

Original Article

IDH1 and ATRX mutations synergistically modulate cell proliferation and ferroptosis in glioblastoma cells

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Abstract: IDH1 and ATRX mutations frequently co-occur in several glioma subtypes, including secondary glioblastomas (GBMs), suggesting that these alterations may function cooperatively during tumor development. However, the molecular basis of their interaction remains poorly defined. In present study, we demonstrate that the *IDH1-R132H* mutation acts synergistically with ATRX loss to upregulate pro-proliferative genes while suppressing interferon (IFN) signaling. This coordinated effect supports the notion that the two mutations jointly promote tumor growth and attenuate anti-tumor immune responses. Notably, we also found that the combined *IDH1/ATRX* mutations increase GBM cell sensitivity to various forms of cell death, particularly ferroptosis. Mechanistically, the dual *IDH1/ATRX* alteration upregulates pro-ferroptotic genes (*HMOX1* and *ACSL4*) while downregulating anti-ferroptotic genes (*SLC7A11* and *GPX4*), thereby sensitizing GBM cells to ferroptosis induction. Together, our findings provide new biological insights into IDH1/ATRX-driven GBM pathogenesis and highlight ferroptosis as a potential therapeutic vulnerability in this aggressive tumor subtype.

Keywords: IDH1, ATRX, glioma, ferroptosis

Introduction

Gliomas are the most common primary tumors of the central nervous system, with roughly 300,000 new cases diagnosed worldwide each year [1]. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) classification, gliomas are divided into low-grade (I-II) and high-grade (III-IV) subtypes. Low-grade gliomas make up about 45% of diagnosis, most often diffuse astrocytomas (28%) and oligodendrogliomas (12%), whereas high-grade tumors account for the remaining cases, with glioblastoma (GBM) representing the most aggressive form and carrying a dismal five-year survival of only 5-10% [1, 2]. Among the genetic alterations seen in these tumors, mutations in *IDH1* - particularly the R132H variant - are the most prevalent [3, 4]. Notably, IDH1 mutations appear mainly in diffuse astrocytomas, oligodendrogliomas, and a subset of secondary glioblastomas, and their presence within a given tumor type is generally linked to better clinical out-

comes, highlighting their importance in glioma biology [4-6].

The wild-type IDH1 protein forms a homodimer that converts isocitrate into α -ketoglutarate (α -KG). However, the R132H mutant pairs with the wild-type protein to form heterodimers that reduces α -KG to D-2-hydroxyglutarate (D-2HG), a metabolite that competes with α -KG and inhibits a wide range of α -KG-dependent dioxygenases, including Ten-eleven translocation (TET) methylcytosine dioxygenases and JmjC-domain-containing histone demethylases (JmjC-KDMs) [7-11]. Their inhibition disrupts normal epigenetic regulation, leading to genome-wide DNA and histone methylation changes. One well-known consequence is the glioma CpG island methylator phenotype (G-CIMP), which alters the expression of pathways such as TGF- β and VEGF signaling [12-14]. In addition, hypermethylation-mediated silencing of *cGAS*, *STING*, and various transposable elements weakens type I interfer-

on responses and contributes to immune evasion [15].

IDH1-mutant tumors frequently harbor loss-of-function mutations in *ATRX*, a chromatin remodeler responsible for H3.3 deposition and heterochromatin maintenance [16-18]. *ATRX* loss destabilizes telomeric chromatin and promotes the alternative lengthening of telomeres (ALT) pathway [19]. Studies have shown that IDH1 mutations and *ATRX* loss can reinforce one another - for example, by reducing the expression of DNA-repair factors such as RAP1 and XRCC1, which further supports the ALT phenotype [20]. Interestingly, the two alterations influence innate immunity in opposite ways: *ATRX* loss can elevate the expression of transposable elements and activate type I interferon pathways, whereas mutant IDH1 suppresses these same responses [15, 21]. How these seemingly conflicting effects shape tumor evolution and treatment sensitivity is still not fully understood.

Ferroptosis is an iron-dependent form of regulated cell death characterized by excessive accumulation of lipid peroxides and subsequent plasma membrane rupture. It is typically driven by oxidative stress and elevated reactive oxygen species, conditions common in metabolically active cancer cells [22, 23]. Cellular defense against ferroptosis primarily depends on glutathione peroxidase 4 (GPX4), which detoxifies lipid hydroperoxides in glutathione-dependent manner [24, 25]. Blocking glutathione synthesis with compounds such as Erastin, or inhibiting GPX4 directly with RSL3, can therefore trigger ferroptosis [24, 26]. Given their metabolic demands, glioma cells may be especially vulnerable to this process. Nevertheless, the mechanisms regulating ferroptosis in glioma remain poorly understood.

In this study, we established isogenic GBM cell lines harboring the IDH1-R132H mutation, *ATRX* knockout, or both. We demonstrate that the dual mutation enhances the expression of cell cycle - related proteins and promotes cellular proliferation. Notably, cells harboring both mutations display increased susceptibility to ferroptosis inducers due to dysregulation of genes involved in lipid and iron metabolism. These findings suggest that therapeutic induction of ferroptosis may represent a viable strat-

egy for treating gliomas with concurrent IDH1 and *ATRX* mutations.

Results

IDH1 and ATRX double mutation is associated with gene signatures of cell proliferation and immunosuppression in GBM

We first examined the status of *IDH1* and *ATRX* mutations across different glioma subtypes. As shown in **Figure 1A** and **1B**, *IDH1* mutations occurred at high frequencies in anaplastic oligodendroglioma, oligodendroglioma, diffuse astrocytoma, and anaplastic astrocytoma, whereas their frequencies were lower in glioblastoma (GBM) and diffuse glioma. Notably, in diffuse astrocytoma, anaplastic astrocytoma and GBM, *IDH1* mutations were frequently accompanied by *ATRX* mutations. Given the generally poor prognosis of GBM, we further compared patient outcomes based on different mutation profiles. We found that *IDH1* mutation, either alone or co-occurring with *ATRX* mutation, was associated with improved prognosis, consistent with previous reports (**Figure 1C**). However, no significant difference was observed between the *IDH1*-only and *IDH1*/*ATRX* double-mutant groups, possibly due to the limited sample size.

