# Targeting Putrescine Homeostasis with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 to Mitigate Autism-like Behaviors in *Fmr1* KO Mice

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16

## SUMMARY

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) often presents with gastrointestinal disturbances, yet the molecular
mechanisms linking gut alterations to behavioral dysfunction remain incompletely understood. Using Fragile
X mental retardation 1 (*Fmr1*) knockout mice, we found that autism-like behaviors are associated with
disrupted gut microbiota–polyamine metabolism and elevated putrescine in the prefrontal cortex (PFC).
Supplementation with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 reshaped gut microbial communities, improved
intestinal integrity, and restored arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolic homeostasis. PS128 normalized
the serum-to-PFC putrescine imbalance and reduced expression of putrescine transporters in the PFC.
Consistent with a causal role, peripheral putrescine elevation induced autism-like behaviors in wild-type
mice, whereas inhibition of putrescine synthesis ameliorated behavioral deficits in *Fmr1* knockout mice.
Together, these findings identify putrescine dysregulation as an important metabolic contributor to autism-
like phenotypes, support a metabolically stratifiable ASD subtype, and implicate PS128 as a psychobiotic
intervention acting through the microbiota–gut–brain axis.
30

## KEYWORDS

Gut microbiota–metabolite–brain axis; polyamine; Fragile X mental retardation 1; prefrontal cortex

## INTRODUCTION

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) encompasses a group of neurodevelopmental conditions characterized
by deficits in social interaction and communication, accompanied by repetitive and restricted behaviors and
interests. Both genetic and environmental factors contribute to ASD, with genetic influences playing a
central role.[1] In recent years, ASD has emerged as a major public health concern due to its rising global
prevalence.[2,3] However, effective therapies targeting the core symptoms of ASD remain limited.[4] Growing
evidence implicates metabolic disturbances in ASD pathophysiology, particularly involving amino acid
metabolism, including branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs), arginine, and ornithine.[5-8]

Microbial metabolites are increasingly recognized as key modulators of host physiology, with several shown to influence brain function through the gut–brain axis.[9,10] Among the diverse classes of host- and microbiota-derived metabolites, putrescine is a polyamine primarily derived from arginine and ornithine catabolism. Putrescine interacts electrostatically with nucleic acids, proteins, lipids, and proteoglycans, thereby regulating gene expression, oxidative stress, cell proliferation, and inflammation.[11] Polyamine homeostasis is tightly regulated, and the intestinal microbiota represents a major exogenous source.[12] Notably, elevated levels of putrescine and its derivative spermine have been detected in the saliva of children with ASD,[13] implicating polyamine imbalance in ASD pathophysiology.

Probiotics, particularly psychobiotics, have attracted increasing interest as safe and accessible interventions capable of reshaping the gut microbiome and modulating neurobehavioral outcomes.[14] Clinical evidence indicates that daily supplementation with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 (PS128) has been associated with improvements in social behaviors and attention-related symptoms in individuals with ASD, with minimal adverse effects.[15,16] However, the molecular pathways through which PS128 acts along the gut–brain axis to ameliorate ASD symptoms remain poorly defined. Fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP), an RNA-binding protein encoded by the *Fmr1* gene, represents the most common monogenic cause of ASD,[17] and its deficiency leads to both gastrointestinal and behavioral abnormalities in humans and mice.[18,19] Accordingly, the *Fmr1* knockout (KO) mouse[20] provides a well-established model for dissecting gut–brain interactions in ASD and for uncovering the molecular mechanisms by which PS128 may exert therapeutic effects.

In this study, we investigated whether supplementation with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 alleviates autism-like phenotypes in *Fmr1* knockout mice. We identified disruption of the arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolic pathway in the gut of KO mice and found that PS128 supplementation reshaped the gut microbiota and restored peripheral–central putrescine balance. This effect was accompanied by enrichment of beneficial bacterial taxa and suppression of inflammation- and disease-associated taxa in the gut, together with reduced expression of putrescine transporters in the prefrontal cortex (PFC). Furthermore, bidirectional manipulation of putrescine levels demonstrated a causal contribution of putrescine to autism-like phenotypes. Together, these findings suggest putrescine as a candidate metabolic biomarker and therapeutic target for ASD.

## RESULTS

### PS128 treatment substantially ameliorates autism-like behaviors in *Fmr1* KO mice

To determine whether PS128 treatment mitigates behavioral abnormalities in *Fmr1* knockout (KO) mice, we provided PS128-containing jelly every other day by voluntary oral consumption to KO mice and their wild-type (WT) littermates (Video S1). Behavioral performance was assessed using a comprehensive battery, including the open-field test (OFT), elevated plus maze (EPM), O-maze test (OMT), novel object recognition test (NORT), reciprocal social interaction test (RSIT), balance beam test (BBT), olfactory habituation/dishabituation test (OHDT), and tube test (TT) throughout the treatment period. These assays were selected to capture ASD-relevant behavioral domains, including anxiety-related behavior, repetitive and stereotypic behaviors, social interaction and novelty preference, and motor coordination.

Across most behavioral assays, PS128 treatment had minimal effects on WT mice (Figures 1 and S1), and the behavioral alterations were primarily observed in *Fmr1* KO mice. In the OFT (Figures 1A and S1A), KO mice exhibited significantly reduced total and central exploration distances compared with WT controls (Figures 1B and 1C), indicating enhanced anxiety-like behavior. PS128 treatment restored these measures toward WT levels (Figures 1A–1C) and increased the time KO mice spent in the center zone (Figures S1B and S1C). These findings indicate that PS128 alleviates anxiety-like behavior in KO mice. No significant differences were detected in the EPM or OMT (Figures S1D–S1I), suggesting that anxiety-related abnormalities in KO mice are context dependent.

In the NORT (Figure 1D), KO mice showed a reduced recognition index (Figure 1E) and excessive climbing on both familiar and novel objects (Figure 1F), reflecting repetitive and stereotypic behaviors.[21] Similar repetitive climbing behavior was also observed in the OHDT (Figures S1J–S1N, Videos S2 and S3), where KO mice frequently climbed and remained on the swab (Figure S1J). PS128 supplementation ameliorated both recognition deficits and stereotypic behaviors, restoring the recognition index to WT levels and markedly reducing abnormal climbing.

In the RSIT (Figure 1G), WT and WTPS mice displayed comparable interaction patterns (Figure S1O). WT mice preferentially interacted with a novel mouse (Stage 3) over a familiar one (Stage 2), whereas KO mice did not (Figures 1H and 1I), indicating impaired social novelty preference. PS128 treatment significantly improved social novelty preference and recognition performance in KO mice (Figures 1D–1I).

In the BBT (Figure 1J), KO mice required more time to traverse both 30° and 60° beams (Figures 1K and 1L), indicating impaired motor coordination. PS128 intervention reduced traversal times in KO mice, although performance did not fully reach WT levels. In the TT (Figure S1P), PS128-treated KO mice (KOPS) displayed a higher probability of forward movement against unfamiliar KO or WT opponents (Figures S1Q and S1R), implicating enhanced social confidence. Collectively, PS128 treatment mitigated core autism-like phenotypes in *Fmr1* KO mice (Figures 1 and S1).

## PS128 reshapes the gut microbiota and suppresses inflammation- and disease-associated taxa in *Fmr1* KO mice

To elucidate the microbiota changes underlying the behavioral improvements of *Fmr1* KO mice in response to PS128 intervention, we performed 16S rRNA sequencing and metagenomic profiling on fecal samples, together with fluorescence imaging of gut tissues, collected from KO mice and WT littermates before and during PS128 supplementation.

At baseline, prior to PS128 supplementation, 1-month-old KO mice (KO-1M) exhibited significantly lower α-diversity than age-matched WT littermates (WT-1M) (Figures 2A and 2B) and a distinct β-diversity profile (Figure 2C). WT-1M mice harbored several beneficial genera, including *Bifidobacterium*, *Anaerostipes*, and *Blautia* (Figure 2D), which are known to promote mucus secretion, protect against enteric pathogens, and modulate mucosal immunity.[22] In contrast, KO-1M mice showed increased abundances of the pathogenic genera *Helicobacter* and *Chlamydia* (Figure 2D), both of which have been linked to gastrointestinal inflammation and neurobehavioral abnormalities.[23,24]

By four months of age, KO mice (KO-4M) maintained reduced α-diversity (Figures S2A and S2B) and distinct β-diversity (Figure 2E) relative to WT-4M mice, along with persistently elevated *Helicobacter* and *Chlamydia* (Figure 2F). Spearman correlation analysis further revealed positive correlations between the abundances of these taxa and behavioral deficits in KO-4M mice (Figure 2G), including reduced social interaction time (RSIT), prolonged traversal latency (BBT), and impaired tube test (TT) performance.

Upon PS128 intervention, fluorescence imaging demonstrated preferential retention and colonization of PS128 in the cecum and colon of both WT and KO mice (Figures 2H–2J and S3), and in the stomach and small intestine of WT mice (Figures S3A, S3F, and S3N). Colonization coincided with pronounced microbiota remodeling (Figures 2K, 2L, and S2C–S2E). Notably, PS128-treated KO mice (KOPS-4M) exhibited α-diversity comparable to WT-4M littermates (Figures S2F and S2G) and a distinct β-diversity profile relative to untreated KO-4M mice (Figure 2M). KOPS-4M mice also showed marked enrichment of *Lactiplantibacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*, together with significant reductions in *Ileibacterium*, *Enterorhabdus*, *Helicobacter*, and *Chlamydia* (Figures 2K, 2L, 2N–2P and S2H–S2M). Overall, these findings indicate that PS128 treatment reshapes the gut microbiota by suppressing inflammation- and disease-associated taxa while enriching beneficial *Lactiplantibacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*. These microbiota shifts coincide with the observed improvements in behavioral phenotypes.

## PS128 ameliorates gut barrier dysfunction and enhances intestinal integrity in *Fmr1* KO Mice

To determine whether PS128-induced microbiota remodeling was accompanied by improvements in intestinal structure and function, we performed anatomical, histological, and biological analyses, with WT littermates used as physiological references.

