Main Manuscript for

Title: Boundary conditions for synaptic homeodynamics during the sleep-wake cycle

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This PDF file includes:

 Main Text

 Figures 1 to 5

Abstract

Understanding synaptic dynamics during the sleep-wake cycle is crucial yet remains controversial. The synaptic homeostasis hypothesis (SHY) suggests synaptic depression during non-rapid eye movement (NREM) sleep, while other studies report synaptic potentiation or synaptic changes during NREM sleep depending on activities in wakefulness. To find boundary conditions between these contradictory observations, we focused on learning rules and firing patterns that contribute to the synaptic dynamics. Using computational models, we found that under Hebbian and spike-timing dependent plasticity (STDP), wake-like firing patterns decrease synaptic weights, while sleep-like patterns strengthen synaptic weights. We refer to this tendency as Wake Inhibition and Sleep Excitation (WISE). Conversely, under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP, synaptic depression during NREM sleep was observed, aligning with the conventional synaptic homeostasis hypothesis. Moreover, synaptic changes depended on firing rate differences between NREM sleep and wakefulness. We provide a unified framework that could explain synaptic homeodynamics under the sleep-wake cycle.

Keywords

synaptic dynamics, sleep-wake cycle, learning rules, mathematical model, computational analysis

Introduction

During wakefulness, organisms perceive external worlds through the five senses to learn and take appropriate actions. During sleep, organisms disconnect from the environment to reorganize memory and recover from fatigue. Recent studies have revealed that cortical neurons are responsible for these brain functions underlying learning and memory formation (1) and that the dynamics of the cortical synaptic weights are associated with the sleep-wake cycle (2, 3). A hypothesis known as the synaptic homeostasis hypothesis (SHY) proposed that wakefulness potentiates synapses through learning with the costs of higher energy demand while the sleep state depresses less important synapses to restore synaptic homeostasis (2). However, the dynamics of synaptic weights in the sleep-wake cycle, especially during sleep, remain controversial. Several studies have demonstrated that NREM sleep potentiates synapses, contributing to memory consolidation (4, 5). Furthermore, SHY suggests that synapses strengthened during wakefulness are less susceptible to synaptic depression during NREM sleep (2). In contrast, other studies propose the normalization of neuronal activities, where fast-firing neurons and slow-firing neurons during wakefulness are weakened and strengthened, respectively, during NREM sleep (6). We sought to find the boundary conditions that reconcile these discrepancies and to comprehensively understand the sleep-wake synaptic dynamics.

The heterogeneity of brain states can confound in vivo studies because the slow-wave oscillation (SWO), that is a characteristic firing pattern of NREM sleep, also occurs in wakefulness and sleep states include REM sleep, which has wake-like firing patterns (7, 8). To address this issue, we developed computational models to investigate the direct relationships between synaptic weights and neuronal firing patterns characteristic of each brain state. To account for the diversity of neurons, we prepared various sleep- and wake-like firing patterns based on in vivo experiments. Additionally, we devised a unified function that recapitulates typical synaptic learning rules in the cortex for updating the synaptic weights (9). These settings allowed us to simulate the dynamics of synaptic weights under specific types of spike trains, such as burst firing, based on synaptic learning rules (10). The synaptic

learning rules we studied include the Hebbian rule, STDP, and their reverse types (Anti-Hebbian and

Anti-STDP). According to the Hebbian rule, a synaptic connection between two neurons strengthens

when pre- and post-synaptic neurons fire simultaneously (11). A temporally asymmetric form of Hebbian

rule is STDP. The classical STDP describes that synaptic potentiation occurs when pre-synaptic spikes

precede post-synaptic spikes within a certain temporal window, while synaptic depression occurs in

post-synaptic spikes precede pre-synaptic spikes (12, 13). Reverse types of them (Anti-Hebbian and

Anti-STDP) are also observed in the mammalian cortex (14) and play important roles in information

processing (15, 16).

Our simulations revealed that synaptic weights become higher in sleep-like synchronized

states than in wake-like desynchronized states under Hebbian and classical STDP, assuming the same

mean firing rates for both sleep- and wake-like firing patterns. We refer to these dynamics as Wake

Inhibition and Sleep Excitation (WISE). In contrast, synaptic depressions during sleep-like firing patterns,

which represents SHY, were observed under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP. Moreover, our results

suggested that the synaptic dynamics also depend on mean firing rates, providing a unified framework

for the synaptic homeodynamics of neural networks during the sleep-wake cycle.

