Title: An iPSC model of fragile X syndrome reflects clinical phenotypes and reveals m[6]A-mediated epi-transcriptomic dysregulation underlying synaptic dysfunction

Lu Lu[1,2]*, Avijite Kumar Sarkar[1,2]*, Lan Dao[1,2], Yanchen Liu[3], Chunlong Ma[4], Phyo Han Thwin[4], Xuyao Chang[1,2], George Yoshida[1,2], Annie Li[1], Cenjing Wang[1], Crace Westerkamp[3], Lauren Schmitt[3], Maag Chelsey[5], Monzon Stephanie[5], Yu Zhao[6], Yaping Liu[5], Xiong Wang[7], Ling-Qiang Zhu[8], Dan Liu[8], Jason Tchieu[1,2], Makoto Miyakoshi[3], Haining Zhu[4], Christina Gross[9], Ernest Pedapati[3], Nathan Salomonis[10], Craig Erickson[3], Ziyuan Guo[1,2#]

1. Center for Stem Cell and Organoid Medicine (CuSTOM), Division of Developmental Biology, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA;
2. Department of Pediatrics, University of Cincinnati, College of Medicine, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA;
3. Division of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA;
4. Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, R. Ken Coit College of Pharmacy, University of Arizona, AZ 85721, USA;
5. Division of Human Genetics, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA;
6. Department of Computer Science, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH 45221, USA.
7. Department of Laboratory Medicine, Tongji Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, China;
8. Department of Pathophysiology, Key Lab of Neurological Disorder of Education Ministry, School of Basic Medicine, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, Hubei, China;
9. Division of Neurology, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA;
10. Division of Biomedical Informatics, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA.

*These authors contributed equally to this work
Correspondence should be addressed to Ziyuan Guo (Ziyuan.Guo@cchmc.org)

33   Leading contact: Ziyuan Guo, Division of Developmental Biology, Department of Pediatrics,

34   Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, 3333 Burnet Avenue, Cincinnati, OH 45229, USA.

35   Tel: 513-517-7092, Email: Ziyuan.Guo@cchmc.org.

37   **Declaration of interests:** The authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

Abstract

Fragile X syndrome (FXS), the leading genetic cause of intellectual disability, arises from *FMR1* gene silencing and loss of the FMRP protein. N6-methyladenosine (m^6A) is a prevalent mRNA modification essential for post-transcriptional regulation. FMRP is known to bind to and regulate the stability of m^6A-containing transcripts. However, how loss of FMRP impacts on transcriptome-wide m^6A modifications in FXS patients remains unknown. To answer this question, we generated cortical neurons differentiated from induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) derived from healthy subjects and FXS patients. In electrophysiology recordings, we validated that synaptic and neuronal network defects in iPSC-derived FXS neurons corresponded to the clinical EEG data of the patients from which the corresponding iPSC line was derived. In analysis of transcriptome-wide methylation, we show that FMRP deficiency led to increased translation of m^6A writers, resulting in hypermethylation that primarily affecting synapse-associated transcripts and increased mRNA decay. Conversely, in the presence of an m^6A writer inhibitor, synaptic defects in FXS neurons were rescued. Taken together, our findings uncover that an FMRP-dependent epi-transcriptomic mechanism contributes to FXS pathogenesis by disrupting m^6A modifications in FXS, suggesting a promising avenue for m^6A-targeted therapies.

Introduction

Fragile X syndrome (FXS) is the most common inherited cause of intellectual disability, and as it often co-occurs with autism spectrum disorders (ASD), is believed to make genetic contributions to both. The syndrome manifests as a spectrum of cognitive impairments and socio-emotional deficits. FXS is primarily caused by the presence of expanded trinucleotide repeats in the fragile X messenger ribonucleoprotein 1 (*FMR1*) gene, leading to transcriptional silencing and consequent loss of Fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP). With excessive glutamatergic signaling a pathological hallmark of FXS, previous research primarily focused on excitatory synaptic transmission, and in particular signaling downstream of the metabotropic glutamate receptor subtype 5 (mGluR5) [1,2]. However, given the limited success of mGluR5-targeted therapies, the focus has shifted towards assessing how the balance between excitatory and inhibitory (E/I) signaling impact on network hyperexcitability [3-6]. Despite insights gained from FMRP loss-of-function studies in animal models, clinical trials for FXS, while showing promise in preclinical studies, have yielded limited success [7,8]. More recently, advancements have been made in modeling FXS using patient-derived induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) [9-14], which mirror neurodevelopmental and synaptic abnormalities within the human cellular and genetic

context. However, the extent to which human cultured neurons faithfully recapitulate FXS-

associated disease phenotypes *in vitro* and in a way that could inform development of

therapeutic strategies remains uncertain. Consequently, bridging the gap between experimental

models and human disease holds paramount importance in advancing FXS research.

N6-methyladenosine (m^{6}A) is a prevalent RNA modification in mammalian messenger RNAs

(mRNAs). It is installed by 'writers' (known as methyltransferases) like the METTL3/14 complex,

including METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP[15-20], and removed by 'erasers' such as Fat Mass and

Obesity-Associated Protein (FTO) and AlkB Homolog 5 (ALKBH5) [20-22]. The m^{6}A modification

instructs regulation of RNA processes such as splicing, export, translation, and decay through

the actions of m^{6}A 'readers' that bind m^{6}A-marked mRNAs[20,23-25]. In the nervous system, m^{6}A

modifications are particularly abundant and play established roles in brain development and

neuronal functions [26-31]. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified rare and *de*

novo variants of the m^{6}A reader YTHDC2 [32-35] that are strongly associated with ASD (SFARI

Gene Score 2). However, our understanding of m^{6}A regulation in human neurons, especially

under pathological conditions, is still in its infancy. Consequently, transcriptome-wide m^{6}A

profiling in patient-derived neurons stands to significantly advance our understanding of how

this modification impacts on pathological events and neuronal dysfunction.

FMRP, a multifunctional RNA-binding protein [36] primarily localized to translating polyribosomes,

regulates local protein synthesis at synapses [37-39]. Its deficiency results in increased synthesis of

synapse-related proteins. Recently identified as a putative m^{6}A 'reader' via unbiased proteomics

studies [40-42], FMRP influences a range of neural processes such as neural progenitor

proliferation and differentiation, synaptic transmission, plasticity, and axon growth [43-47]. Despite a

conserved consensus sequence between FMRP-binding sites and m^{6}A methylation, FMRP

interacts directly with m^{6}A 'readers' in an m^{6}A-modified mRNA-independent manner [46,47] and

negatively regulates their functions [45-47]. Specifically, FMRP antagonizes the activity of m^{6}A

readers, YTHDF2 and YTHDF1 (as well as the Drosophila homolog ythdf), stabilizing m^{6}A-

marked mRNAs and controlling their translation [45-47]. However, the precise mechanisms by

which FMRP deficiency impacts transcriptome-wide m^{6}A modifications in patient-derived

neurons remains elusive, and especially, to what extent this modification impacts on synaptic

and neuronal dysfunction, eventually contributing to FXS pathology.

Here, we established a patient-derived iPSC neuron model of FXS and identified an imbalance

in excitatory/inhibitory (E/I) signaling, along with hyperexcitability and hyperconnectivity in FXS

cortical circuitry, which correlated with each individual's clinical electroencephalogram (EEG)

data. Notably, loss of FMRP leads to elevated m^6A levels in both FXS patient-derived neurons

and *Fmr1* Knockout mice brains. In mechanistic studies, we uncovered that FMRP deficiency

disrupts the translational control of m^6A writer expression, leading to accumulation of excessive

m^6A-tagged transcripts related to synapse function in FXS neurons and increased mRNA decay

of such synapse-related genes. Conversely, treatment with a m^6A writer inhibitor, capable of

reducing excessive m^6A modifications, mitigated synaptic and functional defects in FXS neurons

by restoring mRNA stability. Our findings unveil a novel m^6A-mediated epi-transcriptomic

mechanism underlying FXS, by which FMRP deficiency leads to increased translation of m^6A

writers, resulting in transcriptome-wide hypermethylation and points to potential translational

significance of m^6A-modifying drugs as promising therapeutics for FXS treatment.

Result

Modeling FXS using patient-derived iPSCs and cortical neurons

In this study, we enrolled seven individuals with FXS and performed neuropsychological

examinations on five of them, documenting significantly lower full-scale intelligence quotient

(FSIQ, 45.71 ± 8, n = 5 FXS subjects), nonverbal IQ (NVIQ, 34.04 ± 8.95, n = 5 FXS subjects)

and verbal IQ (VIQ, 57.38 ± 8.24, n = 5 FXS subjects), indicative of intellectual disability

(Supplemental Table 1). We also validated that FMRP protein levels and FMR1 mRNA levels in

blood samples from FXS patients were low or absent (Supplemental Table 1).

To model FXS, we generated induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) from these seven

FXS patients and age- and gender-matched healthy controls, and confirmed pluripotency,

stemness, and karyotype integrity of all the iPSC lines (Supplemental Table 1). We also

confirmed via PCR and Asuragen testing that CGG repeat numbers were elevated in FXS

patients (over 200 CGG repeats in the 5' UTR of the FMR1 gene compared with 30 or fewer in

healthy controls; Supplemental Table 1 and Supplemental Figure 1A). The expression of

forebrain cortical neural progenitor markers (Sox2, Nestin, ZO1, FOXG1, OTX2, PAX6) and

mature neuronal markers (Tuj1, CaMKII), along with cortical layer markers (BRN2, CTIP2,

TBR1), indicated successful induction of neuroepithelial cell fate (Figure 1A, B and

Supplemental Figure 1B, C). Importantly, the FXS patient-derived cortical neurons lacked FMRP

expression, unlike their control counterparts (Figure 1C, D), replicating a hallmark of FXS

pathology.

In western blot and immunostaining analysis, we identified elevated levels of synaptic
proteins Synapsin II and SV2 (Figure 1E, F) and an increase in numbers of synaptic puncta
(Figure 1G, H) in the FXS cortical neurons. We also detected distinct alterations in spine
morphology, including reduced mushroom-like spines and increased numbers of filopodia-like
spines compared to control neurons (Figure 1I-K). However, we did not detect any significant
differences in neurites including number of sections, total neurite length, terminal points, branch
points, maximum section length, minimum section length, and mean section length between
FXS neurons and controls (Supplemental Figure 1D-L). Taken together, these observations
align with previous research linking the absence of FMRP to changes in synaptic protein
expression and synaptic structure in FXS neurons [10,11,48-51].
149
Dysregulated synaptic transmission, excitatory/inhibitory imbalance, and
hyperexcitability in cortical neurons derived from FXS iPSCs
To delve into the functional aspects of our iPSC model system, we conducted comprehensive
electrophysiological analyses, including whole-cell patch-clamp and micro-electrode arrays
(MEA). In whole-cell patch-clamp recordings (Figure 2A), we noted a consistent and significant
increase in excitatory synaptic transmission in FXS cortical neurons relative to controls (Figure
2B). Specifically, the inter-event interval was decreased in excitatory postsynaptic currents
(EPSC) whereas the frequency was elevated but the amplitude reduced (Figure 2C, D). We also
observed an overall decrease in inhibitory synaptic transmission in FXS cortical neurons relative
to controls (Figure 2E), manifested as an increase in inter-event interval and lower frequency
and amplitudes of inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSC) (Figure 2F, G).
Beyond the synaptic transmission defects and E/I imbalance, FXS cortical neurons were
hyperexcitable, reflected as an increased frequency of evoked action potentials (APs) and
decreased thresholds to firing APs (Figure 2I, J). Other parameters, including evoked AP
amplitude and Rheobase, remained unchanged (Supplemental Figure 2A, B). Additionally, the
frequency of spontaneous AP was higher in FXS cortical neurons relative to control cortical
neurons (Figure 2K, L). However, we did not observe any significant disparities in sodium and
potassium channel activities between FXS and control neurons (Supplemental Figure 2C-E).
Taken together, our data thus far suggested a causal relationship between E/I imbalance and
hyperexcitability in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons.
170
Hyperactivity and hyperconnectivity in cortical circuitry derived from FXS iPSCs

To monitor cortical circuitry activity, we cultured 0.5 million neurons on a MEA chip with 64

electrodes and recorded field potentials for 5 minutes at 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 weeks (Figure 3A and

Supplemental Figure 3A). Data were sampled at 20 kHz with a 1-1000 Hz frequency bandwidth

(see Methods). We identified spikes based on a threshold (5.5 times the standard deviation of

peak-to-peak noise), and bursts as sequences of at least 3 spikes with inter-spike intervals

within 300 milliseconds and a duration exceeding 200 milliseconds. In FXS iPSC-derived

cortical circuitry, we found heightened spike and burst activity in sample traces (Figure 3B),

characterized by a decreased inter-spike interval, increased burst duration, and more spikes per

burst, indicative of hyperactivity (Figure 3C-E).