To investigate whether the combined *IDH1*/*ATRX* mutation differs functionally from *IDH1* mutation alone during glioma progression, we carried out Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA). Relative to samples without either alteration, the *IDH1*-mutant group showed enrichment of programs associated to E2F targets, MYC targets, and DNA repair, while pathways associated with interferon gamma and inflammatory response were reduced (**Figure 1D**). These changes are consistent with earlier work reporting that the *IDH1* mutation tends to enhance proliferation and dampen immune activation. When both *IDH1* and *ATRX* were altered, the enrichment patterns became even more pronounced: E2F targets and G2M checkpoint pathway were further upregulated, whereas interferon gamma and inflammatory response pathways were further suppressed (**Figure 1E**). This pattern suggests that loss of *ATRX* may reinforce the growth-promoting and immune-suppressive effects initiated by mutant *IDH1*, which could help explain why

IDH1 and ATRX mutations synergistically promote ferroptosis in GBM cells

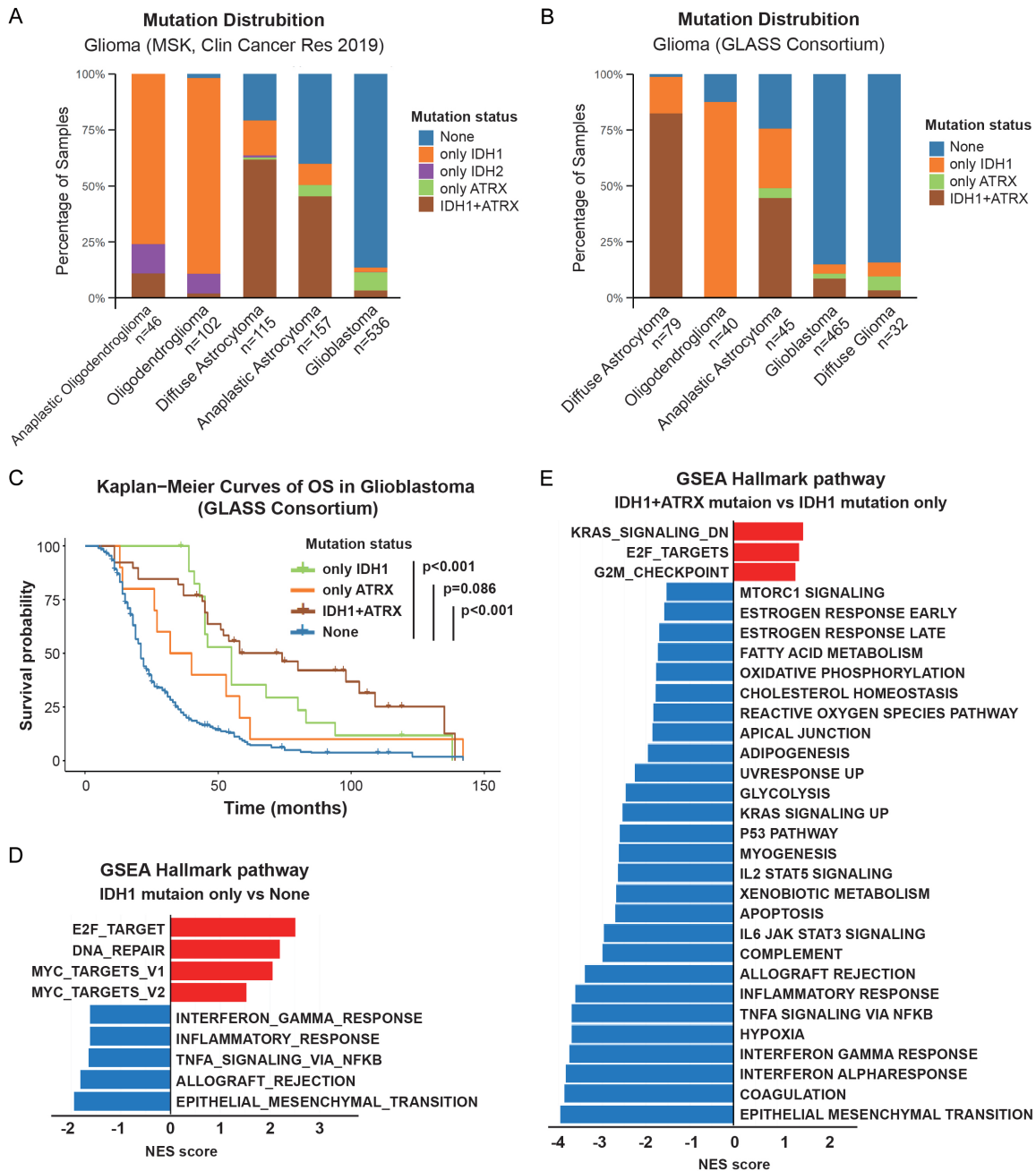


Figure 1. The clinical relevance of IDH1 and ATRX mutation in Glioma. (A, B) Distribution of IDH1/2 and ATRX mutations across glioma subtypes in the MSK 2019 dataset (A) and GLASS Consortium dataset (B). (C) IDH1 and/or ATRX mutations are associated with prolonged overall survival. (D, E) GSEA analysis of pathways associated with the mutation status as indicated: IDH1 mutation only vs None of IDH1 or ATRX mutation (D); IDH1/ATRX double mutation vs IDH1 mutation only (E).

these mutations frequently appear together in gliomas.

