Title: Coronin1A regulates tumor microenvironment in colitis-associated colorectal cancer in a SUMO-dependent way

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ABSTRACT

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), comprising Crohn's disease and Ulcerative colitis, is a group

of multifactorial illnesses with persistent gastrointestinal inflammation and a series of undesirable

consequences. IBD patients have a three times higher risk of developing colitis-associated

colorectal cancer (CAC). A higher mutational burden due to persistent inflammation acts as a

driver of dysplasia and even tumorigenesis. While the pathological sequence is known, the

molecular mechanisms underlying the transition from chronic inflammation to CAC remain

largely elusive. Post-translational modification- SUMOylation plays an integral role in shaping

gut inflammation as well as several forms of cancers, including sporadic colorectal cancer. In this

study, the contribution of SUMOylation to CAC pathogenesis was characterized. In the AOM-

DSS CAC mice model and human IBD patient specimens, SENP5, but not other deSUMOylases,

shows an altered expression. Notably, both SENP5 expression dynamics and alterations in the

SUMOylome occur in chronically inflamed and neoplastic colon tissues. SENP5 interactome

analysis identified Coronin1A (Coro1A), an actin-binding protein predominantly expressed in

immune cells. Coro1A also shows a state-specific, distinct expression pattern in the colon.

Interestingly, in contrast to wild-type mice, Coro 1A knockout mice were resistant to polyp

formation, with reduced cell proliferation, oncogene expression, and epithelial-to-mesenchymal

transition (EMT) gene activation, and reduced extracellular matrix (ECM) development and

fibrosis, suggesting its integral role in tumorigenesis. WT mice with chronically inflamed colons

and polyps have a higher number of M2-like macrophages, with increased abundance of Coro1A,

suggesting a role of Coro1A in modulating the tissue microenvironment toward a pro-tumorigenic

state. Mechanistically, Coro1A physically interacts with TGF-β RI and regulates TGF-β-TGF-β

RI signalling endosome stability, thereby controlling TGF-β-mediated macrophage polarization.

Detailed *in vitro* experiments revealed stabilization of Coro 1A through its interaction with

SUMOylated Raftlin protein. Overall, Coro 1A is necessary and sufficient for TGF-β signalling,

macrophage polarization, and tumorigenesis in CAC.

Key Words: Coronin 1A, SENP5, Transforming Growth Factor -β receptors, M2 macrophages,

Colitis-associated colorectal cancer, SUMO2/3.

Introduction:

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is a notorious form of gastrointestinal cancer, with high incidence and alarmingly poor prognosis (Bray et al., 2024; Sung et al., 2025; Schmitt & Greten, 2021). Despite some improvements in therapy, the mortality of CRC remains significantly high, with a 5-year survival rate for stage 4 CRC being less than 10%. Predominant forms of colorectal cancer include (a) sporadic colorectal cancer (hereafter SCRC), which arises due to spontaneous mutation(s) in colorectal epithelium, and (b) colitis-associated colorectal cancer (hereafter CAC), resulting from chronic inflammation in the gastrointestinal tract (Foersch & Neurath, 2014; R. W. Zhou et al., 2023). Multiple routes of tumor initiation and progression in CRC include distinct molecular drivers, such as Adenomatous polyposis coli (APC), TP53, Kirsten rat sarcoma (KRAS), B-Raf protooncogene ser/thre kinase (BRAF), PIK3CA, MMR genes (MSH2, MSH6, and MLH1), and SMAD4, etc (Bogaert & Prenen, 2014; Díaz-Gay et al., 2025; Su et al., 2024). Significantly, the underlying molecular pathology differs across CRC subtypes. SCRC typically follows an adenoma-to-carcinoma sequence driven by prior genetic predispositions (Yamagishi et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2023). Whereas CAC begins with chronic inflammation, progresses through grades of dysplasia, and ultimately ends in carcinoma(Zhou et al., 2023). Consistently, patients with Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC) display a 2-3-fold higher risk of developing CAC (Shawki et al., 2018; Yashiro, 2014; Yin et al., 2023). Chronic inflammation exposes IBD patients to repeated cycles of damage and healing of the mucosa, triggering genetic and/or epigenetic perturbations. These events, referred to as induced field cancerization, prime the tumorigenesis process. Consistent with this, ulcerative colitis patients display a 25-fold higher mutational burden, rendering them susceptible to CAC (Kakiuchi et al., 2020). Infiltrating immune cells and resident fibroblasts of the chronically inflamed gut can induce Wnt-β-Catenin, STAT3/IL-6, and COX2/PGE2 pathways, which are potentially pro-tumorigenic (Dan et al., 2023; Shawki et al., 2018). The tissue microenvironment in this case generates robust reactive oxygen/nitrogen species along with a secretome comprising IL-6, TNF-α, GM-CSF, IL-23, and IL-17, further contributing to DNA damage, epithelial proliferation, and myeloid cell recruitment and activation. Once tumorigenesis is set, the tissue microenvironment is reprogrammed into a tumor-favoring immunosuppressive state. TGF-β, IL-10 loop, or CCR2/CXCL-12 immune evasion pathways induce polarization of immune cells into M2 macrophages, N2 neutrophils, Th2 cells, and T-reg cells (Y. Deng et al., 2025; M. Zhang et al., 2023). Collectively, these events shield dysplastic cells

from immune surveillance and foster their proliferation. However, the mechanisms underlying

TME reprogramming remain elusive.

Macrophage involvement, characterized as CD11b^{+}, F4/80^{+}, and Ly6C high and M2 type

macrophages, which are referred to as tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs), significantly

contributes to the initiation and progression of CAC(Y. Deng et al., 2025; Shin et al., 2023;

Hardbower et al., 2017; Y. H. Sheng et al., 2022; Y. Wang et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2021). Though

crosstalk among M2 macrophages, surrounding stromal cells, and other immune cells shapes the

tumor microenvironment during CAC progression, there is a lack of mechanistic understanding

of these events.

Expansion of immunosuppressive, pro-tumorigenic microenvironment- creates a permissive

niche for dysplastic clones to proliferate. A form of cellular post-translational modification

(PTM), called SUMOylation, has been shown to be integral in shaping inflammation and cancer.

Mediated by the action of three enzymes (E1, E2, and E3), the covalent attachment of SUMO

protein isoform (SUMO 1-5) to the target protein takes place, which potentially modulates its

function. The deSUMOylase enzymes (SENP1-3 and SENP5-7) then deconjugate the SUMO

attachment, making the process reversible. A series of publications have demonstrated a strong

connection of SUMOylation with inflammation (Mustfa et al., 2017; Suhail et al., 2019),(Long et

al., 2025; Ma et al., 2024). Dysregulation of the SUMOylation pathway has also been linked to

EMT and cancer pathophysiology (Gu et al., 2023a; L. Wang et al., 2021). The key molecules

involved in the transition from chronic colitis to cancer, such as NF-κB, β-Catenin, p53, AKT,

and STAT3, with respect to their activation, stability, and localization, are known to be regulated

by SUMOylation. (Gostissa et al., 1999; Lin et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2020; Z. Zhou et al., 2016)

Components of the SUMOylation machinery are overexpressed in SCRC and are associated with

poor patient prognosis (Du et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2023; Z. Sheng et al., 2025). However, it

remains underexplored in CAC to date. Since chronic inflammation in IBD is the primary driver

of CAC development, we hypothesized that SUMOylation contributes directly or indirectly to

CAC progression. In this study, we demonstrate a dynamic expression pattern of deSUMOylase

SENP5 and its prominent interacting partner Coronin1A, an actin-binding immune cell-specific

protein, particularly in chronically inflamed regions compared with polyp regions. Coronin1A

maintains the canonical TGF-β pathway and thus supports TGF-β-mediated M2 macrophage
polarization and modulation of the tumor microenvironment in CAC.

Results:

Dynamic expression pattern of SENP5 in chronic colitis and colitis-associated colorectal
cancer (CAC)

To test the possible role of the SUMOylation machinery in CAC, we employed the previously
reported AOM-DSS mice model of CAC (Arnesen et al., 2021). Briefly, 4 mice were included in
each group: Control, Chronic colitis (hereafter referred to as CC), and the CAC. After
intraperitoneal administration of azoxymethane (AOM) at 10mg/kg to the CAC group, 1% Dextran
sulphate sodium (DSS) was given in their drinking water for alternate weeks for 14 weeks to the
CAC and CC groups. In contrast, control mice received normal drinking water throughout the
experiment. (Fig. 1A). The animals were monitored throughout the experiment, including constant
recording of their body weight (Fig. 1B). Post-experimental treatment regimen, the animals were
euthanized, and relevant organs were harvested. The successful establishment of the CAC model
was evident by the presence of multiple polyps in the distal colon of the CAC group.

In contrast, the rest of the colon in the CAC (hereafter referred to as Non-polyp) and CC
exhibited a pronounced morphological signature of chronic inflammation, characterized by
reduced body weight and colon length (Fig. 1 B and C), along with enhanced splenomegaly (Fig.
1D). Histopathology of colon revealed marked infiltration of immune cells along with other signs
of chronic inflammation and malignancy in CC and CAC polyps, respectively (Fig. 1E). qRT-
PCR-based analysis confirmed significant upregulation of C-Myc in the polyp region (38±5.074),
followed by the non-polyp region (22.83±4.642), confirming the development of malignancy in
the CAC group. (Fig.S1 A). To test the involvement of SUMOylation in CAC, the abundance of
SUMO1 and SUMO2/3 conjugated proteins (hereafter referred to as SUMOylome) in CC and
polyp tissue lysates was examined. Compared to the control group, a detectable change in SUMO1
SUMOylome and a pronounced alteration of SUMO2/3 SUMOylome were observed in lysates
from both CC and polyps (Fig.1F). An accumulation of free SUMO1 was observed in CC and
polyp tissue lysate.