Additionally, analysis of array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR) revealed enhanced

neuronal network synchrony and hyperconnectivity in FXS iPSC-derived cortical microcircuitry

(Figure 3F), reflected as increased burst peak and duration, more active electrodes per network

burst, and elevated spike numbers in network bursts (Figure 3G-J). When sorting spikes for

each electrode based on waveforms, we found significantly more waveforms in FXS iPSC-

derived cortical microcircuitry (Supplemental Figure 3B, C), indicating more synchronized

neurons in FXS cortical circuitry. Lastly, UP-state analysis, associated with synchronized activity

across a network of neurons, particularly in the cortex, exhibited longer durations in FXS iPSC-

derived cortical circuitry (Figure 3K, L). Taken together, these electrophysiological findings

identify both cortical network hyperactivity and hyperconnectivity in the FXS cortical

microcircuitry.

To bridge the gap between *in vitro* models and patients, we examined

electroencephalogram (EEG) recordings from the same individuals and correlated these with

clinical neuropsychological symptoms. We had already noted deviations in FSIQ, NVIQ, and

VIQ in FXS subjects as indications of intellectual disabilities (Supplemental Table 1).

Additionally, we assessed the absolute neural power spectral densities (PSDs) of typically

developing control (TDC) and FXS EEG data (Supplemental Figure 3D). We found high gamma

power in FXS subjects (Figure 3M), which is associated with hyperactivity and inversely

correlated with NVIQ in FXS subjects [52-55]. Using FOOOF (Fitting Oscillations and One-Over-F)

analysis to parameterize the PSDs [56,57], we found that the FOOOF slope was higher in FXS

subjects (Figure 3N), an additional indication of cortical hyperactivity and hyperconnectivity.

Taken together, these findings strongly suggest that key pathophysiological signatures in FXS

patients such as cortical hyperactivity and hyperconnectivity can be modeled in patient-derived

neurons, underscoring the translational potential and clinical relevance of our human model

system in uncovering disease-related mechanisms.

FMRP-bound mRNAs encoding m⁶A writers and FMRP deficiency increasing writer

expression

Like FMRP, the mRNA modification m⁶A is highly enriched in the brain, where it plays a crucial

role in neurodevelopment and in mature neurons [26-31]. To quantify total m⁶A levels, we purified

mRNAs and conducted dot plot analysis using an anti-m⁶A antibody to detect m⁶A tag-tagged

mRNAs. Relative to control, m⁶A levels were notably increased in FXS iPSC-derived cortical

neurons (Figure 4A). Additionally, we found increased protein, but not mRNA, expression of m⁶A

writers, including METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP, the key METTL3/14 complex components

(Figure 4B-D). We documented similar findings in *Fmr1* knockout mice (Supplemental Figure 4).

These findings suggest that FMRP deficiency leads to elevated m⁶A levels through upregulation

of m⁶A writer protein expression.

To determine whether FMRP binds mRNAs encoding m⁶A writers, we transfected HEK293T

cells with flag-mCherry-FMRP and flag-mCherry plasmids, and conducted pulldown using anti-

flag M2 affinity gel (Figure 4E) [58]. In the pulldowns with flag-tagged mCherry-FMRP, but not with

flag-tagged mCherry, we observed significant enrichment of METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP

mRNAs (Figure 4F). There was no specific enrichment for GAPDH mRNAs, indicating that FMRP

binds METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP mRNAs. To investigate whether FMRP regulates

translation of the m⁶A writer translation, we analyzed the translationally active heavy polysome

fractions (see Methods)[59]. Indeed, in FXS patient-derived neurons, METTL3, METTL14, and

WTAP were all significantly enriched in the heavy polysome fraction (Figure 4G). In addition, the

overall protein translation efficiency increased by 23.5% in FXS neurons (Figure 4H). These

findings suggest that basal translation of m⁶A writer mRNAs is enhanced in the absence of FMRP.

Transcriptome-wide m⁶A dysregulation in cortical neurons derived from FXS iPSCs

As a comprehensive profiling of transcriptome-wide m⁶A modifications in the context of FXS

remains outstanding, we next performed methylated RNA immunoprecipitation sequencing

(MeRIP-Seq) of neurons derived from six FXS patients and seven control samples (see

Methods). When comparing datasets, we identified 3,313 m⁶A-enriched genes in FXS patient-

derived neurons and 2,815 enriched genes in controls, with a widespread distribution across all

chromosomes (Figure 5A). This data set indicates a transcriptome-wide neuronal dysregulation

of m⁶A modifications in patients with FXS. Motif analysis and the distribution of m⁶A peaks

confirmed the robustness of MeRIP-Seq and m⁶A analysis, with a predominant GGAC motif

near the stop codon (Figure 5B, C). For benchmarking, we conducted MeRIP-Seq on

postmortem cortex tissues derived from FXS subjects and healthy controls (Supplemental Table

2), and validated motif analysis and m^{6}A peak distributions, (Supplemental Figure 5A-C).

Notably, we identified over 9,000 dys-methylated sites between controls and FXS neurons

(Figure 5D) and over 4,000 dys-methylated sites between control and FXS postmortem cortex

tissues (Supplemental Figure 5D), indicating transcriptome-wide m^{6}A dysregulation in cultured

FXS neurons and in brain tissues. Interestingly, the majority of genes exhibited one hyper- or

hypo-methylation site across all chromosomes (Figure 5 E, F and Supplemental Figure 5E, F).

When we conducted gene ontology (GO) analysis, we identified significant enrichment of

genes with elevated m^{6}A modifications in categories related to synaptic assembly, structure, and

function (Figure 5G and Supplemental Figure 5G). Examples include hypermethylation of genes

encoding synaptic proteins, such as SYT3 and SYT5, in exons near the stop codon and 3' UTR

(Figure 5H). Notably, genes with elevated m^{6}A modifications overlapped significantly with

previously identified FMRP target genes [38], autism-associated genes from the SFARI database,

and synapse-related genes from the SynGO database (Figure 5I-K and Supplemental Figure

5H-J). These data underscore the critical role of excessive m^{6}A tagging in FXS pathologies,

particularly synaptic defects, and its broader implications for autism-spectrum disorders.

Furthermore, the prominent overlap between hypermethylated genes and FMRP targets, as well

as autism-associated genes, was strongly linked to synapse assembly and function (Figure 5L,

M and Supplemental Figure 5K, L), reinforcing that dysregulated m^{6}A modifications and synaptic

dysfunction are central to FXS and autism-spectrum disorders.

Dysregulated synapse-related gene expression

We next performed RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) on iPSC-derived neurons from seven healthy

controls and six FXS patients (see Methods) and identified over 2,000 significantly differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) (Figure 6A). Among these, FMR1 was prominently silenced in FXS

iPSC-derived neurons (Figure 6B), consistent with full mutation status (Supplemental Table 1)

and loss of FMRP expression (Figure 1C, D). Through functional enrichment analysis, we

identified that nearly all top DEGs categories were linked to synaptic structure and function

(Figure 6C). Moreover, DEGs significantly overlapped with FMRP target genes, particularly

those associated with synapse-related categories and previously reported synapse-related

genes (Supplemental Figure 6A-C). These findings highlight gene expression alterations driving

synaptic defects in our iPSC-derived cortical neuron model. Similarly, RNA-seq analysis of

cortical postmortem tissues from three FXS patients and healthy controls identified nearly 1,500

significantly altered genes (Supplemental Figure 6D). These genes overlapped with FMRP

target and autism-associated genes from the SFARI database (Supplemental Figure 6E-I),

highlighting that dysregulated synapse-related gene expression serves as a molecular signature

of FXS.

Correlation of hypermethylation with gene downregulation and increased mRNA decay

The regulatory impact of m[6]A influences RNA fate and function, modulating various aspects of

RNA biology [23-25]. However, whether aberrant m[6]A modifications are directly linked to gene

expression changes in FXS neurons remains unclear. When we integrated the list of dys-

methylated genes (DMGs) (Figure 5) with the DEGs (Figure 6), we revealed a strong correlation

between hypermethylation and gene downregulation ("hyper-down" pattern), comprising 64.6%

of total correlations (R = -0.47, p < 3.55e-53, Chi-squared test) (Figure 6D) and indicative of a

mechanistic link between hypermethylation and reduced gene expression. Similarly, joint

analysis of aberrantly methylated genes and DEGs from FXS postmortem tissues also

demonstrated a predominant correlation between hypermethylation and gene downregulation (R

= -0.33, p-value = 1.152e-53, Chi-squared test), with a notable "hyper-down" pattern in quadrant

II (72.9% of total correlations) (Supplemental Figure 6J). These genes were significantly

enriched in synapse-related categories (Figure 6E and Supplemental Figure 6K), suggesting

that mRNA hypermethylation contributes to synaptic defects by modulating the fate of synapse-

related mRNAs, in particular accelerating mRNA decay. Indeed, when we measured mRNA

decay rates using actinomycin D treatment and gene-specific RT-qPCR (see Methods), we

observed accelerated decay of hypermethylated and downregulated synapse-related transcripts

(such as STY7) in FXS neurons (Figure 6F, G). These data suggest that hypermethylation

drives transcript degradation and gene downregulation in FXS.

m[6]A writer inhibitor rescuing synaptic and functional defects in FXS iPSC-derived

cortical neurons

Given the overall increase in m[6]A levels (Figure 4A), the association of hypermethylated m[6]A

marks with downregulated synapse-related genes (Figure 6D), and the observed increase in

RNA decay for these hypermethylated genes (Figure 6F), we hypothesized that therapeutic

intervention with an m[6]A writer inhibitor could alleviate synaptic defects in FXS neurons by

restoring normal mRNA stability of synapse-related genes. To test this hypothesis, we treated

FXS and control neurons with STM-2457, a small-molecule inhibitor targeting METTL3, the

catalytic subunit of the METTL3/14 methyltransferase complex [60]. MeRIP-qPCR (see Methods)

revealed that excessive m[6]A marks from synapse-related transcripts in FXS neurons were

reduced in the presence of STM-2457 but not DMSO (Figure 7A). Additionally, STM-2457

restored the accelerated mRNA decay of synapse-related genes such as LRRC4B in FXS iPSC-

derived neurons to control levels (Figure 7B). Notably, the two-week administration of the m^6A

writer inhibitor reduced abnormal synaptic puncta and excitatory transmission, while significantly

mitigating hyperexcitability in FXS neurons, without affecting normal neuronal function (Figure

7C-H). These findings highlight the critical role of m^6A in FXS synaptic pathology and suggest

therapeutic potential of m^6A-modulating drugs in FXS.

Discussion

In this report, we successfully generated iPSC lines from FXS patients matched with controls.

We also demonstrated that FXS iPSC-derived neurons recapitulate key aspects of FXS

pathology, including *FMR1* gene silencing, loss of FMRP, elevated synaptic protein expression,

synaptic puncta, and filopodia-like spines, alongside reduced mushroom spines, consistent with

previous related research [48]. Relative to previously reported human PSCs model of FXS [9-13], our

system is differentiated by several important features. First, beyond general synaptic

transmission defects, our model identified an excitatory/inhibitory imbalance in FXS neurons.

Secondly, we characterized a disease-related hyperexcitability and hyperconnectivity in FXS

cortical circuitry. Finally, and foremost, these cortical hyperexcitability and hyperconnectivity

features were confirmed in the same FXS subjects via analysis of their electroencephalogram

(EEG) recording. These findings confirm that cortical hyperexcitability and hyperconnectivity are

key pathophysiological signatures in FXS subjects that can be modeled in patient iPSC-derived

neuronal models, underscoring the translational potential and clinical relevance of our human

model system in uncovering disease-related mechanisms. Taken together, our work represents

the first clinically relevant human neuron model for FXS.

In the mammalian brain, m^6A modifications are prevalent mRNA modifications[23-25], known for

their roles in brain development and neuronal function [26-30]. Using our human FXS model, we

uncovered a disease-associated increase in overall levels of m^6A modifications and validated

these findings in *Fmr1* knockout mice. Our mechanistic studies revealed that the increase in

m^6A modifications is the result of translational upregulation of m^6A writers—including key

components of the METTL3/14 complex, such as METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP—due to

FMRP deficiency. These findings provide new insights into how FMRP deficiency contributes to

FXS pathology. However, the selective impact of upregulated m^6A writers on synapse-related

genes in FXS requires further investigation. Additionally, whether and how FMRP deficiency

directly regulates the expression of m^6A erasers and readers awaits future mechanistic studies.

To profile transcriptome-wide m^6A modifications, we conducted MeRIP-Seq on neurons derived

from FXS patients and postmortem cortical tissues, comparing them with control samples. We

identified several synapse-related genes with hypermethylation sites in both FXS neurons and

postmortem tissues, suggesting that m^6A dysregulation contributes to FXS-associated synaptic

pathology. Notably, expression of many hypermethylated synapse-related genes was also

downregulated, and accompanied by increased mRNA decay, indicating that m^6A-mediated

gene regulation involves modulating mRNA stability. In mice, m^6A modifications enhances

mRNA decay in neural progenitor cells to regulate normal neurodevelopment. Deficiency in m^6A

leads to premature differentiation and neurodevelopmental defects[28]. Additionally, studies in

Fmr1 knockout mice revealed that FMRP's antagonistic interaction with the m^6A reader YTHDF2

affects the stability of m^6A-marked target mRNAs [47]. Further mechanistic studies are needed to

determine whether YTHDF2 reads m^6A tags on synapse-related transcripts, accelerating their

decay in FXS, and whether other m^6A readers (e.g., YTHDF1, YTHDF3, YTHDC1, YTHDC2)

modulate other mRNA functions such as alternative splicing and translational efficiency,

contributing to FXS pathology.