KO mice displayed significantly elevated intestinal permeability in the intestinal permeability assay (IPA), which was reduced following PS128 supplementation (Figures 3A and 3B). In addition, KO mice exhibited pronounced gastrointestinal abnormalities, including elongation of the cecum and colon (Figures 3C–3E), distorted crypt architecture (Figures 3F and 3G), and reduced goblet cell numbers (Figures 3H–3J), as well as diminished MUC2-positive areas (Figures 3K–3M). PS128 treatment alleviated these abnormalities, restoring mucosal architecture and enhancing epithelial barrier integrity. Collectively, these results demonstrate that PS128 supplementation improves intestinal barrier structure and function in *Fmr1* KO mice.

## PS128 rebalances the Arg–Orn–polyamine metabolic pathway and scavenges putrescine in the gut of *Fmr1* KO

To investigate the functional consequences of PS128-induced microbiota remodeling, we reanalyzed the metagenomic datasets and performed whole-genome sequencing of the PS128 strain to assess its microbial metabolic potential in *Fmr1* KO mice.

Based on KEGG annotation, microbial functions in KO mice were primarily enriched in carbohydrate and amino acid metabolism (Figure S4A). Among these categories, amino acid metabolism showed the most pronounced difference between KO and WT mice, with the highest LDA score ($\log_{10}$ = 3.55) (Figure S4B). PS128 treatment further enhanced amino acid–related pathway in KO mice (Figure S4C). These results highlight amino acid metabolic dysregulation as a prominent microbial feature associated with *Fmr1* deficiency and linked to physiological abnormalities.

We next reconstructed metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) by binning contigs derived from the metagenomic datasets[25] and identified gut–brain modules (GBMs) encoded by species-level genome bins (SGBs) (Figure 4A). GBMs were categorized into eight functional clusters according to their relevance to gut–brain metabolic pathways. Among these, "Neurotransmitter metabolism I" (glutamate metabolism), "Amino acid metabolism II" (serine metabolism), and "Amino acid metabolism I" (arginine metabolism) contained the largest numbers of modules. Notably, "Amino acid metabolism I" showed the clearest difference between WT and KO mice and exhibited the most substantial recovery following PS128 treatment (Figure 4B).

Proteins encoded by bins within "Amino acid metabolism I" were annotated and quantified (Figure 4C), and highly expressed proteins were visualized using radar plots (Figure 4D). Compared with WT littermates, KO mice displayed reduced abundance of spermidine/putrescine transport ATP-binding and substrate-binding proteins, along with the elevated levels of N-carbamoyl-putrescine amidase, indicating diminished bacterial uptake and increased microbial production of putrescine. KO mice also showed increased arginine decarboxylase and decreased ornithine carbamoyltransferase, reflecting upstream disruption of arginine and ornithine metabolism. PS128 supplementation normalized these protein expression patterns, resulting in a more balanced amino acid and polyamine metabolic profile in KOPS mice (Figure 4D).

Whole-genome sequencing of PS128 revealed genes involved in arginine biosynthesis and export, as well as in the uptake and degradation of spermidine and putrescine, whereas genes required for de novo polyamine biosynthesis were absent (Figure 4E). This genomic profile supports a putrescine-consuming role for PS128 in KO mice. In addition, functional annotation showed that PS128-enriched taxa, including *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum*, *Lactiplantibacillus paraplantarum*, and *Levilactobacillus brevis*, together with the six most abundant bacterial species, harbor complementary genetic capacities for arginine, ornithine, and polyamine uptake, degradation, and synthesis (Figure 4F). Taken together, these analyses define a coordinated microbial network through which PS128 modulates arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolism in the gut of *Fmr1* KO mice.

**PS128 realigns the peripheral–central putrescine equilibrium by realigning gut–brain polyamine flux**

PS128 improved prefrontal cortex (PFC)–dependent social behaviors and reduced striatum (STR)–associated repetitive behaviors in *Fmr1* KO mice (Figures 1 and S1). Given that these behavioral effects coincided with PS128-induced remodeling of gut arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolism (Figures 4 and S4), we next examined whether peripheral metabolic changes were reflected in polyamine homeostasis within the PFC and STR. To this end, we performed targeted metabolomic profiling of 40 neuroactive substances, seven short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), and four additional fatty acids in both brain regions (Tables S1 and S2).

Volcano plot analysis revealed a marked elevation of putrescine in the PFC of KO mice relative to WT littermates (Figure 5A), which was significantly attenuated by PS128 supplementation (Figure S5A). This effect was largely region specific, as putrescine levels in the STR showed only modest group differences (Figures S5B and S5C). No significant differences were detected among groups for the 11 fatty acids measured in either brain region (Figures S5D–S5G). Because putrescine circulates systemically (Figure 5B), we next quantified serum putrescine using targeted UHPLC–MS/MS and calculated the PFC-to-serum ratio. KO mice exhibited a significantly elevated ratio compared with WT controls (Figure 5C), whereas PS128 supplementation largely normalized this imbalance (Figure 5D), indicating a coordinated adjustment of peripheral and central putrescine distribution in *Fmr1* KO mice.

To explore molecular changes accompanying this adjustment (Figure 5D), we performed single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) on PFC tissue from KO and WT mice with or without PS128 treatment. PS128 did not appreciably alter overall cell-type composition (Figures 5E, 5F, and S6A). However, transcriptomic analysis revealed a predominance of downregulated genes following PS128 treatment (Figure S6B). Downregulated genes were enriched for pathways related to chromosome organization, glycoprotein metabolism, and macroautophagy (Figure S6C), whereas upregulated genes were associated with telomere organization and protein folding (Figure S6D). Notably, pathways involved in polyamine transmembrane transport were selectively downregulated in PS128-treated KO mice (Figure 5H).

These pathways included *Atp13a2*, *Atp13a3*, and *Atp13a4* (Figures S6B and S6E), which encode mammalian P5B-type ATPases implicated in cellular polyamine handling. Reduced expression of ATP13A2 and ATP13A3 in PS128-treated KO mice (KOPS) was confirmed by Western blotting (Figures 5I–5K). In addition, *Atp13a4*, which is enriched in astrocytes forming part of the blood–brain barrier (Figure S6F), also exhibited reduced expression (Figure S6G). These results indicate that PS128 downregulates polyamine-related transport pathways in the PFC, in parallel with the restoration of peripheral–central putrescine equilibrium in *Fmr1* KO mice.

**Bidirectional manipulation of putrescine metabolism alters autism-like behaviors in mice**

To determine whether disturbance of putrescine metabolism contributes to autism-like behaviors, we administered intraperitoneally putrescine dihydrochloride (200 mg/kg) to 2-month-old wild-type (WT) mice (Figure 6A). Although this treatment did not significantly change putrescine levels in the prefrontal cortex (PFC) (Figure S7A), it was sufficient to induce multiple autism-like behavioral abnormalities. Treated WT mice showed reduced total exploration distance, center exploration distance, and center exploration time in the open-field test (OFT) (Figures 6B–6F), impaired social interaction in the reciprocal social interaction test (RSIT) (Figure 6G), and prolonged traversal time on the 30° balance beam (Figure 6H). These results indicate that elevated peripheral putrescine (Figure S7B) is sufficient to evoke autism-like behavioral phenotypes in WT mice.

We next examined whether reducing putrescine synthesis could ameliorate autism-like behaviors in *Fmr1* KO mice. To this end, we used α-difluoromethylornithine (DFMO), an irreversible inhibitor of ornithine decarboxylase (Figure 6I). Intraperitoneal DFMO administration (500 mg/kg) significantly lowered PFC putrescine levels in both 1- and 2-month-old KO mice (Figures 6J and 6K). DFMO had no significant effect on locomotor activity in the OFT (Figures 6L and 6M); however, compared with 2-month-old KO mice, DFMO slightly reduced center exploration distance and time in 1-month-old KO mice (Figures S7C–S7F),

suggesting age-dependent effects on anxiety-like behavior. Despite this, DFMO treatment increased social
interaction time in the RSIT (Figures 6N and S7G) and shortened traversal time on the 30° beam during
the first trial of the balance beam test (BBT) (Figures 6O and 6P). Early DFMO intervention also improved
performance on the 60° beam in KO mice (Figure 6Q). Moreover, DFMO-treated KO mice exhibited tube
test performance comparable to that of PS128-treated KO mice (KOPS) (Figures 6R and S1R), achieving
higher winning scores than untreated KO mice (Figures 6S and 6T).
Altogether, these results show that elevating putrescine is sufficient to induce autism-like behaviors,
whereas pharmacological reduction of putrescine alleviates these deficits, supporting a causal role for
putrescine imbalance in the behavioral abnormalities of *Fmr1* KO mice.
244

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we show that altered microbial composition and dysregulated arginine–ornithine–polyamine
metabolism are closely linked to autism-like behaviors in *Fmr1* KO mice. PS128 supplementation reshaped
the gut microbiota, improved gut integrity, and rebalanced putrescine homeostasis across the gut-brain axis,
in part through coordinated regulation of microbial metabolism and host transport systems. Our data identify
putrescine as a modulator of behavioral abnormalities and suggest that PS128 acts through an integrated
microbial–metabolic–neuronal pathway. These findings provide a conceptual framework for metabolic
stratification and psychobiotic-based interventions in autism spectrum disorder.
Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) has substantial etiologic and phenotypic heterogeneity.[4] Genetic and
environmental factors converge on the microbiota–gut–brain axis, where altered microbial metabolism
influences amino acid turnover, neurotransmitter synthesis, epithelial integrity, and immune signaling.[26]
Consistent with prior observations, *Fmr1* KO mice in our study exhibited repetitive and restricted behaviors,
social impairments, and motor coordination deficits. These behavioral deficits were accompanied by
intestinal dysbiosis, barrier dysfunction, and metabolic imbalance. These features align with reports of
altered amino acid, lipid, and xenobiotic metabolism in ASD[27] and with evidence linking mucosal barrier
disruption[20] and microbial metabolite shifts to behavioral phenotypes.[28,29]
Sustained supplementation with *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 (PS128) markedly alleviated
autism-like behaviors in *Fmr1* KO mice. PS128 reduced the elevated abundances of *Helicobacter* and
*Chlamydia*, two taxa highly correlated with autism-like behaviors in untreated *Fmr1* KO mice, and restored
beneficial genera, such as *Lactiplantibacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*. While modulation of microbial
composition is an anticipated outcome of probiotic supplementation, the extent to which PS128 improved
intestinal architecture and barrier-associated features in *Fmr1* KO mice was less certain and therefore
warrants further consideration. Consistent with this observation, PS128 ameliorated gastrointestinal
abnormalities and barrier-associated features, suggesting that stabilization of microbial ecology may
contribute to improved intestinal structural integrity.[30] In addition, PS128 increased the abundance of
*Lactiplantibacillus paraplantarum*, *Levilactobacillus brevis*, and *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum*. Notably,
*Lactiplantibacillus paraplantarum* has been reported to improve diabetes-related gastrointestinal
complications and exert anti-inflammatory effects.[31,32] Together, these observations support a psychobiotic
mode of action in which PS128 promotes gut microbial homeostasis and intestinal integrity.[15,16,33]
Beyond compositional rearrangement, PS128 produced a distinct functional correction centered on the
arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolic pathway. Because PS128 lacks de novo putrescine biosynthesis
but encodes uptake and catabolic functions, it likely contributes to the regulation of systemic putrescine
handling rather than serving as a primary source of polyamine production. Consistent with this role, PS128
normalized the elevated prefrontal cortex (PFC)-to-serum putrescine ratio in *Fmr1* KO mice toward wild-
type levels. This correction was accompanied by reduced expression of the polyamine transporters
ATP13A2 and ATP13A3 in the PFC, together with decreased *Atp13a4* expression in astrocytes at the
single-cell level in PS128-treated *Fmr1* KO mice. ATP13A2 and ATP13A3 are major determinants of

mammalian polyamine uptake,[34] and their downregulation is consistent with reduced prefrontal cortical
accumulation of putrescine. Mutations or dysfunction in these transporters have been associated with ASD
and related neurodevelopmental conditions.[35-39] Together, these observations link microbial activity to
central polyamine handling and support a model in which PS128 modulates gut-derived putrescine flux and
neuronal transporter expression.

