c**: White boxes indicate putative hypothalamus (left) and 4VCP (right). **d**: Detrended time series from the regions in Ec; see **Movie S3**. Representative of 3 experiments (3 slices total). (**F**) Isolated E13.5 PER2::LUC 4VCP explant. **a**: Bioluminescence image. **b**: Period (left) and circadian power (right) maps. **c**: Detrended time series over 4 days; see **Movie S4**. Representative of 4 experiments (7 explants total). Throughout, red arrows indicate the 4VCP; white arrows indicate the SCN. Scale bar: 500 μm.

Figure 2. Quantification of clock emergence in brain and peripheral tissues, and characterization of 4VCP differentiation. (**A**) Individual (thin colored) and mean (black) detrended PER2::LUC bioluminescence traces (top) and spectrograms (bottom) from the embryonic 4VCP, E9.5 to E18.5. Zoom-in insets highlight low-amplitude rhythms at early stages. (**B**) As in (A), for *Bmal1-ELuc*, from E10.5 to E18.5. (**C**) Period scatter plots for PER2::LUC (left) and *Bmal1-ELuc* (right) with $1/\sqrt{(t - t_0)}$ fits. Asterisks indicate significant differences from 24 h (ns, not significant; *$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$). (**D**) Circadian power scatter plots for PER2::LUC (left) and *Bmal1-ELuc* (right) with sigmoidal fits;

emergence times (T_e) were E11.7 ± 0.1 and E13.5 ± 0.7, respectively (best fit estimate ± SE).
Asterisks indicate significant differences from 20% (as in (C)). (**E**) Heatmap of developmental
marker genes (top) and box-and-whisker plots (bottom) comparing stem/progenitor (blue)
and differentiation (red) markers across embryonic stages; each gene is normalized to its
maximum expression between E9.5 and E16.5. Each data point represents the mean of 6-16
litters (3-11 embryos per litter). Boxes show interquartile range (25th and 75th percentile) and
median; whiskers indicate minimum and maximum values. (**F**) Developmental trajectories of
PER2::LUC circadian power in the LVCP and the SCN (top) and liver and kidney (bottom),
with sigmoidal fits. (**G**) Comparison of half-maximal times for progenitor markers (E13.6 ±
0.8) and differentiation markers (E13.5 ± 0.2) with emergence times of *Bmal1-ELuc* and
PER2::LUC oscillations in the 4VCP, and PER2::LUC emergence time for each tissue. Error
bars: mean ± SEM after outlier exclusion.

Figure 3. Characterization of the bifurcation type describing the onset of the embryonic 4VCP clock. (**A**) Single-cell RMS amplitude and (**B**) period of PER2::LUC in the embryonic 4VCP from E11.5 to E18.5. Insets above each panel show representative spatial maps across stages (scale bar: 2 mm). n = 579-2,787 ROIs from 3-4 4VCP explants and 2-3 litters per stage, after outlier exclusion. White dotted line indicates 24 h. (**C**) Synchronization index (Kuramoto order parameter) in the embryonic 4VCP explant, as it evolves over days in culture (top) and time-averaged individual values across stages, overlaid with scatter plots (bottom; same n as in (A)). One-way ANOVA ($F(7,18)$ = 10.72, $p < 0.0001$) with Tukey's post hoc test (*p = 0.0194, ****$p < 0.0001$). (**D**) Representative raw PER2::LUC time series from the 4VCP (black) and lung (orange) at E14 (left), E16 (middle), and E18 (right). Pale red shading indicates

37.5 °C epochs. (**E**) Double-plots of PER2::LUC peak phase from the corresponding
explants, alongside unwrapped phase plots (rad). (**F**) Entrainment phase (rad) and phase drift
(rad/cycle) for the 4VCP and lung across the three developmental stages. Phase drift was
assessed using equivalence testing (TOST; bounds ±0.483 rad/cycle) together with one-
sample *t*-tests (see Methods). At E18, 4VCP displayed significant negative drift (-0.473 ±
0.042 rad/cycle, $p = 0.0015$), whereas the lung remained equivalent to zero. Error bars: mean
± SEM after outlier exclusion.