IDH1-R132H and ATRX loss jointly influence proliferation and cell death in GBM cells

To probe these interactions experimentally, we generated T98G cell lines with IDH1-R132H

overexpression, ATRX knockout, or both alterations (Figure 2A, 2B), and referred them as mIDH1^{OE}, ATRX^{KO}, and mIDH1^{OE}+ATRX^{KO}, respectively. As expected, mIDH1^{OE} cells accumulated 2-hydroxyglutarate (2-HG), confirming the altered enzymatic activity of the mutant protein (Figure 2C, 2D). Through CCK-8 and colony formation assays, we found that mIDH1^{OE} enhan-

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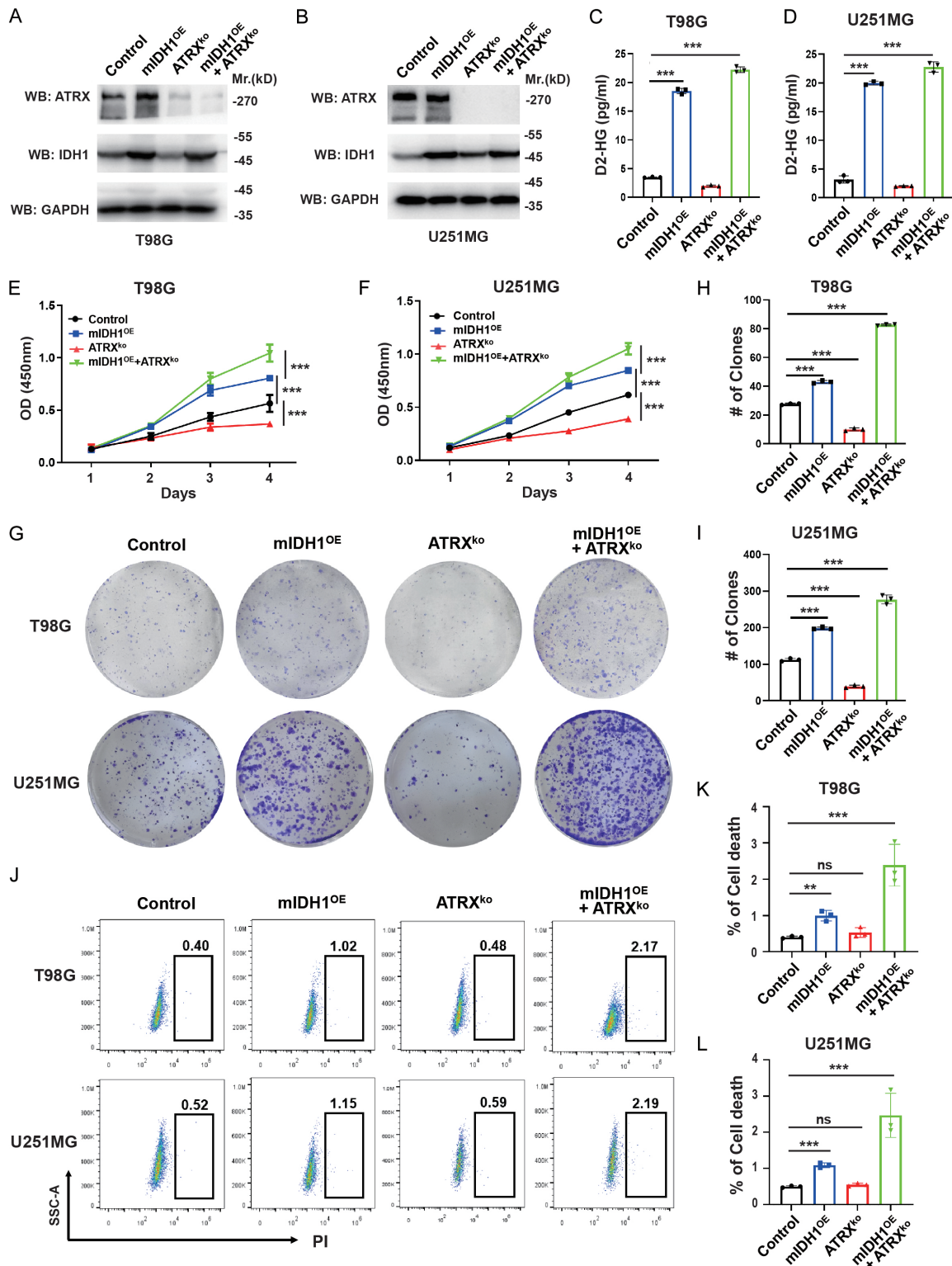


Figure 2. Synthetic effects of IDH1 and ATRX mutations on GBM cell proliferation and survival. (A, B) Western blotting analysis showing ATRX knockout efficiency and IDH1-R132H overexpression in T98G (A) and U251MG (B) cells. (C, D) Quantification of D2-HG levels in T98G (C) and U251 (D) cells with IDH1-R132H overexpression and/or ATRX knockout. (E, F) Cell proliferation accessed by CCK-8 assay. (G-I) Representative image (G) and quantification (H, I) of colony formation assays. (J-L) Representative FACS plots (J) and Quantification (K, L) of PI staining in different cell groups. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, and statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA followed by multiple comparisons testing. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; ns, nonsignificant.

ced cell proliferation, whereas ATRX^{KO} had the opposite effect. Interestingly, mIDH1^{OE}+ATRX^{KO} cells displayed even greater proliferation and more colony formation than mIDH1^{OE} alone (**Figure 2E-I**), indicating that ATRX loss can intensify the pro-proliferative effect of the IDH1 mutation.

Subsequently, we performed Propidium Iodide (PI) staining following flow cytometry analysis to detect cell death. Surprisingly, mIDH1^{OE} cells exhibited higher baseline cell death than controls, and this effect was further increased in the double-mutant cells (**Figure 2J-L**). These observations indicate that mutant IDH1 promotes both cell proliferation and death, and that ATRX loss magnifies both processes.

IDH1-R132H and ATRX loss coordinate to suppress interferon signaling and upregulate proliferation-associated genes

Next, we performed RNA sequencing to characterize the transcriptional programs associated with these phenotypes. Using $|\log_2FC| \geq 1$ and $P \leq 0.05$ as thresholds, mIDH1^{OE} cells exhibited 1,062 upregulated and 1,025 downregulated genes compared with controls (**Figure 3A**). In mIDH1^{OE}+ATRX^{KO} group, 1,116 genes were upregulated and 909 were downregulated relative to control, with an additional 463 upregulated and 225 downregulated when compared with mIDH1^{OE} group (**Figure 3C, 3E**). Consistent with clinical dataset analyses, GSEA demonstrated that *IDH1-R132H* suppressed interferon gamma/alpha and inflammatory response pathways, with *ATRX* loss causing further suppression (**Figure 3B, 3D, 3F**).