We identify putrescine as a microbiota-sensitive modulator of autism-like behaviors. Elevating peripheral
putrescine was sufficient to induce anxiety-like behaviors, social impairments, and motor deficits in wild-
type mice, whereas inhibition of endogenous putrescine synthesis with DFMO ameliorated these
abnormalities in *Fmr1* KO mice. At physiological pH, putrescine carries a positive charge and interacts with
nucleic acids, phospholipids, and anionic proteins, thereby influencing macromolecular conformation,
autophagy, membrane dynamics, and inflammatory signaling. Altered polyamine handling, including
astrocytic uptake via ATP13A4, has been shown to tune excitatory synaptic transmission and neuronal
physiology.[40] Because putrescine serves as a metabolic precursor for astrocyte-derived γ-aminobutyric acid
(GABA) through a noncanonical MAO-B- and ALDH-dependent pathway,[41] perturbations in putrescine
availability may reshape inhibitory tone and excitation–inhibition balance in cortical circuits. Clinical
observations of elevated salivary putrescine[13] and increased activity of the gut microbial arginine–
polyamine program in children with ASD[42] further support the concept that putrescine delineates a
metabolically defined ASD subtype that may be particularly responsive to psychobiotic interventions such
as PS128.

In our study, initiating DFMO at four weeks of age raised safety considerations, as juvenile *Fmr1* KO
mice already exhibited mild anxiety-like behaviors. These results suggest that early inhibition of
endogenous putrescine synthesis may exert age-dependent adverse effects on emotional regulation.
Across behavioral endpoints, PS128 produced broader and more consistent improvements than DFMO,
consistent with its combined ecological (microbiota restructuring) and metabolic (polyamine modulation)
actions.

Probiotic-based approaches are increasingly recognized as safe, non-pharmacological options for
neurological and psychiatric disorders. *Lactobacillus reuteri* restored social behavior through vagus-
dependent oxytocinergic and dopaminergic signaling.[43] The microbial metabolite 5-aminovaleric acid
improved autism-like behaviors in BTBR mice by reducing pyramidal neuron excitability in the PFC.[29]
*Bacteroides uniformis* reinstated excitation–inhibition balance in *Chd8+/−* mice by modulating intestinal
amino acid transport and reducing prefrontal glutamine levels.[44] In a valproic acid–induced ASD mouse
model, PS128 ameliorated social and memory deficits by enhancing oxytocin signaling and increasing
dendritic complexity in the hippocampus and PFC.[45] Collectively, these studies support a framework in
which psychobiotics act at the interface of microbial metabolites, host transport systems, and cortical circuit
function. As metabolic abnormalities have been widely reported in ASD across multiple metabolomics
studies, we suggest that future diagnostic strategies may complement current behavior-based diagnostic
approaches (e.g., clinical assessments based on DSM-5-TR) with metabolite-based stratification.

In conclusion, our findings identify putrescine as a potential metabolic marker of an ASD subtype and
support a model in which PS128 modulates gut-derived polyamine metabolism and central transporter
expression to restore social and stereotypic behaviors.

**Limitations of the study**

This study has several limitations. We relied on a single genetic model, which limits the generalizability of
our findings to other ASD subtypes. Although our multi-omics analyses support a gut-driven influence on
central polyamine homeostasis, the specific contributions of individual transporters and brain cell types
remain to be delineated. Future studies incorporating transporter-specific perturbations, isotope-labeled
tracing of gut-to-brain polyamine flux, and in vivo circuit measurements during behavior will help clarify
mechanistic causality. Clinical translation will also require longitudinal studies integrating microbiome,
metabolomic, and behavioral profiling in human cohorts. Ultimately, PS128 may be combined with

pharmacological or behavioral interventions and tailored to baseline metabolic phenotypes, enabling precision treatment strategies for ASD subtypes characterized by disrupted arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolism.

## RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

### *Lead contact*

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Yi-Hsuan Pan (yxpan@sat.ecnu.edu.cn).

### *Materials availability*

This study did not generate new unique reagents. All materials generated in this study are available from the lead contact with a completed material transfer agreement.

### *Data and code availability*

- Whole-genome sequencing data for *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 have been deposited in NCBI-SRA under accession number PRJNA1345344.
- 16S rRNA sequencing data have been deposited in NCBI-SRA under accession number PRJNA1345244.
- Metagenomic sequencing data have been deposited in NCBI-SRA under accession number PRJNA1345245.
- Single-nucleus RNA sequencing data have been deposited in NCBI-SRA under accession number PRJNA1345209.
- This paper does not report original code.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

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## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.H.P. and X.B.Y. conceived and supervised the project and obtained funding. Y.M.C., Y.X.C., and S.Z. conducted behavioral, histological, and molecular analyses. J.L.C., Y.X.C., Y.M.C., T.A.L., and S.S.G. conducted data processing. Y.M.C., Y.X.C., and Y.H.P. conducted data analysis and figure organization. Y.H.P., X.B.Y., Y.C.T., Y.W.L., J.M., W.Z., and H.P.L. contributed to the discussion and data interpretation. Y.M.C., Y.X.C., Y.H.P., and X.B.Y. wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

## DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

## DECLARATION OF GENERATIVE AI AND AI-ASSISTED TECHNOLOGIES

During the preparation of this work, the author(s) used ChatGPT 5.2 in order to check the grammatical errors of the paper. After using this tool/service, the author(s) reviewed and edited the content as needed and take(s) full responsibility for the content of the published article.

## SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Document S1. Figures S1–S7

Table S1. Raw data related to Figures 1–6.

Table S2. Raw data related to Figures S1–S7.

Video S1. Voluntary intake of PS128-containing or blank jelly in mice.

Video S2. Behavioral statistics from the olfactory habituation/dishabituation test, related to Figure S1.

Video S3. Four specific behaviors in the olfactory habituation/dishabituation test, related to Figure S1.

**Figure 1. PS128 supplementation mitigates autism-like behaviors in *Fmr1* KO mice**

(A–C) Representative traces in the open-field test (OFT) (A), total exploration distance (B), and center exploration distance (C), *n* = 12–21.

(D–F) Schematic of the novel object recognition test (NORT) (D), recognition index (%) = (novel) / (novel + familiar) x 100, based on sniffing time (E), and total time spent climbing over objects (F), *n* = 13–18.

(G–I) Schematic of the reciprocal social interaction test (RSIT) (G), interaction time with familiar or novel mice across three stages (H), and interaction time at Stage 3 (I), *n* = 15–16. S, stage.

(J–L) Schematic of the balance beam test (BBT) (J), latency to traverse a 30° beam (K), or a 60° beam (L), *n* = 15–16. Data are presented as mean ± S.E.M. and gray dots indicate individual mice. One-tailed ($\$$) or

398 two-tailed (#) Student's *t*-test and two-tailed ($^{n\#}$) Mann–Whitney U test were used where appropriate. A *P*

399 value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

400 See also Figure S1.

**Figure 2. Gut microbiota diversity, community structure, and taxonomic changes in mice with or without PS128 treatment.**

(A–D) Gut microbiota analysis of 1-month-old *Fmr1* KO mice and their wild-type (WT) littermates without PS128 intervention. Observed species (A). Shannon diversity index (B). Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) plot based on unweighted UniFrac distances (C). Histogram of linear discriminant analysis (LDA) scores from LEfSe analysis at the genus level, logarithmic LDA score cutoff > 3.0, $P < 0.05$ (D), $n$ = 19–20.

(E and F) Gut microbiota analysis of 4-month-old *Fmr1* KO mice and their WT littermates following 3 months of PS128 supplementation. PCoA plot (E). Histogram of logarithmic LDA scores, cutoff > 2.5, $P < 0.05$ (F), $n$ = 10.

(G) Spearman's rank correlation analysis between the relative abundance of *Helicobacter* and *Chlamydia* and behavioral performance in 4-month-old *Fmr1* KO mice, $n$ = 10–11.

(H–J) Biodistribution of PS128 in the gastrointestinal tract. Representative ex vivo fluorescence images of the gut from *Fmr1* KO mice and their WT littermates after oral gavage with fluorescently labeled PS128 (H and I). Average radiant efficiency quantified from the cecum and colon (CC) (J), $n$ = 5–6.

(K and L) Relative abundance of gut microbiota at the genus (K) and species (L) levels in 4-month-old groups, $n$ = 11–13.

(M and N) Gut microbiota analysis comparing 4-month-old *Fmr1* KO mice with or without PS128 treatment (KO or KOPS). PCoA plot (M). Histogram of logarithmic LDA scores, cutoff > 2.2, $P < 0.05$ (N), $n$ = 10-11.

(O and P) Relative abundance of *Helicobacter* (O) and *Chlamydia* (P) across 4-month-old groups, $n$ = 10.

Data are presented as mean ± S.E.M. and each dot represents an individual mouse. Statistical significance was determined by two-tailed Student's *t*-test ([#]), one-tailed ([n$]), or two-tailed ([n#]) Mann–Whitney U test, as appropriate. A $P$ value < 0.05 was considered significant.