Figure 4. Rhythmic expression of clock genes in the embryonic 4VCP across development. (**A**) Normalized mRNA abundance of core clock genes in the embryonic 4VCP from E9 to E16 (n = 8-25 litters per stage). One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test (ns, not significant; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$). (**B**) Hierarchical clustering and heatmap of embryonic circadian power of clock genes across stages and ZT. Tiles on the right annotate promoter-motif classes: filled tiles indicate validated motifs; outlined tiles indicate predictions (see **Fig. S7B**). Each data point represents the mean of 2-5 litters (3-11 embryos per litter). (**C**) Normalized spectral entropy across embryonic days. The mean entropy (red line) is plotted against the overall median (blue dashed line). The shaded region marks significant high-entropy epochs identified by permutation clustering: contiguous periods above the median that exceed the 95th percentile of cluster sizes from 1,000 random permutations (E12.3-E15.3). (**D**) Circadian power trajectories for each clock gene, grouped by cluster (top; representative gene in red; dashed line, 20% detection threshold). Shaded overlays indicate the high-entropy epoch (E12.3-E15.3). Circadian phase-weighted power spectrograms for the representative gene of each cluster across embryonic days (bottom). (**E**) As in (B), for tight junction genes (see also **Fig. S9B**). Each data point represents the mean of 1-4 litters. (**F**) As in (D), for tight junction genes. (**G**) Circular phase plots of embryonic gene expression across developmental stages. Peak phase is at 12 o'clock; phase rotates clockwise. Genes with circadian power $\geq$ 20% are connected to the center by lines and shown as opaque markers on the circle; non-circadian genes ($<$ 20%) are shown as filled squares. Marker shape and color indicate cluster membership; the representative gene of each cluster is positioned on the outer radius. "ECluster" denotes clusters derived from embryonic tissues. Error bars: mean $\pm$ SEM after outlier exclusion.

Figure 5. Maternal clock and maternal-embryonic transcriptional coordination across development. (**A**) Hierarchical clustering and heatmap of circadian power of maternal clock genes across gestational days and ZT. Tiles on the right annotate promoter-motif classes: filled tiles indicate validated motifs; outlined tiles indicate predictions (see **Fig. S7B**). Each data point represents the mean of 2-4 dams. (**B**) Circadian power trajectories for each maternal clock gene, grouped by cluster (top; representative gene in red; dashed line, 20%

detection threshold). Circadian phase-weighted power spectrogram for *Bmal1, Per2* and *Rorc* across gestational days (bottom). (**C**) Normalized mRNA abundance of maternal *Bmal1, Per2* and *Rorc* across ZT at gestational days G10.5, G12.5, G13.5, and G16.5 (n = 2-4 dams) and in non-pregnant (NP) females (n = 3-5; black). Full time courses from G9.5 to G16.5 are shown in **Fig. S10B**. (**D**) Phase plot of maternal *Bmal1* (circle), *Per2* (square), and *Rorc* (cross) mRNA expression compared with non-pregnant female mice. Inner ring: G9.5 (grey), G12.5 (orange), and G16.5 (blue); outer ring: non-pregnant mice (NP). (**E**) Representative double-plotted actograms of a non-pregnant mouse, a pregnant mouse, and a pregnant mouse undergoing spontaneous resorption in DD (top: baseline before mating; bottom: after mating), with period and spectral power indicated by shading intensity (right panels; darker = higher power). (**F**) Circadian power of maternal locomotor activity throughout pregnancy (n = 5), spontaneous resorption (n = 2), and non-pregnant controls (n = 5). Two-sample t-test: *pregnant vs. non-pregnant ($-5.4 < t < -2.8$; $0.001 < p < 0.035$); #non-pregnant vs. resorption ($t = 11.4$, $p = 0.0001$ at G4; $t = 4.3$, $p = 0.047$ at G5), &pregnant vs. resorption ($t = -3.7$; $p = 0.014$ at G17; $t = -2.7$, $p = 0.043$ at G18). (**G**) Heatmaps of pairwise correlation between maternal and embryonic clock genes at E9.5, E12.5, E14.5, and E16.5. (**H**) Dual-radius phase plots of maternal and embryonic gene expression across stages. Inner ring: embryonic cluster representatives; outer ring: selected maternal genes. Dotted lines connect maternal-embryonic pairs when both exhibit circadian power ≥ 20% and their phase difference is < $\pi/2$ rad (≤ 6 h). "MCluster" denotes a cluster derived from maternal tissue. Error bars: mean ± SEM after outlier exclusion.