Although GSEA did not reveal significant enrichment of E2F targets or G2M checkpoint pathways, further examination of key genes showed synergistic regulation. For instance, *MYC* expression remained unchanged in single mutants but was significantly upregulated in the double mutant (**Figure 3G**). Similarly, *E2F2* was upregulated by *IDH1-R132H* alone and further elevated with *ATRX* loss (**Figure 3G**). These results were validated via qPCR in both T98G and U251MG cells (**Figure 3H and 3I**). Collectively, these findings indicate that *ATRX* loss cooperates with *IDH1-R132H* to upregulate pro-proliferative genes, which may explain their co-occurrence in GBM.

IDH1-R132H and ATRX loss synergistically sensitize GBM cells to ferroptosis

Since the GSEA results did not point to a specific pathway responsible for the increased cell death, we assessed how the cells responded to several well-established death-inducing agents: Staurosporine (apoptosis), Rapamycin (autophagy), Nigericin (pyroptosis), and Erastin (ferroptosis) [26-29]. As shown in **Figure 4A and 4B**, mIDH1^{OE} cells showed a noticeable rise in death, ATRX^{KO} cells displayed little change, and the double-mutant cells exhibited the strongest response. Among these treatments, Erastin consistently caused the highest increase of cell death in mIDH1^{OE}+ATRX^{KO} cells, leading us to investigate ferroptosis in greater detail.

CCK-8 assays further demonstrated that mIDH1^{OE}+ATRX^{KO} cells were more sensitive to ferroptosis inducers, as reflected by markedly reduced IC₅₀ values for both Erastin and RSL3 (**Figure 4C-F**). In parallel, BODIPY-C11 staining showed increased lipid peroxidation in the double-mutant cells under basal conditions as well as after ferroptosis induction (**Figure 4G, 4H**). These results support the conclusion that the combination of IDH1-R132H and ATRX loss makes GBM cells more vulnerable to ferroptosis.

RNA-seq analysis indicated that IDH1-R132H lowers the levels of the anti-ferroptotic genes GPX4 and SLC7A11, while elevating HMOX1 and ACSL4, which participate in iron metabolism and polyunsaturated fatty-acid synthesis, respectively (**Figure 5A, 5B**). These expression trends were validated by qPCR and western blot in T98G and U251MG cells (**Figure 5C-E**). ATRX loss further reduced GPX4 and increased HMOX1 expression, consistent with the heightened ferroptotic sensitivity of double-mutant cells (**Figure 5C-E**). Together, these findings suggest that IDH1-R132H and ATRX loss cooperatively enhance ferroptosis sensitivity in GBM cells by promoting pro-ferroptotic gene expression and dampening key protective pathways.

Discussion

Although the co-occurrence of *IDH1* and *ATRX* mutations in glioma has long been recognized, the mechanisms underlying their synergistic function in tumor development remain poorly

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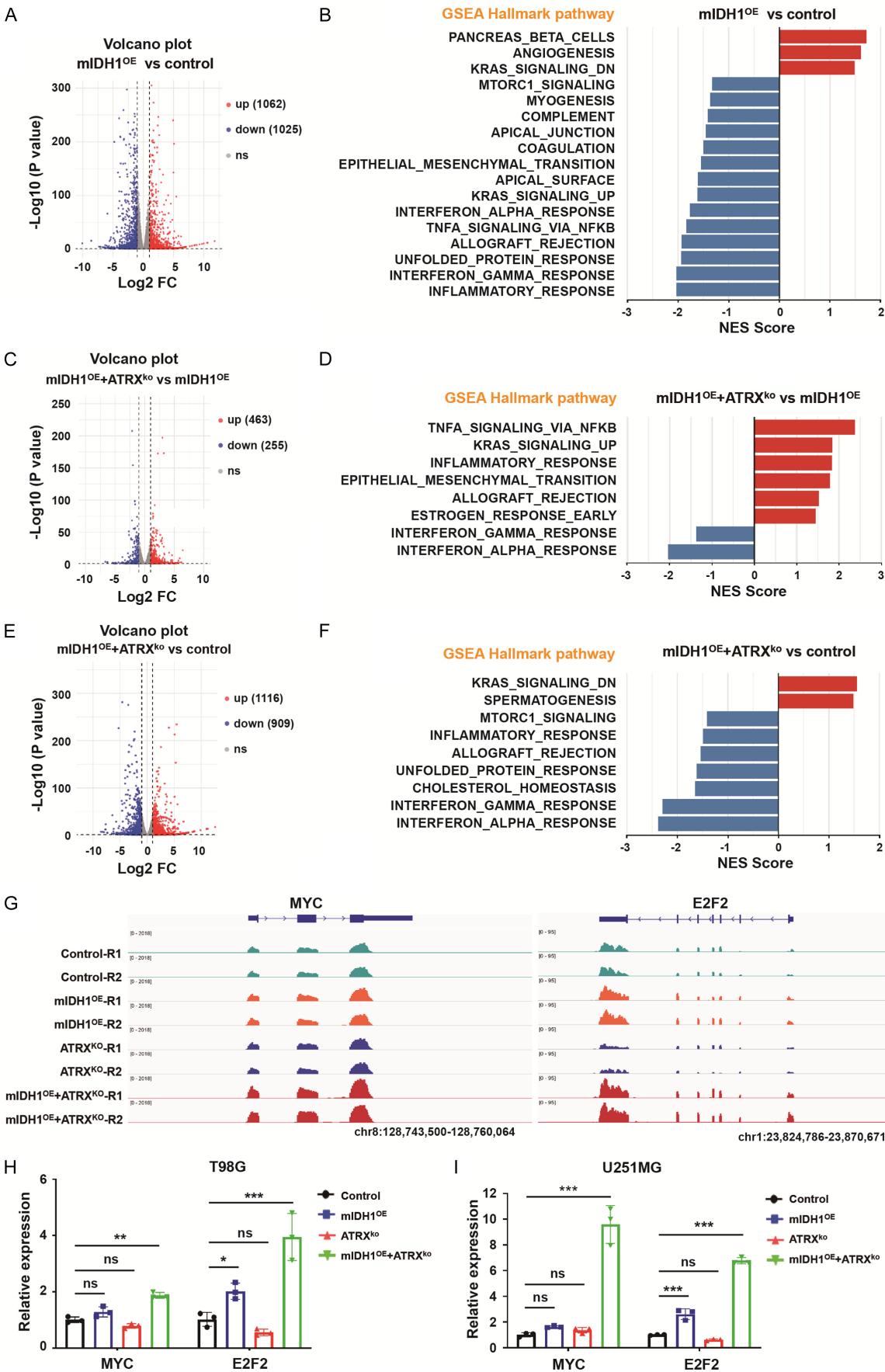