See also Figures S2 and S3.

**Figure 3. PS128 restores gut barrier function and integrity in *Fmr1* KO mice**

(A and B) Assessment of intestinal permeability. Schematic of intestinal permeability assay (IPA) (A). Serum FITC-dextran concentrations after orally self-consumed FITC–dextran–loaded gelatin (B), $n$ = 10–14.

(C–E) Gross anatomical assessment of the large intestine. Average length of the cecum and colon, $n$ = 9–15 (C). Representative images of dissected tissues (D and E).

(F and G) Colon integrity. Representative immunofluorescence images of colonic sections stained for ZO-1 (red) and nuclei (DAPI, blue). Scale bar, 100 μm.

(H–J) Histological evaluation of colonic architecture. Representative H&E–stained sections of *Fmr1* KO and
their WT littermates with/without PS128 intervention (H and I). Quantification of goblet cells per crypt
(average of 3 crypts per section, 3 sections per mouse), $n$ = 3–4 (J). Scale bars, 200 µm and 100 µm.
(K–M) Analysis of mucin production. Representative AB–PAS–stained sections showing acidic and neutral
mucins in blue and magenta for KO and their WT littermates with/without PS128 intervention (K and L).
Quantification of MUC2-positive light blue and dark purple areas per crypt, 3 crypts per mouse, $n$ = 4 (M).
Scale bars, 200 µm and 100 µm. Data are mean ± S.E.M. and each dot represents an individual mouse.
Statistical significance was determined by one-tailed ($^{\$}$) or two-tailed ($^{\#}$) Student's *t*-test. A *P* value < 0.05
was considered significant.

 **Figure 4. PS128 modulates gut microbial arginine–ornithine–polyamine metabolism in *Fmr1* KO**
 **mice**
 (A–D) Distribution of gut–brain modules (GBMs) at the species level. Each GBM is represented by a distinct
 color (A). GBMs were classified into eight functional clusters based on their association with gut–brain
 metabolic pathways. Relative abundance (%) of total modules within each GBM cluster (B). Relative
 abundance (%) of proteins encoded by bins related to "Amino acid metabolism I" (C). Key pathways in
 amine metabolism within "Amino acid metabolism I" (D). $n$ = 11–13 per group.
 (E) Schematic of metabolic pathways annotated from whole-genome sequencing of PS128.
 (F) Sankey diagram showing correlations between genes encoding enzymes involved in arginine, ornithine,
 and spermidine/putrescine metabolism and bacterial strains enriched by PS128, together with the six most
 abundant bacterial species.
 See also Figure S4.

(G) Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the PFC, highlighting
pathways related to polyamine transport. $-\log_{10}(q$ value) >1.3 was considered significant. Count, number of
DEGs. DEGs were defined as $P < 0.05$ and $|\log_2$ fold change$| \geq 0.12$ with expression in at least 10% of
PFC cells (Methods).
(H) Schematic of two principal routes for putrescine transport. Putrescine crosses the blood–brain barrier
(BBB) by passive diffusion or via active transport mediated by P5B-type ATPases (ATP13A2, ATP13A3,
ATP13A4) and other putative transporters.
(I–K) Western blot of ATP13A2, ATP13A3, and β-actin in the PFC (I), with densitometric quantification of
ATP13A2 (J) and ATP13A3 (K) normalized to β-actin. $n = 3$–6 mice per group. Data are presented as mean
± S.E.M. and gray dot represents individual mice. Statistical significance was determined using one-tailed
($^\$$) or two-tailed ($^\#$) Student's $t$-test, or two-tailed ($^{n\#}$) Mann–Whitney U test as appropriate. A chi-square ($^\wedge$)
test was used in (C and D). A $P$ value < 0.05 was considered significant.
See also Figures S5 and S6.

**Figure 6. Putrescine imbalance modulates autism-like behaviors in mice**

(A) Schematic of putrescine intervention in 2-month-old WT mice and behavioral tests. i.p., intraperitoneal injection.

(B–F) Representative traces (B) and heatmap (C) of the open-field test (OFT), total exploration distance (D), center exploration distance (E), and time spent in the center area (F).

(G) Interaction time with familiar or novel mice across three stages of the reciprocal social interaction test
(RSIT). S, stage.
(H) Latency to traverse a 30° beam across four trials of the balance beam test (BBT). Effects of exogenous
putrescine intervention in 2-month-old WT mice (B–H), $n$ = 10–12.
(I) Schematic of DFMO intervention in 1- or 2-month-old *Fmr1* KO mice. i.p., intraperitoneal injection.
(J and K) Relative putrescine concentration in the PFC after DFMO or saline injection from 1 month (J) or
2 months (K) of age, $n$ = 6–9.
(L and M) Total exploration distance in the OFT.
(N) Interaction time with familiar or novel mice across three stages of the RSIT.
(O–Q) Latency to traverse a 30° beam across four trials (O and P) or a 60° beam (Q) of the BBT.
(R–T) Schematic of the tube test (TT) (R) and average score (AVE) per mouse obtained in the TT (S and
T). Effects of endogenous putrescine inhibition by DFMO in 1- or 2-month-old *Fmr1* KO mice (J–T), $n$ = 9–
11. Data are presented as mean ± S.E.M. and gray dots indicate individual mice. One-tailed ($^{\$}$) or two-tailed
($^{\#}$) Student's *t*-test, one-tailed ($^{n\$}$) or two-tailed ($^{n\#}$) Mann–Whitney U test were used as appropriate. A chi-
square ($^{\wedge}$) test was used in (S and T). A $P$ value < 0.05 was considered significant.
See also Figure S7.

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10.1016/j.biopsych.2024.05.023.

 **STAR★METHODS**

 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

| REAGENT OR RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---|---|---|
| Antibodies | | |
| ZO-1 Monoclonal Antibody | Thermo Fisher | Cat# ZO1-1A12; RRID: AB_2533147 |
| Goat anti-Mouse IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 546 | Thermo Fisher | Cat# A-11003; RRID: AB_2534071 |
| ATP13A3 Antibody | Proteintech | Cat# 55108-1-AP; RRID: AB_3670238 |
| ATP13A2 Antibody | Santa Cruz | Cat# sc-293367 |
| β-Actin Antibody | Santa Cruz | Cat# sc-47778; RRID: AB_626632 |
| HRP-labeled Goat Anti-Mouse IgG (H+L) | Beyotime | Cat# A0216; RRID: AB_2860575 |
| HRP-labeled Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) | Beyotime | Cat# A0208; RRID: AB_2892644 |
| Bacterial and virus strains | | |
| *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 | Centro Sperimentale del Latte srl | Cat# G001723 |
| Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins | | |
| Gelatins | Sinopharm | Cat# 10010326 |
| Sucrose | Sigma | Cat# V900116 |
| Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-dextran | Aladdin | Cat# F121152 |
| Ethanol | Aladdin | Cat# E118433-25L |
| Banana Extract | McCormick & Co., Inc. | N/A |
| Triton X-100 | Sigma | Cat# T8787-100ML |
| Goat Serum | Beyotime | Cat# C0265 |
| Bovine Serum Albumin | Sangon Biotech | Cat# A602440-0050 |
| Putrescine dihydrochloride | Sangon Biotech | Cat# A600793 |
| α-Difluoromethylornithine | MedChemExpress | Cat# HY-B0744 |
| Protease Inhibitor Cocktail | Roche | REF: 04693124001 |
| MRS broth | Solarbio | Cat# M8540 |
| Agar | Sangon Biotech | Cat# A505255-0250 |
| Lysozyme | Tiangen | Cat# RT401 |
| EDTA, disodium salt, dihydrate | Sangon Biotech | Cat# EB0185-500g |
| Carboxyfluorescein Diacetate Succinimidyl Ester | MedChemExpress | Cat# HY-D0938 |
| Simulated Gastric Fluid | Phygene | Cat# PH1840 |
| Simulated Intestinal Fluid | Phygene | Cat# PH1841 |
| Mineral Oil | Acmec | Cat# M97740 |
| Ethanol absolute | Sinopharm | Cat# 10009218 |
| Critical commercial assays | | |
| Hematoxylin and Eosin Staining Kit | Beyotime | Cat# C0105S |
| Alcian Blue Periodic Acid-Schiff Staining Kit | Leagene | Cat# DG0007 |
| Chemiluminescent HRP substrate | Millipore | Cat# WBKLS0500 |
| *TransZol* Up Plus RNA Kit | TransGen Biotech | Cat# ER501 |
| FastKing RT Kit (With gDNase) | Tiangen | Cat# KR116 |
| 2 x Taq Plus Master Mix II | Vazyme | Cat# P213-02 |
| SYBR Green Master Mix | Qiagen | Cat# 208054 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Mouse Putrescine ELISA Kit | Enzyme-linked | REF: YJ523211 |

**Deposited data**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Metagenomic sequencing | NCBI | BioProject: PRJNA1345245 |
| 16S rRNA Gene sequencing | NCBI | BioProject: PRJNA1345244 |
| Single-nucleus RNA sequencing | NCBI | BioProject: PRJNA1345209 |
| Whole-genome sequencing of *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 | NCBI | BioProject: PRJNA1345344 |
| Targeted metabolomics assay | N/A | Tables S1 and S2 |

**Experimental models: Organisms/strains**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Mouse: C57BL/6J | Shanghai Jihui Laboratory Animal Care Co., Ltd. | Cat# SHJH-M-01002 |
| Mouse: FVB.129P2-*Pde6b*^{+} *Tyr*[c-ch] *Fmr1*[tm1Cgr/]J | The Jackson Laboratory | RRID: IMSR_JAX:004624 |

**Oligonucleotides**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Primers for *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 quantitative real-time PCR, see Figure S3V | This paper | N/A |
| Primers for all bacteria quantitative real-time PCR, see Figure S3V | Schwieger and Tebbe[46] | https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.64.12.4870-4876.1998 |