1029 **Supplementary Materials**

1030

	GenBank Accession	NCBI GeneID	Gene name	T_m (°C)	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Primer length
Genes used for normalization	NM_007393	11461	*Actb-c16X*, forward	64.6	GCCCTGAGGCTCTTTTCCAG	20
			Actb-c16X, reverse	63.8	TGCCACAGGATTCCATACCC	20
	NM_008084	14433	*Gapdh-4*, forward	62.6	AGGTCGGTGTGAACGGATTTG	21
			Gapdh-4, reverse	60.2	TGTAGACCATGTAGTTGAGGTCA	23
	NM_009438	22121	*Rpl13a*, forward	60.5	AGCCTACCAGAAAGTTTGCTTAC	23
			Rpl13a, reverse	61.0	GCTTCTTCTTCCGATAGTGCATC	23
4VCP positive genes	NM_008963	19215	*Ptgds*, forward	63.1	AATGGCTGCTCTTCGCATG	19
			Ptgds, reverse	64.8	GCCCCAGGAACTTGTCTTGTT	21
	NM_013697	22139	*Ttr*, forward	62.9	TTGCCTCGCTGGACTGGTA	19
			Ttr, reverse	61.8	TTACAGCCACGTCTACAGCAG	21
	NM_144841	18424	*Otx2*, forward	62.2	GAATCCAGGGTGCAGGTATGG	21
			Otx2, reverse	62.4	CTGAACTCACTTCCCGAGCTG	21
	NM_134110	246133	*Kcne2*, forward	60.8	CCACATTAGCCAATTTGACCCA	22
			Kcne2, reverse	62.4	CTCGGCTGTCGTGTTCCTC	19
4VCP negative genes	NM_008235	15205	*Hes1*, forward	62.2	CCAGCCAGTGTCAACACGA	19
			Hes1, reverse	61.0	AATGCCGGGAGCTATCTTTCT	21
	NM_010710	16870	*Lhx2*, forward	64.9	GCCGAGAAAGCGCAAGAGT	19
			Lhx2, reverse	64.3	TGTTCAGCATCGTTCTCGTTACA	23
	NM_008130	14634	*Gli3*, forward	62.4	CACAGCTCTACGGCGACTG	19
			Gli3, reverse	62.8	CTGCATAGTGATTGCGTTTCTTC	23
Clock genes	NM_007489	11865	*Bmal1*, forward	66.1	GCAGTGCCACTGACTACCAAGA	22
			Bmal1, reverse	62.8	TCCTGGACATTGCATTGCAT	20
	NM_011066	18627	*Per2*, forward	60.0	GAAAGCTGTCACCACCATAGAA	22
			Per2, reverse	60.5	AACTCGCACTTCCTTTTCAGG	21
	NM_007771	12952	*Cry1*, forward	64.7	AGAGGGCTAGGTCTTCTCGC	20