Figure 3. IDH1-R132H and ATRX depletion coordinately suppress IFN signaling and upregulate proliferation-associated genes. (A-F) Volcano plot showing transcriptomic differences among T98G groups (A/C/E), and GSEA plots illustrating enriched pathways associated with *IDH1-R132H* overexpression and *ATRX* knockout (B/D/F). (G) RNA-seq tracks showing expression of *MYC* and *E2F2* genes in T98G cells. (H, I) qPCR validation demonstrating that *IDH1-R132H* overexpression and *ATRX* knockout increase *MYC* and *E2F2* expression in T98G (H) and U251MG (I) cells. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, and statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by multiple comparisons testing. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; ns, nonsignificant.

understood. In this study, we demonstrate that the *IDH1-R132H* mutation and *ATRX* loss coordinate to promote GBM cell proliferation and suppresses anti-tumor immunity pathways. Moreover, the dual mutation leads to dysregulation of ferroptosis-associated genes, sensitizing GBM cells to ferroptosis inducers. Collectively, our findings reveal a novel mechanism through which *IDH1* and *ATRX* mutations drive GBM progression and highlight a potential therapeutic vulnerability.

IDH1 mutation is recognized as early event during glioma development, leading to G-CIMP formation and altered histone methylation patterns. These epigenetic changes activate cell proliferation-associated genes (e.g., *PDGF*, *CCND1*) while suppressing apoptosis-related genes (e.g., *BAX*, *CASP3*), thereby initiating gliomagenesis [12, 13, 30]. However, *IDH1* mutation alone is insufficient to induce glioma formation in animal models. Beatrice Philip et al. reported that co-expression of mutant *IDH1* with *PDGF1* overexpression and loss of *ATRX* and *PTEN* induces glioma *in vivo*, suggesting that *IDH1* mutation cooperates with other genomic alterations to promote tumor progression [31]. Furthermore, *IDH1* mutation can cause hypermethylation of the *MGMT* promoter, impairing its DNA repair function and increasing glioma sensitivity to temozolomide (TMZ) [32]. Our study shows that *IDH1* and *ATRX* mutations synergistically upregulate proliferation-associated genes such as *MYC* and *E2F2*, providing new mechanistic insight into their cooperative role in gliomagenesis.

Recent studies have revealed the critical roles of *IDH1* and *ATRX* alterations in modulating tumor immunity. *IDH1* mutation suppressed type I interferon-mediated anti-tumor immune responses through DNA hypermethylation, which silences endogenous retroviral elements and reduces the expression of *STING*, *cGAS*, and *IFNB1* [15]. Consistently, *IDH1*-mutant GBMs typically display a T-cell-excluded phenotype, and pharmacologic inhibition of *IDH1-R132H* can restore dsDNA-driven immune acti-

vation [15, 33]. On the other hand, *ATRX* loss has been reported to upregulate immune checkpoint molecules PD-L1 and PD-L2 and to alter cytokine profiles, thereby reinforcing the immunosuppressive microenvironment of *IDH1*-mutant gliomas [34]. In line with these findings, our analyses of patient datasets and engineered cell models show that interferon signaling is suppressed by *IDH1* mutation and further diminished upon *ATRX* loss, highlighting a cooperative role in shaping an immune-suppression phenotype.

Unexpectedly, we also observed that GBM cells with dual mutations are more sensitive to ferroptosis, accompanied by dysregulation of *GPX4*, *SLC7A11*, *HMOX1*, and *ACSL4*. *IDH1* mutation downregulates *SLC7A11* and *GPX4*, thereby impairing a central anti-ferroptotic defense: *SLC7A11* encodes a subunit of system Xc⁻, which mediates cystine uptake and supports glutathione synthesis, whereas *GPX4* detoxifies lipid hydroperoxides in a glutathione-dependent manner [24, 26]. Concurrently, *IDH1* mutation upregulates *HMOX1* and *ACSL4*, with *HMOX1* promoting heme degradation and iron release [35], and *ACSL4* enriching membrane phospholipids with polyunsaturated fatty acids [36], both of which enhance ferroptotic susceptibility. Moreover, *ATRX* loss amplified these effects by further suppressing *GPX4* and increasing *HMOX1* levels. To our knowledge, this is the first study to link the combined *IDH1/ATRX* mutation to ferroptosis susceptibility in GBM, suggesting that ferroptosis-based therapeutic strategies may be particularly effective for this molecular subtype.

In summary, through analyses of patient datasets and validation in cell-based models, we reveal that the *IDH1/ATRX* double mutation promotes GBM cell proliferation while simultaneously increasing susceptibility to ferroptosis. By elucidating the underlying transcriptional mechanisms, our study provides new biological insight into *IDH1/ATRX*-driven gliomagenesis and identifies ferroptosis as a promising therapeutic target for this aggressive tumor subtype.