Results

WISE under Hebbian and STDP, SHY under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP

To investigate synaptic dynamics in NREM sleep and wakefulness with synaptic learning rules, we used

a Ca^{2+}-based plasticity model. Graupner et al. proposed that the Ca^{2+}-based plasticity model with two

thresholds for post-synaptic Ca^{2+} can describe the various types of synaptic learning rules (17). Based

on Graupner's model, we developed a modified Ca^{2+}-based plasticity model to represent four different

types of learning rules (Hebbian, STDP, Anti-Hebbian, and Anti-STDP) by setting eight parameters (θ_p:

potentiation threshold, θ_d: depression threshold, γ_p: potentiation amplitude, γ_d: depression amplitude,

τ_{pre}: time constant for Ca^{2+} from N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor (NMDAR), τ_{post}: time constant for Ca^{2+}

from Voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel (VGCC), σ: amplitude for noise, and τ_s: time constant for synaptic

change) (**Fig. 1A**). Synaptic weights were defined as being linearly related to synaptic efficacy (ρ) as

w=w0+ρ(w1-w0), where w0 and w1 are minimum and maximum synaptic weights, respectively. ρ is

described by a first order differential equation according to the previous article (*Materials and Methods*)

(17). We confirmed that our model could predict the experimentally observed changes of post-synaptic

Ca^{2+} and synaptic strength under stimulations with different time lags (**Fig. 1 B** and **C**). We randomly

generated more than 1 million parameter sets and selected 1,000 parameter sets that well represent

either one of four learning rules (**Fig. 1 D** and **E**, see *Supplementary Materials, Parameter search for*

synaptic learning rules). Each learning rule has a clear cluster in the distribution of thresholds and

amplitudes (**Fig. 1F**). The distributions of other parameters and those in other fitting conditions are

shown in *Supplementary Materials*, **Fig. S1**. To evaluate the change of synaptic weights during sleep-

like and wake-like firing patterns, we assumed one post-neuron connected with ten pre-neuronal

synapses and the same mean firing rates both in sleep-like and wake-like patterns (**Fig. 1G**). Sleep-

like and wake-like firing patterns were derived from previous in vivo recordings (6, 18) (*Supplementary*

Materials, *Generation of sleep and wake-like spike patterns* and **Fig. S18**). Then, time changes in

synaptic efficacy during the sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns were calculated and compared under

synaptic learning rules (*Materials and Methods*). The mean synaptic efficacy became higher in sleep-

like states than in wake-like states under Hebbian and STDP, representing WISE (**Fig. 1H**). The

opposite results were observed in Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP, representing SHY. Thus, WISE and

SHY are observed under the specific types of learning rules, with both states exhibiting equal mean

firing rates.

Robustness of WISE and SHY

Next, we investigated the robustness of the WISE and SHY in different settings. We first simply modified

the previous model with one post-neuron connected by ten pre-neuronal synapses to have 96 pre-

neuronal synapses or random connections. This modified model still exhibited WISE under Hebbian

and STDP, while it showed SHY under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP (**Fig. 2 *A*** and ***B***). Next, we tested

modified parameters of time constants and amplitudes of learning rules to see if WISE and SHY depend

on the properties of learning rules. Even in those settings, we found that these trends still held (**Fig. 2*C***,

and *Supplementary Materials*, **Fig. S3**). In **Fig. 2 *D*** and ***E***, we generated various sleep-like firing

patterns by changing parameters such as the log10(*mean inter-spike interval*) (ISIM), log10(*mean Up-

state duration*) (UPM), and log10(*mean Down-state duration*) (DOWNM). We tested ranges of

parameters for each targeted mean firing rate by changing either DOWNM (**Fig. 2*D***) or ISIM (**Fig. 2*E***).

We found that the mean synaptic efficacy was higher in sleep-like states with most of the parameters

in the tested range. Notably, this trend was more apparent at lower firing rates. These results validated

that WISE and SHY were robust under various biologically feasible conditions.

WISE and SHY in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models

We then tested whether WISE and SHY hold in a more realistic setting where the synaptic efficacy can

change the firing pattern. To recapitulate the variable firing pattern, we introduced the Hodgkin-Huxley

model to network models based on our previous study (19, 20), with a ratio of excitatory and inhibitory

neurons of 4:1 (**Fig. 3*A***, see *Supplementary Materials, Hodgkin-Huxley-based network model*). In this

study, we considered molecules responsible for generating SWO in three subcellular compartments

(post-synaptic, intracellular (cell body), and pre-synaptic compartments) (19, 21). We assumed that

NMDAR and VGCC function in post-synapses and cell bodies, respectively, for generating SWO (19).

In addition, because pre-synaptic transmission is crucial for generating SWO in the cortex (21), we

modeled AMPAR, NMDAR, and GABAR to receive the neural transmission. Parameter searches for

SWO and bifurcation analysis for a single neuron were based on previous articles (19). First, we

randomly generated parameter sets from a large parameter space within the biophysically feasible

range and searched for parameter sets that yield firing patterns of SWO. Then, we searched for

parameter sets that bifurcate from wake-like to sleep-like patterns as a network (**Fig. 3B**, see

Supplementary Materials, Parameter search for SWO and bifurcation analysis in Hodgkin-Huxley-

based network models). Clear desynchronization and synchronization, evaluated by the coefficient of

variance (CV) of spike counts per 50 milliseconds (sleep score) (see *Supplementary Materials*,

Evaluation of synchronization and desynchronization in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models), were

observed with parameter sets for each subcellular component (**Fig. 3 C** and **D**, and Supplementary

Materials, **Fig. S4**). We then selected the parameter sets that showed almost the same mean firing

rates in sleep-like and wake-like states and evaluated synaptic efficacy in the sleep-like and wake-like

states (*Supplementary Materials*, **Figs. S6** and **S7**). WISE was observed under STDP (**Fig. 3E**), while

SHY was observed under Anti-STDP (**Fig. 3F**). Similar trends were observed under Hebbian and Anti-

Hebbian and in network models with different connections (*Supplementary Materials*, **Figs. S9** and **S10**).