			Cry1, reverse	63.4	CTACAGCTCGGGACGTTCTC	20
	NM_007715	12753	*Clock*, forward	63.7	GTCCTTCAGCAGTCAGTCCAT	21
			Clock, reverse	63.7	GCCTCTATCATCCGTGTCCG	20
	NM_145434	217166	*Rev-Erbα* (*Nr1d1*), forward	65.8	TGGCCTCAGGCTTCCACTATG	21
			Rev-Erbα (*Nr1d1*), reverse	64.2	CCGTTGCTTCTCTCTCTTGGG	21
	NM_011584	353187	*Rev-Erbβ* (*Nr1d2*), forward	61.8	CCCAAGAACGCTGATATCTCTAG	23
			Rev-Erbβ (*Nr1d2*), reverse	62.1	ACACAGTAGAACCATGCCAC	20
	NM_013646	19883	*Rora*, forward	62.0	TCCAAATCCCACCTGGAAAC	20
			Rora, reverse	63.1	GGAAGGTCTGCCACGTTATCTG	22
	NM_011281	19885	*Rorc*, forward	60.6	TCCTGCCACCTTGAGTATAGTC	22
			Rorc, reverse	62.1	GTAAGTTGGCCGTCAGTGCTA	21
	NM_001352	1628	*Dbp*, forward	68.0	AATGACCTTTGAACCTGATCCCGCT	25
			Dbp, reverse	65.3	GCTCCAGTACTTCTCATCCTTCTGT	25
	NM_001033302	229599	*Chrono*, forward	61.6	GGAGACGAGTCTGAACACCC	20
			Chrono, reverse	62.4	GGGGCCGTATGAACCCTTG	19
	NM_009963	12953	*Cry2*, forward	64.2	GTCTGTGGGCATCAACCGA	19
			Cry2, reverse	64.3	TGCATCCCGTTCTTTCCCAA	20
	NM_001159367	18626	*Per1*, forward	62.6	CCCAGCTTTACCTGCAGAAG	20
			Per1, reverse	63.2	ATGGTCGAAAGGAAGCCTCT	20
	NM_011067	18628	*Per3*, forward	63.7	CACTTTGTCGACCTGCTTGC	20
			Per3, reverse	61.0	ATGAACCAAATAGGGGAGGAT	21
Tight junction genes	NM_016674	12737	*Cldn1*, forward	62.7	GGGGACAACATCGTGACCG	19
			Cldn1, reverse	61.1	AGGAGTCGAAGACTTTGCACT	21

	NM_016675	12738	*Cldn2*, forward	60.9	CAACTGGTGGGCTACATCCTA	21
			Cldn2, reverse	61.8	ATCCAGAGGCCCTTGGAAAAG	21
	NM_009902	12739	*Cldn3*, forward	62.3	ACCAACTGCGTACAAGACGAG	21
			Cldn3, reverse	62.6	CAGAGCCGCCAACAGGAAA	19
	NM_008770	18417	*Cldn11*, forward	62.1	ATGGTAGCCACTTGCCTTCAG	21
			Cldn11, reverse	61.2	AGTTCGTCCATTTTTCGGCAG	21
	NM_008756	18260	*Ocln*, forward	61.0	CTGGATCTATGTACGGCTCACA	22
			Ocln, reverse	61.1	TCCACGTAGAGACCAGTACCT	21
Development genes	NM_001256224	22418	*Wnt5a*, forward	62.6	CAACTGGCAGGACTTTCTCAA	21
			Wnt5a, reverse	63.7	CATCTCCGATGCCGGAACT	19
	NM_028016	71950	*Nanog*, forward	62.8	TCTTCCTGGTCCCCACAGTTT	21
			Nanog, reverse	60.1	GCAAGAATAGTTCTCGGGATGAA	23
	NM_001081117	17345	*Ki67*, forward	61.2	ATCATTGACCGCTCCTTTAGGT	22
			Ki67, reverse	62.0	GCTCGCCTTGATGGTTCCT	19
	NM_021279	22408	*Wnt1*, forward	60.4	GGTTTCTACTACGTTGCTACTGG	23
			Wnt1, reverse	62.3	GGAATCCGTCAACAGGTTCGT	21
	NM_007472	11826	*Aqp1*, forward	60.8	AGGCTTCAATTACCCACTGGA	21
			Aqp1, reverse	61.7	CTTTGGGCCAGAGTAGCGAT	20

1031

1032 **Table S1. Primer sequences used for qPCR.** T_m indicates melting temperature.