IDH1 and ATRX mutations synergistically promote ferroptosis in GBM cells

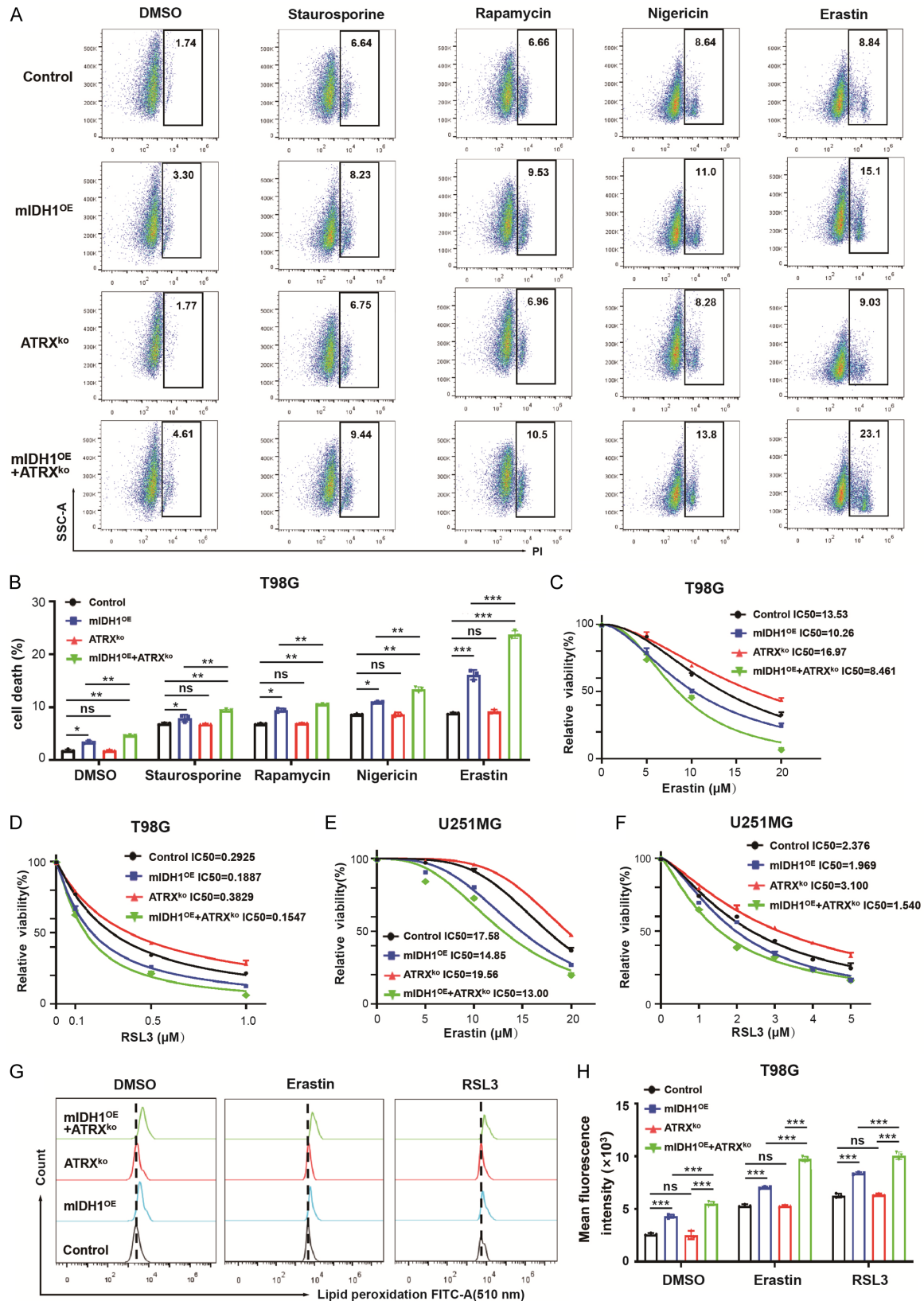


Figure 4. IDH1-R132H and ATRX depletion synergistically sensitized GBM cells to ferroptosis induction. (A, B) Representative FACS plots (A) and quantification (B) of PI staining in T98G cells treated with different death-inducing agents. (C-F) IDH1-R132H overexpression and ATRX knockout reduce the IC₅₀ values of RSL3 and Erastin in T98G

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(C, D) and U251MG (E, F) cells. (G, H) Representative FACS plots (G) and quantification (H) of lipid peroxidation in T98G cells treated with Erastin or RSL3. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, and statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by multiple comparisons testing. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; ns, nonsignificant.