In contrast, no comparable accumulation of SUMO2/3 was observed. To investigate

possible involvement of deSUMOylases in this process, qRT-PCR-based expression analysis of

deSUMOylases was carried out. Notably, expression of SENP1, SENP2, SENP3, SENP6, and

SENP7 remained unchanged, while SENP5 showed a significant increase in expression in the CC

(2.61 ± 0.15) and non-polyp regions (2.38 ± 0.25) of CAC. Intriguingly, in stark contrast, SENP5

expression was downregulated in the CAC polyps (-2.8 ± 0.15) (Fig. 1G). We validated SENP5

expression dynamics in AOM-DSS mice tissue lysate by immunoblotting (Fig. 1H).

Furthermore, the relevance of this finding was investigated in actual CAC patient specimens

obtained from the Gastroenterology and Nutrition clinic (AIIMS, Delhi). Biopsies of CAC (N=15),

SCRC (N=9), and irritable bowel syndrome (IBS)(N=10) were included in this study. SUMO1 and

SUMO2/3 SUMOylome was examined in CAC patient tissue lysates. Consistent with the above

findings, a notable alteration in both SUMO1 and SUMO2/3 SUMOylome was observed. The

SUMO2/3 SUMOylome was more drastically affected. Moreover, consistent with the AOM-DSS

model, increased free sumo was observed in patient tissue lysates (Fig.1I). Furthermore,

expression of SENP5 in CAC patient specimens was also downregulated ($\sim2.06 \pm 0.50$-fold) (Fig.

1J). Interestingly, in stark contrast, SENP5 was upregulated in sporadic colorectal cancer patient

samples (hereafter referred to as SCRC) (Fig. 1J). Immunoblots of SENP5 in CAC patient tissue

lysates also revealed reduced expression compared to healthy controls (Fig. 1K).

Additionally, $Apc^{+/-}$ and $Apc^{+/+}$ mice were used to develop SCRC (Ren et al., 2019). The animals

were administered 2% DSS for 1 week, followed by 14 weeks of incubation to induce

tumorigenesis (Fig. S1B). At the conclusion of the experiment, mice were euthanized, and colons

were harvested. Prominent polyps were present at the distal end of the $Apc^{+/-}$ mice colon (Fig.S1C).

Tissue lysates from the control colon, as well as the polyp and non-polyp regions of $Apc^{+/-}$, were

probed for SENP5 by immunoblotting.

Notably, upregulated expression of SENP5 was observed in the polyp region compared to the

healthy control and non-polyp region (Fig.1L). Our findings of SENP5 in SCRC patients and the

murine model ($Apc^{+/-}$) are consistent with the previous report showing that upregulated SENP5 in

SCRC plays a key role in DNA damage repair (Liu et al., 2023). These results clearly indicated a

key difference between SCRC and CAC in SENP5 function. The marked difference in SENP5

expression between polyps and non-polyps in the CAC model prompted us to investigate the

mechanism in greater detail. To understand the regulatory mechanism driven by SENP5, we
conducted SENP5 interactome analysis.

• **Altered Interactome of SENP5 in chronic colitis and colitis-associated colorectal cancer**
(CAC)

The interactome of SENP5 was investigated by performing Co-IP of tissue lysates from
control, chronic colitis, non-polyp, and polyp regions of the AOM-DSS mouse model, followed
by MS/MS analysis (n=3). An IgG isotype control antibody was used as a negative control. (Fig.
2. A) Pull-down proteins were analyzed by high-resolution tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS)
using a quadrupole time-of-flight (qTOF) mass spectrometer. Initially, 2315 proteins were
identified across all four groups; after contaminant removal, the remaining 1,884 proteins were
subjected to further analysis. The MaxQuant platform was used to quantify the identified proteins.
Peptides found in the isotype control IgG were manually subtracted from the pull-down samples
during subsequent analysis. Differential proteome of control, chronic colitis (CC), non-polyp, and
polyp obtained from intensity-based absolute quantification illustrated in a Venn diagram (Fig. 2
B), revealing 460 proteins in control, 508 in CC, 510 in non-polyp, and 406 in polyp. Out of which
29 proteins were unique to control, 43 were unique in CC, 74, and 21 were unique in non-polyp
and polyp, respectively. Notably, 282 proteins are present in all four conditions. In the identified
set of proteins, we detected SUMO2. Recent structural studies have demonstrated the active,
specific interaction between SENP5 and SUMO2, underscoring the robustness of our interactome
approach. (Sánchez-Alba et al., 2025) A list of proteins identified across all four conditions is
provided in the supplementary.
Differential enrichment analysis of SENP5-interacting proteins showed a distinct pattern across all
four conditions. 114 proteins were enriched, and 15 proteins were depleted in their interaction with
SENP5 significantly in the non-polyp region. Under CC,39 proteins were enriched with SENP5,
and 13 proteins were depleted in their interactions with SENP5.
In the polyp group, 132 proteins showed reduced interaction with SENP5, and five proteins
showed enrichment with SENP5. Here, the definition of significance is a fold change greater than
two and a p-value <0.05.

To understand the biological significance of proteins differentially enriched for SENP5,

Gene Ontology (GO) pathway analysis was performed on enriched and depleted proteins across

all three disease conditions. Pathway enrichment significance was assessed using hypergeometric

and multiple test correction at FDR less than 0.05. The *p*-values are corrected for multiple testing

within each category using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. As both non-polyp and chronic

colitis represent states of chronic inflammation, we chose non-polyp samples for differential GO

pathway enrichment analysis. In this enrichment analysis, polyp and non-polyp samples were

independently compared with the control to identify pathways associated with the tumor and the

adjacent non-tumor area.

Molecular function and cellular component-based GO pathway analysis revealed a profound

enrichment of SENP5-interacting proteins with actin filament binding or actin binding functions,

and the actin cytoskeleton cellular component, particularly in the non-polyp region. While the

enrichment of these proteins was very feeble in the polyp region (Fig. 2C) (Fig.S2. A). These

results suggest that SENP5 displays a more pronounced interaction with proteins involved in Actin

binding or linked to the actin cytoskeleton in the non-polyp region. In contrast, such interactions

are markedly reduced in polyp regions. From the significantly enriched list of proteins falling

under the Actin binding or Actin filament binding function, we shortlisted proteins Coro1A, Tmp4,

Myh9, Col6A3, and Dync1h1, based on their roles in cancer or disease progression, as well as the

presence of prominent SUMO-binding or SUMO-interacting sites (Fig.2D). The differential

enrichment of selected genes was visualized on volcano plot, revealing their prominent enrichment

in the non-polyp and CC region and abolished enrichment in polyp region. (Fig 2. E) (Fig.S2.B) It

underlines a shift in the interactome of SENP5 from the non-polyp to the polyp region, indicating

a crucial role of these proteins in disease progression. Among the selected candidates, Coro1A

(Coronin 1A) stood out as the most prominent pick. The immune cell-specific protein Coro1A is

known to interact with filamentous Actin and regulate actin dynamics by interacting with the

Arp2/3 complex (Galkin et al., 2008; Humphries et al., 2002). Coronin 1A plays a role in T-cell

maturation, as well as T-cell receptor-based signaling, neutrophil trafficking, and immune

deficiency (Castro-Castro et al., 2011; Mueller et al., 2008; Pick et al., 2017; Stocker et al.,

2018).Additionally, there is multiple evidence of Coronin1A involvement in immunological

pathways associated with chronic inflammation and its related manifestations, such as lung

fibrosis, lupus nephritis, and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), and autoimmune diseases such

as multiple sclerosis. (X. Deng et al., 2024; Nicolaou et al., 2020; Principi et al., 2023; Siegmund

et al., 2016)In light of these, we set forth to investigate the role of Coronin-1A in CAC progression.

Coro1A is an interactor of SENP5

The interactome analysis enabled us to identify Coronin-1A (hereafter referred to as Coro1A) as

an interactor of SENP5. Coro1A-SENP5 interaction was scrutinized using a co-

immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay. The immunoblot clearly showed strong binding of Coro1A to

SENP5, particularly in tissues from CC and non-polyp areas of CAC mice (Fig. 3A). Furthermore,

the expression profile of Coro1A was examined in the AOM-DSS mouse model. An elevated

expression of Coro1A in CC and, interestingly, in the non-polyp region of CAC was observed. In

contrast, in the polyp, much lower expression was detected (Fig. 3B). These results were validated

in a murine colitis genetic model using $IL10^{-/-}$ mice. $IL10^{-/-}$ mice spontaneously develop colitis

(Gunasekera et al., 2020).To establish a synchronized CAC in this background, the animals were

administered AOM (10mg/kg) intraperitoneally, followed by 7 alternating cycles of low-dose 1%

DSS (Fig. S3A). Post-treatment, the mice were euthanized, and the relevant organs were harvested.