These results validated WISE and SHY in a realistic network model.

WISE under Hebbian and STDP and SHY under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP is compatible with

models including sleep-wake dynamics

Next, we incorporated the spontaneous sleep-wake cycle into our network models. Previous

phosphoproteomic studies suggested that phosphorylation of several synaptic proteins is associated

with sleep needs (22–24). The sleep needs increase during wakefulness and decreases with the onset

of sleep. This homeostatic oscillation of sleep needs is referred to as Process S (25). In the present

model, we assumed that calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) is responsible for

the homeostatic oscillation (26). To evaluate the synaptic efficacy across a series of sleep-wake cycles,

we assumed that CaMKII changes its states in a use-dependent manner during wakefulness and

induces SWO by interacting with channels or receptors that regulate neuronal membrane potentials or

enzymes that regulate neurotransmitters (8, 26). This assumption aligns with observations that CaMKII

has multiple phosphorylation states and changes its function accordingly (27). We integrated the use-

dependent change of CaMKII's function for activating channels such as NMDAR into the sleep-wake

dynamics model (*Materials and Methods*). The initial state of CaMKII, such as pT286/287 CaMKII, has

self-activating ability and Ca^{2+}-dependent activation (28). This initial state activates the second state of

CaMKII, such as pT305/306 CaMKII, or phosphatases, such as calcineurin, which can be regulated

during sleep (29). We assumed that the second state directly interacts with molecules that induce SWO

from the result of optimizing correlation to Process S for network models (*Supplementary Materials*, **Fig.**

S11A).

In the simulation of a representative model, we observed that pT286/287 CaMKII, represented as *r* in

Fig. 4A, gradually increased due to Ca^{2+} influx and autoactivation during wakefulness, which was

followed by an increase in pT305/306 CaMKII, represented as *a* in **Fig. 4A**. The increased *a* then

activated NMDAR and induced SWO (**Fig. 4 C** and **D**). The mean synaptic efficacy was higher during

sleep-like periods than during wake-like periods under STDP (**Fig. 4 E** and **G**). The opposite results

were observed under Anti-STDP (**Fig. 4 F** and **H**). Statistical significances were observed in the analysis

with multiple parameter sets (*Supplementary Materials*, **Fig. S11 B** and **C**). The results of model with

other bifurcation mechanisms or systems also showed the same trends *(Supplementary Materials*, **Figs.**

S12-**S14**). These results confirmed that WISE under STDP and SHY under Anti-STDP are compatible

with network models that have sleep-wake dynamics.

Synaptic changes depend on firing rates assuming higher firing rates during wake-like states

In the previous sections, we compared synaptic efficacies in sleep-like and wake-like states by

assuming the same mean firing rates in both states. While this assumption is feasible in brain regions

such as the visual cortex, where firing rates are almost constant between states (30), regions such as

the somatosensory cortex showed higher firing rates during wakefulness (31). To evaluate the synaptic

dynamics in the higher firing rates during wake-like states, we assumed that mean firing rates in Up

states of sleep-like patterns are equal to those in wake-like patterns and found that WISE was observed

at lower mean firing rates while SHY was observed at higher mean firing rates under Hebbian and

STDP (**Fig. 5*A***). Thus, synaptic efficacies change to different directions depending on mean firing rates

assuming higher firing rates during wake-like states.

209 Discussion

In this study, we investigated how synaptic dynamics interact with firing patterns and learning rules.

Under Hebbian and STDP, wake-like firing patterns inhibits the synaptic connections, hence weakening

the synaptic efficacy, while sleep-like firing patterns excite synaptic connections, hence strengthen the

synaptic efficacy. We referred to this tendency as WISE. In contrast, under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP,

wake-like and sleep-like patterns tend to strengthen and weaken synaptic efficacies, respectively, which

aligns with SHY. When we set the firing rate of the Up state of sleep-like phasic firing patterns equal to

the firing rate of wake-like tonic firing patterns, the resulting higher firing rate of wake-like firing pattern

tends to strengthen synapses. This indicates that firing rate is the dominant factor in determining the

direction of synaptic changes. These findings delineate the boundary conditions of synaptic dynamics

during the sleep-wake cycle. We also demonstrated that these boundary conditions are stable under

various conditions by using two types of models with numerous parameters derived from biological

knowledge.

Boundary conditions in synaptic homeodynamics

From the perspective of homeostasis, SHY proposes that wakefulness strengthens synapses to learn

about the environment, while NREM sleep weakens less important synapses to reduce energy

consumption (2). Although studies, including anatomical and electrophysiological research, support

SHY (22, 32, 33), several studies have reported contradictory results (4–6, 34).