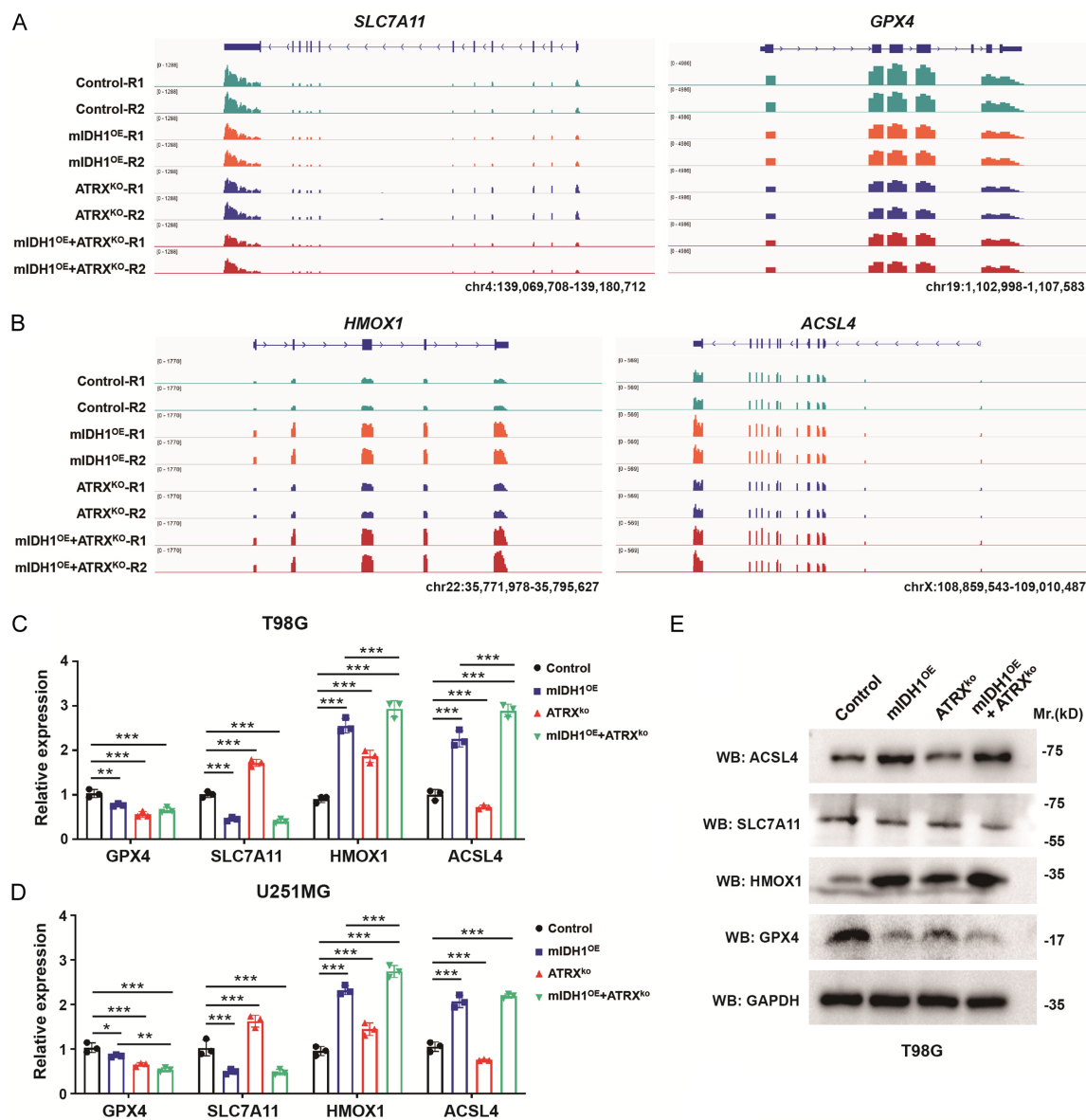


Figure 5. IDH1-R132H and ATRX depletion cooperatively regulate ferroptosis-associated gene expression. (A, B) RNA-seq tracks showing expression of anti-ferroptotic genes (*SLC7A11*, *GPX4*) (A) and pro-ferroptotic genes (*HMOX1*, *ACSL4*) (B) in T98G cells. (C-E) qPCR (C, D) and western blot (E) confirming that *IDH1-R132H* overexpression and *ATRX* knockout downregulate *SLC7A11* and *GPX4*, while upregulating *HMOX1* and *ACSL4* in T98G and U251MG cells. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM, and statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by multiple comparisons testing. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; ns, nonsignificant.

Materials and methods

Please see the Supplemental Methods for information on the expression plasmids, sgRNAs, siRNAs, primers and antibodies (Tables S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6).

Public dataset analysis

Clinical data were obtained from MSK and GLASS Consortium datasets using cBioPortal [37, 38]. The mutation status analysis was performed with cBioPortal database web tools.

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Survival analysis was estimated by the Kaplan-Meier method and analyzed by the log-rank test. Gene set enrichment analysis was performed with GSEA 4.1.0.

Cell culture

Human prostate cancer cell lines T98G, U251MG were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). T98G was cultured in Minimum Essential Medium (KeyGEN Bio TECH) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. U251MG was cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (Procell system) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. All cell lines were regularly tested to confirm that they were free of mycoplasma contamination.

Plasmid construction and Lentivirus infection

For generating pLVX-IDH1^{R132H} plasmid, the CDS of homo sapiens IDH1^{R132H} was cloned into the pLVX-M-puro vector. SgRNA expression plasmids targeting the human ATRX gene were designed by CRISPick. Oligos were synthesized by Tsingke Biotechnology Co., Ltd. Paired oligos were annealed and then inserted into the BsmBI site of the LentiGuide-puro vector.

Lentivirus were generated by co-transfection of expressing plasmid, pCMV-deltaR8.9 and pLP-VSVG into 293T cells. The infectious supernatants were harvested 72 hours after transfection, filtered through a 0.45- μ m filter, mixed with polybrene (5 μ g/ml), then added to T98G and U251MG cells. After 48 hours, the positive cells were selected with a final concentration of 1 or 2 μ g/ml puromycin (Meilunbio; MA0318), 2 or 10 μ g/ml blasticidin (Meilunbio; MB2506-1), or 400 or 800 μ g/ml Geneticin (Meilunbio; MA0321). The overexpression and the inhibition efficiency were determined by Western blotting.

RT-qPCR

Total RNA was extracted by using FastPure Cell/Tissue Total RNA Isolation Kit (Vazyme). cDNA was prepared using a High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (BestEnzymes, 11201ES03). Quantitative PCR reactions were prepared with SYBR Green Master Mix (Yeasen Biotechnology (Shanghai) Co., Ltd.), and performed on a Celemetor96 Real-Time PCR System (Yeasen Biotechnology (Shanghai) Co., Ltd.). Relative transcript levels were calculated

using the $\Delta\Delta$ CT method and normalized to β -actin.

Western blotting

Cells were homogenized and lysed using RIPA lysis buffer containing protease inhibitor cocktails (Thermo Scientific). Protein was quantified using the BCA assay, and an equal amount of protein for each lysate (50 μ g) was resolved by 4-12% gradient SDS-PAGE followed by transfer onto nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were blocked with 5% milk for 1 hour in tris buffered saline and probed with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C, followed by washing and probed with secondary antibody for 1 hour at room temperature. PierceTM ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific, PI32106) was used to develop chemiluminescent signals that were measured on an IVIS Lumina imager.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

The levels of D-2HG were analyzed by ELISA kits (Meimian, China, 51885H1). Briefly, 50 μ l samples or standard were incubated in the wells at 37°C for 30 min and removed, then 50 μ l biotinylated detection antibody were added and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. After washing three times, 50 μ l horseradish peroxidase conjugate was added and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. After washing five times, the substrate reagent was added and incubated at 37°C for 15 min in the dark, then the absorbance at 450 nm was measured by a microplate reader (MultiskanTM FC, ThermoFisher, MA, USA).

CCK-8 assay

Cells were seeded 3,000/well in 96-well plates, 3 replicates per group. At 24 h, 48 h, 72 h and 96 h after seeding, CCK-8 solution (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) was added to each well and incubation at 37°C for 1 h, then the OD value at 450 nm was measured by using a microplate reader (BIO-RAD, USA), and the cell growth curve was plotted.

Colony formation assay

Cells were seeded 500 cells per well in 6-well plates. After 7-14 days, the surviving cancer cells were washed with cold PBS, fixed with 4% Polyoxymethylene and stained with 0.1% crys-

tal violet, then count the number of clones containing more than 50 cells under the microscope and take photos.