**Software and algorithms**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Any-maze system (version 7.20) | Stoelting | https://stoeltingco.com/Neuroscience/ANY-maze |
| GraphPad Prism (version 10.6.1) | GraphPad | www.graphpad.com |
| Adobe illustrator (version 30.1) | Adobe | www.adobe.com |
| ImageJ (version 1.54f) | National Institutes of Health | https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/ |
| R (version 4.4.3) | R Core Team | https://www.r-project.org/ |
| Rsudio | R studio | https://rstudio.com |
| ImageQuant TL software (version 7.0) | Amersham Biosciences | https://imagequanttl.software.informer.com/ |
| Bio-Rad CFX Maestro software (version 3.1.1517.0823) | Bio-Rad | https://www.bio-rad-china.com/ |
| LivingImage software (version 4.5.2) | PerkinElmer | https://www.perkinelmer.com/lab-products-and-services/resources/in-vivo-imaging-software-downloads.html#LivingImage |
| Vsearch software (version 2.15.2) | Rognes et al[47] | https://github.com/torognes/vsearch/ |
| Silva database (version 123) | Leibniz Institute | ftp://download.nmdc.cn/tools/amplicon/silva/silva_16s_v123.fa.gz |
| OmicStudio cloud platform | OmicStudio | https://www.omicstudio.cn |
| Majorbio Cloud Platform | Majorbio | www.majorbio.com |
| FASTP (version 0.23.0) | Chen[48] | https://github.com/OpenGene/fastp/ |
| BWA (version 0.7.17) | Li and Durbin[49] | https://bio-bwa.sourceforge.net/ |
| MEGAHIT (version 1.1.2) | Li et al[50] | https://github.com/voutcn/megahit/ |
| Prodigal (version2.6.3) | Hyatt[51] | https://github.com/hyattpd/Prodigal/ |
| CD-HIT (version 4.7) | Li and Godzik[52] | http://weizhongli-lab.org/cd-hit |

| SOAPaligner (version 2.21) | Li et al[53] | https://github.com/ShujiaHuang/SOAPaligner/ |
|---|---|---|
| NCBI NR database | NCBI | https://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/db/FASTA/ |
| DIAMOND (version 2.0.13) | Buchfink[54] | http://ab.inf.uni-tuebingen.de/software/diamond/ |
| KEGG Database | Kanehisa Laboratories | https://www.kegg.jp/kegg |
| CapCut (version 5.7.0) | Shenzhen Myotee Science and Technology Co., Ltd. | https://www.capcut.cn/ |
| Seurat (version 4.4.3) | Hao et al[55] | https://github.com/satijalab/seurat |
| Clustree (version 0.5.1) | Zappia and Oshlack[56] | https://github.com/lazappi/clustree |
| CellMarker 2.0 database | Hu et al[57] | http://117.50.127.228/CellMarker/CellMarker_download.html |
| scCustomize (version 3.2.0) | Marsh | https://github.com/samuel-marsh/scCustomize |
| ggplot2 (version 3.5.2) | Wickham et al | https://cran.r-project.org/package=ggplot2 |
| VennDiagram (version 1.7.3) | Chen | https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=VennDiagram |
| clusterProfiler (version 4.14.6) | Wu et al[58] | https://github.com/YuLab-SMU/clusterProfiler |
| org.Mm.eg.db (version 3.20.0) | Carlson | https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/data/annotation/html/org.Mm.eg.db.html |
| JAX Gene Ontology Database | Hayamizu et al[59] | https://www.informatics.jax.org/vocab/gene_ontology/GO:0008150 |

## EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS

### Animals and Ethical Statement

All animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of East China Normal University (approval no. m20241106) and were conducted in accordance with institutional guidelines. Female C57BL/6J mice were obtained from Shanghai Jihui Laboratory Animal Care Co., Ltd., and male *Fmr1* knockout (KO) mice (stock no. 004624) were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory. To generate *Fmr1* KO mice on a uniform C57BL/6J genetic background, the KO line was backcrossed with wild-type C57BL/6J mice for ten generations. Male wild-type and *Fmr1* KO littermates on a C57BL/6J background were used for all experiments. Mice were housed in groups of six under specific pathogen-free (SPF) conditions at the multifunctional platform for innovation (Platform 101). The animal facility was maintained at 22 ± 1°C and 50 ± 5% relative humidity under a twelve-hour light/twelve-hour dark cycle (lights on at 6:00 a.m. and off at 6:00 p.m.). All mice had ad libitum access to water and a standard chow diet, with daily food intake set at 2.5 g per mouse from 1 month of age and 3.0 g per mouse from 2 months of age onward.

### Bacterial Strains and Growth Conditions

*Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 was obtained from Centro Sperimentale del Latte Srl and cultured in de Man-Rogosa-Sharpe (MRS) broth at 37 °C for liquid cultures or on MRS agar plates supplemented with 1.5% (w/v) agar.

 **METHOD DETAILS**
**Preparation of Jelly Enriched with PS128, Blank Controls, and FITC**
Gelatin-based jellies were prepared as follows. Briefly, 2.1 g of gelatin and 0.3 g of sucrose were dissolved
in 22.5 mL of sterilized double-distilled water (ddH$_2$O) by heating to 55ºC under constant stirring. The
solution was then diluted with sterilized ddH$_2$O prewarmed to 55ºC to a final volume of 30 mL while
continuously stirred.
The gelatin solution was evenly divided into two sterilized glass beakers and one 50-mL centrifuge tube
(10 mL each) and maintained at 37ºC. Lyophilized *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 (0.46 g) was added
to one beaker, and fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)–dextran (0.6 g) was added to the centrifuge tube. All
procedures involving FITC were performed under light-protected conditions. Both beakers were placed on
magnetic stirrers in a laminar-flow hood, whereas the centrifuge tube was mixed using a Genie 2 vortex
mixer until fully homogenized. Aliquots of 150 μL from the PS128-enriched and blank gelatin solutions and
300 μL from the FITC–dextran solution were dispensed into sterilized custom-made 0.5-mL jelly molds. The
molds (0.9 cm in diameter and 1.2 cm in height) were generated by trimming the upper portion of 2-mL
cryogenic vials with conical round bottoms. The filled molds were incubated at 4ºC for 2 hours to allow
complete gelation.
After solidification, jellies were removed from the molds using sterilized tweezers. Each mouse was
provided with one PS128-enriched jelly containing approximately $2.07 \times 10^9$ colony-forming units (CFU) of
*Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 once every two days. FITC-enriched jellies were prepared fresh as
needed, and each mouse was provided with one jelly delivering 0.018 g of FITC–dextran per 30-g body
weight.
751

**Training Mice for Voluntary Jelly Intake**
Male wild-type (WT) and *Fmr1* knockout (KO) littermates at 3 weeks of age were housed separately for 1
week and then randomly assigned to four groups: WT, WTPS, KO, and KOPS. Mice in the WTPS and
KOPS groups were provided with one PS128-enriched jelly every two days, whereas mice in the WT and
KO groups were provided with one blank jelly on the same schedule (Video S1). To facilitate recognition
and voluntary consumption of the jelly, the jelly surface was lightly coated with powdered standard chow
during the first three feeding sessions.
759

**Behavioral Experiments**
Behavioral testing was initiated after 28 consecutive days of exposure to PS128-enriched jelly or blank jelly.
All tests were conducted between 9:00 a.m. and 3:00 p.m., with a minimum 2-day interval between
consecutive tests to minimize stress. Prior to behavioral assessment, mice were handled for 10 minutes
per day for 3 consecutive days and acclimated to the testing room for 2 hours on the test day.
Behavioral assays were performed in the following order: open-field test, novel object recognition test,
elevated plus maze test, O-maze test, reciprocal social interaction test, olfactory habituation/dishabituation
test, tube test, and balance beam test. Mouse behavior during training and testing sessions was recorded
using the ANY-maze behavioral tracking system (version 7.20) and/or video cameras. All apparatuses were
cleaned with 35% ethanol between individual mice, and a 5-minute interval was allowed between sessions
to dissipate residual odors.
***The open-field test***
The open-field test was performed in a square arena with white opaque walls (40 cm × 40 cm × 40 cm).
Mice were gently placed in the center of the arena and allowed to explore individually for 5 minutes under
an illumination of 45 lux. Total distance traveled and time spent in the center zone (20 cm × 20 cm) were
quantified.
***Novel object recognition test***
The test was performed in the same arena used for the open-field test under an illumination of 3 to 5 lux.
The test consisted of two 10-minute sessions separated by a 1-hour interval. During the first session

(learning phase), mice were allowed to freely explore the arena containing two identical objects (Object A1
and Object A2; 6 × 6 × 10 cm, length × width × height). After the 1-hour interval, mice were reintroduced to
the arena for the second session (testing phase), during which one familiar object was replaced with a novel
object of identical dimensions (Object B). Sniffing behavior was defined as the mouse directing its nose
toward an object at a distance within 3 cm. The total duration and frequency of sniffing the novel object
were quantified and compared with those for the familiar object. Climbing behavior was quantified as the
total duration and frequency of climbing onto Objects A and B and was defined as any event in which both
hind limbs were off the ground. The recognition index was calculated as the percentage of time spent
sniffing the novel object relative to the total sniffing time.

### Elevated plus maze test

789 The elevated plus maze consisted of a plus-shaped platform with two enclosed arms (30 cm × 5 cm)
790 surrounded by 15 cm-high walls and two open arms (30 cm × 5 cm). The maze was elevated 60 cm above
791 the floor. At the start of the test, mice were placed in the central area of the maze facing an open arm and
792 allowed to explore freely for 5 minutes under an illumination of 45 lux. The time spent and distance traveled
793 in the open and enclosed arms were quantified.

### The O-maze test

The O-maze test was performed using a circular elevated track constructed of gray acrylic, with a height of
40 cm, an inner diameter of 48 cm, and a width of 5 cm. The maze consisted of two open arms and two
enclosed arms of equal length arranged alternately along the track, with each arm spanning 45°. The open
arms were equipped with 0.5 cm-high acrylic strips serving as anti-fall guardrails, whereas the enclosed
arms were surrounded by 15 cm-high walls to block visual access to the external environment.
At the start of the test, each mouse was placed facing an enclosed arm and allowed to explore freely for
5 minutes under an illumination of 45 lux. Time spent, distance traveled, and the number of entries into the
open and enclosed arms were quantified.