Our study indicated that the direction of synaptic changes during sleep-like firing patterns

depends on synaptic learning rules and firing rates of local networks. Assuming the same mean firing

rates in sleep-like and wake-like patterns, SHY is observed under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP (**Figs.**

1*H*, 2 *A-C*, 3 *E* and *F*, and 4 *G* and *H*). Additionally, we observed that higher mean firing rates results

in smaller differences in synaptic changes between sleep-like and wake-like states (**Figs. 1*H*** and **2 *A-***

***C*,** and *Supplementary Materials* **Fig. S9**). This finding suggests that neurons with higher firing rates

during wakefulness are less susceptible to synaptic depression during sleep, consistent with SHY (2).

In contrast, we observed WISE under Hebbian and STDP (**Figs. 1*H*, 2 *A-C*, 3 *E* and *F*, and 4 *G* and *H***).

This observation indicated that the maximum firing rates during sleep, particularly in the Up state of

SWO, are higher when the mean firing rates are equal in both sleep and wakefulness. The high

maximum firing rates in sleep enhance synaptic learning rules, that is, Hebbian and STDP strengthen

synaptic weights while Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP weaken synaptic weights. In vivo experiments also

reported that the higher firing rates or shorter inter-spike interval (ISI) in the Up state of SWO (6, 7, 18)

(*Supplementary Materials*, **Fig. S18**). Higher maximum firing rates lead to greater Ca^{2+} influx and larger

changes in synaptic weights during SWO. Additionally, synchronization and hyperpolarized Down states

that promote Ca^{2+} influx in the subsequent Up state (35) likely contribute to elevated post-synaptic Ca^{2+}

during SWO.

We propose that synaptic changes depend on the differences in firing rates between NREM

sleep and wakefulness. SHY may occur under STDP when mean firing rates during wakefulness are

higher than during NREM sleep (**Fig. 5*A***). A simulation showed that synaptic efficacies of neurons which

are stimulated during wake-like states change according to SHY (see *Supplementary Materials,*

Calculation of synaptic efficacy under synaptic learning rules in Hodgkin–Huxley-based network models

including stimulation during the wakefulness, and **Fig. S15**). Similarly, previous studies have

demonstrated that exposure to novel stimuli or enforced wakefulness, conditions expected to increase

sleep pressure, result in synaptic downscaling during sleep (36, 37). Conversely, quiet conditions,

anticipated to yield lower sleep pressure during wakefulness, have strengthened synapses during sleep

(36). These observations align with our proposal because exposure to novel environments or higher

activity increases firing rates during wakefulness, leading to SHY. In contrast, the quiet wake causes

only limited differences in firing rate between NREM sleep and wakefulness, leading to WISE (**Fig. 5A**).

These different responses to the neuronal activities during wakefulness support the idea that NREM

sleep normalizes the neuronal activities that are skewed during the wakefulness, as presented by

Watson et al (6).

260   Noteworthy, WISE predicts lower post-synaptic Ca^{2+} concentration during wake-like

desynchronized firing under Hebbian and STDP. This prediction aligns with the observation that

calcineurin, an LTD-related molecule likely to be activated by lower Ca^{2+} concentration during

wakefulness, plays a role in excitatory post-neuronal synapses for generating SWO in the following

NREM sleep (38–40). Another prediction of WISE is synaptic connectivity homeostasis. When synaptic

transmission is inhibited, the resulting SWO may strengthen synapses through WISE, compensating

for the inhibited transmission. The connectivity homeostasis is also anticipated in the synaptic dynamics

during hibernation. Decreases in firing rates and synaptic connections due to low temperatures during

hibernation are associated with increases in SWO during NREM sleep and restoration of synaptic

connections after hibernation (41, 42), that is contrary to SHY. Since the lower the firing rates, the

greater the synaptic potentiation during sleep in our results (**Fig. 1H** and *Supplementary Materials*, **Fig.**

S9), WISE may explain synaptic dynamics during the hibernation. Likewise, in depressive disorder,

which is characterized by reduced waking activity and dysfunction of AMPAR in frontal cortex (43),

synaptic increase during NREM sleep may occur.

In conclusion, our study provides a unified framework for the synaptic dynamics during the

sleep-wake cycle (**Fig. 5*B***). It suggests that SHY, WISE, and the normalization during NREM sleep

coexist but occur depending on synaptic learning rules and neuronal activities of networks. Although

further studies are needed to investigate relationships between synaptic learning rules, neuronal

activities, and synaptic weights, the framework we presented here lays a foundation for future research.

Synaptic dynamics and brain functions

Our study provides several implications regarding the relationship between synaptic dynamics and brain

functions during the sleep-wake cycle. WISE supports the notion that synaptic potentiation in NREM

sleep contribute to memory consolidation (4, 34), which can be promoted by STDP (44, 45). On the

other hand, we revealed that wake-like desynchronized states can lead to synaptic depression under

Hebbian and STDP, especially at lower firing rates (**Figs. 1*H,* 2 *A-C,* 3 *E*** and ***F,*** and **4 *G*** and ***H***). One

implication of this inhibition during desynchronized states is the enhancement of the signal to noise ratio

(SNR) (46, 47). Stimulated neurons likely fire at higher rates, and their synaptic efficacies become larger

than those of other neurons in the background desynchronized states. Additionally, neurotransmitter

release during wakefulness possibly modulates learning rules to control SNR (48). Indeed, it has been

reported that cholinergic projections from the nucleus basalis to the cortex are responsible for synaptic

inhibition (47).