	E14	E16	E18	P0
4VCP	-1.83 ± 0.47 (*n* = 5)	-1.87 ± 0.70 (*n* = 4)	-1.82 ± 1.16 (*n* = 4)	2.86 ± 1.29 (*n* = 5)
SCN	-0.77 ± 0.76 (*n* = 5)	-1.3 ± 0.47 (*n* = 5)	-1.8 ± 1.05 (*n* = 5)	-0.93 ± 1.21 (*n* = 5)
LVCP	-1.03 ± 1.47 (*n* = 5)	-1.38 ± 1.44 (*n* = 5)	-0.46 ± 1.07 (*n* = 4)	-2.15 ± 1.09 (*n* = 5)
Lung	-0.02 ± 0.41 (*n* = 5)	-0.2 ± 0.3 (*n* = 5)	-0.34 ± 0.22 (*n* = 4)	-0.04 ± 0.54 (*n* = 5)

1033

Table S2. Phase of entrainment (rad) under a 26 h temperature cycle. Shown are circular
mean ± circular SD from 4-5 explants. For each explant, peak phase was averaged over the
final 7 days of recording under the 26 h cycle (0 rad defined as the onset of the 37.5 °C
epoch; *n*: number of explants). Negative values indicate phase lead relative to 0 rad.

Figure S1. Comparison of mRNA expression between LD and DL protocols. (**A**) Scheme
of the light-dark schedules for LD and DL (reversed-LD) conditions. (**B**) Normalized mRNA
abundance of three representative genes (*Ptgds*, *Rev-erba*, *Clock*) out of 22 tested, in the
embryonic 4VCP sampled at the same ZT (ZT2) from 3 pregnant mice per condition. Mann-
Whitney U test; ns, not significant. Error bars: mean ± SEM.

1043

Figure S2. Molecular validation of 4VCP dissection across embryonic stages.
Normalized mRNA abundance of selected 4VCP-positive (*Ttr*, *Kcne2*, *Otx2*; green) and
4VCP-negative (*Gli3*, *Lhx2*, *Hes1*; red) markers in the embryonic 4VCP ($n \geq 8$ litters per stage).
Data are plotted on a $\log_{10}$ scale; box-and-whisker plots show the 10th-90th percentiles.

1048

Figure S3. Quantification of circadian power in simulated bioluminescence time series.

(**A**) Spectrograms from 2-day sliding-window FFT of simulated 24-h oscillations with varying

noise levels, expressed as signal-to-noise ratio (SNR, dB). Increasing SNR progressively

reveals the circadian peak at ~24 h. (**B**) Circadian power as a function of SNR. Each point

represents one simulation. Detectable circadian rhythms fall between 20% (detection

threshold) and 60% (ceiling), indicated by dashed lines. Blank recordings (Blk) from actual

experiments fall below 20%. (**C**) Spectrograms of simulated 24 h oscillations with varying

damping time constants (τ). Shorter τ produces stronger damping and loss of rhythmicity.

(**D**) Circadian power as a function of τ. Semi-transparent points represent individual

simulations but overlap substantially. As in (B), circadian rhythms below the 20% threshold

(dashed line) are considered non-detectable.

A

E15.5 brain   E13.5 head   E11.5 head

B

1060

Figure S4. RMS amplitude of PER2::LUC in whole-brain slices at E15.5, E13.5, and
E11.5. (**A**) Single-cell level RMS amplitude maps of brain or head slices from E15.5 (left),
E13.5 (middle), and E11.5 (right) PER2::LUC embryos. Representative of 3 experiments (5
slices at E15.5, 4 at E13.5, 3 at E11.5). Red arrows indicate the 4VCP. (**B**) RMS amplitude
per ROI by brain region within the same slice: SCN (or hypothalamus), 4VCP, and pituitary
gland at E15.5, E13.5, and E11.5. One-way ANOVA ($F(6,3911) = 382.5$, $p < 0.0001$) followed
by Tukey's post hoc test (****$p < 0.0001$; ***$p < 0.001$; ns: not significant). Error bars: mean ±
SEM from one representative slice per stage, after outlier exclusion. Scale bar: 500 µm.

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Figure S5. Emergence of significant PER2::LUC circadian power in the 4VCP and relationship between whole-tissue amplitude and cell number. (**A**) Circadian power of individual PER2::LUC 4VCP explants, each line representing one explant. By E12.5, most circadian power trajectories exceed the 20% detection threshold. (**B**) Linear correlation between whole-tissue RMS amplitude and the number of ROIs classified as cells in the embryonic 4VCP across embryonic development ($R^2 = 0.49$; ****$p < 0.0001$). The line shows ordinary least-squares fit. (**C**) Model comparison supporting SNIC-like dynamics in single-cell imaging data. Amplitude (left) and period (right) across stages, fitted with candidate models. Heatmaps (bottom) identify the best-fitting model using Akaike Information Criterion

1079   (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) differences (ΔAIC/ΔBIC) relative to the best

1080   model (0 = best; lower = better).