In conclusion, our patient-derived iPSC model of FXS mimics clinically relevant cortical

hyperexcitability and hyperconnectivity phenotypes. As such, our model bridges the gap

between experimental models and human disease and holds paramount importance in

advancing FXS research. Specifically, we uncovered a novel m^6A-mediated epi-transcriptomic

mechanism underlying FXS, where FMRP deficiency leads to increased translation of m^6A

writers, resulting in transcriptome-wide hypermethylation. This hypermethylation, in turn,

disrupts the stability of synapse-related transcripts, contributing to FXS pathology. Notably, the

m^6A writer inhibitor, capable of reducing excessive m^6A modifications, can retore normal mRNA

decay and mitigate disease-related synaptic and neuronal defects in FXS iPSCs-derived

neurons. Given the challenges in restoring FMRP function in FXS [36,61] and the notable genetic

implications of the m^6A reader in ASD [32-35], our findings highlight the translational potential of

m^6A modifying drug as novel therapeutic treatment for FXS and ASD. In such future directions,

we envision that our FXS patient-derived iPSC model could prove useful in discovery or

preclinical candidate validation stages of therapeutic development and thereby improve success

rates in later-stage clinical trials.

Limitations of the study

Several limitations remain unresolved and restrict the broader implications of our study. First, human pluripotent stem cell-derived cortical circuitry models do not fully replicate higher-order brain functions, such as cortical oscillations, due to the absence of complex brain structures and connections. This limitation prevents *in vitro* human models from fully capturing patients' clinical phenotypes. Advanced models like human brain assembloids (e.g., cortico-striatum or cortico-thalamus assembloids) and human-mouse chimeric models (where human cortical organoids are engrafted into the cortex of immunodeficient mice) could enhance tissue organization and brain circuitry connectivity, potentially improving the modeling of higher-level brain dysfunction. Additionally, m^6A modifications are highly dynamic and cell-specific during neurodevelopment. Single-cell m^6A sequencing could enable us to track these cell-specific m^6A modifications throughout neurodevelopment, offering deeper insights into their regulatory roles in both normal cortical development and FXS pathogenesis. Lastly, only male subjects were examined in this study. Future comparisons between female and male FXS subjects could uncover sex-specific differences in m6A-mediated epi-transcriptomic dysregulation in FXS.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Synaptic malformations in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons. A. Confocal images of iPSC-derived neurons expressing neuronal markers DCX and TUJ1, cortical layer markers BRN2, CTIP2, and TBR1, and the glutamatergic neuron marker CaMKII. The scale bar is 50 µm. **B**. Quantification of neuronal, cortical layer, and glutamatergic marker expression. Values represent mean ± s.e.m (n = 3 biological repeats per condition). **C-D**. Western blot analysis and quantification of FMRP expression in iPSC-derived cortical neurons from unaffected healthy controls (UHC) and FXS subjects. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 to 5 repeats per line; ***$p < 0.001$, two-tailed t-test). **E-F**. Western blot analysis and quantification of synaptic proteins SV2 and Synapsin II expression in six-week-old UHC and FXS neurons. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 to 5 repeats per line; **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, two-tailed t-test). **G-H**. Representative images and quantification of synaptic puncta in six-week-old UHC and FXS neurons stained for the synaptic markers SV2 and Synapsin II. The scale bar is 5 µm. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 13 to 20 neurons per condition; ***$p < 0.001$, two-tailed t-test). **I-K**. Illustration of mature and immature spines, confocal images, and quantification showing an increase in the ratio of immature to mature spines in FXS iPSC-derived neurons compared to controls. Arrows point to spines. The scale bar is 5 µm. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 40 to 45 neurons per condition; ***$p < 0.001$, two-tailed t-test).

Figure 2. Aberrant synaptic transmission, E/I imbalance, and hyperexcitability in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons. A. Phase image showing a six-week-old FXS iPSC-derived neuron recorded via patch clamp. The scale bar is 50 µm. **B-D**. Defects in excitatory synaptic transmission in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons compared to control neurons. Shown are sample whole-cell voltage-clamp recording traces of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) from six-week-old neurons (**B**) and cumulative distribution plots of spontaneous EPSC intervals (**C**, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the p-value is approaching zero.) and amplitudes (**D**, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, $p < 2.2e-16$). Insets display quantifications of mean frequencies and amplitudes of spontaneous EPSCs. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 48 to 125 neurons per condition; **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, two-tailed t-test). **E-G**. Defects in inhibitory synaptic transmission in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons compared to control neurons. Shown are sample whole-cell voltage-clamp traces of spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) from six-week-old neurons (**E**, $V_m = 20$ mV), with cumulative distribution plots of spontaneous IPSC intervals (**F**, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the p-value is approaching zero.) and amplitudes (**G**, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the p-value is approaching zero.). Quantifications of mean

frequencies and amplitudes of spontaneous IPSCs are also shown. Values represent mean ±

s.e.m. (n = 40 to 58 neurons per condition; ***p < 0.001, two-tailed t-test). **H-L**. Increased

excitability in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons compared to control neurons. Sample whole-

cell current-clamp traces of evoked action potentials (APs) after a 60-pA injection in six-week-

old neurons (**H**), with quantifications of evoked AP frequency against injected current (**I**), and

threshold (**J**). Sample traces of spontaneous APs (**K**) and quantification of spontaneous AP

frequency (**L**) are also provided. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 45 to 49 neurons per

condition; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, n.s. denotes non-significant; two-tailed t-test for

threshold and spontaneous AP frequency, two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons

for evoked AP frequency against injected current).

Figure 3. Hyperexcitability and hyperconnectivity conserved between FXS iPSC model

and the same FXS subject. A. Schematic illustrating electrophysiological workflows for MEA

and EEG recordings in both FXS subjects and their derived neurons. **B-E**. Increased excitability

in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons compared to control neurons. Shown are sample MEA

recording traces of spontaneous spikes from six-week-old neurons (**B**; right panel is an enlarged

view of dashed lines in the left panel) and cumulative distribution plots of spontaneous spike

intervals (**C**, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the p-value is approaching zero.). Quantifications of

mean inter-spike interval (Inset), burst duration (**D**), and spikes per burst (**E**) are provided.

Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 cultures; ***p < 0.001, two-tailed t-test). **F-J**. Enhanced

network synchrony and hyperconnectivity in FXS iPSC-derived cortical circuitry compared to

controls. **F**. Sample traces and raster plots show array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR) across

64 electrodes over 120 seconds. Grey lines indicate network burst detection thresholds, black

boxes indicate burst duration, and color codes represent spike frequency. Quantifications of

network burst duration (**G**), active electrodes per network burst (**H**), network burst peak (**I**), and

spikes per network burst (**J**) are also shown. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 cultures;

***p < 0.001, two-tailed t-test). **K-L**. Prolonged depolarization in FXS iPSC-derived cortical

circuitry compared to controls. Shown are sample traces of MEA recording sum amplitude over

64 electrodes across 70 seconds in control and FXS cortical circuitry (**K**). Dashed lines indicate

thresholds for UP-state detection, with boxes representing UP-state duration. Quantification of

UP-state duration is also shown (**L**). Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 cultures; ***p <

0.001, two-tailed t-test). **M-N**. Cortical hyperactivity and hyperconnectivity in FXS patients.

Quantification of absolute power spectral density (PSD) across different frequency bands from

EEG data of four typically developing control (TDC) and FXS subjects (**M**). FOOOF (Fitting

Oscillations and One-Over-F) plot shows a steeper slope in FXS patients compared to TDC

subjects (**N**).

Figure 4. FMRP binding to mRNAs encoding m^{6}A writers and the impact of FMRP

deficiency on writer expression. A. Elevated m^{6}A levels in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons

compared to controls. Shown are dot blot assay results for polyA$^+$ RNA m^{6}A levels, with

quantification of m^{6}A intensity in FXS iPSC-derived neurons relative to controls, normalized to

methylene blue. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 4 cultures; **p < 0.01; two-tailed t-test). **B**.

Transcriptional expression analysis revealing no significant change of METTL3, METTL14, and

WTAP transcripts between control and FXS iPSCs-derived neurons. Values represent mean ±

s.e.m. (n = 7 control and 6 FXS samples; n.s. denotes non-significant; two-tailed t-test). **C-D**.

Western blot analysis and quantification of METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP protein levels.

Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 4 cultures; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01; two-tailed t-test). **E-F**.

FMRP binds to mRNAs encoding m^{6}A writers in HEK293T cells. Western blot of flag

immunoprecipitation with flag-tagged mCherry–FMRP and flag-tagged mCherry, along with their

input samples (**E**). Detection was performed with FMRP and GAPDH antibodies. RT-PCR

quantification of GAPDH, METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP mRNA enrichment in pulldown

samples (**F**) shows FMRP binding to METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP but not GAPDH mRNAs.

Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = three biological replicates; ***p < 0.001, n.s. denotes non-

significant; two-tailed t-test). **G**. RT-PCR quantification of METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP

mRNAs in translationally active heavy polysome fractions from FXS iPSC-derived neurons

versus controls. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biological replicates; *p < 0.05, **p <

0.01; two-tailed test). **H**. Polysome profiles demonstrated a profound increase of global

translation, as indicated with a 23.5% increase in the ratio of heavy polysomes to monosomes

fractions (insert).

Figure 5. Transcriptome-wide m^{6}A dysregulation in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons. A-

C. Transcriptome-wide profiling of m^{6}A in 6-week-old neurons from healthy controls and FXS

patients. **A**. Metagene plot showing the distribution of m^{6}A peaks across human chromosomes.

B. Sequence logo illustrating the top enriched motif in m^{6}A peaks (p-value = 10^{-28}). **C**.

Distribution of m^{6}A methylation along transcripts, divided into 5′ UTR, CDS, and 3′ UTR. **D**.

Volcano plot depicting MeRIP-seq data for m^{6}A peaks differentially methylated between FXS

and control groups (n = 7 healthy controls, 6 FXS samples; adjusted p-value < 0.05; blue and

red dots represent significant hypo- and hyper-methylated sites). **E-F**. Histogram showing the

distribution of hyper- and hypo-methylated sites per gene (**E**) and per chromosome length

across human chromosomes (**F**; blue and red boxes indicate hypo- and hyper-methylated sites).

G. Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of differentially methylated genes (DMGs) between FXS iPSC-

derived neurons and controls, revealing the top 15 enriched cellular component (CC) and

biological process (BP) terms. The color represents the adjusted p-value, and the size

represents the gene ratio (percentage of DMGs in each GO term). **H**. Integrative Genomics

Viewer (IGV) tracks displaying MeRIP-seq read distribution for SYT3 and SYT5 mRNAs. **I-K**.

Venn diagrams showing overlap between hypermethylated transcripts and FMRP target

transcripts (**I**), SFARI ASD genes (**J**), and reported synapse-related genes (**K**), along with

representation factors and p-values. **L-M**. GO term analysis of genes overlapping between

hypermethylated transcripts and FMRP targets (**L**), as well as genes overlapping with SAFRI

ASD genes (**M**).

Figure 6. Correlation of hypermethylation with gene downregulation and increased mRNA

decay in synapse-related genes. A. Volcano plot displaying differential gene expression

between FXS iPSC-derived neurons and controls (n = 7 healthy controls, 6 FXS samples; fold

change > 1.4, p-value < 0.05; blue and red dots represent significantly down- and up-regulated

genes, respectively). **B**. Transcriptional expression analysis revealing significant abundant

FMR1 transcripts in control but not FXS iPSCs-derived neurons. Values are shown as mean ±

s.e.m. (n = 7 control, 6 FXS samples; *** p < 0.001; two-tailed t-test). **C**. Gene Ontology (GO)

term analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between FXS iPSC-derived neurons and

controls, showing the top 15 enrichment terms for cellular component (CC) and molecular

function (MF). The color indicates the adjusted P-value, and the size indicates the gene ratio

(percentage of total DEGs in each GO term). **D**. Conjoint analysis reveals a strong negative

correlation between m^6A modifications and gene expression levels (R = -0.47, p-value = 3.55e-

53, Chi-squared test), with a predominant hyper-down pattern in quadrant II (64.6% of total

correlations, indicating hyper-methylation paired with gene downregulation). **E**. GO term

analysis of hyper-methylated and downregulated transcripts. **F**. mRNA stability assay in FXS

iPSC-derived neurons and controls. RNA was isolated at designated time points following

actinomycin D treatment, and the stability of STY7 mRNAs was assessed by RT-qPCR (n = 3;

*** p < 0.001; two-tailed t-test).**G**. IGV tracks showing MeRIP-seq and RNA-seq read distribution

for STY7 mRNAs.