We also found that the variability of synaptic efficacy is higher during wakefulness than in

NREM sleep under Hebbian and STDP (**Fig. 4*G,*** and *Supplementary Materials*, **Figs. S12**-**S14** and

S16). Several studies suggest that the variability of synaptic efficacies leads to the variability of network

activity and reflects probabilistic inference for external worlds and decision-making (49–51). In this

context, our results suggest that awake states, with higher variability of synapses, are advantageous

for exploration and behavioral selection. Additionally, the decline in synaptic variability during NREM

sleep under Hebbian and STDP supports the idea of normalization of firing rates, whose distribution is

skewed during wakefulness (6).

Limitations

The present study has some limitations. Our models are composed of uniform neuronal populations

and synaptic learning rules, which can be regulated by sleep promoting kinases. However, different

types of neurons are interconnected in the cortex, and their firing rates and synaptic learning rules vary

by region and condition (9, 48, 52, 53). Further studies on synaptic plasticity across a wide variety of

neurons, regions, and conditions will provide a more detailed understanding of the relationship between

synaptic learning rules and synaptic plasticity.

In this study, we assumed that the activation of sleep-promoting kinases and the accumulation

of phosphorylation during wakefulness induce SWO. We presented three bifurcation models for the

generation of SWO based on the changes in firing patterns (**Figs. 3** and **4**). Since the molecular

mechanism of SWO is still under vigorous investigations, these bifurcation models will need to be

updated by future experiments. Additionally, the model for the sleep-wake dynamics has some

ambiguities (**Fig. 4**). The coefficient "*b*" in the equation (*Eq*. 14, *Materials and Methods*) can represent

not only the second phosphorylated states of CaMKII such as pCaMKII (T305/T306), but also

phosphatases such as calcineurin (38). Moreover, other kinases such as salt-inducible kinase 3 and

extracellular signal-regulated kinase can also correspond to components in the model (54, 55). Further

studies to elucidate the interactions between these sleep-promoting kinases and synaptic proteins

related to membrane potentials or synaptic strength will contribute to a more accurate understanding of

the mechanism for SWO and sleep-wake dynamics.

Materials and Methods

The details of the materials and methods are supplied in the *Supplementary Materials, Supporting Information Text*.

Modeling Synaptic Learning Rules

Synaptic efficacy variable ρ is described by a first order differential equation according to the previous article (17).

$$\tau_s \frac{d\rho}{dt} = -\rho(1-\rho)(\rho^* - \rho) + \gamma_p(1-\rho)\Theta[c - \theta_p] - \gamma_d \rho \Theta[c - \theta_d] + Noise \ (Eq.1)$$

(Θ denotes the Heaviside function: $\Theta[c-\theta]$ = 0 for $c < \theta$ and $\Theta[c-\theta]$ = 1 for $c \geq \theta$).

c is the post-synaptic Ca²⁺ concentration and expressed as the sum of Ca²⁺ influx from NMDAR (C_{pre}) and VGCC (C_{post}).

$$c = C_{pre} + C_{post} \ (Eq.2)$$

C_{pre} follows a second order differential equation of NMDAR activation by pre-neuronal firing. We modified the NMDAR kinetics and didn't consider Mg²⁺ block against NMDAR for the purpose of describing the four different types of learning rules.

$$\frac{dC_{pre}}{dt} = -\alpha_{Ca} I_{Ca\_NMDA} \beta_{NMDA} - \frac{C_{pre}}{\tau_{pre}} \ (Eq.3)$$

$$I_{Ca\_NMDA} = g_{NMDA} s_{NMDA} (V_{rest} - V_{Ca}) \ (Eq.4)$$

$$\frac{ds_{NMDA}}{dt} = a_{sNMDA} x(1 - s_{NMDA}) - \frac{s_{NMDA}}{\tau_{sNMDA}} \ (Eq.5)$$

$$\frac{dx_{NMDA}}{dt} = a_{xNMDA} f(V_{pre}) - \frac{x_{NMDA}}{\tau_{xNMDA}} \ (Eq.6)$$

$$f(V) = 1/[1 + exp(-(V - 20)/2)] \ (Eq.7)$$

341   C_{post} is described by a first order differential equation of VGCC

$$\frac{dC_{post}}{dt} = -\alpha_{Ca} A I_{Ca\_VGCC} \beta_{VGCC} - \frac{C_{post}}{\tau_{post}} \ (Eq.8)$$

$$I_{Ca\_VGCC} = g_{Ca} m^2{}_{Ca\infty}(V_{post})(V_{post} - V_{Ca}) \ (Eq.9)$$

$$m_{Ca\infty}(V) = 1/[1 + exp(-(V+20)/9) \ (Eq.10)$$

Equations (*Eq.* 3-10) were based on the previous study (1). Fixed parameters are shown in the Table

S1. Scaling parameters $\beta_{NMDA} \ and \ \beta_{VGCC}$ in Equations (*Eq.* 3 and 8) were estimated so that the mean

amplitude of *C_{pre}* = 0.7 μM and the mean amplitude of *C_{post}* =1.4 μM according to the results of the

previous studies (56). The equation for noise and the comparison of simulation and analytical results

are in *Supplementary Materials, Comparison of simulation and analytical results for synaptic learning*

rules and **Fig. S17**.