### Balance beam test

The test was performed using an inclined square wooden beam with a flat surface. For the 30° condition,
the beam was 0.8 cm wide and 100 cm long, with the lower and higher ends positioned at vertical heights
of 26 cm and 76 cm, respectively. A black shelter box (12 × 12 × 12 cm; wall thickness, 3 mm) containing
nesting material previously used by the mice for 3 days was placed at the higher end of the beam.
During the training phase, mice were placed at the lower end of the 30° beam and guided to traverse the
beam once per day for 3 consecutive days. If a mouse paused for more than 10 seconds without forward
movement, it was gently encouraged to proceed using the back of the experimenter's index finger. During
the testing phase, mice traversed the beam without guidance and were allowed to rest in the shelter box
for 15 seconds after crossing. Each mouse completed four trials on the 30° beam. The beam was then
replaced with a narrower beam (0.6 cm wide and 50 cm long), with the lower and higher ends positioned
at 33 cm and 76 cm, respectively, resulting in a 60° incline. Mice completed one trial on the 60° beam, and
the latency to traverse the beam was recorded.
Performance was scored on a 7-point scale. A full score of 7 was assigned when a mouse crossed the
beam without slipping, falling, or requiring prompting. One point was deducted for each occurrence of
slipping, falling, or prompting, with a minimum score of 1.

### Reciprocal social interaction test

The test was performed in the same arena used for the open-field test. The test consisted of three 3-minute
sessions separated by 30-minute rest intervals. In each session, the experimental mouse was placed in the
arena and allowed to interact with an age-, sex-, and weight-matched conspecific.
During the first session, the experimental mouse interacted with an unfamiliar wild-type (WT) mouse
(Mouse 1). After a 30-minute rest interval, the experimental mouse was reintroduced to the arena to interact
with the same WT mouse (Mouse 1), which had become familiar, during the second session. Following a
second 30-minute rest interval, the experimental mouse interacted with a different unfamiliar WT mouse

(Mouse 2) during the third session. Social behaviors, including chasing, physical contact, sniffing within a
2-cm interaction zone, and crawling over WT mouse were quantified.
***Olfactory habituation/dishabituation test***
The olfactory habituation/dishabituation test was performed in a clean, transparent cage (27.2 × 17.5 ×
11.5 cm, length × width × height) lined with fresh bedding and covered with a lid containing a 5-mm-diameter
hole for odor presentation. Each mouse was placed in the cage and allowed to acclimate for 90 seconds
before testing.
During testing, a cotton swab saturated with 100 μL of a given odor was introduced through the hole and
suspended in the cage for 1 minute. The swab was replaced every minute with a fresh one, resulting in
three consecutive presentations per odor. This procedure was repeated sequentially for four odors: pure
water, imitation banana flavor (1:100 dilution), and soiled bedding collected from two independent cages,
each housing two sibling wild-type (WT) mice.
Water and banana flavor were used as nonsocial odors. Soiled bedding from sex- and age-matched WT
mice was used as a social odor. Social odor samples were obtained from two distinct cages of sibling WT
mice that had been co-housed for at least 7 days, ensuring different family lineages between cages. Odors
were collected by rubbing a cotton swab along the bottom surface of each cage in a circular motion six
times.
The duration of sniffing, nibbling, reaching toward, and maintaining contact with the swab was quantified,
and the proportion of each behavior relative to the total interaction time was calculated (Videos S2 and S3).
***Tube test***
The tube test was performed using a transparent acrylic tube (30 cm in length, 3 cm inner diameter, 3 mm
wall thickness). To facilitate habituation, two identical 15 cm tubes were placed in the home cages for three
consecutive days. Mice were then trained to traverse the 30 cm tube six times per day (three passes in
each direction) for three consecutive days.
On the testing day, weight-matched mice from different experimental groups (WT vs. KO, WT vs. WTPS,
WT vs. KOPS, or KO vs. KOPS) were placed at opposite ends of a horizontally positioned tube and allowed
to enter simultaneously. The mouse that advanced through the tube was assigned a score of 1, whereas
the mouse that retreated was assigned a score of 0. After an interval of 2 hours, a second trial was
conducted, pairing mice with similar first-trial scores and body weights.
856
**Intestinal Permeability Assay**
Four-month-old mice were fasted for 4 hours before actively consuming FITC–dextran–enriched jelly at a
dose of 0.6 mg per g body weight. Four hours after jelly consumption, approximately 800 μL of venous
blood was collected from each mouse via orbital blood sampling under isoflurane anesthesia and
transferred to a 1.5-mL microcentrifuge tube. Blood samples were allowed to clot at 25°C for 1 hour,
followed by centrifugation at 3,000 rpm for 10 minutes. The supernatant was carefully transferred to a clean
1.5-mL microcentrifuge tube and centrifuged again at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C.
A total of 200 μL of clarified serum was mixed with an equal volume of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS),
and 150 μL of the diluted serum was added in duplicate to a 96-well flat-bottom black microplate.
Fluorescence intensity of FITC–dextran in serum was measured using a spectrofluorometer at excitation
and emission wavelengths of 485 nm and 528 nm, respectively. A standard curve was generated using
serial dilutions of FITC–dextran in PBS (0, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, and $6.0 \times 10^{-4}$ μg/μL), and serum FITC–dextran
concentrations were calculated by interpolation according to the manufacturer's instructions.
870
**Histological Evaluation of Transverse Colon**
Colon segments (1.5 cm in length, located 1.5–3.0 cm proximal to the distal colon) were excised and fixed
in 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.4) at 4°C for 24 hours. After fixation,
tissues were washed in PBS, dehydrated through a graded ethanol series, and embedded in paraffin.

Paraffin-embedded samples were sectioned at a thickness of 5 μm and mounted onto adhesive microscope
slides.
Sections were deparaffinized, rehydrated, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) or Alcian blue–
periodic acid–Schiff (AB–PAS). Images were acquired using an LED-illuminated light microscope. For
quantitative analysis, three consecutive intact crypts per section, defined as fully visible and undamaged
structures, were randomly selected. Measurements were performed on at least three independent sections
per mouse.
882
### Immunofluorescence Assay
883
Paraffin-embedded sections were subjected to antigen retrieval by incubation in sodium citrate buffer (10
mM, pH 6.0) at 99°C for 15 minutes. Sections were then blocked in a solution containing 0.5% Triton X-
100, 5% goat serum, and 5% bovine serum albumin for 2 hours at room temperature. After blocking,
sections were incubated with a primary antibody against ZO-1 (1:200) at 4°C for 36 hours. Following rinsing
in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), sections were incubated with an appropriate secondary antibody
(1:500) for 2 hours at 37°C. Fluorescent signals were imaged using a confocal laser scanning microscope
with excitation and emission wavelengths of 557 nm and 572 nm, respectively.
891
### Treatment Protocols for DFMO and Putrescine
892
α-Difluoromethylornithine (DFMO) and putrescine dihydrochloride were dissolved in sterile saline at room
temperature and administered via intraperitoneal injection (i.p.). For juvenile *Fmr1* knockout (KO) mice,
DFMO treatment was initiated at 4 weeks of age at a dose of 500 mg per kg body weight, administered
every other day for 28 days. After mice reached 2 months of age, DFMO administration was continued
throughout the behavioral testing period until tissue collection. For adult mice, *Fmr1* KO mice received
DFMO at a dose of 500 mg per kg body weight once daily for 7 consecutive days, whereas adult wild-type
(WT) mice received putrescine dihydrochloride at a dose of 200 mg per kg body weight once daily for 7
consecutive days. Treatments were maintained throughout behavioral testing until tissue collection.
901
### Determination of Putrescine in Prefrontal Cortex
902
Following behavioral assessments, mice were euthanized under deep isoflurane anesthesia, and the
prefrontal cortex (PFC) was rapidly dissected and weighed. Tissue homogenates were prepared by adding
lysis buffer at a ratio of 500 μL per 0.1 g of tissue, followed by homogenization and incubation on ice for 10
minutes. Homogenates were centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C, and the supernatant was
collected for putrescine quantification.
Putrescine concentrations were measured using a commercial enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
(ELISA) kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were diluted 1:5 in dilution buffer, and 50
μL of each diluted sample or standard was added to pre-coated wells together with 100 μL of horseradish
peroxidase (HRP)–conjugated detection antibody. After incubation for 60 minutes at 37°C, wells were
washed five times, followed by the addition of substrate solution and incubation in the dark for 15 minutes.
The reaction was terminated with stop solution, and absorbance was measured at 450 nm. Putrescine
concentrations were calculated from a standard curve and corrected for the dilution factor.
915
### Immunoblotting
916
917 Prefrontal cortex tissues were homogenized individually in ice-cold lysis buffer supplemented with a
918 protease inhibitor cocktail.[60] Protein concentrations were determined, and 20 μg of total protein per sample
919 was loaded onto 10% SDS–polyacrylamide gels for electrophoretic separation, followed by transfer onto
920 0.2-μm polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes using an electroblotting system.

The PVDF membranes were blocked in TBST blocking buffer for 16 hours at 4°C, followed by incubation overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies: anti-ATP13A3 (1:500), anti-ATP13A2 (1:200), and anti-β-actin (1:10000).

Following three washes with TBST, the blots were incubated with goat anti-mouse IgG labeled with horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (1:1000) or goat anti-rabbit IgG labeled with HRP (1:1000) and visualized using a chemiluminescent HRP detection kit. Images of the blots were captured using the ImageQuant LAS-4000 system, and the density of protein bands was quantified using ImageQuant TL software (version 7.0). The relative protein quantity was determined by normalizing the density of the target protein band to the density of the β-actin band in the same lane. Western blot analysis included two or six technical replicates for each sample.

### Fluorescent Labeling of PS128

Overnight cultures of *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 were inoculated into sterile MRS broth at a 1% (v/v) ratio and grown to an optical density at 600 nm ($OD_{600}$) of 1.0. Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5,000 × g for 2 minutes at 4°C and washed three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFDA/SE) was then added to a final concentration of 20 µM, and bacteria were incubated in the dark at 37°C for 30 minutes. Excess dye was removed by washing the cells three times with PBS.

Following labeling, PS128 cells were resuspended in PBS at concentrations of $1 \times 10^9$ or $1 \times 10^{10}$ colony-forming units (CFU) per milliliter. A small aliquot of the bacterial suspension was mounted onto microscope slides, and fluorescence images were acquired using a fluorescence microscope. Labeling efficiency was calculated as the proportion of fluorescently labeled cells relative to the total number of cells. Quantification was performed by randomly selecting seven fields of view from samples at $1 \times 10^9$ CFU/mL and three fields of view from samples at $1 \times 10^{10}$ CFU/mL.