Figure 7. Restoration of synaptic and neuronal functions in FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons. A. MeRIP-qPCR analysis showing relative enrichment of m^6A modifications on synapse-related mRNAs in control and FXS iPSC-derived cortical neurons, with and without STM-2457 treatment. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 4 biological replicates; *p < 0.05, ***p < 0.001, n.s. denotes non-significant; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons.). **B**. mRNA stability assay in FXS iPSC-derived neurons and controls, with and without STM-2457 treatment. RNA was isolated at specified time points after actinomycin D treatment, and the stability of LRRC4B mRNAs was assessed via RT-qPCR. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 biological replicates; ***p < 0.001, n.s. denotes non-significant, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons.). **C-D**. Representative images and quantification of six-week-old control and FXS neurons, with and without STM-2457 treatment, stained for the synaptic marker Synapsin II. The scale bar is 5 µm. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n =10 to 20 neurons per condition; ***p < 0.001, n.s. denotes non-significant; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons). **E-F**. Sample whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) in six-week-old neurons, with and without STM-2457 treatment (**E**), and quantification of mean spontaneous EPSC frequencies (**F**). Values are presented as mean ± s.e.m. (n = 6 to 10 neurons per condition; ***p < 0.001, n.s. denotes non-significant; one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons). **G-H**. Whole-cell current-clamp recordings of evoked action potentials (APs) (**G**), and their quantification (**H**). Values are presented as mean ± s.e.m. (n = 5 to 8 neurons per condition; *p < 0.05, n.s. denotes non-significant; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

Supplemental Figure legends

Supplemental Figure 1. Modeling FXS using patient-derived iPSCs. A. Electropherogram of Asuragen test results showing 29 CGG repeats in UHC-5 and a full mutation with over 200 CGG repeats in FXS-5 iPSC lines. **B**. Confocal images of iPSC-derived neural progenitors expressing markers such as Nestin, Sox2, ZO1, FOXG1, PAX6, and OTX2. The scale bar is 50 µm. **C**. Quantification of neural progenitor marker expression. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 5 to 76 neurons per condition). **D-L**. Semi-automated Sholl analysis reveals no significant differences in neurite parameters between FXS patient-derived cortical neurons and control neurons. Shown are representative images of GFP-labeled FXS and control neurons (**D**), a schematic of neurite analysis (**E**), and quantification of neurite parameters including number of sections (**F**), total neurite length (**G**), terminal points (**H**), branch points (**I**), maximum section

length (**J**), minimum section length (**K**), and mean section length (**L**). The scale bar is 50 µm.
Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 30 to 169 neurons per condition; n.s. denotes non-significance; two-tailed t-test).

Supplemental Figure 2. Sodium and potassium channel activity. A-B. Quantification of evoked action potential (AP) amplitude (**A**) and rheobase (**B**). Values are presented as mean ± s.e.m. (n = 43 to 92 neurons per condition; n.s. denotes non-significance; two-tailed t-test). **C-E**. Sample whole-cell voltage-clamp recording traces of sodium and potassium channel activity (**C**), along with quantification of sodium (**D**) and potassium (**E**) currents. Values are presented as mean ± s.e.m. (n = 56 to 107 neurons per condition; n.s. denotes non-significance; two-tailed t-test).

Supplemental Figure 3. MEA and EEG recordings. A. Sample bright-field images of human cortical neuron cultures at 6 weeks post-neuronal differentiation. The scale bar is 50 µm. **B-C**. Increased waveforms detected per electrode by automatic spiking sorting in FXS cortical microcircuitry compared to controls. Shown are sample waveforms for electrode 6 and 26 in control and FXS iPSCs-derived cortical microcircuitry (**B**). Quantification of waveforms per channel is also presented (**C**). Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 3 cultures; ***p < 0.001; two-tailed t-test). **D**. Power spectral density (PSD) traces across different frequency bands from four typically developing control (TDC) and FXS subjects' EEG data. Numbers indicate TDC and FXS experimental IDs.

Supplemental Figure 4. Elevated m^{6}A levels associated with increased m^{6}A writer expression in *Fmr1* knockout mice. A. Increased m^{6}A levels in *Fmr1* knockout mice compared to wild type (WT) mice. Shown are dot blot assays of polyA$^+$ RNA m^{6}A levels and quantification of m^{6}A intensity in *Fmr1* knockout neurons relative to WT, normalized to methylene blue (n = 4 samples; ***p < 0.001; two-tailed t-test). **B**. Transcriptional expression analysis revealing no significant change of METTL3, METTL14, and WTAP transcripts from RNA sequencing between WT and *Fmr1* knockout mice. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 2 wild type and 2 *Fmr1* knockout mice; n.s. denotes non-significance; two-tailed t-test). **C-D**. Western blot analysis and quantification of FMRP, METTL3, and WTAP protein levels. Values represent mean ± s.e.m. (n = 4 samples; ***p < 0.001; two-tailed t-test).

Supplemental Figure 5. Transcriptome-wide m⁶A dysregulation in postmortem brain

tissues from FXS subjects. A-C. Transcriptome-wide m⁶A profiling in postmortem brain tissue

(Brodmann area 44) derived from FXS subjects and healthy controls. **A**. Metagene plot showing

m⁶A peak distribution across human chromosomes. **B**. Sequence logo depicting the top

enriched motif in m⁶A peaks (p value = 10^{-4}). **C**. Distribution of m⁶A methylation across

transcripts, with each transcript divided into 5′ UTR, CDS, and 3′ UTR. **D**. Volcano plot

displaying MeRIP-seq data of differentially methylated m⁶A peaks between FXS and control

groups (n = 3 healthy controls and 3 FXS samples; adjusted p-value < 0.01; blue and red dots

indicate significant hypo- and hyper-methylated sites, respectively). **E-F**. Histogram illustrating

the distribution of hypo- and hyper-methylated sites per gene (**E**) and per chromosome length

(**F**), with blue and red boxes indicating hypo- and hyper-methylated sites, respectively. **G**. Gene

Ontology (GO) term analysis of differentially methylated genes (DMGs) between FXS subjects

and controls, showing top 15 enrichment terms for cellular component (CC) and biological

process (BP). The color represents the adjusted P-value, and the size of the shape represents

the gene ratio (percentage of total DMGs in the given GO term). **H-J**. Venn diagrams showing

the overlap between hypermethylated transcripts and FMRP target transcripts (**H**), SFARI ASD

genes (**I**), and reported synapse-related genes (**J**), along with representation factors and p-

values. **K-L**. GO term analysis of overlapped genes between hypermethylated transcripts and

FMRP target transcripts (**K**) and between hypermethylated transcripts and SFARI ASD genes

(**L**).

Supplemental Figure 6. Correlation of hypermethylation with gene downregulation in

postmortem brain tissues from FXS subjects. A. Venn diagram, drawn to scale, shows the

overlap between differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in FXS iPSCs-derived neurons and

controls, and FMRP target transcripts, with representation factor and P-value. **B**. Gene Ontology

(GO) term analysis of overlapped genes between hypermethylated transcripts and FMRP target

transcripts reveals the top 15 enriched terms for cellular component (CC) and biological process

(BP). The color represents the adjusted p-value, and the size represents the gene ratio,

indicating the percentage of total DMGs within each GO term. **C**. Venn diagram shows the

overlap between DEGs and reported synaptic genes, with representation factor and P-value. **D**.

Volcano plot illustrating differential gene expression analysis in postmortem brain tissue

(Brodmann area 44) from FXS subjects versus healthy controls (n = 3 healthy controls and 3

FXS samples; fold change > 1.4, p-value < 0.05; blue and red dots represent significantly down-

and up-regulated genes, respectively). **E-F**. Venn diagrams show the overlap between DEGs

from postmortem tissues and FMRP target transcripts (**E**) and SFARI ASD genes (**F**), along with

representation factors and P-values. **G-H**. GO term analysis of overlapped genes between

DEGs and FMRP target transcripts (**G**), as well as DEGs and SFARI ASD genes (**H**), revealing

the top 15 enriched terms for cellular component (CC), biological process (BP), and molecular

function (MF). **I**. Venn diagram illustrating the overlap between DEGs from postmortem tissues

and reported synaptic genes, with the representation factor and P-value. **J**. Conjoint analysis

shows a strong negative correlation between m^6A modifications and gene expression levels

from postmortem brain tissues (R = -0.33, p-value = 1.152e-53, Chi-squared test), with a

notable hyper-down pattern in quadrant II (hyper-methylation paired with gene downregulation,

72.9% of total correlations). **K**. GO term analysis of transcripts with hyper-methylation paired

with gene downregulation.

Reference

1.   Bear, M.F., Huber, K.M., and Warren, S.T. (2004). The mGluR theory of fragile X mental
retardation. Trends Neurosci *27*, 370-377. 10.1016/j.tins.2004.04.009.
2.   Dolen, G., and Bear, M.F. (2008). Role for metabotropic glutamate receptor 5 (mGluR5)
in the pathogenesis of fragile X syndrome. J Physiol *586*, 1503-1508.
10.1113/jphysiol.2008.150722.
3.   Nelson, S.B., and Valakh, V. (2015). Excitatory/Inhibitory Balance and Circuit Homeostasis
in Autism Spectrum Disorders. Neuron *87*, 684-698. 10.1016/j.neuron.2015.07.033.
4.   Gibson, J.R., Bartley, A.F., Hays, S.A., and Huber, K.M. (2008). Imbalance of neocortical
excitation and inhibition and altered UP states reflect network hyperexcitability in the
mouse model of fragile X syndrome. J Neurophysiol *100*, 2615-2626.
10.1152/jn.90752.2008.
5.   Gao, R., and Penzes, P. (2015). Common mechanisms of excitatory and inhibitory
imbalance in schizophrenia and autism spectrum disorders. Curr Mol Med *15*, 146-167.
10.2174/1566524015666150303003028.
6.   Contractor, A., Klyachko, V.A., and Portera-Cailliau, C. (2015). Altered Neuronal and
Circuit Excitability in Fragile X Syndrome. Neuron *87*, 699-715.
10.1016/j.neuron.2015.06.017.
7.   Berry-Kravis, E.M., Lindemann, L., Jonch, A.E., Apostol, G., Bear, M.F., Carpenter, R.L.,
Crawley, J.N., Curie, A., Des Portes, V., Hossain, F., et al. (2018). Drug development for
neurodevelopmental disorders: lessons learned from fragile X syndrome. Nat Rev Drug
Discov *17*, 280-299. 10.1038/nrd.2017.221.
8.   Erickson, C.A., Davenport, M.H., Schaefer, T.L., Wink, L.K., Pedapati, E.V., Sweeney, J.A.,
Fitzpatrick, S.E., Brown, W.T., Budimirovic, D., Hagerman, R.J., et al. (2017). Fragile X
targeted pharmacotherapy: lessons learned and future directions. J Neurodev Disord *9*,
7. 10.1186/s11689-017-9186-9.
9.   Liu, X.S., Wu, H., Krzisch, M., Wu, X., Graef, J., Muffat, J., Hnisz, D., Li, C.H., Yuan, B., Xu,
C., et al. (2018). Rescue of Fragile X Syndrome Neurons by DNA Methylation Editing of
the FMR1 Gene. Cell *172*, 979-992 e976. 10.1016/j.cell.2018.01.012.
10.   Achuta, V.S., Moykkynen, T., Peteri, U.K., Turconi, G., Rivera, C., Keinanen, K., and
Castren, M.L. (2018). Functional changes of AMPA responses in human induced
pluripotent stem cell-derived neural progenitors in fragile X syndrome. Sci Signal *11*.
10.1126/scisignal.aan8784.
11.   Zhang, Z., Marro, S.G., Zhang, Y., Arendt, K.L., Patzke, C., Zhou, B., Fair, T., Yang, N.,
Sudhof, T.C., Wernig, M., and Chen, L. (2018). The fragile X mutation impairs homeostatic
plasticity in human neurons by blocking synaptic retinoic acid signaling. Sci Transl Med
10. 10.1126/scitranslmed.aar4338.
12.   Raj, N., McEachin, Z.T., Harousseau, W., Zhou, Y., Zhang, F., Merritt-Garza, M.E.,
Taliaferro, J.M., Kalinowska, M., Marro, S.G., Hales, C.M., et al. (2021). Cell-type-specific
profiling of human cellular models of fragile X syndrome reveal PI3K-dependent defects
in translation and neurogenesis. Cell Rep *35*, 108991. 10.1016/j.celrep.2021.108991.
13.   Kang, Y., Zhou, Y., Li, Y., Han, Y., Xu, J., Niu, W., Li, Z., Liu, S., Feng, H., Huang, W., et al.
(2021). A human forebrain organoid model of fragile X syndrome exhibits altered

neurogenesis and highlights new treatment strategies. Nat Neurosci *24*, 1377-1391.
10.1038/s41593-021-00913-6.

14. Sharma, S.D., Reddy, B.K., Pal, R., Ritakari, T.E., Cooper, J.D., Selvaraj, B.T., Kind, P.C.,
Chandran, S., Wyllie, D.J.A., and Chattarji, S. (2023). Astrocytes mediate cell non-
autonomous correction of aberrant firing in human FXS neurons. Cell Rep *42*, 112344.
10.1016/j.celrep.2023.112344.