Notably, we did not detect any polyps in CAC mice, despite probing the colons of CC and CAC

mice for Coro1A expression. Immunoblotting of colon lysates revealed a pronounced increase in

Coro1A expression in both CC and CAC tissues compared to untreated controls (Fig. 3C),

confirming that Coro1A upregulation is not restricted to a single chronic colitis model but is found

in a broad range of chronic colitis models. Next, the expression of Coro1A was analyzed in an

acute colitis mouse model. The acute colitis model was developed as described by (Suhail et al.,

2019)(Fig. S3B). Coro1A expression was not modulated in the acute colitis mouse model (Fig.

S3C). These results implied that Coro1A induction is limited to chronic colitis. Additionally, we

probed Coro1A in colonic lysates from the $Apc^{+/-}$ SCRC model and found no significant

differences in its expression; however, a trend of decreasing Coro1A expression was observed in

the non-tumor adjacent area and the tumor area. (Fig. S3D). Next, the relevance of Coro1A

expression in chronic gut inflammation was examined in human colon biopsies. Biopsy samples

from UC (N=5) patients also showed significantly elevated Coro1A expression compared to those

from IBS patients (N=4), as shown by immunoblot (Fig. 3D). These findings suggest a potential

role for Coro1A in the development of colitis-associated cancer.

Together, these findings indicate that Coro1A upregulation is a feature specific to chronic
inflammatory settings and inflammation-driven tumorigenesis, rather than sporadic tumor
development. To gain insights into the subcellular localization of Coro1A, immunohistochemistry
(IHC) was performed. Enhanced expression of Coro1A was observed in infiltrating immune cells
in the CC and non-polyp areas compared with the control. Coro1A protein was detected in the
polyp region, though with less intensity as compared to CC and non-polyp (Fig. 3E). Furthermore,
these observations were confirmed in patient biopsy-derived archived slides, which showed a
consistent increase in Coro1A expression in infiltrating immune cells in UC and the adjacent
inflamed CAC tumor area compared to the IBS control. Notably, a prominent presence of Coro1A
in the CAC tumor, albeit less than in non-polyp and UC, was observed (Fig. 3F). These results
reveal that Coro1A is uniformly present in immune cells and is consistently upregulated during
chronic inflammation. However, an unusually high abundance of Coro1A in the non-polyp region
of CAC prompted us to investigate its role in CAC development.

279• **Absence of Coro1A confers resistance to CAC development in mice**

To understand the relevance of increased Coro1A expression in infiltrating immune cells, we
employed Coro1A KO mice (hereafter, Coro1A^{KO}). Coro1A ^{KO} mice were generated in the
laboratory of J.M. Penninger (IMBA, Vienna) by using *a Cre/LoxP*-based gene-targeted strategy.
The deleted region encompasses the entire coding sequence after exon 1 (Kaminski et al., 2011).
Complete KO of the Coro1A gene was confirmed by immunoblot of Coro1A from colonic tissue
lysates of Wild-type mice (WT) and Coro1A^{KO} mice (Fig. S4A and B).

To understand the relevance of Coro1A in CAC development, WT and Coro1A^{KO} were subjected
to the AOM-DSS treatment as described in Fig.1A. A schematic representation of the experimental
design, which lasted for 14 weeks, is shown in Fig. 4A. The animals were monitored throughout
the experiment, including constant recording of their body weight (Fig. S4C). Post experiment,
mice were euthanized, and the colon, spleen, and other relevant organs were harvested. Gross
morphological parameters were evaluated to compare the extent of disease development in WT
and Coro1A^{KO} mice. The length of the colon and splenomegaly were analyzed in both CC and
CAC groups across both genotypes. A considerable reduction in colon length of CC and CAC
categories of each genotype was observed, indicating the establishment of colitis (Fig. S4.D). No
significant differences were observed in the respective sub-categories between the WT and

Coro1A^{KO} groups. However, the colon from WT mice in the CAC group showed a wider distal

end than those in all other groups from both genotypes, suggesting the possible presence of polyps.

In line with this, the colon from WT mice in the CAC group showed the development of multiple

polyps, a feature absent in Coro1A^{KO} mice (Fig. 4B). Moreover, there was an evident

splenomegaly in the case of the CAC^{WT} group, which was more pronounced in the WT as

compared to their KO counterparts (Fig. S4E). H&E staining of colonic tissue sections from WT

and Coro1A^{KO} mice across all conditions was carried out. Sections from CC^{WT} and CAC ^{WT} groups

showed prominent markers of colitis and cancer, including high-grade dysplasia, mild field effect,

collagen deposition, distorted crypt architecture, a widened muscularis layer, and moderate

inflammation with immune cell infiltration.

In contrast, the CC and CAC groups of Coro1A^{KO} mice exhibited no or very low-grade dysplasia,

field effect, crypt distortion, and collagen deposition, accompanied by prominent immune cell

infiltration and inflammation, as indicated by the histopathology score (Fig. 4C and Fig. S4F).

Further Sirius red staining showed prominent collagen deposition in CC^{WT} and CAC $^{WT.}$In contrast,

Coro1A^{KO} mice exhibited strikingly less collagen deposition in CC and CAC, indicating attenuated

extracellular matrix (ECM) deposition in Coro1A ^{KO} mice compared with WT. (Fig.4D). The lack

of polyp formation and absence of adenocarcinoma in Coro1A^{KO} CAC mice necessitated the

investigation of molecular markers associated with proliferation, inflammation, extracellular

matrix (ECM) deposition, and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) in colonic tissue

lysates from both genotypes across all samples.

Both Ki-67, a proliferation marker, and C-Myc, a protooncogene, were markedly elevated in CC

^{WT}(2.973±0.6296; 2.363±0.3234) and CAC^{WT} (6.600±0.05003; 5.050±0.3396) mice, whereas they

were downregulated in the CC^{Coro1aKO}(-2.723±1.513;-1.987±0.7342) and CAC^{Coro1aKO}(-

3.137±0.2270; -1.980±0.2722) counterparts (Fig.4.E). Expression of E-Cadherin was dramatically

downregulated in CC^{WT}(-29.10 ± 9.570) while the CAC^{WT} group showed marked upregulation

(14.22±1.650). Interestingly, both features were completely absent in the Coro1AKO groups. This

pattern of E-cadherin expression aligns with recent reports of elevated E-cadherin expression in

solid tumors (Burandt et al., 2021; Rodriguez et al., 2012) (Fig. S4G). Cox2, a pro-inflammatory

marker, was downregulated significantly in CC(-8.043±2.687) and CAC(-4.457±1.057) of WT,

whereas Coro1A^{KO} CC and CAC showed very subtle changes. Anti-inflammatory and pro-wound

healing marker-Arginase-1(Arg1) was markedly upregulated in CAC^{WT}(6.700±0.6255), and

downregulated in CC^{WT}(-3.600±0.5615). In the $Coro1A^{KO}$ CC and CAC mice, this pattern was

observed, but with significantly lower values (-2.097±0.3783; 1.847±0.8995) (Fig.4F). Together,

these results indicate a tendency toward higher cell proliferation, higher oncogenic, excessive

wound healing, anti-inflammatory, and lower pro-inflammatory activity in WT mice; however,

these features were either absent or diminished in $Coro1A^{KO}$ mice.

Further analysis of ECM remodeling genes, including Fibronectin, α-SMA, and Col1A1, revealed

significant upregulation in WT mice from the CC(4.183±0.6451; 10.04±3.008; 4.227±0.9239) and

CAC(5.233±0.04910; 2.633±0.9347; 6.157±0.6388) groups. In contrast, their expression was

comparatively lower in respective groups of $CC^{Coro1A\ KO}$ (-4.727±1.916; -2.898± 0.3824; 0.5067±

0.1074) and $CAC^{Coro1AKO}$(-4.370±1.344;-2.513±0.1995;1.100±0.04933) mice (Fig.4G).

Consistently, EMT-associated transcription factors SNAIL and SLUG were also upregulated in

CAC ^{WT} (7.072±1.964; 24.33± 5.503) relative to the counterpart $Coro1A^{KO}$ tissues group (-7.223±

0.2706; 0.5819± 0.3946) (Fig.S4H). Additionally, p53 was upregulated in CAC^{WT} (1.490± 0.4539)

compared to CC^{WT} (-0.1667±0.3820) and both Coro1A KO conditions(-0.300±0.1102;

0.1367±0.1637). It is consistent with reports of p53 overexpression in UC, CAC, and sporadic

colorectal cancer (Khursheed et al., 2024; Lu et al., 2017; Popp et al., 2016) (Fig. 4H). Altogether,

these findings demonstrate that molecular footprints associated with proliferation, inflammation,

ECM remodeling, and EMT are pronounced in WT mice, correlating with their increased

susceptibility to CAC development compared to $Coro1A^{KO}$ mice.

347• **Increased expression of Coro1A is associated with M2 macrophages**

To understand the immune cell type that shows enhanced Coro1A expression in chronic

inflammatory conditions and plays a crucial role in CAC development, we analyzed immune cells

isolated from the lamina propria of control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp tissues from WT mice by

flow cytometry. Flow cytometry was performed using predefined gating strategy, as shown in Fig.