Comparison of synaptic efficacy during sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns in simple model

The generated sleep-like or wake-like spike trains were converted to the data for membrane potential

(see *Supplementary Materials, Conversion from spike patterns to voltage waveforms*). Time changes

in synaptic efficacy were calculated by assigning the time-series data for sleep-like and wake-like

membrane potentials and parameter sets for synaptic learning rules to the equations (*Eq.* 1-10). Time

changes in synaptic efficacy was calculated for 6, 18, and 36 minutes with mean firing rates of pre-

synaptic neurons being 0.1-10.0 Hz, 0.03 Hz and 0.01 Hz, respectively. Mean and CV of synaptic

efficacy for the last two minutes were calculated by every time step and compared between sleep-like

and wake-like firing patterns as an average over time. In random connections of **Fig. 2B**, each neuron

was randomly connected to other neurons with a probability of 12 % and the synaptic efficacy was

calculated based on their spike trains.

364 **Comparison of synaptic efficacy between sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns in Hodgkin-**

365 **Huxley-based network models**

366 A representative synaptic learning rule was obtained in each network model (see *Supplementary*

367 *Materials, Parameter search for synaptic learning rules in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models*).

368 Time changes in synaptic efficacy were calculated for 60 seconds in each of wake-like and sleep-like

369 patterns under specific learning rules in **Fig. 3**. Scaling parameters (β_{NMDA} and β_{VGCC}) and normalized

370 thresholds for learning rules (θ_p and θ_d) were calculated by preliminary simulations (see *Supplementary*

371 *Materials, Obtaining values for scaling parameters and normalization of thresholds for synaptic learning*

372 *rules*). The mean and CV of synaptic efficacy of excitatory neurons were calculated by every time step

373 except for the initial 10 seconds and compared between sleep-like and wake-like patterns as an average

374 over time. In this process, the network models with large differences of mean firing rates between sleep-

375 like and wake-like patterns (> 2.0 Hz) were excluded from the statistical analysis. Because the AMPAR

376 activity in synapses reflects synaptic strength (57), the conductance of AMPAR was updated by synaptic

377 efficacy (ρ).

378
$$g_{AMPA} = g_{AMPA\_min} + \rho\left(g_{AMPA\_max} - g_{AMPA\_min}\right) \ (Eq. 11)$$

379
$$g_{AMPA\_min} = g_{AMPA\_original} \times 0.5 \ (Eq. \ 12)$$

380
$$g_{AMPA\_max} = g_{AMPA\_original} \times 1.5 \ (Eq. 13)$$

381

382 **Calculation of synaptic efficacy under synaptic learning rules in Hodgkin-Huxley-based**

383 **network models with sleep-wake dynamics**

384 The equations of the two variable model for sleep-wake dynamics are based on the previous study (58).

385
$$\tau_r \frac{dr}{dt} = -r(t) + R_\infty(wr(t) + \alpha[Ca^{2+}] - ba(t) + I + \xi) \ (Eq. 14)$$

386
$$R_\infty(x) = 1/[1 + exp(-cx)] \ (Eq. 15)$$

$$387 \qquad \tau_a \frac{da}{dt} = -a(t) + A_\infty(a(t) - \beta[Ca^{2+}] - d) \ (Eq.16)$$

$$388 \qquad A_\infty(x) = 1/[1 + exp(-ex)] \ (Eq.17)$$

$$389 \qquad d\xi = -\theta\xi dt + \varepsilon\sqrt{2\theta dt}W_t \ (Eq.18)$$

$$390 \qquad g_{NMDA} = g_{NMDA\_original} \times Max\_rate \times \{a(t) \, or \, r(t)\} \ (Eq.19)$$

We constructed the network of 80 neurons as in **Fig. 3** including synaptic learning rules and sleep-wake

dynamics and calculated the time change of **r** and **a**. Network models analyzed in **Fig. 3 B-F** and with

continuous transitions from wake-like patterns to sleep-like patterns were selected. For the model of

sleep-wake dynamics bifurcated by the pre-synaptic mechanism, we assumed that the pre-synaptic

Ca^{2+} ($[Ca^{2+}_{pre}]$) is mediated by VGCC in pre-neuronal synapses and it was expressed by the following

equations.