15. Geula, S., Moshitch-Moshkovitz, S., Dominissini, D., Mansour, A.A., Kol, N., Salmon-
Divon, M., Hershkovitz, V., Peer, E., Mor, N., Manor, Y.S., et al. (2015). Stem cells. m6A
mRNA methylation facilitates resolution of naive pluripotency toward differentiation.
Science *347*, 1002-1006. 10.1126/science.1261417.

16. Liu, J., Yue, Y., Han, D., Wang, X., Fu, Y., Zhang, L., Jia, G., Yu, M., Lu, Z., Deng, X., et al.
(2014). A METTL3-METTL14 complex mediates mammalian nuclear RNA N6-adenosine
methylation. Nat Chem Biol *10*, 93-95. 10.1038/nchembio.1432.

17. Ping, X.L., Sun, B.F., Wang, L., Xiao, W., Yang, X., Wang, W.J., Adhikari, S., Shi, Y., Lv, Y.,
Chen, Y.S., et al. (2014). Mammalian WTAP is a regulatory subunit of the RNA N6-
methyladenosine methyltransferase. Cell Res *24*, 177-189. 10.1038/cr.2014.3.

18. Horiuchi, K., Kawamura, T., Iwanari, H., Ohashi, R., Naito, M., Kodama, T., and Hamakubo,
T. (2013). Identification of Wilms' tumor 1-associating protein complex and its role in
alternative splicing and the cell cycle. J Biol Chem *288*, 33292-33302.
10.1074/jbc.M113.500397.

19. Patil, D.P., Chen, C.K., Pickering, B.F., Chow, A., Jackson, C., Guttman, M., and Jaffrey, S.R.
(2016). m(6)A RNA methylation promotes XIST-mediated transcriptional repression.
Nature *537*, 369-373. 10.1038/nature19342.

20. Yang, Y., Hsu, P.J., Chen, Y.S., and Yang, Y.G. (2018). Dynamic transcriptomic m(6)A
decoration: writers, erasers, readers and functions in RNA metabolism. Cell Res *28*, 616-
624. 10.1038/s41422-018-0040-8.

21. Jia, G., Fu, Y., Zhao, X., Dai, Q., Zheng, G., Yang, Y., Yi, C., Lindahl, T., Pan, T., Yang, Y.G.,
and He, C. (2011). N6-methyladenosine in nuclear RNA is a major substrate of the
obesity-associated FTO. Nat Chem Biol *7*, 885-887. 10.1038/nchembio.687.

22. Zheng, G., Dahl, J.A., Niu, Y., Fedorcsak, P., Huang, C.M., Li, C.J., Vagbo, C.B., Shi, Y.,
Wang, W.L., Song, S.H., et al. (2013). ALKBH5 is a mammalian RNA demethylase that
impacts RNA metabolism and mouse fertility. Mol Cell *49*, 18-29.
10.1016/j.molcel.2012.10.015.

23. Jiang, X., Liu, B., Nie, Z., Duan, L., Xiong, Q., Jin, Z., Yang, C., and Chen, Y. (2021). The role
of m6A modification in the biological functions and diseases. Signal Transduct Target
Ther *6*, 74. 10.1038/s41392-020-00450-x.

24. He, P.C., and He, C. (2021). m(6) A RNA methylation: from mechanisms to therapeutic
potential. EMBO J *40*, e105977. 10.15252/embj.2020105977.

25. Yue, Y., Liu, J., and He, C. (2015). RNA N6-methyladenosine methylation in post-
transcriptional gene expression regulation. Genes Dev *29*, 1343-1355.
10.1101/gad.262766.115.

26. Weng, Y.L., Wang, X., An, R., Cassin, J., Vissers, C., Liu, Y., Liu, Y., Xu, T., Wang, X., Wong,
S.Z.H., et al. (2018). Epitranscriptomic m(6)A Regulation of Axon Regeneration in the

723   Adult Mammalian Nervous System. Neuron *97*, 313-325 e316.
724   10.1016/j.neuron.2017.12.036.
725   27.   Xu, H., Dzhashiashvili, Y., Shah, A., Kunjamma, R.B., Weng, Y.L., Elbaz, B., Fei, Q., Jones,
726   J.S., Li, Y.I., Zhuang, X., et al. (2020). m(6)A mRNA Methylation Is Essential for
727   Oligodendrocyte Maturation and CNS Myelination. Neuron *105*, 293-309 e295.
728   10.1016/j.neuron.2019.12.013.
729   28.   Yoon, K.J., Ringeling, F.R., Vissers, C., Jacob, F., Pokrass, M., Jimenez-Cyrus, D., Su, Y., Kim,
730   N.S., Zhu, Y., Zheng, L., et al. (2017). Temporal Control of Mammalian Cortical
731   Neurogenesis by m(6)A Methylation. Cell *171*, 877-889 e817. 10.1016/j.cell.2017.09.003.
732   29.   Livneh, I., Moshitch-Moshkovitz, S., Amariglio, N., Rechavi, G., and Dominissini, D.
733   (2020). The m(6)A epitranscriptome: transcriptome plasticity in brain development and
734   function. Nat Rev Neurosci *21*, 36-51. 10.1038/s41583-019-0244-z.
735   30.   Shi, H., Zhang, X., Weng, Y.L., Lu, Z., Liu, Y., Lu, Z., Li, J., Hao, P., Zhang, Y., Zhang, F., et al.
736   (2018). m(6)A facilitates hippocampus-dependent learning and memory through
737   YTHDF1. Nature *563*, 249-253. 10.1038/s41586-018-0666-1.
738   31.   Engel, M., Eggert, C., Kaplick, P.M., Eder, M., Roh, S., Tietze, L., Namendorf, C., Arloth, J.,
739   Weber, P., Rex-Haffner, M., et al. (2018). The Role of m(6)A/m-RNA Methylation in Stress
740   Response Regulation. Neuron *99*, 389-403 e389. 10.1016/j.neuron.2018.07.009.
741   32.   O'Roak, B.J., Vives, L., Girirajan, S., Karakoc, E., Krumm, N., Coe, B.P., Levy, R., Ko, A., Lee,
742   C., Smith, J.D., et al. (2012). Sporadic autism exomes reveal a highly interconnected
743   protein network of de novo mutations. Nature *485*, 246-250. 10.1038/nature10989.
744   33.   Iossifov, I., Levy, D., Allen, J., Ye, K., Ronemus, M., Lee, Y.H., Yamrom, B., and Wigler, M.
745   (2015). Low load for disruptive mutations in autism genes and their biased transmission.
746   Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *112*, E5600-5607. 10.1073/pnas.1516376112.
747   34.   De Rubeis, S., He, X., Goldberg, A.P., Poultney, C.S., Samocha, K., Cicek, A.E., Kou, Y., Liu,
748   L., Fromer, M., Walker, S., et al. (2014). Synaptic, transcriptional and chromatin genes
749   disrupted in autism. Nature *515*, 209-215. 10.1038/nature13772.
750   35.   Zhou, X., Feliciano, P., Shu, C., Wang, T., Astrovskaya, I., Hall, J.B., Obiajulu, J.U., Wright,
751   J.R., Murali, S.C., Xu, S.X., et al. (2022). Integrating de novo and inherited variants in
752   42,607 autism cases identifies mutations in new moderate-risk genes. Nat Genet *54*,
753   1305-1319. 10.1038/s41588-022-01148-2.
754   36.   Richter, J.D., and Zhao, X. (2021). The molecular biology of FMRP: new insights into
755   fragile X syndrome. Nat Rev Neurosci *22*, 209-222. 10.1038/s41583-021-00432-0.
756   37.   Darnell, J.C., and Klann, E. (2013). The translation of translational control by FMRP:
757   therapeutic targets for FXS. Nat Neurosci *16*, 1530-1536. 10.1038/nn.3379.
758   38.   Darnell, J.C., Van Driesche, S.J., Zhang, C., Hung, K.Y., Mele, A., Fraser, C.E., Stone, E.F.,
759   Chen, C., Fak, J.J., Chi, S.W., et al. (2011). FMRP stalls ribosomal translocation on mRNAs
760   linked to synaptic function and autism. Cell *146*, 247-261. 10.1016/j.cell.2011.06.013.
761   39.   Zalfa, F., Giorgi, M., Primerano, B., Moro, A., Di Penta, A., Reis, S., Oostra, B., and Bagni,
762   C. (2003). The fragile X syndrome protein FMRP associates with BC1 RNA and regulates
763   the translation of specific mRNAs at synapses. Cell *112*, 317-327. 10.1016/s0092-
764   8674(03)00079-5.
765   40.   Edupuganti, R.R., Geiger, S., Lindeboom, R.G.H., Shi, H., Hsu, P.J., Lu, Z., Wang, S.Y.,
766   Baltissen, M.P.A., Jansen, P., Rossa, M., et al. (2017). N(6)-methyladenosine (m(6)A)

recruits and repels proteins to regulate mRNA homeostasis. Nat Struct Mol Biol *24*, 870-
878. 10.1038/nsmb.3462.

41. Chang, M., Lv, H., Zhang, W., Ma, C., He, X., Zhao, S., Zhang, Z.W., Zeng, Y.X., Song, S., Niu,
Y., and Tong, W.M. (2017). Region-specific RNA m(6)A methylation represents a new
layer of control in the gene regulatory network in the mouse brain. Open Biol *7*.
10.1098/rsob.170166.

42. Arguello, A.E., DeLiberto, A.N., and Kleiner, R.E. (2017). RNA Chemical Proteomics
Reveals the N(6)-Methyladenosine (m(6)A)-Regulated Protein-RNA Interactome. J Am
Chem Soc *139*, 17249-17252. 10.1021/jacs.7b09213.

43. Edens, B.M., Vissers, C., Su, J., Arumugam, S., Xu, Z., Shi, H., Miller, N., Rojas Ringeling, F.,
Ming, G.L., He, C., et al. (2019). FMRP Modulates Neural Differentiation through m(6)A-
Dependent mRNA Nuclear Export. Cell Rep *28*, 845-854 e845.
10.1016/j.celrep.2019.06.072.

44. Hsu, P.J., Shi, H., Zhu, A.C., Lu, Z., Miller, N., Edens, B.M., Ma, Y.C., and He, C. (2019). The
RNA-binding protein FMRP facilitates the nuclear export of N(6)-methyladenosine-
containing mRNAs. J Biol Chem *294*, 19889-19895. 10.1074/jbc.AC119.010078.

45. Zou, Z., Wei, J., Chen, Y., Kang, Y., Shi, H., Yang, F., Shi, Z., Chen, S., Zhou, Y., Sepich-Poore,
C., et al. (2023). FMRP phosphorylation modulates neuronal translation through YTHDF1.
Mol Cell *83*, 4304-4317 e4308. 10.1016/j.molcel.2023.10.028.

46. Worpenberg, L., Paolantoni, C., Longhi, S., Mulorz, M.M., Lence, T., Wessels, H.H., Dassi,
E., Aiello, G., Sutandy, F.X.R., Scheibe, M., et al. (2021). Ythdf is a N6-methyladenosine
reader that modulates Fmr1 target mRNA selection and restricts axonal growth in
Drosophila. EMBO J *40*, e104975. 10.15252/embj.2020104975.

47. Zhang, F., Kang, Y., Wang, M., Li, Y., Xu, T., Yang, W., Song, H., Wu, H., Shu, Q., and Jin, P.
(2018). Fragile X mental retardation protein modulates the stability of its m6A-marked
messenger RNA targets. Hum Mol Genet *27*, 3936-3950. 10.1093/hmg/ddy292.

48. Bagni, C., and Zukin, R.S. (2019). A Synaptic Perspective of Fragile X Syndrome and
Autism Spectrum Disorders. Neuron *101*, 1070-1088. 10.1016/j.neuron.2019.02.041.

49. Zhang, A., Sokolova, I., Domissy, A., Davis, J., Rao, L., Hana Utami, K., Wang, Y.,
Hagerman, R.J., Pouladi, M.A., Sanna, P., et al. (2022). Maturation Delay of Human
GABAergic Neurogenesis in Fragile X Syndrome Pluripotent Stem Cells. Stem Cells Transl
Med *11*, 613-629. 10.1093/stcltm/szac022.

50. Das Sharma, S., Pal, R., Reddy, B.K., Selvaraj, B.T., Raj, N., Samaga, K.K., Srinivasan, D.J.,
Ornelas, L., Sareen, D., Livesey, M.R., et al. (2020). Cortical neurons derived from human
pluripotent stem cells lacking FMRP display altered spontaneous firing patterns. Mol
Autism *11*, 52. 10.1186/s13229-020-00351-4.

51. Pfeiffer, B.E., and Huber, K.M. (2009). The state of synapses in fragile X syndrome.
Neuroscientist *15*, 549-567. 10.1177/1073858409333075.