S5A. Analysis revealed, in contrast to the control group, a marked increase in the number of

F4/80$^+$ and CD11b$^+$ macrophages in CC, non-polyp, and polyp regions (Fig. 5A and B), while the

neutrophil count (CD45$^+$ and Ly6G$^+$) was decreased in the CC and non-polyp regions, but

unexpectedly elevated in the polyp tissue (Fig S.5 B and C). To confirm whether Coro1A is

increased in infiltrating macrophages, the Median fluorescence intensity (MFI) of Coro1A during

flow cytometric analysis was calculated. MFI analysis revealed increased abundance of Coro1A

in infiltrating macrophages across all three conditions (Fig. 5C). While decreased abundance of

Coro1A was observed in neutrophils in the CC and non-polyp regions, it was strikingly elevated

in the polyp region (Fig. S5D). Under prolonged chronic inflammation, dynamic macrophages

exhibit remarkable plasticity, adapting to either a pro-inflammatory (M1) or an anti-inflammatory

(M2) state. Overall, macrophages, particularly anti-inflammatory, pro-tumorigenic M2

macrophages, utilize a variety of signaling cascades to promote CAC. (Hardbower et al., 2017;

Wang et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2021 Suarez-Lopez et al., 2018) Further analysis demonstrated a

gradual enrichment of(Arg$^+$-1) M2-like macrophages in CC, non-polyp, and polyp regions

compared to the iNOS$^+$ M1-like macrophages (Fig. 5D). A significantly higher M2 (Arg$^+$) /M1

(iNOS$^+$) ratio was seen in the area of non-polyp and polyp (Fig.5E). Subsequent analysis revealed

increased MFI of Coro1A is associated with Arg$^+$ M2 macrophages (Fig. 5F), whereas iNOS$^+$ M1

macrophages did not show such a trend (Fig. S5E).

To gain a mechanistic understanding of these observations, *in vitro* experiments were conducted.

Macrophages were treated with IL-4 and TGF-β to induce an M2-like phenotype as previously

reported (Stein et al., n.d.)(Zhang et al., 2016).Notably, exposure to these two cytokines increased

intracellular Coro1A levels (Fig. 5 G and H). This phenotype was accompanied by the upregulation

of several canonical M2 macrophage markers 14 hours post cytokine treatment (p.c.t) (Fig. 5I and

J).

Considering TGF-β being one of the inducers of Coro1A, the levels of TGF-β in the tissue lysates

of the AOM-DSS murine model were verified. Found an increased abundance of TGF-β in the CC

and CAC colon of IL-10$^{-/-}$ AOM-DSS mice, as determined by ELISA, underscoring the connection

between TGF-β and Coro1A signaling (Fig. 5 K). Collectively, these results suggest that Coro1A

is involved in the function of M2-like macrophages and thus modulates the tumor

microenvironment.

• **Coro1A interacts directly with the TGF-βRI and controls TGF-β-mediated M2 macrophage**

polarization

Previous reports have implicated Coro1A in regulating TGF-βRI and in the differentiation of Th17

CD4$^+$ T cells (Kaminski et al., 2011). Based on this, we set forth to investigate the possible

mechanism by which Coro1A crosstalks with TGF-β-signaling in macrophages. Co-IP analyzed

the potential interaction between Coro1A and TGF-βRI. RAW264.7 cell lysate was pulled down

with an anti-Coro1A antibody, followed by immunoblotting against TGF-βRI. A direct interaction

of Coro1A with TGF-βRI was evident (Fig. 6.A). Furthermore, structured illumination microscopy

(SIM) revealed a direct interaction between TGF-βRI and Coro1A, as evidenced by strong

colocalization signals (Fig.6B). Furthermore, interaction of Coro1A was not restricted to TGF-β

RI; it also interacted with TGF-β RII (Fig. S. 6A).

The role of Coro1A in macrophage function was next assessed. J774 macrophages stably knocked

down for Coro1A (hereafter referred to as J774 [Coro1A KD]) were used (Fig. 6C) and (Fig.S6B). The

interaction between Coro1A and TGF-βRI was validated in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells by

antibody-based pull-down. The blots revealed interaction of Coro1A and TGF-βRI in J774 [WT] cells

but not in J774 [Coro1A KD] cells (Fig. 6D).

Under the basal level, there is no significant change in the expression of prototypical M2 markers

like Arginase-1, IL-10, master regulator of M2 macrophage markers SNAIL, and TGF-βRI, in

J774[WT] and J774[Coro1A KD] cells. Upon stimulation with TGF-β, J774[WT] exhibited strong induction

of M2 markers Arginase-1 (6.877 ± 1.372) and SNAIL (5.395 ± 0.856), whereas this phenotype was

severely blunted in J774[Coro1A-KD] cells (Arginase-1 0.5067 ± 0.0898, SNAIL 2.201 ± 1.164)

measured by qRT-PCR (Fig.6E, Left and Right). In line with these changes in gene expression,

the secretion of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 was significantly higher in J774[WT] cells

(55.83 ± 14.29) after TGF-β stimulation; however, in J774 [Coro1A KD] cells treated with TGF-β, IL-10

secretion was considerably lower (6.904 ± 15.23). (Fig. 6F). Furthermore, Arginase-1-positive cells

were quantified using Flow Cytometry, revealing that J774 [WT] cells showed a pronounced response

to TGF-β stimulation, with increased Arginase-1-positive cells (27.67 ± 9.615), whereas J774 [Coro1A]

[KD] cells failed to respond to TGF-β with the same efficiency (4.667 ± 2.749). (Fig. 4G). Considering

reduced expression of Arginase, SNAIL, and less secretion of IL-10, the expression of TGF-βRI

in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells was examined. TGF-βRI showed comparable basal levels of

expression in both J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells. Upon TGF-β exposure, it was upregulated in

both cell types (1.993 ± 0.1658; 1.513 ± 0.4103) (Fig. 6H). This indicates that TGF-β receptor

transcription is intact in J774 [coro1A KD] cells, and that impaired signaling likely arises from defects

at the protein level. Mechanistically, in the canonical TGF-β signaling pathway, the activated TGF-

β receptor phosphorylates SMAD2/3, which form a complex with SMAD4 and translocate to the

nucleus to drive transcription of target genes (Nakao & Imamura, 1997). Accordingly, TGF-β

stimulation increases the nuclear accumulation of pSMAD2/3 in cells responding to the TGF-β

trigger, as compared to less or non-stimulated cells. In line with the above observation, J774 [WT]

cells exposed to TGF-β showed enhanced nuclear accumulation of SMAD3 as compared to J774

[Coro1A KD] cells (Fig. 6I). Furthermore, bone marrow-derived macrophages (hereafter referred to as

BMDMs) isolated from WT mice showed promising accumulation of pSMAD3 in their nucleus

on TGF-β stimulation, whereas Coro1A[KO] mice-derived BMDMs showed impaired nuclear

accumulation of pSMAD3, as shown by immunofluorescence microscopy (Fig. 6J). Together,

these findings demonstrate that Coro1A is a critical regulator of TGF-β-mediated SMAD3

activation in macrophages and, consequently, of TGF-β-mediated macrophage polarization.

• **Coro1A is required for the stability of TGF-βRI**

To understand the relevance of Coro1A interaction with TGF-βRI, TGF-βRI expression was

investigated in stable J774 [Coro1A KD] cells. A significant decrease in TGF-βRI protein expression

levels was seen in J774[Coro1A KD] cells compared to J774[WT] cells (Fig. 7A). Additionally, TGF-βRI

expression was validated in BMDM[WT] and BMDM [Coro1A KO] by confocal microscopy. A significant

reduction in FITC-labelled TGF-βRI fluorescence intensity in BMDM [Coro1A KO] was observed, as

compared to BMDM [WT] (Fig. 7B). Furthermore, to assess overall TGF-βRI-mediated signaling in

J774 [Coro1A KD] cells, pAKT/AKT level, as one of the immediate downstream readouts of the TGF-

β signaling, was examined. TGF-β-induced pAKT level was markedly reduced in J774 [Coro1A KD]

cells as compared to J774 [WT] cells, indicating impaired SMAD-independent signaling as well in

J774 [Coro1A KD] cells (Fig. 7C). TGF-β signaling is autoregulatory; the activation of intact TGF-β

receptors induces *TGFB1* transcription, leading to enhanced precursor synthesis and the release of

mature TGF-β into the supernatant. Conversely, impaired TGF-βR signaling lowers both

intracellular precursor levels and the secreted TGF-β (Deng et al., 2024; Massagué, 2012).ELISA

and immunoblot verified autoregulatory secretion of TGF-β in cell supernatant from J774 [WT] and

J774 [Coro1A KD] cells. A considerably lower concentration of TGF-β appeared in the cell supernatant

collected from J774 [Coro1A KD] cells as compared to J774 [WT] cells (Fig. 7D). These findings were

further supported by immunoblot analysis of secreted TGF-β in the supernatant, confirming a

reduced secretion of TGF-β from J774 [Coro1A KD] cells (Fig.S6C). Further, the TGF-β level in the

tissue lysate of WT and Coro1A [KO] CAC mice model was measured using ELISA. TGF-β levels

were upregulated in CC[WT] and CAC[WT] compared to both WT Control and their respective Coro1A

[KO] counterparts, indicating a marked reduction in TGF-β synthesis in Coro1A[KO] mice. (Fig. 7E).

Next, the mechanism by which Coro1A safeguards TGF-βRI from degradation was investigated.