$$397 \qquad [Ca^{2+}_{pre}] = -\alpha_{Ca}AI_{Ca\_pre}\beta_{VGCC} \ (Eq.20)$$

$$398 \qquad I_{Ca\_pre} = g_{ca}m^2_{Ca\infty}(V_{pre})(V_{pre} - V_{Ca}) \ (Eq.21)$$

$[Ca^{2+}]$ in the equations (*Eq.* 14 and 16) was updated by Ca^{2+} in post-neuronal synapses, cell body or

pre-neuronal synapses in the bifurcation model of the post-synaptic, intracellular or pre-synaptic

mechanism, respectively. Sleep scores were calculated for 5-seconds' windows and moving averages

of them were computed on 10 consecutive values, which were classified into sleep-like and wake-like

periods if sleep score was more than or less than the threshold, respectively (threshold is the value of

sleep score when p < 0.01, see *Supplementary Materials*, *Evaluation of synchronization and*

desynchronization in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models).

Then, we calculated Process S as following equations proposed by a previous study (59).

$$407 \qquad S_{t+1} = UA - (UA - S_t)exp\left(-\frac{dt}{\tau_i}\right) \qquad (wake \ state) \ (Eq.22)$$

$$408 \qquad S_{t+1} = LA + (S_t - LA)\exp\left(-\frac{dt}{\tau_d}\right) \qquad (sleep\ state)\ (Eq.\,23)$$

We selected the models in which periods of sleep-like and wake-like states were close to each other

(0.7 <= total sleep time/total wake time < 1.3) and Pearson's correlation coefficient between **r** or **a** and

Process S was the largest. Scaling parameters (β_{NMDA} and β_{VGCC}) and normalized thresholds for

learning rules (θ_p and θ_d) were calculated by preliminary simulations (see *Supplementary Materials, SI*

Materials and Methods, *Obtaining values for scaling parameters and normalization of thresholds for*

synaptic learning rules). The simulations were conducted for 300 or 500 seconds. The mean and CV of

synaptic efficacy of all neurons were calculated by every time step during the periods of sleep-like and

wake-like states and compared as an average over time.

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Figures

Figure 1. WISE under Hebbian and STDP, SHY under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP assuming the same firing rates during sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns.

(A) Schematic illustration of the Ca^{2+}-based plasticity model for synaptic learning rules.

(B) Calcium transients in a post-neuronal synapse when stimulated with short delays under STDP.

(C) The dynamics of synaptic efficacy when stimulated with short delays under STDP.

(D) The procedure of a parameter search for synaptic learning rules and calculation of synaptic efficacy in the state of sleep and wake.

(E) The standardized synaptic change of the 1000 parameter sets for four types of learning rules represented by Gaussian curves. Each row of the upper panels shows synaptic changes simulated with a parameter set whose sum of squared errors (SSE) between analytical results and Gaussian curves was less than 0.25. The line and shadow in the lower panel indicate the mean and standard deviation, respectively.

(F) Distributions of 1000 parameter sets for each learning rule in the axes of thresholds and amplitudes.

(G) Schematic illustration for connections and firing patterns of neurons used in the calculation of synaptic efficacy.

(H) Box plots for mean synaptic efficacy in sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns by different synaptic learning rules and mean firing rates (n = 1000 for each firing rate, n represents the number of synaptic learning rules). The whiskers above and below show minimal to maximal values. The box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, and the middle line indicates the median. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$, Welch's t-test was applied.

Figure 2. Robustness of WISE and SHY.

(A) Schematic illustration of network model consisting of one post-neuron connected with 96 pre-

neuronal synapses and box plots for synaptic efficacy.

(B) Schematic illustration of neural network model consisting of randomly connected ten neurons and

box plots for synaptic efficacy.

(C) The original (black dotted line) and modified (magenta solid line) curves for STDP rule and box plots

for mean synaptic efficacy. a_{lr} is the amplitude, and τ_{lr} is the time constant for Gaussian curves to be

fitted by the parameter search.

(D) Representative raster plots of the original (black) and modified (magenta) sleep-like firing patterns

and the differences in median of mean synaptic efficacies between sleep-like and wake-like firing

patterns (*sleep - wake*). The modified mean firing rates of sleep-like firing patterns were generated by

changing DOWNM under constant UPM and ISIM (n=1000 for each firing rate). The dotted boxes

highlighted the original UPM and ISIM values are 1.5 and 2.7, respectively.

(E) Representative raster plots of the original (black) and modified (magenta) sleep-like firing patterns

and the differences in median of mean synaptic efficacies between sleep-like and wake-like firing

patterns (*sleep - wake*). The modified firing rates of sleep-like patterns were generated by changing

ISIM under constant UPM and DOWNM (*n=1000* for each firing rate, *n* represents the number of

synaptic learning rules). The dotted boxes highlighted *DOWNM =3.0* and *UPM = 2.7*, which are the

closest to the original values: *DOWNM = 3.12* and *UPM = 2.7*.

(A-C) The mean synaptic efficacy was evaluated in sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns with various

mean firing rates assuming different synaptic learning rules (*n = 1000* for each firing rate, *n* represents

the number of synaptic learning rules). The whiskers above and below of box plots show minimal and

maximal values, respectively. The box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile and the middle line

indicates the median. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$, Welch's t-test was applied.