52. Pedapati, E.V., Schmitt, L.M., Ethridge, L.E., Miyakoshi, M., Sweeney, J.A., Liu, R., Smith,
E., Shaffer, R.C., Dominick, K.C., Gilbert, D.L., et al. (2022). Neocortical localization and
thalamocortical modulation of neuronal hyperexcitability contribute to Fragile X
Syndrome. Commun Biol *5*, 442. 10.1038/s42003-022-03395-9.

53.   Smith, E.G., Pedapati, E.V., Liu, R., Schmitt, L.M., Dominick, K.C., Shaffer, R.C., Sweeney,
J.A., and Erickson, C.A. (2021). Sex differences in resting EEG power in Fragile X
Syndrome. J Psychiatr Res *138*, 89-95. 10.1016/j.jpsychires.2021.03.057.
54.   Schmitt, L.M., Li, J., Liu, R., Horn, P.S., Sweeney, J.A., Erickson, C.A., and Pedapati, E.V.
(2022). Altered frontal connectivity as a mechanism for executive function deficits in
fragile X syndrome. Mol Autism *13*, 47. 10.1186/s13229-022-00527-0.
55.   Ethridge, L.E., White, S.P., Mosconi, M.W., Wang, J., Pedapati, E.V., Erickson, C.A., Byerly,
M.J., and Sweeney, J.A. (2017). Neural synchronization deficits linked to cortical hyper-
excitability and auditory hypersensitivity in fragile X syndrome. Mol Autism *8*, 22.
10.1186/s13229-017-0140-1.
56.   Gerster, M., Waterstraat, G., Litvak, V., Lehnertz, K., Schnitzler, A., Florin, E., Curio, G.,
and Nikulin, V. (2022). Separating Neural Oscillations from Aperiodic 1/f Activity:
Challenges and Recommendations. Neuroinformatics *20*, 991-1012. 10.1007/s12021-
022-09581-8.
57.   Donoghue, T., Haller, M., Peterson, E.J., Varma, P., Sebastian, P., Gao, R., Noto, T., Lara,
A.H., Wallis, J.D., Knight, R.T., et al. (2020). Parameterizing neural power spectra into
periodic and aperiodic components. Nat Neurosci *23*, 1655-1665. 10.1038/s41593-020-
00744-x.
58.   Gross, C., Nakamoto, M., Yao, X., Chan, C.B., Yim, S.Y., Ye, K., Warren, S.T., and Bassell,
G.J. (2010). Excess phosphoinositide 3-kinase subunit synthesis and activity as a novel
therapeutic target in fragile X syndrome. J Neurosci *30*, 10624-10638.
10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0402-10.2010.
59.   Cao, Y., Ye, Q., Ma, M., and She, Q.B. (2023). Enhanced bypass of PD-L1 translation
reduces the therapeutic response to mTOR kinase inhibitors. Cell Rep *42*, 112764.
10.1016/j.celrep.2023.112764.
60.   Yankova, E., Blackaby, W., Albertella, M., Rak, J., De Braekeleer, E., Tsagkogeorga, G.,
Pilka, E.S., Aspris, D., Leggate, D., Hendrick, A.G., et al. (2021). Small-molecule inhibition
of METTL3 as a strategy against myeloid leukaemia. Nature *593*, 597-601.
10.1038/s41586-021-03536-w.
61.   Richter, J.D., Bassell, G.J., and Klann, E. (2015). Dysregulation and restoration of
translational homeostasis in fragile X syndrome. Nat Rev Neurosci *16*, 595-605.
10.1038/nrn4001.
841

Acknowledgements: We would like to thank to the members of Guo Laboratory, Dr. Chuan He,

as well as Drs. Aaron Zorn, James Well, and Kenneth Campbell, for their valuable comments

and suggestions. We also thank Dr. Andrew Volk for providing the WTAP antibody. This study

has received support from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) grants (R21NS122169 and

R21MH132038), the Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center (CCHMC) Trustee Grant

Award, and the Local Initiative for Excellence Foundation to Dr. Ziyuan Guo. The NIH grant

R01NS115507 and Department of Veteran Affairs grants I01BX002149 and IK6BX006316 to Dr.

Haining Zhu are acknowledged. We would also like to express our gratitude to NIH

NeuroBioBank for providing human postmortem brain tissues.

Author Contributions: Author Contributions: L.L. led and was involved in every aspect of the

project. A.S. conducted whole-cell patch-clamp recording and analysis. L.D., X.C., and J.T.

contributed to cell cultures and immunostaining. J.L., M.M., and E.P. conducted EEG analysis.

C.M., P.T., and H.Z. performed polysome profiling analysis. G.Y., A.L., and C.W made

contributions to data analysis. C.W., L.S., and C.E. provided clinical samples and data. M.C.

and M.S. carried out Asuragen testing. Y.Z. contributed to MEA analysis. Y.L. and N.S. made

contributions to MeRIP sequencing and RNA sequencing analysis. X.W., L.Z., and D.L.

contributed to experimental design. C.G. made contributions to immunoprecipitation

experiments and provide *Fmr1* knockout brains. Z.G. conceptualized and designed the project

and wrote the manuscript.

Author information: MeRIP sequencing and RNA sequencing data were deposit at GEO.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be address to Z.G.

(Ziyuan.Guo@cchmc.org).

Methods

Participants.

Seven male participants with a full mutation in the *FMR1* gene were recruited through the Cincinnati Fragile X Research and Treatment Center. Fragile X status was confirmed by southern blotting and PCR analysis completed at Rush University. Five male typically developing control (TDC) were recruited through web-based fliers from the local community and had no prior diagnosis or treatment for developmental or neuropsychiatric disorders. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants or their legal guardians, with verbal assent provided when appropriate. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center (CCHMC) and was conducted in accordance with all relevant guidelines and regulations, including the Declaration of Helsinki.

Deviation intelligence quotient (IQ) scores, including full-scale IQ (FSIQ), non-verbal IQ (NVIQ), and verbal IQ (VIQ), were assessed using the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scales, 5th Edition, with adjustments made to account for floor effects commonly seen in individuals with developmental disabilities [1].

Whole blood samples were collected from participants for various analyses: one set was used for peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) isolation and FXS induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) generation which will be detailed in the subsequent section, another for FMRP quantification using an optimized Luminex assay as described by Boggs *et al.* [2], and a third for *FMR1* mRNA detection via a sensitive RT-qPCR assay as previously described [3].

Generation and culture of iPSC lines.

PBMC were isolated from one set of whole blood samples using SepMate™-50 tubes (StemCell Technologies) with Lymphoprep™ Density Gradient Medium (StemCell Technologies) through density-gradient centrifugation. A total of 500,000 PBMCs were seeded in 24-well plates and cultured in PBMC medium [StemPro®-34 SFM medium (ThermoFisher) supplemented with SCF (100ng/mL; Peprotech), FLT-3 (100ng/mL; Peprotech), IL-3 (20ng/mL; Peprotech), and IL-6 (20ng/mL; Peprotech)] for four days. PBMCs were then transduced using the Cytotune™-iPS 2.0 Sendai Reprogramming Kit (ThermoFisher) at the appropriate MOI, following the manufacturer's instructions, and incubated overnight. The next day, the CytoTune™ 2.0 Sendai viruses were removed, and the transduced PBMCs were cultured in PBMC medium for two additional days. The cells were subsequently seeded on vitronectin (ThermoFisher)-coated plates in complete StemPro®-34 SFM medium without cytokines for four days. After this, the medium was switched to Essential 8™ Flex medium (ThermoFisher). Once iPSC-like colonies

emerged, they were manually picked and cultured in Essential 8™ Flex medium. These FXS iPSCs were labeled FXS-1, FXS-2, FXS-3, FXS-4, FXS-5, FXS-6, FXS-7, separately. The control iPSCs were named UHC-1, UHC-2, UHC-3, UHC-5, UHC-4, UHC-6, separately.

　　　All iPSCs were expanded on vitronectin-coated plates in Essential 8™ Flex medium and passaged with ReleSR™ (StemCell Technologies) upon reaching 70-80% confluence using a 1:6 split ratio. iPSCs were cryopreserved in stem cell freezing medium [American Type Culture Collection (ATCC)]. 10 µM Y27632 (Peprotech) was added during both passaging and thawing. The karyotype of all iPSCs generated in this project have been characterized by the Pluripotent Stem Cell Facility at CCHMC. And their expression of stemness markers have been confirmed by immunostaining.

CGG sizing.

Genomic DNA was extracted from iPSCs using the Quick-DNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research). The CGG repeat size in the *FMR1* gene was determined by repeat-primed PCR (RP-PCR) using primers flanking the CGG-repeat region of the 5' UTR in *FMR1*, as per the manufacturer's instructions (AmplideX ® PCR/CE *FMR1* Kit, Asuragen). Briefly, 2 µl of purified genomic DNA (40 ng/µl) was added to a master mix containing 11.45 µl GC-Rich Amp Buffer, 0.5 µl *FMR1* F, R FAM-Primers, 0.5 µl *FMR1* CGG Primer, 0.5 µl diluent, and 0.05 µl GC-Rich Polymerase Mix. The PCR protocol included: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 10 cycles of 97 °C for 35 s, 62 °C for 35 s, and 68 °C for 4 min. This was followed by 20 cycles of 97°C for 35 seconds, 62°C for 35 seconds, and 68°C for 4 minutes, with an additional 20-second increment per cycle. The final extension was carried out at 72°C for 10 minutes. The PCR products were then mixed with Hi-Di Formamide and the ROX 1000 Size Ladder. After denaturation at 95 °C for 2 min and cooling to 4°C for 5 minutes, the amplicons were separated via capillary electrophoresis (CE) using an ABI 3500 Genetic Analyzer with POP-7 polymer (Applied Biosystems). The CGG repeat length was calculated based on the fragment size in base pairs using the *FMR1* Analysis Macro (v2.1.2; Asuragen) with size and mobility conversion factors.

Differentiation of cortical neurons from iPSCs

Cortical neurons were generated from iPSCs as previously described[6, 7], with some modifications as described here. Briefly, iPSCs were dissociated into single cells with StemPro™ Accutase™ Cell Dissociation Reagent (ThermoFisher) and seeded at a density of 2,500,000 cells per well on Matrigel-coated (human embryonic stem cell-qualified matrix, Corning) six-well plates in Essential 8™ Flex medium with Y27632. From day 1 to day 3, the

medium was switched to Essential 6™ medium (ThermoFisher) supplemented with LDN193189 (500 nM, Peprotech), SB431542 (10 µM, Cayman Chemical), and XAV939 (5 µM, Selleckchem) (referred to as E6-LSBX medium). From day 4 to day 8, cells were maintained in E6-LSB medium (without XAV939). Beginning on day 9, the medium was switched to a house-made N2 medium [DMEM/F12 medium with 2-mercaptoethanol (1X; ThermoFisher), sodium bicarbonate (2 mg/mL; Sigma), D-(+)-Glucose (1.56 mg/mL; Sigma), progesterone (6.4 mg/mL; Sigma), N2 Supplement-B (0.5X; StemCell Technologies)], supplemented with B27™ (1X; ThermoFisher) and FGF-8b (50ng/mL; R&D Systems) until day 21. At this stage, neuronal progenitor cells (NPCs) were either cryopreserved in stem cell freezing medium or dissociated with Accutase™ and plated onto Poly-L-ornithine (PO, 15 µg/mL; Sigma)/Laminin (2 µg/mL; R&D Systems)/Fibronectin (1 µg/mL; R&D Systems)-coated plates or coverslips. For quantifying numbers of cells expressing neural progenitor cells and cortical neuronal markers, 50,000 cells were seeded onto coverslips. For protein and RNA extractions, 5,000,000 cells were seeded onto 10 cm dishes. Cells were then cultured in neuron medium [Neurobasal® medium (ThermoFisher) with B27™ supplement (1X), BDNF (20 ng/mL; Peprotech), GDNF (20 ng/mL; Peprotech), Ascorbic Acid (AA, 0.2 mM; Sigma), cAMP (100 µM; Sigma), GlutaMAX™ (1X; ThermoFisher), and MEM Non-Essential Amino Acids (NEAA, 1X; ThermoFisher)] with the addition of DAPT (10 µM; Cayman Chemical). Half of the neuron medium was replaced twice a week for a total of six weeks. For treatment, cultures were exposed to either DMSO (0.1%; Sigma) or 10 µM STM2457 (Cayman Chemical) for 2 weeks, from week 4 to week 6.

Isolation of primary mouse astrocytes and co-culture with iPSC-derived cortical neurons.
Primary mouse astrocytes were isolated as previously described [8], with minor modifications. Brains from P0 C57BL/6J mice were dissected, and the meninges were removed. The meninges-free cerebral cortices were minced into small pieces and digested with trypsin (ThermoFisher) and DNase I (Sigma). The resulting cell suspension was plated onto 0.01% Poly-L-Lysine (PLL; Sigma)-coated flasks in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, ThermoFisher) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (ThermoFisher). and 2% penicillin/streptomycin. From day 2 to day 8, primary astrocytes were separated from oligodendrocyte progenitor cells, microglia and neurons by tapping the flask and washing with PBS. Primary astrocytes were cryopreserved around day 8.