Previous studies have shown that Coro1A decorates signaling endosomes of the neuronal growth

factor (NGF)-tropomyosin-related kinase type-1 (TrkA) once it is internalized within the neuronal

cell body from lysosomal degradation. (Suo et al., 2014).

We hypothesized that the TGF-β-TGF-βRI complex, upon internalization, is protected from

degradation by Coro1A in macrophages. In line with this, bafilomycin-A1-mediated blocking of

lysosomal acidification rescued the TGF-βRI level in J774[Coro1A KD] cells as compared to untreated

J774[Coro1A KD] cells (Fig.7F), whereas blocking proteasomal degradation by MG-132 treatment

resulted in no change in TGF-βRI expression in J774[Coro1A KD] cells. (Fig.S6D). As a positive

control, p62 accumulated under bafilomycin-A1 treatment, while polyubiquitinated proteins were

enriched following MG-132 treatment, confirming effective lysosomal and proteasomal inhibition,

respectively (Fig. S6E and F). Furthermore, colocalization of FITC-labelled TGF-βRI(Green) with

Lysotracker (Red) in BMDM[WT] and BMDM[Coro1A KO] revealed a higher degree of TGF-βRI

accumulation within lysosomes of BMDM[Coro1A KO], as observed by strong yellow color puncta

(Fig. 7G). Together, these results suggest that in the absence of Coro1A, canonical and non-

canonical TGF-β signaling are hampered because TGF-β-TGF-βRI signaling endosomes are

predominantly targeted for lysosomal degradation.

Coro1A utilizes the calcium-calcineurin signaling pathway to protect TGF-βRI from

degradation.

Previous reports have demonstrated that Coro1A-mediated calcium influx protects NGF-TrkA

signaling endosomes and *M. tuberculosis* phagosomes from lysosomal degradation (Jayachandran

et al., 2007; Mueller et al., 2008; Suo et al., 2014).

To test whether Coro1A utilizes calcium ion influx to stabilize TGF-β-TGF-β RI signaling

endosomes from lysosomal degradation, RAW 264.7 cells were treated with cell-permeable

calcium chelator 1,2-bis(o-aminophenoxy) ethane-N, N, N, N-tetraacetic acid, tetraacetoxymethyl

ester (BAPTA-AM) and assessed the TGF-βRI level by immunoblotting. Notably, the level of

TGF-βRI in RAW264.7 cells treated with BAPTA-AM was significantly lower than that in

untreated controls (Fig. 8A). The result phenocopied the finding observed in the Coro1A-depletion

condition. (Fig.7A). Moreover, increasing calcium concentration in J774 [Coro1A KD] cells using

calcium ionophore Ionomycin partially rescued TGF-β RI level as compared to J774 [Coro1A KD] cells

(Fig. 8B). Taken together, these data suggest stability of TGF-βRI is directly linked to the ability

of Coro1A to induce calcium release. Provided that *M. tuberculosis* (Jayachandran et al., 2007)

and NGF-TrkA signaling endosomes (Suo et al., 2014) utilize calcium ion-activated calcineurin

phosphatase to evade lysosomal degradation, it was speculated that TGF-β RI signaling endosomes

may employ a similar mechanism. In RAW264.7 cells, potent calcineurin inhibitors, Cyclosporin

A (CsA) and FK506, were added to test whether inhibiting calcineurin phosphatase results in

degradation of TGF-β RI. Similar to BAPTA-AM, treatment with CsA and FK506 resulted in a

significant reduction in TGF-βRI expression (Fig. 8C and D). Collectively, these results suggest

that Coro1A, associated with TGF-β-TGF-β RI signaling endosomes, utilizes the calcium-

calcineurin signaling pathway to protect TGF-β RI signaling endosomes from lysosomal

degradation in the macrophages.

493• **SUMO2/3 governs the stability of Coro1A**

Since Coro1A was identified in this study as an interactor of deSUMOylase SENP5, we tested

whether Coro1A is SUMO-modified. Co-immunoprecipitation was performed using anti-

SUMO2/3 antibody in J774[WT] cell lysates, followed by immunoblotting against Coro1A.

Interestingly, Coro1A was detected in the SUMO2/3 pull-down (Fig. 9A, bottom). Moreover, the

Coro1A band appeared at its usual molecular weight, with no shift in molecular weight detected,

indicating that Coro1A itself does not undergo SUMOylation. Surprisingly, in reverse Co-IP with

Coro1A, SUMO2/3 bands appeared in the range of 75 kDa-150 kDa, suggesting that Coro1A may

interact with already SUMOylated proteins (Fig. 9A, Top). In line with previous findings on

Coro2A, where it interacts with SUMOylated Liver X-receptors (LXRs) through SUMO-

interacting motifs (SIM)(Huang et al., 2011). It was speculated that Coro1A may utilize its SIM

site to interact with SUMOylated proteins. SIM, a conserved hydrophobic amino acid (V/I V/I X

V/I), followed by acidic residues, enables the protein to interact with other SUMOylated proteins,

influencing their stability, localization, and downstream signaling.(Kerscher, 2007; Song et al.,

2004).

Using GPS-SUMO and JASSA (Beauclair et al., 2015; Gou et al., 2024),we identified potential

SIM sites in Coro1A; however, sites recognized by both tools with high scores were prioritized

(Fig.9 B). SIM Sites 124-128, 155-159, and 167-171 were selected for further study. These

findings raise two questions: the functional relevance of Coro1A SIM sites and the identity of the

protein undergoing SUMOylation to which Coro1A interacts via its SIM site. Conservation of the

chosen SIM sites was analyzed using a multiple-sequence alignment across different species (Fig.

S7A). To identify the critical SIM site required for Coro1A to function and the relevance of SIM-

SUMO interaction, SIM sites were perturbed by performing Site-Directed Mutagenesis (SDM) by

replacing the hydrophobic Valine (V) residue with positively charged Lysine (K) residue; this

change is expected to disrupt the SIM-SUMO interaction, as established by Song et al. (2004)

(Fig.S7 B).

To understand the fate of these mutants, Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and SIM mutants (Coro1A-GFP ^{V124K},

Coro1A-GFP ^{V155K}, and Coro1A-GFP ^{V167K}) were transfected into RAW264.7 cells, and protein

expression was analyzed on an immunoblot. A marked reduction in the expression of Coro1A-

GFP^{V155K} was observed on immunoblot (Fig. 9C). To validate the above finding, the

hydrophobicity of the SIM site in the Coro1A ^{V155K} mutant was replenished by replacing lysine

(K) with alanine (A), resulting in partial rescue of the Coro1A-GFP protein (Fig. 9D).

Furthermore, confocal microscopy of RAW264.7 cells transfected with Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and

Coro1A SIM mutants showed that neither mutation altered localization nor induced aggregation

in Coro1A. However, Coro1A-GFP ^{V155K} showed a marked reduction in GFP fluorescence

intensity as compared to Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and other SIM mutants (Fig. 9E).

Overall, these results suggest that perturbing SIM sites affects Coro1A stability. Molecular

dynamics simulations were carried out between Coro1A ^{WT} and Coro1A ^{V155K} mutant using the

CABS-Flex 3.0 server (https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkaf412) to rule out the possibility of structural

aberration induced by the V155K mutation in Coro1A. The results showed that both the wildtype

and V155K mutant proteins exhibited similar dynamic behavior, indicating that the mutation does

not induce any significant structural aberration that could cause protein denaturation (Fig. S7C).

Next, SIM-SUMO interaction was disrupted independently of Coro1A by transiently knocking

down the only SUMO-conjugating enzyme, UBC9, in RAW264.7 cells, thereby lowering global

SUMOylation. Under these conditions, Coro1A expression was strikingly less. (Fig.9F). This

effect is restricted at the protein level, as the transcript of Coro1A was upregulated on UBC9

knockdown (Fig.S7D). To investigate the route of Coro1A-GFP ^{V155K} degradation, RAW264.7

cells transfected with Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and ^{V155K} mutant were treated with MG-132 and

Bafilomycin-A1. Surprisingly, partial rescue was observed in Coro1A-GFP [V155K] in both

conditions (Fig.9G). Altogether, these results show that disruption of the SIM site or lowering

global SUMOylation leads to degradation of the Coro1A protein, indicating that Coro1A depends

on SUMO2/3 and SUMOylated target protein for stability.

546• **Coro1A interacts with SUMOylated Raftlin-1 through SIM interaction**

To identify potential SUMOylated proteins involved in the SIM-SUMO interaction with Coro1A,

two distinct bands of SUMO2/3, observed between 75 kD and 150 kD (Fig. 9A, Top), were

subjected to mass spectrometry. After subtracting proteins detected in IgG, a list of potential

proteins that may undergo SUMOylation was obtained (Fig. 10A).

From that list, Raftlin, a novel major lipid raft protein, was selected as a promising candidate to

undergo SUMOylation and interact with Coro1A. Previous reports have shown that Raftlin

controls T-cell receptor (TCR) and B-cell receptor (BCR) signaling by mobilizing calcium ions

(Kazuko Saeki & Akihiko Yoshimura, 2003; Saeki et al., 2009). Raftlin plays a critical role in

endocytosis, decorates signaling endosomes, and is detected together with Coro1A in the VEGFR2

interactome (Tatematsu et al., 2016; Watanabe et al., 2011a; Bayliss et al., 2020). These findings

indicate a close association between Raftlin and Coro1A, and, together with their functional

similarity, led us to select Raftlin as a potential candidate for the Coro1A SIM-SUMO interaction.