PI staining

T98G and U251MG cells were seeded 5×10^5 cells/well in 6-well Plates, then treated with 0.02% DMSO, 0.1 nM Staurosporine, 0.1 μ M Rapamycin, 0.1 μ M Nigericin or 10 μ M Erastin. After 48 hours of stimulation, cells were harvested and stained with 1 ng/ml propidium iodide (PI), then validated by flow cytometry using a CytoFLEX LX. PI positive cells were calculated as death cells. All experiments were analyzed in triplicates.

IC₅₀ calculation

The IC₅₀ values of ferroptosis inducers Erastin and RSL3 in GBM cell lines were determined using the CCK-8 solution (Sigma-Aldrich, USA). GBM cells were seeded 3,000/well in 96-well plates and treated with DMSO, gradient dilutions of Erastin (MCE, HY-15763) or RSL3 (MCE, HY-100218A) for 48 h. After treatment, CCK-8 solution (1:10 dilution in medium) was added to each well, and the plate was incubated at 37°C for 2 h. The OD450 of each well was measured using a Multiskan GO (Thermo Fisher). The percentage of cell viability was calculated by mean OD treatment/mean OD control $\times 100$, and IC50 was calculated using GraphPad Prism 9.0 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). A four-parameter logistic regression model was fitted to the dose-response curve (cell viability percentage vs. log10 of drug concentration) to generate the IC₅₀ value, with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) reported. Each experiment was independently repeated at least three times to ensure reproducibility of the results.

BODIPY-C11 staining for lipid peroxidation analysis

Lipid peroxidation was assessed using the Lipid Peroxidation Assay Kit with BODIPY 581/591 C11 (Beyotime Biotechnology, S0043S). Cells were seeded 2×10^5 /well in six-well plates, then treated with 0.02% DMSO or Erastin (2 μ M) or RSL3 (1 μ M) for 12 h. Cells were suspended in 1 ml of PBS containing 2 mM BODIPYTM 581/591 C11. The suspension was then incubated for 20 min at 37°C in a tissue culture incubator. After incubation, the cells were washed and resuspended in 300 μ l of fresh PBS. Subsequently, the stained cells were

immediately analyzed using a flow cytometer (Beckman Cytoflex LS), the ratio of the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of oxidized C11 (FITC channel) was calculated for each sample. To account for variations, the data were normalized to control samples, as indicated by relative lipid ROS levels.

RNA-seq and analysis

Total RNA was extracted with a VeZol-Pure Total RNA Isolation Kit (Vazyme, RC202-01) and subjected to RNA-seq on an Illumina platform in PE150 mode by Berry Genomics Co., Ltd. Transcriptome sequencing data were adapter-trimmed using fastp, aligned to the hg38 reference genome with Bowtie, and quantified using RSEM. Differential expression analysis was performed with the R package DESeq2, with an adjusted *p*-value threshold set at < 0.05 . Volcano plots were generated using the R packages enhancedVolcano, and GSEA was conducted using GSEA 4.1.0.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using RStudio or GraphPad Prism 9.0.0 software. All data are presented as the mean \pm standard error from three or more independent experiments. Student's *t*-test (2-tailed unpaired) is used to compare two groups, one-way ANOVA followed by multiple comparisons testing is used to compare the means of three or more groups, a *p*-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

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Disclosure of conflict of interest

None.

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IDH1 and ATRX mutations synergistically promote ferroptosis in GBM cells

Table S1. Antibodies

Antibody Name	Catalog Number	Company Name	Experiment and concentration ratio
Anti-IDH1 Polyclonal antibody	12332-1-AP	Proteintech	WB: 1:1000
Anti-ATRX Polyclonal antibody	ab97508	Abcam	WB: 1:1000
Anti-GAPDH Monoclonal antibody	60004-1-Ig	Proteintech	WB: 1:3000

Table S2. qPCR primers

Primer Name	Sequence (5'-3')	
Human-IDH1	sense	ATGTCCAAAAAATCAGTGGCG
	antisense	TTAAAGTTTGGCCTGAGCTAGTTTG
Human-ATRX	sense	AGCAATCACAGAAGCCGACA
	antisense	TGCAAGTCGTGGAGGAGAAC
Human-MYC	sense	TACAACACCCGAGCAAGGAC
	antisense	TAACGTTGAGGGGCATCGT
Human-E2F2	sense	AAGGGGAAGTGCATCAGAGTG
	antisense	TCTTGGCCTTCTTGCGGAT
Human-HOMX1	sense	CCAGGCAGAGAATGCTGAGTTC
	antisense	AAGACTGGGCTCTCCTTGTTGC
Human-GPX4	sense	TCACCAAGTTTGGACACCGT
	antisense	ATAGTGGGGCAGGTCCTTCT
Human-SLC7A11	sense	GCCCAAGGGGAGACACAAAA
	antisense	TTGAAGGTTCTTTGCCGTGC
Human-ACSL4	sense	GCTATCTCCTCAGACACACCGA
	antisense	AGGTGCTCCAACCTGCGCAGTA
Human-ACTB	sense	GGCACCCAGCACAAATGAAG
	antisense	CCGATCCACACGGAGTACTTG

Table S3. SgRNA oligo sequence

Oligo Name	Sequence (5'-3')	
SgATRX-238	sense	CACCGCAGGATCGTCACGATCAAAG
	antisense	AAACCTTTGATCGTGACGATCCTGC

Table S4. Plasmids

Plasmids Name	Catalog Number	Company Name
pLVX-M-puro	#125839	Addgene
LentiCas9-Blast	#52962	Addgene
LentiGuide-puro	#52963	Addgene

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Table S5. Reagents

Reagents Name	Catalog Number	Company Name
Erastin	HY-15763	MedChemExpress
(1S,3R)-RSL3	HY-100218A	MedChemExpress
Staurosporine	HY-15141	MedChemExpress
Rapamycin	HY-10219	MedChemExpress
Nigericin	HY-127019	MedChemExpress

Table S6. Cells

Cells Name	Catalog Number	Company Name
T98G	CRL-1960	American Type Culture Collection
U251MG	CL-0237	Procell system