Before co-culturing with cryopreserved iPSC-derived NPCs, primary mouse astrocytes were thawed, expanded and seeded on coverslips in 24-well plates. Once the astrocyte monolayer reached 80-90% confluence, cryopreserved iPSC-derived NPCs were thawed,

20,000 cells were seeded directly onto the astrocytes, and differentiated in neuron medium [Neurobasal® medium supplemented with B27™, BDNF, GDNF, AA, cAMP, GlutaMAX™, and NEAA] containing DAPT. Half of the neuron medium was replaced twice weekly. After 6 weeks of culture, whole-cell patch clamp recordings and immunocytochemistry for synaptic puncta and neurites were performed. For treatment, cultures were exposed to either DMSO (0.1%; Sigma) or 10 µM STM2457 (Cayman Chemical) for 2 weeks, from week 4 to week 6.

Western blot analysis.
Ten-week-old wild-type (WT) and *Fmr1*-knockout (*Fmr1*-KO) male mice, kindly provided by Prof. Christina Gross, were used for protein extraction from fresh cortical tissues. Additionally, protein was extracted from six-week-old iPSC-derived cortical neurons using ice-cold RIPA buffer (Sigma), supplemented with cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche) and PhosSTOP™ (Roche). Lysates were sonicated and incubated on ice, followed by centrifugation at 4°C. Protein concentrations were determined using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (ThermoFisher). Equal amounts of protein lysates were denatured in SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) Sample Loading Buffer (G-Biosciences), separated on 4-12% Bolt Bis-Tris Plus Protein Gels (ThermoFisher), and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore) using the XCell SureLock™ Mini-Cell system (ThermoFisher). The membranes were blocked for 1 hour at room temperature (RT) with 5% non-fat milk in Tris-buffered saline containing Tween-20 (TBST) (blocking buffer), followed by overnight incubation at 4°C with the following primary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer: rabbit polyclonal anti-FMRP (1:1000; Abcam), rabbit monoclonal Synapsin II (1:1000; Abcam), mouse monoclonal SV2 (1:1000; DSHB), rabbit monoclonal METTL3 (1:500; MedChemExpress), rabbit polyclonal METTL14 (1:1000; Sigma), rabbit monoclonal WTAP (1:500; Cell Signaling Technology), and mouse monoclonal GAPDH (1:5000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology). After 3 washes with TBST, the membranes were incubated for 1 hour at RT with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-coupled secondary antibodies: anti-rabbit IgG (1:5000; ThermoFisher) or anti-mouse IgG (1:5000; ThermoFisher). The membranes were washed 3 times with TBST and visualized by the addition of SuperSignal™ West Pico PLUS Chemiluminescent Substrate (ThermoFisher) directly on the membranes placed in the iBright™ FL 1500 Imaging System (ThermoFisher). Protein levels were normalized to GAPDH, and quantitative analysis was performed using ImageJ software.

Immunocytochemistry.

Six-week-old iPSC-derived cortical neurons were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (ThermoFisher) for 15 min at RT, then washed 3 times with PBS. They were permeabilized with 0.1% Triton™ X-100 (Sigma) and blocked in 3% donkey serum (Sigma) for 2 hours. Primary antibodies, diluted in PBS containing 0.1% Triton X-100 and 3% donkey serum, were applied to the cells and incubated overnight at 4°C. Following primary antibody incubation, cells were treated with species-specific secondary antibodies (1:1000; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories) diluted in 3% donkey serum for 2 hours at RT. Cells were washed and cell nuclei were stained with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for 5 min. Coverslips were mounted in fluoroshield mounting medium (Abcam), sealed with clear nail polish, and stored at 2-8°C until imaging. The following primary antibodies were used: mouse monoclonal Nestin (1:500, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), mouse monoclonal Sox2 (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), mouse monoclonal ZO1 (1:1000; Thermo Fisher Scientific), rabbit polyclonal Foxg1 (1:1000, Abcam), mouse monoclonal PAX6 (1:1000; BD Biosciences), mouse monoclonal OTX2 (1:50; DSHB), rabbit polyclonal doublecortin (1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology), mouse monoclonal BRN2 (1:50; DSHB), goat monoclonal CaMKII (1:500; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), mouse polyclonal beta III tubulin (1:500; Sigma), rabbit polyclonal TBR1 (1:1000; Abcam), rat monoclonal CTIP2 (1:1000; Abcam), rabbit monoclonal Synapsin I (1:1000; Millipore), mouse monoclonal SV2 (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology).

Images were obtained on either a Nikon A1R inverted confocal laser scanning microscope with 60x objectives or an Olympus BX51 with 20x objectives. Image analysis was performed using NIS Elements version 5.42.06 software (Nikon) and Imaris version 10.2.0 software (Nikon). For quantifying NPC and neuron markers, the "spot" function was used. For neurite analysis, the neurite structures were identified using the "filament" function, parameters including the number of segments, total length, terminal points, branch points, maximum segment length, minimum segment length, and mean segment length were assessed. Synaptic puncta were identified using the "spot" function, and only the puncta located around the dendritic and axonal filaments were selected for quantification. Synaptic density (D) was determined by calculating the total SV2 and SYN1 puncta per 100 µm of total dendritic length.

Whole-cell patch clamp recording.
Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were conducted at RT on iPSC-derived cortical neurons, either untreated or treated with DMSO or STM2457 for 2 weeks, following a six-week co-culture with primary mouse astrocytes, using a Multiclamp 700A patch-clamp amplifier (Molecular Devices) as previously described [9]. Briefly, cortical neurons grown on coverslips were visualized

with a 40X air objective on an inverted Zeiss microscope, and the recording chamber was constantly perfused with a bath solution consisting of 128 mM NaCl, 30 mM glucose, 25 mM HEPES, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, and 1 mM $MgCl_2$ (pH 7.3; 315–325 Osm). Patch pipettes were pulled from borosilicate glass (Sutter Instrument) with a resistance of 3-5 MΩ and filled with an internal solution composed of 135 mM CsGluconate, 10 mM Trisphosphocreatine, 10 mM HEPES, 2.5 mM EGTA, 4 mM MgATP, 0.5 mM Na_2GTP, and 5 mM QX-314 (pH 7.3 with CsOH; ~305 mOsm) for excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs). EPSCs were recorded at a holding potential of -70 mV. The series resistance was typically between 10-30 MΩ. For spontaneous EPSC recordings, 20 µM bicuculline (Tocris Bioscience) was added. Drug application was achieved via a gravity-driven drug delivery system (VC-6, Warner Instruments). Spontaneous EPSCs were recorded for 4 minutes (starting 2 minutes after break-in, to allow QX-314 to block sodium currents) at a holding potential, sampled at 10 kHz, and filtered at 1 kHz. Spontaneous and evoked action potentials (AP) were recorded using current clamp, while sodium and potassium currents were measured using voltage clamp. Data acquisition was performed using pClamp 9 software (Molecular Devices), and spontaneous synaptic events were analyzed with MiniAnalysis software (Synaptosoft).

Microelectrode array (MEA) and analysis.

The 64-channel multielectrode array (MEA) recording system (MED64, Alpha MED Scientific) features an array of 64 planar microelectrodes arranged in an 8 × 8 pattern (50 × 50 µm electrodes with 150 µm spacing) and was used to non-invasively monitor the electrical activity of neuronal networks. Before use, the surface of the MED64 probe was coated with PO/laminin/fibronectin and a drop of iPSC-derived NPCs (500,000 cells) were directly plated on the top of the electrodes and cultured in B-27™ Electrophysiology Kit supplemented with BDNF (20 ng/ml), GDNF (20 ng/ml), AA (0.2 mM), cAMP (100 µM), GlutaMAX (1X), and NEAA (1X). DAPT was administered on day 1 to synchronize neuronal maturation, and the cultures were fed weekly. Spontaneous neuronal activity was recorded at week 8post-differentiation for 5 minutes at a sampling rate of 20 kHz using Mobius software (Alpha MED Scientific). Data were filtered with a 1-1000 Hz frequency bandwidth.

A spike was detected when the recorded signal exceeded a threshold of ± 5.5 σ, where σ was the standard deviation (SD) of the baseline noise during quiescent periods. Spike clustering was performed using the Mobius software's 'Cluster Spikes' panel to distinguish and separate signals from multiple cells recorded on a single channel based on the shapes of their spikes, utilizing a modified version of the online 'Leader-Follower Clustering' algorithm. A valid cluster

was defined by the following parameters: a minimum of 5 spikes ('Min # spikes') and 30% similarity ('Similarity %'). Next, burst activity and synchronized burst activity were analyzed by Mobius offline toolkit software (Alpha Med Scientific). Bursts were identified as sequences of at least three spikes with inter-spike intervals within 300 milliseconds and a duration exceeding 200 milliseconds. Burst duration and spikes per burst were analyzed and compared. Synchronized burst activity, representing burst events across 64 channels, was visualized using a 'time course of spike frequencies across 64 channels' plot, where spike frequencies were quantified as the array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR). Additionally, a raster plot was used to display the distribution of spike timing across all channels.

Moreover, MEA data were analyzed using UP state analysis, a method previously applied to *in vitro* brain slices from *Fmr1*-KO mice [10]. Spontaneous UP states were detected based on methods defined in Hays et al[10]. For each channel, data were normalized to zero by subtracting average, and rectified. Rectified data were then low pass filtered at 0.2 Hz. UP states were identified when the amplitude of the filtered signal exceeded the root mean square threshold for a minimum of 200 milliseconds. Events within 600 milliseconds of each other were grouped together into a single UP state. Median duration of up states as well as interval between up states was calculated for each channel.

EEG recording, data preprocessing, and analysis

Five minutes of resting state EEG data was collected from each participant. To facilitate cooperation in FXS patients, participants watched a silent video during recording. EEG data were recorded with a 128-electrode saline-based Hydrocel system (Magstim/EGI) at a sampling rate of 1000 Hz.

EEG data were blinded, and all preprocessing was performed using EEGLAB (EEGLAB)[11]. The data were filtered offline using a bandpass filter from 0.5 to 120 Hz, and a notch filter at 60 Hz was used to remove power line noise. EEG data was visually inspected for channels or periods affected by excessive artifacts from muscle, movement, and channel noise. Removed channels were interpolated using spherical spline interpolation. Independent component analysis (ICA) decomposition was performed using the EEGLAB pop_runica function, and components were visually inspected to identify and remove those containing muscle, channel, and eye movements. The data were then referenced to average.

Preprocessed EEG data were analyzed using MNE (v 1.6.1) and the FOOOF toolbox (v 1.1.0). Power spectral density (PSD) was calculated at each electrode using Welch's method, with two second segments and 50% overlap. For each subject, the PSD was averaged across

all channels excluding two outer rows of peripheral channels, to minimize the effect of remaining muscle and movement artifact. The FOOOF toolbox was used to model the periodic and aperiodic components of the average PSD for each subject. The model was computed using the fixed aperiodic mode, with peak width limits of 1 to 12 Hz, maximum peak number set to 6, peak threshold of 2 standard deviations, and no minimum peak height.

m^6A dot blot assay on cortical neurons and *Fmr1*-KO mouse brain tissue.
Ten-week-old WT and *Fmr1*-KO male mice were used for RNA extraction from fresh cortical tissues. Additionally, total RNA was extracted from six-week-old iPSC-derived cortical neurons using TRIzol reagent (ThermoFisher), followed by purification with Dynabeads mRNA Purification Kit (ThermoFisher) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The extracted mRNA was denatured and spotted onto Hybond N+ membrane (GE Healthcare), then cross-linked using a Stratalinker UV Crosslinker 2400 (Stratagene). The membrane was blocked with 5% milk in PBST and probed overnight at 4°C with a rabbit m^6A antibody (1:250; Synaptic Systems), followed by incubation with HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody (1:5000). Detection was carried out using SuperSignal™ West Pico PLUS Chemiluminescent Substrate, and images were captured using the iBright™ FL 1500 Imaging System. To determine the total RNA input, the membrane was stained with 0.04% methylene blue (Sigma) in 0.5M sodium acetate (Millipore) prior to blocking. Quantification of dot intensity was performed using ImageJ software.

MeRIP-seq, MeRIP-RT-qPCR and analysis
The mRNAs from total RNAs were isolated from six-week-old cortical neurons using Dynabeads mRNA Purification Kit. Purified mRNA samples were fragmented to 100-200 nt with 10X RNA Fragmentation Buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM $ZnCl_2$ in nuclease-free H_2O). The reaction was stopped by adding 10X EDTA (0.5M). 10% of the fragmented RNA was set aside as an input sample, while the remaining RNA was used for m^6A immunoprecipitation. The fragmented RNA was incubated with anti-m^6A antibody (Synaptic Systems) for 3 h at 4°C and then with protein G magnetic beads (ThermoFisher) at 4°C for an additional 2 h to obtain immunoprecipitated RNA fragments. The m^6A-enriched RNA was extracted using TRIzol. The library was prepared following the instructions for Kapa RNA HyperPrep Kit (Roche). Both the input samples without IP and the m^6A IP samples were subjected to 150-bp, paired-end sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 sequencer at CD Genomics.