To test the interaction between Coro1A and Raftlin, co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) was

performed using an anti-Coro1A antibody in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cell lysates. Raftlin-

Coro1A interaction appeared in J774 [WT], but not in J774 [Coro1A KD] (Fig. 10 B). Furthermore, their

interaction was validated in RAW264.7 cells, confirming its conservation across different cell

types (Fig. S7E). To identify potential SUMOylation sites present in Raftlin, the GPS-SUMO and

JASSA software tools were employed. Both software tools with high scores identified the K31 and

K224 sites (Fig. 10C). To narrow down on the possible SUMOylation site, an *in-silico* protein-

protein docking approach was employed. While docking the SUMO2 protein on the alpha fold

predicted structure of Raftlin, parameters like supramolecular geometry, accessibility of lysine (K)

residues for isopeptide bond formation with SUMO, and minimal energy score were considered.

Molecular docking demonstrated interaction between the di-glycine motif of SUMO2 (G-97) with

K31, K139, and K308 of Raftlin, with SUMO2-K31 interaction being most compact and exhibiting

the lowest minimum energy score (Fig. 10D). Additionally, multiple sequence alignment revealed

that K31 is highly conserved across different species, underlining its functional importance
(Fig.S7F) whereas other mentioned sites are not conserved. To test whether Raftlin undergoes
SUMOylation and whether K31 is the potential site of SUMO binding, SDM was performed to
substitute lysine (K31) with arginine (K31R), as SUMO can form an isopeptide bond with only
lysine and not with arginine (Rytinki & Palvimo, 2009). Next, RAW264.7 cells were transfected
with Raftlin [WT] and Raftlin [K31R,] along with appropriate controls, and subjected to GFP-antibody-
based pull-down. Immunoblot revealed a prominent interaction between Raftlin [WT] and SUMO2/3,
as well as between Raftlin [WT] and Coro1A. In contrast, Raftlin [K31R] did not interact with SUMO2/3
and showed a feeble interaction with Coro1A (Fig. 10E). Raftlin [K31R] showed comparable stability
to Raftlin [WT] as demonstrated by immunoblotting (Fig. S7G). In line with this, structured
illumination microscopy (SIM) demonstrated strong colocalization of Coro1A (Red) with Raftlin
[WT] (Green), which was markedly reduced with Raftlin [K31R] (Fig. 10F). To map the interacting
interface of SUMOylated Raftlin with Coro1A, a stable Raftlin-SUMO complex was docked on
Coro1A (PDB ID: 2AQ5). Protein-protein docking analysis indicated that SUMO interacts with
Coro1A through a region spanning residues 155-159 and 167-171. The SUMO-interacting
interface on Coro1A is highlighted in yellow (Fig.10G). Notably, these regions correspond to
SUMO-interacting motifs (SIMs) of Coro1A, consistent with our previous findings demonstrating
that SIM 155-159 is critical for Coro1A to interact with SUMO2/3 and maintain stability. Overall,
these results revealed that Coro1A interacts with SUMOylated Raftlin at K31 through the SIM
site.
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Discussion:
In the current work, a screen was carried out to assess the possible involvement of SUMOylation
machinery components in CAC, leading to the identification of the deSUMOylase- SENP5. To
dissect the contribution of SENP5 in CAC, its interactome was analyzed, and Coro1A emerged as
an outcome. Coro1A, an actin-binding regulatory protein, is associated with immune cell function
but has not been explored in the context of IBD or CAC (Humphries et al., 2002; Mueller et al.,
2008; Pick et al., 2017; Stocker et al., 2018). However, increased expression of Coro1A has been
reported in several chronically inflamed and autoimmune disease models, such as renal fibrosis,
lupus nephritis, and lung fibrosis, as well as in some forms of cancer (X. Deng et al., 2024; Elihamu
et al., 2025; Kros et al., 2024; Nicolaou et al., 2020; Niu et al., 2024; Principi et al., 2023;

Siegmund et al., 2016). In lung adenocarcinoma, increased expression of Coro1A correlated with TNM stage, ranked among the top 10 prognostic markers, particularly as an M2 or TAM macrophage marker, and appeared to shape the tumor microenvironment (TME) (Z. Li et al., 2025; Sun et al., 2024) (Bao et al., 2022; Y. Zhou et al., 2021). Coro1A expression is linked to cancer pathogenesis, since knockdown of Coro1A curbs the growth and metastasis of breast cancer cells (Elihamu et al., 2025; He et al., 2018; Jeon et al., 2024; Kros et al., 2024). Likewise, Coro 1A has been identified as one of the five robust biomarkers in bladder cancer (Kumar et al., n.d.).

A direct interaction of Coro1A with the C-terminus of β_2 integrins is required for polymorphonuclear leukocyte (PMNs) trafficking, adhesion, and post-adhesion events (Pick et al., 2017). Furthermore, in a cystic fibrosis model, Coro1A was shown to regulate integrin clustering and activation, a mechanism required for monocyte function (Younis et al., 2024). The immune regulatory function of Coro 1A is exemplified by the finding linking Coro 1A to allograft tolerance. Specifically, T cells lacking Coro1A suppressed the allograft rejection phenotype in a wild-type host upon adoptive transfer, while maintaining T cell-specific responses against the pathogen (Jayachandran et al., 2019). Likewise, Coro1A ^{KO} mice display attenuated response in an experimental model of encephalomyelitis (Jayachandran et al., 2019; Kaminski et al., 2011). Overall, these reports make it evident that several aspects of immune cell function, including maintenance of numbers, trafficking, adhesion, and post-adhesion events, are directly governed by Coro 1A(Jayachandran & Pieters, 2015; Mueller et al., 2008; Ndinyanka Fabrice et al., 2025; Pick et al., 2017; Shiow et al., 2009; Younis et al., 2025).

Arguably, these phenotypes result from significant signaling alterations in these cells, with Coro1A function playing a direct role. Coro1A was shown to regulate TGF-βR signaling in an experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) model. Coro1A^{KO} mice exhibited less severe EAE. Unexpectedly, upon re-induction of EAE, Coro1A^{KO} mice showed severe signs of EAE, with a strong correlation with IL-17-producing T cells. Coro1A^{KO} Th17 cells show a severe defect in TGF-βR-mediated SMAD3 activation, leading to increased IL-17 secretion (Kaminski et al., 2011). TGF-β and IL-4 are key inducers of M2 macrophages and systemic immune suppression. TGF-β promotes immune suppression in T cells, Dendritic cells (DCs), neutrophils, and macrophages via canonical (SMAD2/3-dependent) and non-canonical pathways. TGF-β signaling hampers DC maturation and antigen-presenting capacity by modulating co-stimulatory molecule

expression. In T-Cells, TGF-β suppresses TCR-induced cell proliferation and regulatory T cell
differentiation by inducing Foxp3. TGF-β also polarizes neutrophils towards the pro-tumorigenic
N2 phenotype. Given the broad immunosuppressive effects of TGF-β, we hypothesize that Coro1A
may regulate these TGF-β-induced processes in immune cells, as we have demonstrated in
macrophages (Z. Deng et al., 2024b; Fridlender et al., 2009; Gong et al., 2012a; C. S. Lin et al.,
2013; Mckarns et al., 2004; Strobl & Knapp, 1999).

Owing to TGF-β signaling's multifaceted functions, mutations in components have also
been linked to colorectal cancer, particularly in the tumor microenvironment (TME). Genetic
alterations in genes encoding components of the TGF-β signaling pathway, particularly TGF-βRII
(50-60%) and SMAD4 (46-48%), are the most common in CAC cases (Calon et al., 2012; Means
et al., 2018; Yashiro, 2014). In CAC macrophages, characterized as CD11b$^+$ F4/80$^+$ Ly6C$^+$, are
increased and play a crucial role in tumorigenesis; their depletion halts tumorigenesis. Highly
plastic macrophages under persistent chronic conditions polarize towards an M2-like phenotype
and act as a key driver of the CAC (Hardbower et al., 2017; Sheng et al., 2022; Shin et al., 2023;
Wang et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2021).

Interestingly, polymorphisms in TGF-β Receptors and/or signaling components have been
reported to be associated with a concomitant decrease in the CD11b$^+$ F4/80$^+$ M2 macrophage
population (Gong et al., 2012). In line with this, in the current work, we observed that Coro1A is
a potent regulator of TGF-β signaling in macrophages in CAC. Myeloid cells play a key role in
shaping TME, and TGF-β signaling is essential for myeloid cell function in CAC (Chan et al.,
2022). Furthermore, TGF-β-deficient mice exhibit significantly reduced CAC burden, lower tumor
burden, and substantially reduced IL-6 and TNF-α production (J. Li et al., 2013; W. Wang et al.,
2015). This phenotype closely matches our observation in Coro1A^{KO} mice, which show reduced
TGF-β signaling and fewer tumors. The integral role of Coro1A in immune cell function and TGF-
β signaling also strongly connects to fibrosis and the mechanisms that contribute to it. The c-AMP-
responsive element-binding protein (CREBH) controls Coro1A expression and regulates
autophagy in NASH, thereby preventing liver fibrosis. CREBH^{KO} mice exhibit liver fibrosis by
activating TGF-β, CTGF signaling pathways, and deposition of collagen, α-SMA, and fibronectin
(Deng et al., 2024).An extensive clinical study involving colorectal cancer patients (N=94) showed
that overexpression of markers of cancer-associated fibroblasts was associated with tumor-

infiltrating lymphocytes, thus revealing a vital role for CAFs in maintaining the colorectal TME

(Zadka et al., 2021). In our study, Coro1A[KO] mice showed resistance to polyp formation in an

AOM-DSS model, with significantly reduced markers of fibrosis, accompanied by attenuated

proliferation, oncogene, and EMT gene activation. The connection between Coro1A and fibrosis

and tumorigenesis was through its regulation of TGF-β signaling. Mechanistically, Coro1A-

mediated mobilized calcium activates Calcineurin phosphatases, which, in turn, activate genes

involved in preventing lysosomal fusion of phagosomes and signaling endosomes(Jayachandran

et al., 2007; Suo et al., 2014). In our study, we also found Coro1A employing the same calcium-

calcineurin pathway to protect the TGF-β signaling endosome from lysosomal degradation.