### Determination of PS128 Growth Before and After CFDA/SE Treatment

PS128 cultures at a concentration of $1 \times 10^{10}$ colony-forming units (CFU) per milliliter, with or without CFDA/SE labeling, were inoculated into sterile MRS broth at a 3% (v/v) ratio. Bacterial growth was monitored by measuring the optical density at 600 nm ($OD_{600}$) every 30 minutes during the first 2 hours and then every 1 hour up to 8 hours to generate growth curves. For each condition, $OD_{600}$ values at each time point were calculated as the mean of two technical replicates from five independent bacterial cultures.

### Determination of PS128 Tolerance to Gastric and Intestinal Fluids

Tolerance of *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 to simulated gastric fluid (SGF) and simulated intestinal fluid (SIF) was assessed based on previously described methods by Corcoran et al.[61] and Azat et al.[62], with modifications. Briefly, PS128 cells resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) were collected by centrifugation at 5,000 × g for 2 minutes at 4°C and resuspended in 2.5 mL of MRS broth for a recovery period of 2.5 hours.

An 800-µL aliquot of PS128 culture at a concentration of $1 \times 10^{10}$ colony-forming units (CFU) per milliliter was mixed with an equal volume of MRS broth (control), a 1:1 mixture of MRS broth and SGF, or a 1:1 mixture of MRS broth and SIF. Cultures containing SGF were overlaid with mineral oil to maintain anaerobic conditions and incubated statically for 3 hours, whereas cultures containing SIF were incubated with shaking at 160 rpm for 4 hours. Cultures in MRS broth alone served as controls.

After incubation, 200 µL of each bacterial suspension at a $10^{-5}$ dilution was plated onto MRS agar plates. Following incubation at 37°C for 24 hours, colonies were imaged and counted using ImageJ software (version 1.54f). Tolerance was calculated as the percentage of colony-forming units recovered after SGF or SIF exposure relative to the MRS control. Six independent experiments were performed for statistical analysis.

**Detection and relative quantification of PS128 in fecal samples**

Fresh fecal samples were collected from 3.5-month-old mice and incubated with lysozyme (3 mg/mL) in lysis buffer containing 10 mM Tris and 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) at 30°C for 5 minutes to facilitate bacterial cell lysis. Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions. Complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized using the FastKing RT kit following the manufacturer's protocol. A positive control was prepared using 3 mL of PS128 culture at an optical density at $OD_{600}$ of 0.6.

PS128-specific primers (Figure S3V) for PCR and real-time reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-$q$PCR) were designed based on the complete PS128 genome generated in this study and deposited in the NCBI database (BioProject accession number PRJNA1345344). PCR amplification was performed using 2× Taq Plus Master Mix II with an initial denaturation step at 94°C for 3 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 48°C for 35 seconds, and extension at 72°C for 25 seconds, with a final extension at 72°C for 10 minutes. Ten microliters of each PCR product were resolved on a 2% agarose gel and visualized under ultraviolet illumination using a gel documentation system.

RT-$q$PCR was performed using SYBR Green Master Mix on a CFX Connect Real-Time PCR Detection System with 35 cycles consisting of denaturation at 95°C for 5 seconds followed by annealing and extension at 60°C for 30 seconds. Data were analyzed using Bio-Rad CFX Maestro software (version 3.1.1517.0823). Relative PS128 abundance was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method, with bacterial 16S rRNA serving as the internal reference.

**Imaging the Localization of PS128 in the Mouse Gut**

Adult mice in the PS128 group were administered 500 μL of fluorescently labeled PS128 ($1 \times 10^{10}$ CFU/mL) by oral gavage once daily for 3 consecutive days, whereas control mice received 500 μL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). After the final gavage, mice were divided into two groups for analysis.

For the first group, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane, and the abdominal area was shaved to facilitate in vivo fluorescence imaging using an IVIS Lumina III Smart Imaging System. Following whole-body imaging, mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation under deep isoflurane anesthesia, and the entire gastrointestinal tract was immediately isolated. Ex vivo fluorescence imaging of the gut was performed using the IVIS system with an excitation wavelength of 480 nm and an emission wavelength of 520 nm. Total and mean fluorescence intensities within defined regions of interest were quantified using Living Image software (version 4.5.2).

For the second group, mice were euthanized immediately after the final gavage. Segments of the gastrointestinal tract were collected, including a 10-cm segment of the small intestine proximal to the stomach, the cecum, and a 1.5-cm segment of the distal colon near the anus. Tissues were cut into approximately 5-mm squares and imaged using a stereoscopic fluorescence microscope. Mean fluorescence intensity was quantified using ImageJ software.

**Whole-genome sequencing and annotation of *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128**

Whole-genome sequencing of *Lactiplantibacillus plantarum* PS128 was performed by BGI Genomics Co., Ltd. (Shenzhen, China) using a hybrid sequencing strategy. Long-read sequencing was conducted on the PacBio RS II platform, and short-read sequencing was performed on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform. PacBio subreads shorter than 1 kb were removed during quality filtering. Error correction was performed using Pbdagcon, and corrected reads were assembled into draft contigs using the Celera Assembler. Illumina short reads were subsequently used to polish the assembly and improve base accuracy.

Gene prediction was performed using Glimmer3. Transfer RNAs, ribosomal RNAs, and small RNAs were identified using standard RNA annotation tools. Tandem repeats, genomic islands, prophage regions, and CRISPR arrays were identified using established bioinformatics pipelines.

Functional annotation of predicted genes was conducted by sequence similarity searches against public databases, including KEGG, COG, NR, Swiss-Prot, GO, TrEMBL, and EggNOG. Genes associated with

virulence, antimicrobial resistance, host–pathogen interaction, and carbohydrate metabolism were
annotated using specialized databases.

Comparative genomic analyses were performed against representative *Lactiplantibacillus* genomes
using whole-genome alignment and clustering approaches. Core and pan-genome analyses were
conducted using CD-HIT, and phylogenetic relationships were inferred based on whole-genome
comparisons. Whole-genome sequencing data for PS128 have been deposited in the NCBI database
(BioProject accession number PRJNA1345344).

1025

**16S rRNA Gene Sequencing and analysis**
DNA extraction, PCR amplification, library construction, and sequencing were performed by Origin-gene
Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Fecal samples were collected from four mouse groups (WT,
WTPS, KO, and KOPS) at 8:00 p.m. Microbial genomic DNA was extracted using the QIAamp Fast DNA
Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Germany) and assessed by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis.

The V3–V4 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was amplified by PCR using primers 338F (5'-
ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'), each containing an
eight-base sample-specific barcode. PCR was performed with an initial denaturation at 95℃ for 3 minutes,
followed by 27 cycles of denaturation at 95℃ for 30 seconds, annealing at 55℃ for 30 seconds, and
extension at 72℃ for 45 seconds, with a final extension at 72℃ for 10 minutes. Reactions were carried out
in triplicate 20-µL volumes containing 5× FastPfu Buffer, dNTPs, primers, FastPfu Polymerase, and 10 ng
of template DNA. Amplicons were excised from 2% agarose gels and purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel
Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, USA).

Sequencing libraries were prepared using the NEBNext Ultra DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB,
USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Library quality was assessed using a Qubit 2.0
Fluorometer (Thermo Scientific, USA) and an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system. Paired-end sequencing
(PE250) was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform. The 16S rRNA gene sequencing data have
been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (BioProject accession number PRJNA1345244).

Raw sequencing data were processed using VSEARCH (version 2.15.2) on a Linux platform. After
removal of primers and low-quality reads, sequences were merged, dereplicated, and clustered into
operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 97% sequence similarity, with chimeric sequences removed based
on the RDP Gold database. An OTU abundance table was generated, and taxonomic classification was
assigned using the SILVA reference database (release 126).

Downstream analyses were performed in R. The OTU table and taxonomic annotations were imported
into a phyloseq object. Alpha-diversity metrics, including observed species, Shannon index, and Simpson
index, were calculated using the microbiome package. Beta-diversity analyses were conducted based on
Bray–Curtis and UniFrac distances, followed by principal coordinates analysis using the vegan package.
Differentially abundant taxa were identified using LEfSe analysis implemented on the OmicStudio platform
(https://www.omicstudio.cn), and data visualization was performed using ggplot2.

1055

**Metagenomic Sequencing and Analysis**
***Sample preparation and sequencing***
Total genomic DNA was extracted from 0.2 g of fecal sample using the MagAttract PowerSoil Pro DNA Kit
(Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA concentration and purity were
measured using a Quantus Fluorometer (PicoGreen, Promega, USA) and a NanoDrop 2000
spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), respectively, and DNA integrity was assessed by 1%
agarose gel electrophoresis.

Extracted DNA was fragmented to an average size of approximately 350 bp using a Covaris M220
Focused-ultrasonicator for paired-end library construction. Sequencing libraries were prepared using the
NEXTFLEX Rapid DNA-Seq Kit (Bioo Scientific, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol and sequenced

on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform (S4 flow cell). DNA extraction, library construction, and sequencing
were performed by Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Metagenomic sequencing
data have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (BioProject accession number
PRJNA1345245).

***Metagenomic assembly and annotation***
Raw sequencing reads were quality-filtered using FASTP (version 0.23.0) to remove low-quality reads and
reads containing ambiguous bases. Host-derived reads were removed by alignment to the mouse reference
genome using BWA (version 0.7.17). High-quality reads were assembled de novo using MEGAHIT (version
1.1.2), and contigs ≥300 bp were retained. Open reading frames were predicted using Prodigal (version
2.6.3), and a non-redundant gene catalog was generated using CD-HIT (version 4.7).

Gene abundance was estimated by mapping quality-filtered reads back to the gene catalog using
SOAPaligner (version 2.21). Taxonomic annotation was performed by aligning non-redundant genes to the
NCBI non-redundant (NR) database using DIAMOND (version 2.0.13). Functional annotation was
conducted based on the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG, www.kegg.jp) database.
Data visualization and statistical analyses were performed in R using ggplot2.

***Reconstruction of metagenome-assembled genome (MAG) and gut-brain module (GBM) analysis***
After quality control, removal of host-derived reads, and de novo assembly, contigs were binned into
metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) using MetaBAT2 (version 2.15) based on sequence
composition and coverage depth, yielding 1,297 bins. MAG quality was assessed using CheckM (version
1.2.2) to estimate genome completeness and contamination. High-quality MAGs were defined as those
with ≥ 50% completeness and ≤ 10% contamination; bins not meeting these thresholds were classified as
low quality. Using these criteria, 533 high-quality MAGs were retained.