1081

Figure S6. 4VCP cellular synchrony across development and sensitivity of the
embryonic SCN and LVCP to a 0.5 °C temperature cycle. (**A**) Raw (top) and detrended
(middle) PER2::LUC signals from single-cell imaging of the 4VCP from E11.5 to E18.5, with
the corresponding Kuramoto order parameter (bottom). Representative of 3-7 experiments.
(**B**) Double-plots of PER2::LUC peak phases from neonatal 4VCPs at P0 (*n* = 4-5; top),
embryonic SCN (middle), and LVCPs (bottom) at E14, E16, and E18. Explants were recorded

for 13 days under a 0.5 °C, 26 h cycle following 2 days at 37.0 °C. Lung explants of the
corresponding age are shown in orange as an entrainment reference. Pale pink shading
indicates the 37.5 °C temperature epochs.

Figure S7. SST-CWT analysis of simulated data and promoter motif density map. (**A**) SST-CWT analysis of simulated time series. Simulated signals for *Transcript 1* (top left) and *Transcript 2* (top right) across developmental time. *Transcript 1* (maternal-like) maintains a stable amplitude and phase; *Transcript 2* (embryonic-like) undergoes amplitude modulation and a 12 h phase shift. SST-CWT power spectrograms highlighting dominant circadian periodicities between 20 and 28 h (upper middle). Circadian power of both simulated transcripts (lower middle). Phase-weighted SST-CWT spectrograms, where color intensity reflects the phase consistency of the dominant period (bottom). Red shading marks early (E9.5) and late (E16.5) windows illustrating phase reorganization; yellow box indicates the spectral smearing interval. (**B**) Normalized density of transcription factor binding motifs for each clock gene.

Figure S8. Circadian rhythmicity assessment of embryonic clock genes in the 4VCP.
For each gene (rows), four panels are shown from left to right: normalized mRNA expression
across embryonic development, sampled every 6 h (ZT2, ZT8, ZT14, ZT20; grey shading
indicates the dark phase); SST-CWT spectrogram highlighting dominant circadian
periodicities between 20-28 h; circadian power trajectory (dashed line, 20% detection
threshold); and phase-weighted SST-CWT spectrogram indicating both dominant period and
circadian phase. Error bar: mean ± SEM after outlier exclusion.

Figure S9. Circadian rhythmicity assessment of embryonic tight junction genes in the
embryonic 4VCP. (**A**) Normalized mRNA abundance of tight junction genes in the embryonic
4VCP from E9.5 to E16.5 (n = 8-25 litters; 3-11 embryos per litter). One-way ANOVA with
Tukey's post hoc test (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). (**B**) Normalized
density of transcription factor binding motifs for each tight junction gene. (**C**) Overlaid mRNA
expression of embryonic *Per1* and *Cldn1* (top; $r = 0.759$) and *Rev-Erbβ* and *Cldn3* (bottom; r
= 0.716) in the 4VCP across development. Pearson correlation; ****$p < 0.0001$. (**D**) As in Fig.
S8, for tight junction genes. Error bars: mean ± SEM after outlier exclusion.

Figure S10. Circadian rhythmicity assessment of maternal clock genes in the 4VCP. (**A**)

As in Fig. S8, for maternal clock genes from G9.5 to G16.5. (**B**) Normalized mRNA abundance

of maternal *Bmal1*, *Per2*, and *Rorc*, across ZT from G9.5 to G16.5. Curves show mean ±

SEM from 2-4 dams or 3-5 non-pregnant females. (**C**) Overlaid normalized mRNA expression

of maternal *Per2* (green) and *Bmal1* (black) in the maternal 4VCP across gestation. Two-way

ANOVA comparing *Bmal1* and *Per2* expression across gestational days (time effect:

$F(31,131) = 4.072$, $p < 0.0001$; gene effect: $F(1,131) = 135.9$, $p < 0.0001$), followed by Šidák's

post hoc test at ZT2 (*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$; ns, not significant).