The fascinating part of the work is how SUMOylation of Raftlin protein bridges these

diverse pathways. We observed that Coro1A depends on SUMOylated Raftlin for stability via the

SUMO-SIM interaction. SIM-deficient Coro1A undergoes rapid degradation, leading to

concomitant dysregulated TGF-β signaling. Raftlin and Coro1A exhibit a functional correlation.

Like Coro1A, Raftlin also controls B-cell receptor (BCR) and T-cell receptor (TCR) signaling by

modulating calcium mobilization, and both are key players in clathrin-mediated endocytosis, a

common pathway utilized by TGF-β signaling endosomes to initiate signaling. Given their

functional correlation, our finding highlights SUMO as a connecting link between Coro1A and

Raftlin (Bayliss et al., 2020; Kazuko Saeki & Akihiko Yoshimura, 2003; Saeki et al., 2009;

Tatematsu et al., 2016; Watanabe et al., 2011) (Lacy et al., 2018). Presumably, SENP5 plays a role

in Raftlin SUMOylation, an attractive area for future research. Overall, our study revealed a critical

role of Coro1A in shaping the tumor microenvironment in CAC by modulating TGF-β signaling

and promoting a M2-like non-inflammatory macrophage phenotype.

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Figure legends:

Dynamic expression pattern of SENP5 in chronic colitis and colitis-associated colorectal cancer (CAC)

A.   Schematic representation of the chemically induced murine CAC model (AOM-DSS) in C57BL/6 mice.

B.   The graph represents the body weight of experimental animals during the development of the AOM-DSS model.

C.   A representative image showing the gross morphology of the colon. The graph on the right shows the quantification of colon length. White arrows indicate polyps present at the distal end of the colon.

D.   A representative image shows the gross morphology of the spleen. The graph to the right shows the spleen weight-to-body weight ratio in the mice.

E.   Representative Hematoxylin and Eosin-stained colon section from Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp.

F.   Immunoblot of SUMO-1 and SUMO-2/3 conjugated proteins (global SUMOylome) from colonic tissue lysates of chronic colitis (CC) and polyps from the murine CAC model, with free SUMO is shown in the red box.

G.   Heatmap qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of deSUMOylases SENP1, SENP2, SENP3, SENP5, SENP6, and SENP7 in CC, non-polyp, and polyp regions of the CAC murine model relative to the average control values.

H.   Immunoblot showing SENP5 expression in lysates from colonic tissue of Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp samples. The graph at the bottom shows the densitometric analysis of the fold intensity of SENP5 expression, normalized to the loading control.

I.   Immunoblot of SUMO-1 and SUMO-2/3 conjugated proteins (global SUMOylome) from

tissue lysates of CAC patient samples with free SUMO is shown in the red box.

J.   qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of deSUMOylase SENP5 from SCRC (N=9) and

CAC (N=15) patient samples relative to the average IBS values (N=10).

K.   Immunoblot showing SENP5 expression in colonic biopsies from control and CAC

patients. The graph at the bottom shows the densitometric analysis of the fold intensity of SENP5

expression, normalized to the loading control.

L.   Immunoblot showing SENP5 expression in colonic tissue lysates of Control, non-polyp

SCRC, and polyp SCRC of $Apc^{+/+}$ and $APC^{+/-}$ model. The graph at the bottom shows the

densitometric analysis of the fold intensity of SENP5 expression, normalized to the loading

control.

Each dot represents (C, D, H, and L) for one mouse, (J) for one patient, and (K) lysate from one

patient biopsy. Each box represents one mouse (G). Actin was used as a loading control for F, H,

and L, and GAPDH was used as a loading control for I and K. GAPDH was used for gene

normalization (G and J). The immunoblots shown here are representative of three biological

replicates. Error bars represent mean ±SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired

Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01,

<0.001, *<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure-2

Altered interactome of SENP5 in chronic colitis and colitis-associated colorectal cancer

A.   Schematic representation of SENP5 pull-down using anti-SENP5 antibody from Control, CC,

non-polyp, and polyp tissue lysates. Isotype antibody (IgG) was used as a negative control.

B. Venn diagram showing the number of unique and common proteins across the Control, CC,

non-polyp, and polyp groups.

C. The Gene Ontology (GO) Pathway analysis (molecular function) of differentially enriched

SENP5 interacting proteins in the non-polyp and polyp region, as compared to the Control.

Pathway enrichment significance was assessed using hypergeometric and multiple test

correction at FDR less than 0.05.

D. Table of shortlisted potential SENP5 interacting proteins from the Actin binding function

pathway based on their functional role in cancer or any disease progression, and having a

SUMO binding or interacting motif.

E. Volcano plot of differentially enriched proteins with SENP5 in non-polyp and polyp as compared

to the Control, with shortlisted potential SENP5 interactors marked. Here, significance is defined

as fold change >2 and p-value < 0.05.

Figure-3

Coro1A as an interactor of SENP5

A. Top: Colonic tissue lysates of Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp were immunoprecipitated with

anti-SENP5 antibody and immunoblotted for Coro1A. Bottom: 10% of input loaded from the

same tissue lysate and immunoblotted for Coro1A and Actin. Isotype antibody (IgG) was used

as a negative control.

B. Immunoblot showing Coro1A expression in colonic tissue lysates of Control, CC, non-polyp,

and polyp. The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold intensity of Coro1A

expression, normalized to loading control.

C. Immunoblot showing Coro1A expression in colonic tissue lysates from Control, CC, and CAC

colon of an AOM-DSS model performed in IL-10$^{-/-}$ mice. The graph on the right shows

densitometric analysis of fold intensity of Coro1A expression, normalized to loading control.

D. Immunoblot showing Coro1A expression in human colonic biopsies of IBS (N=4) and ulcerative

colitis (N=5) patients. The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold intensity of

Coro1A expression, normalized to loading control.

E. Immunohistochemistry of Coro1A in colonic tissue sections of Control, CC, non-polyp, and

polyp region of AOM-DSS mice model. Scale bar 100μm.

F. Immunohistochemistry of Coro1A in archived colonic biopsy slides from IBS, UC, and CAC

patients. Scale bar 100μm.

Each dot represents (B and C) one mouse or (D) one patient biopsy tissue lysate. Actin was used

as a loading control (A and B), and GAPDH was used as a loading Control (C and D). The inset

shows a zoomed image of a colon section. Asterisks show Coro1a expression (E and F). The

immunoblots shown here are representative of three biological replicates.

Error bars represent mean ±SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t-

test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001,

****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure-4

Absence of Coro1A confers resistance to CAC development in mice:

A. Schematic representation of the chemically induced murine CAC model (AOM-DSS) in WT

(C57BL/6) and Coro1 A ^{KO} (C57BL/6) mice.

B. Representative longitudinal cut-open colon image from the CAC group of WT and Coro1A ^{KO}

mice. White arrows indicate polyps present at the distal end of the WT colon.

C. Representative Hematoxylin and Eosin-stained colon section from Control, CC, and CAC group

of WT and Coro1A ^{KO} mice.

D. Representative Sirius Red-stained colon section from Control, CC, and CAC group of WT and

Coro1A^{KO} mice.

E. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of Proliferation and Oncogene; Ki67 and C-Myc

relative to the average control values.

F. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory markers,

COX-2 and Arginase-1, relative to the average control values.

G. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of ECM markers, Fibronectin, α-SMA, and Col1A1

relative to the average control values.

H. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of p53 relative to the average control values.

Each dot represents one of the mice (E, F, G, and H). Samples analyzed by qRT-PCR include

CC ^{WT}, CAC ^{WT}, CC $^{Coro1A\ KO}$, and CAC $^{Coro1A\ KO}$. GAPDH was used for Gene normalization

(E, F, G, and H). Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the

unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05,

<0.01, *< 0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure -5

Increased expression of Coro 1A is associated with M2 macrophages.

A. Representative counter plots showing F4/80^{+} and CD11b^{+} macrophage infiltration in Control,

CC, non-polyp, and polyp regions.

B.   Percentage infiltration of macrophages in Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp as determined by

flow cytometry.

C.   Median Fluorescence intensity (MFI) of Coro1A in infiltrated macrophages across Control, CC,

non-polyp, and polyp as measured by flow cytometry.