To remove redundancy, high-quality MAGs were dereplicated using dRep (version 3.4.2), resulting in
200 unique, non-redundant MAGs. Taxonomic assignment was performed using DIAMOND (version 2.0.13)
against the NCBI Taxonomy database to define species-level genome bins (SGBs). Protein-coding genes
within MAGs were annotated using DIAMOND against the NCBI non-redundant (NR) protein database.
Functional annotation and enrichment analyses were performed using KofamKOALA (version 1.3.0) with
the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database.

Gut-brain modules (GBMs) encoded by SGBs were reconstructed based on curated definitions
described by Valles-Colomer et al., 2019[25] and categorized into eight functional subgroups according to
their roles. Visualization and plotting were performed in R using ggplot2 and Chiplot.

1097

**Single-nucleus RNA sequencing**

***Frozen Tissue Nuclear Dissociation***
Single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) was performed by Shanghai Majorbio Bio-Pharm
Technology Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Frozen prefrontal cortex (PFC) tissues were homogenized using
a glass Dounce tissue grinder (Sigma, USA) with 25 strokes of pestle A and 25 strokes of pestle B in 2 mL
of ice-cold Nuclei EZ lysis buffer. The homogenate was incubated on ice for 5 minutes, followed by addition
of 3 mL of cold lysis buffer and an additional 5-minute incubation. Nuclei were centrifuged at 500 × g for 5
minutes at 4°C, washed with 5 mL of ice-cold lysis buffer, and incubated on ice for an additional 5 minutes.
The nuclear pellet was resuspended and washed in 5 mL of nuclei suspension buffer (NSB; PBS
supplemented with 0.01% BSA and 0.1% RNase inhibitor, Clontech, USA). Nuclei were resuspended in 2
mL of NSB, filtered through a 35-µm cell strainer (Corning-Falcon, USA), and counted. Nuclei were loaded
onto the 10x Genomics Chromium Controller at a final concentration of 1,000 nuclei per µL.

***10x library preparation and sequencing***
Gel beads containing unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) and cell barcodes were loaded to near
saturation such that each nucleus was paired with one bead in a Gel Bead-in-Emulsion (GEM). After lysis,
polyadenylated RNA molecules hybridized to bead-bound oligonucleotides. Beads were collected for
reverse transcription, during which each cDNA molecule was tagged at its 3' end (corresponding to the 5'

end of the mRNA) with a UMI and cell barcode. Subsequent steps included second-strand synthesis,
adaptor ligation, and universal amplification. Sequencing libraries were prepared from randomly fragmented
cDNA to enrich 3' transcript ends linked to barcodes and UMIs.
All procedures followed the Chromium Single Cell 3' Library & Gel Bead Kit v3.1 manufacturer's protocol.
Libraries were quantified using a High Sensitivity DNA Chip (Agilent) on a Bioanalyzer 2100 and a Qubit
High Sensitivity DNA Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq X Plus
using paired-end 150-bp chemistry. The snRNA-seq data have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read
Archive (BioProject accession number PRJNA1345209).

### *snRNA-seq data processing*
Raw reads were processed using Cell Ranger (version 7.1.0) with default parameters. FASTQ files
generated from Illumina sequencing were aligned to the mouse GRCm39 genome (Ensembl release 111
annotation) using the STAR algorithm. Gene–barcode matrices were generated by counting UMIs and
filtering non-cell-associated barcodes. The resulting matrix was imported into Seurat (version 4.4.3) for
quality control and downstream analysis. Low-abundance genes were filtered such that only features
expressed in at least three cells were retained. Cells were filtered using the following criteria: 200 to 6,000
detected genes per cell and mitochondrial gene percentage < 25% (PercentageFeatureSet). Data were
normalized using NormalizeData, and the top 2,000 highly variable genes were identified using
FindVariableFeatures. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed, and 12 significant principal
components (PCs) were selected based on the ElbowPlot function. A shared nearest-neighbor (SNN) graph
was constructed using FindNeighbors, and clusters were identified using FindClusters at a resolution of 0.3,
optimized with Clustree (version 0.5.1). Clusters were visualized in Uniform Manifold Approximation and
Projection (UMAP) space.
Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test (FindAllMarkers).
Cell types were annotated using a semi-automated strategy based on the CellMarker 2.0 database and
published references by Tiklová et al.[63], Bhattacherjee et al.[64], Liu et al.,[65] and Hing et al.[66] Expression of
*Atp13a2*, *Atp13a3*, and *Atp13a4* was visualized using FeaturePlot_scCustom in scCustomize (version 3.2.0)
and ggplot2 (version 3.5.2).

### *Differential expression analysis and functional enrichment*
DEGs were identified using FindMarkers with the following thresholds: genes expressed in ≥ 10% of cells,
adjusted $P \le 0.05$, and $|\log_2 FC| > 0.12$. VennDiagram (version 1.7.3) was used to identify genes significantly
upregulated or downregulated in KOPS vs. KO (adjusted $P \le 0.05$ and $|\log_2 FC| > 0.12$) but not significantly
different from WT (adjusted $P > 0.05$).
Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis was performed using enrichGO in clusterProfiler (version
4.14.6) after gene ID conversion with org.Mm.eg.db (version 3.20.0). Enriched Biological Process (BP)
terms were defined at $q \le 0.05$ (Benjamini–Hochberg adjusted) using annotations from the JAX Gene
Ontology Database and visualized using ggplot2 (version 3.5.2).
1151

## Targeted Metabolomics of Fatty Acids and Neurotransmitters in Serum and Brain
### *Targeted metabolomics for fatty acids in brain*
Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane, after which venous blood was collected by ophthalmectomy. Brain
tissues were then harvested, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80°C until analysis. Blood
samples were allowed to stand at room temperature for 1 hour before centrifugation at 3,000 rpm for 10
minutes. The supernatant was centrifuged again at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C, and the resulting
serum was collected and stored at −80°C until use. All targeted metabolomics analyses were performed by
Shanghai BioTree Biomedical Technology Co., Ltd.
Brain tissues were transferred to 2-mL Eppendorf tubes and extracted with 1 mL of $H_2O$, followed by
vortex mixing for 10 seconds. Samples were homogenized in a ball mill at 40 Hz for 4 minutes and sonicated
for 5 minutes in an ice-water bath. Homogenization and sonication were repeated three times. Samples
were centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4ºC, and 0.8 mL of the supernatant was transferred to a

new 2-mL Eppendorf tube. To each tube, 0.1 mL of 50% $H_2SO_4$ and 0.8 mL of extraction solution (25 mg/L
internal standard in methyl tert-butyl ether) were added. Samples were vortexed for 10 seconds, oscillated
for 10 minutes, sonicated for an additional 10 minutes in an ice-water bath, and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm
for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was kept at −20°C for 30 minutes and then transferred to 2-mL
glass vials for GC–MS analysis.
Quantification of fatty acids was performed using a SHIMADZU GC2030-QP2020 NX gas
chromatograph–mass spectrometer equipped with an HP-FFAP capillary column. A 1-µL aliquot of each
extract was injected in split mode (5:1). Helium was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.2 mL/minute,
with a front inlet purge flow of 3 mL/minute. The oven temperature program was as follows: 50°C for 1
minute; ramp to 150°C at 50°C/minute (1-minute hold); ramp to 170°C at 10°C/minute; ramp to 225°C at
20°C/minute (1-minute hold); and ramp to 240°C at 40°C/minute (1-minute hold). The injection port, transfer
line, quadrupole, and ion source temperatures were set to 240°C, 240°C, 150°C, and 200°C, respectively.
Electron impact ionization was performed at −70 eV, and spectra were acquired in Scan/SIM mode over an
m/z range of 33–150 following a 3.75-minute solvent delay.
***Targeted metabolomics for neurotransmitters in serum and brain***
For serum samples collected from isoflurane-anesthetized mice, 20 µL of serum was transferred to a 1.5-
mL Eppendorf tube and mixed with 80 µL of precooled (−20°C) extraction solvent (acetonitrile containing
0.1% formic acid). Samples were vortexed for 30 seconds, sonicated for 15 minutes in an ice-water bath,
incubated at −40°C overnight, and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C.
For brain samples, tissues were weighed and transferred to 1.5-mL Eppendorf tubes. Eighty microliters
of precooled extraction solvent (acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid) and 20 µL of $H_2O$ were added,
followed by vortexing for 30 seconds, homogenization at 45 Hz for 4 minutes, and sonication for 5 minutes
in an ice-water bath. Homogenization and sonication were repeated three times. Samples were incubated
at −20°C overnight and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C. Eighty microliters of each
supernatant were mixed with 40 µL of 100 mM sodium carbonate and 40 µL of 2% benzoyl chloride in
acetonitrile. After incubation for 30 minutes, 10 µL of internal standard was added, and samples were
centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C. Forty microliters of the supernatant were diluted with 20
µL of $H_2O$ and transferred to autosampler vials for UHPLC–MS/MS analysis.
UHPLC separation was performed on an ACQUITY Premier System (Waters) equipped with an
ACQUITY UPLC HSS T3 column (100 × 2.1 mm, 1.8 µm). The mobile phases were A: 0.1% formic acid
and 1 mM ammonium acetate in water, and B: acetonitrile. The column temperature was maintained at
40°C, the autosampler temperature at 10°C, and the injection volume was 1 µL. Mass spectrometric
detection was conducted on a SCIEX Triple Quad™ 6500+ mass spectrometer with the following
parameters: IonSpray Voltage, +5,000 V; Curtain Gas, 35 psi; Source Temperature, 400°C; Ion Source Gas
1 and 2, 60 psi. Data acquisition and processing were performed using SCIEX Analyst Workstation (version
1.6.3) and Data Driven Flow (version 2.0.3.11).
1200
**QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**
All behavioral and histological analyses were performed under blinded conditions. Statistical analyses were
carried out using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, version 10.6.1). Normality was assessed using the
Shapiro–Wilk, D'Agostino–Pearson, Anderson–Darling, and Kolmogorov–Smirnov tests. Data are
presented as mean ± SEM unless otherwise stated. Normally distributed data were compared using two-
tailed (or one-tailed, as specified in figure legends) unpaired Student's t-tests. Non-normally distributed data
were analyzed using two-tailed (or one-tailed, as specified) Mann–Whitney U tests. *P* values < 0.05 were
considered statistically significant. Exact sample sizes (n) and statistical tests used are reported in the figure
legends, and precise *P* values are indicated in the figures. All raw data used in this study are provided in
Supplementary Tables S1 and S2.