Error bars: mean ± SEM after outlier exclusion.

1130
1131 **Figure S11. Correlations between maternal and embryonic clock gene expression in**
1132 **the 4VCP. (A)** Illustration of the sliding-window correlation method between maternal ^{M}*Bmal1*
1133 and embryonic ^{E}*Chrono* expression (top). Resulting correlation trajectory between the two

genes in the 4VCP from E9.5 to E16.5 (bottom). (**B**) Pairwise Pearson correlation heatmaps generated using a five-time-point sliding window of transcript levels between maternal and embryonic 4VCP from E9.6 to E16.6. (**C**) Same-gene correlations of *Per2*, *Bmal1*, and *Rev-Erba* between maternal and embryonic 4VCP from E9.1 to E16.8. (**D**) Overlaid normalized mRNA expression (mean ± SEM) for selected maternal-embryonic pairs: ^M*Rorc* vs. ^E*Chrono* (left; $r = 0.768$, ****$p < 0.0001$); ^M*Per2* vs. ^E*Cry2* (right; negatively correlated before E11.5, $r = -0.914$; positively correlated E11.5-E14.5, $r = 0.724$; not correlated E15.5-E16.5, $r = -0.082$). Pearson correlation; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ****$p < 0.0001$; ns, not significant. Error bars: mean ± SEM after outlier exclusion.

1143
Figure S12. Placental clock robustness during development. (**A**) PER2::LUC and *Bmal1-*
ELuc circadian power in the embryonic placenta (dark pink; *n* = 29 and 68, respectively) from
E9.5 to E20.5. (**B**) PER2::LUC and *Bmal1-ELuc* circadian power in the maternal placenta (light
pink; *n* = 15 and 32, respectively) from G10.5 to G18.5. Lines show inverted Gaussian fits.
Schematic (right) illustrates the embryonic (dark pink) and maternal (light pink) placental
compartments.

1150

Figure S13. Three differentiation-linked epochs characterize the emergence of the first clock in the embryonic mouse brain. 4VCP is the first brain structure to exhibit autonomous circadian rhythms *ex vivo*, preceding the SCN. Clock assembly is tightly coupled to the tissue's differentiation program and proceeds through three developmental epochs. **(1) Undifferentiated (E9.5-E12):** Clock genes show weak, non-canonical circadian oscillations *in vivo*, despite the absence of an autonomous clock *ex vivo*. **(2) Transition (E12-E15):** As 4VCP cells differentiate, autonomous PER2::LUC oscillations emerge *ex vivo*, while *in vivo* clock gene rhythms undergo transient destabilization, coinciding with mid-gestational instability in the maternal 4VCP clock, placental clock, and maternal free-running behavior. **(3) Differentiated (>E15):** Robust, phase-organized transcriptional circadian oscillations are established *in vivo*. *Ex vivo*, intercellular synchrony strengthens, and the 4VCP matures into a robust oscillator no longer entrainable by low-amplitude maternal temperature cycles.

1163 **Supplementary Movies**
1164

1165 **Movie S1.** Time-lapse of PER2::LUC bioluminescence in an E15.5 sagittal brain slice.
1166 Circadian rhythms are detected in both the SCN and the 4VCP. Elapsed time (h) is shown in
1167 the upper left. Scale bar: 500 µm.
1168

1169 **Movie S2.** Time-lapse of PER2::LUC bioluminescence in an E13.5 sagittal head slice. A
1170 circadian rhythm is detected only in the 4VCP. Elapsed time (h) is shown in the upper left.
1171 Scale bar: 500 µm.
1172

1173 **Movie S3.** Time-lapse of PER2::LUC bioluminescence in an E11.5 sagittal head slice.
1174 PER2::LUC signal is present in the 4VCP region, but no circadian rhythm is detected. Elapsed
1175 time (h) is shown in the upper left. Scale bar: 500 µm.
1176

1177 **Movie S4.** Time-lapse of PER2::LUC bioluminescence in an isolated E13.5 4VCP explant. An
1178 autonomous circadian rhythm is evident *ex vivo*. Elapsed time (h) is shown in the upper left.
1179 Scale bar: 500 µm.