(D and E) ISIM: log10(*mean ISI*), UPM: log10(*mean Up-state duration*), DOWNM: log10(*mean Down-*

state duration)

Figure 3. WISE and SHY in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models.

(A) Schematic illustration of a model with excitatory and inhibitory synapses. A Hodgkin-Huxley-based network model was constructed based on the averaged neuron model in a previous study (19).

(B) Procedures for collecting parameter sets that bifurcate from wake-like to sleep-like firing patterns and comparing synaptic efficacy between the two states in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models.

(C) Representative sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns for three types of bifurcation models. The parameters used in the simulation were obtained by multiplying the original values defined in **Table S5** by the presented factors. Simulations were conducted for five seconds and presented for three seconds in each model.

(D) Changes in the sleep score, percentage of sleep-like waveforms (sleep (%)), and mean firing rate (FR (Hz)) as the conductance of the channel or receptor, or the coefficients of pre-synaptic activations are gradually increased. The range of the conductance was divided into 80 steps for post-synaptic or intracellular bifurcation, while the range of the coefficient was divided into 75 steps for pre-synaptic bifurcation. Simulations were conducted for ten seconds at each conductance or coefficient step.

(E and F) Box plots for mean synaptic efficacy during sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns under STDP (E) and Anti-STDP (F) by three types of network models *(n* = 191, 52, and 150 for STDP and n = 121, 36, and 119 for Anti-STDP in post-synaptic, intracellular, and pre-synaptic bifurcation models, respectively. *n* represents the number of parameter sets for the network models). The whiskers above and below of box plots show minimal and maximal values, respectively. The box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, and the middle line indicates the median. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$, Student's t-test was applied.

Figure 4. WISE under Hebbian and STDP, and SHY under Anti-Hebbian and Anti-STDP is

compatible with models including sleep-wake dynamics.

(A) Schematic illustration of the model for sleep-wake dynamics in excitatory synapses. The initial state

of CaMKII such as pT286/287 CaMKII is represented by *r.* The initial state activates *a* which

corresponds to the second state of CaMKII such as pT305/306 CaMKII or phosphatases such as

calcineurin. α, β, *w*, and *b* corresponds to variables defined in the equations in the *Materials and*

Methods. Synaptic efficacies were calculated in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models bifurcated by

the post-synaptic mechanism with sleep-wake dynamics under synaptic learning rules. The

conductance of NMDAR was updated by *a* and the simulations were optimized by Pearson's correlation

coefficients between process S and *r*. The simulations were conducted for 500 seconds. The parameter

set for channel or receptor conduces, learning rule and sleep-wake dynamics and initial values for

variables in a representative model are shown in **Tables S5-S8**.

(B) Schematic illustration of the network model used in simulations. The network model has 80 neurons

with the E:1 ratio of 4:1.

(C and D) Time changes of post-synaptic membrane potential and Ca^{2+} concentration, synaptic efficacy,

and the ratio of two phosphorylated states of kinases (*r* and *a*) of a synapse in representative network

models under STDP (C) and Anti-STDP (D). The results of 0-300 seconds are shown.

(E and F) Raster plots and time changes of mean synaptic efficacy, sleep score, and process S in

representative network models under STDP (E) and Anti-STDP (F). The shadow in time changes in

mean synaptic efficacy represents SD. The network was considered to be in the state of sleep or wake

if the sleep score was above or below the threshold, respectively (the threshold is the value of sleep

score where p = 0.01; see *Supplementary Materials*, *Evaluation of synchronization and*

desynchronization in Hodgkin-Huxley-based network models). The results of 0-300 seconds are shown.

(G and H) Mean and coefficient of variance (CV) of synaptic efficacy during the periods of sleep-like

and wake-like states in representative network models under STDP (E) and Anti-STDP (F).

 Figure 5. Synaptic changes depend on firing rates assuming higher firing rates during

wakefulness.

(A) A Schematic illustration for sleep-like and wake-like spike patterns and box plots for mean synaptic

efficacy in sleep-like and wake-like firing patterns for different learning rules and mean firing rates (*n* =

1000 for each firing rate, *n* represents the number of synaptic learning rules). The mean firing rates in

wake-like states are equal to the mean firing rates in Up states of sleep-like states. The sleep-like firing

patterns were generated by sampling from the lognormal distributions with log10(*mean Up-state*

duration) = 2.7 and log10(*mean Down-state duration*) = 3.0. SD was calculated according to the linear

regression analysis based on in vivo data (see *Supplementary Materials*, **Fig. S18**).

WISE and SHY dynamics are highlighted under the x-axis according to the change in the direction of

synaptic efficacy. The whiskers above and below show minimal to maximal values. The box extends

from the 25th to the 75th percentile and the middle line indicates the median. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ***

$p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$, Welch's t-test was applied.

(B) A Graphical abstract of a unified framework for synaptic dynamics during the sleep-wake cycle. SHY:

Synaptic homeostasis hypothesis, WISE: Wake Inhibition Sleep Excitation