For MeRIP-seq analysis, quality control of raw sequencing reads was assessed using FastQC (v0.11.7). Raw reads in fastq format were then subjected to trimming, eliminating adaptor sequences, reads with adaptor contaminants, and low-quality reads, using Trim Galore (v0.6.6). The preprocessed reads were aligned to the human genome (GRCh38) employing STAR (v2.7.9) with default settings. m^{6}A peaks were identified using the R package exomePeak (v2.16.0) with the following parameters: "PEAK_CUTOFF_PVALUE = NA, PEAK_CUTOFF_FDR = 0.05, FRAGMENT_LENGTH = 200". The distributions of m^{6}A peaks across the chromosomes in both UHC and FXS cortical neurons were analyzed using circos (v0.69.8). Differential m^{6}A peak were identified using exomePeak R package under parameters: "PEAK_CUTOFF_PVALUE = NA, PEAK_CUTOFF_FDR = 0.05, FRAGMENT_LENGTH=200". The output "sig_diff_peak" file was further filtered using the condition "|diff.lg.fdr| > 2" and "|diff.log2.fc| > 0", generating a highly significant differential m^{6}A peak file between FXS and UHC neurons (Table S2). This dataset was then categorized into hypermethylated and hypomethylated m^{6}A peaks based on the diff.log2.fc values. Peaks with "diff.log2.fc" > 0 were classified as hypermethylated, while those with "diff.log2.fc" < 0 were classified as hypomethylated (Table S2 and S4). Identified m^{6}A peaks were visualized using the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV, v2.15.4) with bam formats. Gene ontology (GO) analysis was performed using the clusterProfiler R package (v4.11.0), with visualizations generated in RStudio (v3.4.3) using the ggplot2 package (v3.5.1). In the plots, circle size corresponds to the percentage of genes in each ontology group, and color represents the p-value for gene enrichment associated with each GO term. m^{6}A-RNA-related genomic features were visualized using Guitar R package (v2.14.0), and de novo motif analysis was performed with homer (v4.11).

To examine m^{6}A modifications on individual genes in six-week-old cortical neurons, MeRIP-RT-qPCR was performed using the same procedures, except that RNAs were sheared into approximately 200 nt fragments. Total RNAs were isolated from neurons untreated or treated with DMSO or STM2457 for 48 hours. Primers were designed to target different m^{6}A modification sites identified through MeRIP-seq data, including 5 sites for *APC2*, 1 site for *CASKIN1,* 2 sites for *LRRC4B,* 2 sites for *NRXN2,* 1 site for *SLC8A2,* 1 site for *SYP,* 1 site for *SYT3*, and 1 site for *SYT5.* All primers used for MeRIP-RT-qPCR are listed in Table S1. RT-qPCR was conducted using PowerUp SYBR Master Mix on a QuantStudio system. m^{6}A enrichment was determined by RT-qPCR analysis, calculating the percentage of a target gene in IP fraction relative to the input fraction using the formula: %Input = $2^{\wedge}$ (Ct of target gene in IP - adjusted Ct of target gene in input).

RIP-RT-qPCR.

HEK293T cells were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and transfected using Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cells were either co-transfected with *FMRP-Flag* and *FUGW* plasmids or transfected with *mCherry-Flag* plasmids. Post-transfection, cells were lysed using 1 mL of RIP lysis buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 200 mM NaCl, 30 mM EDTA, 0.5% Triton X-100) supplemented with protease inhibitors and SUPERaseIN (1:500; ThermoFisher) at 4°C with rotation for 30 minutes. Cell lysates were then cleared by centrifugation at 20,000× g at 4°C for 15 min. 10% of the supernatant was saved for RNA extraction and protein extraction as input controls. The remaining supernatants were incubated overnight at 4°C with ANTI-FLAG® M2 Affinity Gel (Sigma) with rotation. The immunoprecipitated protein-RNA complexes were subsequently washed three times with RIP wash buffer (10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 400 mM NaCl, 30 mM EDTA, 0.5% Triton X-100, 2X protease inhibitors, and 1:1000 SUPERaseIN). Saved input and immunoprecipitated proteins were eluted with sample loading buffer for SDS-PAGE, followed by western blotting as described above using rabbit polyclonal FMRP (1:1000; Abcam) and mouse monoclonal GAPDH (1:5000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology). The saved input and immunoprecipitated RNA were extracted with TRIzol reagent (ThermoFisher) and subjected to RT-qPCR with primers (listed in Table S1), normalizing to input RNA. Reverse transcription was performed using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (ThermoFisher), and RT-qPCR was conducted using PowerUp SYBR Master Mix (ThermoFisher) on a QuantStudio system.

Polysome profiling and polysome-associated mRNA analysis.

Sucrose density gradient centrifugation was employed to separate the ribosome fractions as described previously [12]. Briefly, six-week-old cortical neurons were cultured with 100 μg/mL cycloheximide (CHX; Sigma) supplement for 10 min at 37 °C prior to cell harvest. Cells were washed in ice-cold PBS containing 100 μg/mL CHX and harvested in polysome lysis buffer (5 mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5, 2.5 mM MgCl2, 1.5 mM KCl, 1 mM DTT,0.5% Triton X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 100 μg/mL CHX, 40 U/ml RNaseOUT, 0.2 mg/mL heparin and protease inhibitor cocktail). Cells were lysed by pipetting several times and incubation on ice for 15 min, followed by centrifugation at 10,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C. 10–50% linear sucrose gradient was prepared using Biocomp Gradient Master 108 with pre-layered 10% and 50% sucrose in the gradient buffer (5 mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5, 2.5 mM MgCl2,1.5 mM KCl, 2 mM DTT, 100 μg/mL CHX, 40 U/ml RNaseOUT, 0.1 mg/mL heparin and protease inhibitor cocktail). 300 μl supernatant of

cell lysate was layered on the top the sucrose gradient and centrifuged at Beckman SW41 rotor in Beckman Ultra-clear tube at 4 °C, 39K rpm for 2 hrs. Gradients were fractionated while monitoring absorbance at A260 with a Biocomp Piston Gradient Fractionator system according to the manufacturer protocol. The areas of monosome fractions (#6-11) and heavy polysome fractions (#18-25) were calculated using GraphPad Prism 6 (GraphPad Software Inc.). Total RNA in each fraction was isolated using TRIzol Reagent. 200 ng of RNA in each fraction was reverse transcribed to cDNA using a High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit. RT-qPCR for target genes (*WTAP*, *METTL3* and *METTL14*) in each fraction were carried out using PowerUp SYBR Master Mix. The target gene mRNA in each fraction was normalized to *GAPDH* in this fraction; the abundance in the heavy polysomes was calculated by summing up fractions #18-25 and compared between UHC and FXS cortical neurons.

Bulk RNA sequencing and analysis.

Total RNAs were extracted from six-week-old cortical neurons using TRIzol reagent followed by mRNAs isolation with the Dynabeads mRNA Purification Kit. Sequencing libraries were prepared using NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep kit (New England Biolabs) for Illumina following manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, mRNAs were fragmented and reverse-transcribed to synthesize double-stranded cDNAs. After end repair and 3' adenylation, Illumina-compatible adapters for multiplexing were ligated to the ends of the double-stranded cDNA fragments. The ligation products were then amplified and purified to generate sequencing libraries. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform with 150 bp paired end reads at Novogene Bioinformatics Technology Co., Ltd (Beijing, China).

For RNA-seq analysis, similar to the MeRIP-seq workflow, sequence reads obtained from RNA-seq were initially processed and aligned to the human genome (GRCh38) employing STAR (v2.7.9) with default settings. Gene counts were obtained using FeatureCounts (v2.0.3). Differential expression analysis was performed using the R package DESeq2, with a p value cutoff of 0.05 and a fold change threshold of log2 (fold change) > ±1. The differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between FXS and UHC cortical neurons were presented in Table S3. GO enrichment analysis was performed using the clusterProfiler R package (v4.11.0) for functional annotation. CSV files of the DEGs are available in Supplementary table 3. The DESeq2-normalized counts for *METTL3*, *METTL14*, *WTAP*, and *FMR1* transcripts were obtained using variance stabilizing transformation (VST) function in the DESeq2 package. Statistical comparisons of gene expression were performed following DESeq2 pipeline. Additionally, published MeRIP-seq data for two *Fmr1*-KO and two WT mice (GSE107434) were

downloaded from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE107434) and re-analyzed using the MeRIP-seq input sequencing data, following the aforementioned RNA-seq analysis pipeline for comparing the expression levels of *Mettl3*, *Mettl14*, *Wtap*. The "cor" function in R was used to calculate the Pearson correlation coefficients (PCCs) between DMGs and DEGs.

RNA stability assay

For six-week-old cortical neurons, treated or untreated with DMSO or STM2457 for 48 hours, gene transcription was inhibited by adding 5 μg/ml of actinomycin D (Cayman Chemical). Cells were harvested at 0-, 2-, and 6-hours post-actinomycin D treatment, washed with PBS, and lysed in TRIzol. Reverse transcription was performed using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit. RT-qPCR for *LRRC4B* was then conducted using PowerUp SYBR Master Mix on a QuantStudio system. *LRRC4B* mRNA levels were normalized to *GAPDH*. All primers used are listed in Table S1.

Data collection and statistics.

All experiments were performed in triplicate or more, with data collected from parallel cultures. Quantitative data are presented as mean ± S.E.M. Statistical analyses were conducted using RStudio (v3.4.3) and GraphPad Prism 6. When two independent experimental groups were analyzed, a two-tailed Student t-test was performed. When more than two independent experimental groups were analyzed, one-way ANOVA with Tukey post hoc test was performed. For evoked APs frequency, two-way ANOVA with Tukey post hoc test was performed. Other statistical methods included Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Pearson's correlation analysis. A significant threshold of $p < 0.05$ was applied.

Data and code availability.

The m^6A-seq data has also been submitted to GEO with accession number GSE278698. The RNA-seq data generated in this study has been deposited in the GEO database under accession number GSE278697. Additional data, including , m^6A peak calling and annotation, FMRP targets, SAFRI ASD genes, synaptic genes, overlap analyses, and DEGs, are provided in the Supplementary Materials (Tables S2-S4). All other relevant data is available upon request from the corresponding author. Commands used to run software such as STAR, exomePeak, Homer, and Guitar are included in the respective software manuals, which are publicly accessible online. R scripts used for bioinformatics analyses are available upon request.

Reference

1. Sansone, S.M. *et al.* Improving IQ measurement in intellectual disabilities using true deviation from population norms. *J Neurodev Disord* **6**, 16 (2014).
2. Boggs, A.E. *et al.* Optimization, validation and initial clinical implications of a Luminex-based immunoassay for the quantification of Fragile X Protein from dried blood spots. *Sci Rep* **12**, 5617 (2022).
3. Straub, D. *et al.* A sensitive and reproducible qRT-PCR assay detects physiological relevant trace levels of FMR1 mRNA in individuals with Fragile X syndrome. *Sci Rep* **13**, 3808 (2023).
4. Dao, L. *et al.* Modeling blood-brain barrier formation and cerebral cavernous malformations in human PSC-derived organoids. *Cell Stem Cell* (2024).
5. Wen, Z. *et al.* Synaptic dysregulation in a human iPS cell model of mental disorders. *Nature* **515**, 414-418 (2014).
6. Shi, Y., Kirwan, P. & Livesey, F.J. Directed differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells to cerebral cortex neurons and neural networks. *Nat Protoc* **7**, 1836-1846 (2012).
7. Qi, Y. *et al.* Combined small-molecule inhibition accelerates the derivation of functional cortical neurons from human pluripotent stem cells. *Nat Biotechnol* **35**, 154-163 (2017).
8. Guler, B.E., Krzysko, J. & Wolfrum, U. Isolation and culturing of primary mouse astrocytes for the analysis of focal adhesion dynamics. *STAR Protoc* **2**, 100954 (2021).
9. De Rubeis, S. *et al.* Synaptic, transcriptional and chromatin genes disrupted in autism. *Nature* **515**, 209-215 (2014).
10. Hays, S.A., Huber, K.M. & Gibson, J.R. Altered neocortical rhythmic activity states in Fmr1 KO mice are due to enhanced mGluR5 signaling and involve changes in excitatory circuitry. *J Neurosci* **31**, 14223-14234 (2011).
11. Delorme, A. & Makeig, S. EEGLAB: an open source toolbox for analysis of single-trial EEG dynamics including independent component analysis. *J Neurosci Methods* **134**, 9-21 (2004).
12. Cao, Y., Ye, Q., Ma, M. & She, Q.B. Enhanced bypass of PD-L1 translation reduces the therapeutic response to mTOR kinase inhibitors. *Cell Rep* **42**, 112764 (2023).

Figure 1. (Lu, et al.)

Figure 2. (Lu, et al.)

Figure 3. (Lu, et al.)

Figure 4. (Lu, et al.)

Figure 5. (Lu, et al.)

Figure 6. (Lu, et al.)

Figure 7. (Lu, et al.)