D.   Representative plot showing the distribution of iNOS$^+$ (%) and Arg-1$^+$ (%) macrophages across

Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp.

E.   Ratio of M2 (Arg-1$^+$) to M1 (iNOS$^+$) macrophages in all four conditions: Control, CC, non-

polyp, and polyp, as determined by flow cytometry.

F.   MFI of Coro1A in Arg-1$^+$ macrophages across Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp.

G.   Immunoblot showing expression of Coro1A in bone-marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs)

cells treated with IL-4 for 16, 18, and 20 hours. The graph on the right shows the densitometric

analysis of the fold intensity of Coro1A expression, normalized to the loading control.

H.   Immunoblot showing expression of Coro1A in RAW 264.7 cells treated with TGF-β for 2,3, and

4 hours. The graph on the right shows the densitometric analysis of the fold intensity of Coro1A

expression, normalized to the loading control.

I.   qRT-PCR analysis showing fold-change expression of M1(iNOS and IL-8) and M2 (Arg-1,

YM1, and Mrc1) macrophage markers in BMDMs treated with IL-4.

J.   qRT-PCR analysis showing fold-change expression of M2 macrophage markers, Arginase-1, and

SNAIL in RAW264.7 cells treated with TGF-β.

K.   Quantification of TGF-β levels in colonic tissue lysates from AOM-DSS mice, measured by

ELISA.

Each dot represents (B, C, E, F, and K) one mouse, or (G, H, I, and J) independent experiments

of 3 biological replicates. Actin is used as a loading control (G and H). GAPDH used for Gene

normalization (I and J). The immunoblots shown here are representative of three biological

replicates. Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired

Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***<

0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non significant.

Figure-6

837 Coro1A interacts with TGF-β receptors directly and controls TGF-β-mediated M2

838 macrophage polarization.

A. Top: RAW264.7 cell lysates immunoprecipitated with anti-Coro1A antibody and

immunoblotted for TGF-βRI. Bottom:10% of input loaded from the same cell lysate and

immunoblotted for Coro1A, TGF-βRI, and Actin. Isotype antibodies (IgG) were used as a

negative control.

B. Representative structured illumination microscopy (SIM) showing cellular localization of

TGF-βRI (Red) and Coro 1A (Green). The asterisks in the zoomed version of the merged image

show colocalization of TGF-βRI (Red) and Coro1A-GFP (Green).

C. Immunoblot confirming loss of Coro1A protein expression in stable J774 [Coro1A KD] cells

compared to J774[WT] cells.

D. Top: J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cell lysates immunoprecipitated with anti-Coro1A antibody

and immunoblotted for TGF-βRI. Bottom: 10% of input loaded from cell lysate and

immunoblotted for Coro1A, TGF-βRI, and Actin. Isotype antibodies (IgG) were used as a

negative control.

E. qRT-PCR-based fold-change expression of Arginase-1 (left) and SNAIL (right) in J774 [WT] and

J774 [Coro1A KD] cells with and without TGF-β stimulation.

F. Concentration analysis of IL-10 in the cell culture supernatant of J774 [WT] and J774[Coro1A KD]

cells with and without TGF-β stimulation using ELISA.

G. Flow cytometry-based analysis of Arginase-1 positive cells in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells

with and without TGF-β stimulation.

H. qRT-PCR-based fold-change expression of TGF-βRI in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells with

and without TGF-β stimulation.

I. Immunoblot showing nuclear accumulation of SMAD3 post 30 and 60 minutes of TGF-β

exposure to J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells.

J. Representative confocal images of BMDM [WT] and BMDM [Coro1A KO] cells with and without

TGF-β stimulation, stained for pSMAD3 (Red). A dotted white circle demarks nuclear

boundaries. The graph to the right illustrates the mean fluorescence intensity of pSMAD3 in

the nuclei (n = 60). (Scale bar = 5μm).

Each dot represents (E, F, G, and H) one independent experiment of a biological experiment,

and (J) one cell. Actin was used as a loading control (A, C, and D). Lamina AC was used as a

loading control (I), GAPDH was used for Gene normalization (E and H). The immunoblots shown

here are representative of three biological replicates. Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical

analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered

statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***<0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure-7

Coro1A is required for the stability of TGF-βRI

A. Immunoblot showing TGF-β R1 expression in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells. The graph at

the bottom shows densitometric analysis of the fold intensity of TGF-βRI, normalized to the

Control.

B. Representative confocal image of BMDM [WT] and BMDM [Coro1A KO] cells stained for TGF-

βRI (Green) (n=100). The graph on the right shows the quantification of TGF-βRI mean

fluorescence intensity. (Scale bar=5μm).

C. Immunoblot showing pAKT and AKT expression in J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells. The graph

at the bottom shows the desitometric analysis of the fold intensity of pAKT, normalized to the

AKT.

D. Concentration analysis of TGF-β in the cell culture supernatant of J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD]

cells using ELISA.

E. Concentration analysis of TGF-β from the tissue lysates of WT and Coro1A [KO] CAC (AOM-

DSS) mice model.

F. Immunoblot showing TGF-βRI expression in J774[WT] and J774[Coro1A KD] cells with and without

Bafilomycin-A1 treatment (100nM). The graph at the bottom shows densitometric analysis of

TGF-βRI, normalized to the Control.

G. Representative confocal images of BMDM [WT] and BMDM [Coro1A ko] cells stained for TGF-βRI

(Green) using anti-TGF-βRI antibody and Lysosomes with LysoTracker Red DND-99 (Red).

The graph at the bottom illustrates the quantification of colocalization between TGF-βRI and

Lysosomes, as determined from images (n=60), using Mander's overlap coefficient. (Scale

bar=5μm).

Each dot represents an independent experiment (A, C, D, and F), one cell (B and G), and one

mouse (E). Actin was used as a loading control (A and F), and GAPDH was used as a loading

control (C). The immunoblots shown here are representative of three biological replicates.

Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired Student's

t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001,

****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure-8

Coro1A utilizes calcium-calcineurin signaling to protect TGF-βRI from lysosomal

degradation.

A. Immunoblot showing TGF-βRI expression in RAW 264.7 cell lysate after treatment with

BAPTA-AM (10 µM). The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold intensity of

TGF-βRI, normalized to the loading Control.

B. Immunoblot showing TGF-βRI expression in J774 ^{WT} and J774 $^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cell lysates post-

treatment with Inomycin (3.5 µM). The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold

intensity of TGF-βRI, normalized to the loading Control.

C. Immunoblot showing TGF-βRI expression in RAW264.7 cell lysate post-treatment with

Cyclosporin A (CsA) (6 µM). The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold

intensity of TGF-βRI, normalized to the loading Control.

D. Immunoblot showing TGF-βRI expression in RAW 264.7 cell lysate post-treatment with FK506

(3 µM). The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold intensity of TGF-βRI,

normalized to the loading Control.

Each dot represents an independent biological replicate (A, B, C, and D). As a loading control,

Actin was used (A, B, C, and D). The immunoblots shown here are representative of three

biological replicates. Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the

unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05,

<0.01, *< 0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure-9

SUMO2/3 governs the stability of Coro1A

A. Top: J774^{WT} cell lysates immunoprecipitated with anti-Coro1A antibody and immunoblotted

for SUMO2/3. Bottom: reverse Co-IP using anti-SUMO2/3 antibody from the same lysates and

probed for Coro1A with 10% of input loaded and immunoblotted for Coro1A, SUMO2/3, and

Actin. Isotype antibodies (IgG) were used as a negative control.

B. The table represents possible SIM sites in Coro 1A as predicted by software programs GPS-

SUMO and JASSA. SIM sites predicted by both the software are highlighted in yellow.

C. Immunoblot showing Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and SIM mutants (V124K, V155K, V167K) fusion

protein expression in transfected RAW264.7 cells. The graph at the bottom shows

densitometric analysis of the fold intensity of Coro1A-GFP, normalized to the loading control.

D. Immunoblot showing Coro1A -GFP ^{WT} and SIM mutants (V155K, V155A) fusion protein

expression in transfected RAW264.7 cells. The graph on the right shows densitometric

analysis of the fold intensity of Coro1A-GFP, normalized to the loading control.

E. Representative confocal images of Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and SIM mutants (V124K, V155K,

V167K) fusion protein expression in transfected RAW264.7 cells. (Scale bar =5μm).

F. Immunoblot showing Coro1A and UBC9 expression upon siRNA-mediated UBC9

knockdown in RAW264.7 cells. The graphs at the bottom show densitometric analysis of the

fold intensity of Coro1A and UBC9, normalized to the loading control.

G. Immunoblot showing expression of Coro1A-GFP ^{WT} and SIM mutant (V155K) fusion protein

expression in RAW264.7 cells with and without treatment of MG-132 (20 μM) and

Bafilomycin-A1 (100 nM).

Each dot represents an independent experiment (C, D, and F) of biological replicates. Actin

was used as a loading control (A, C, D, F, and G). The immunoblots shown here are

representative of three biological replicates. Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical

analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered

statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Figure-10

Coro1A interacts with SUMOylated Raftlin-1 through the SIM site

A. The table lists putative SUMOylated proteins identified by mass spectrometry.

B. Top: J774^{WT} and J774$^{Coro1A\,KD}$ cell lysates immunoprecipitated with anti-Coro1A antibody and

immunoblotted for Raftlin. 10% of the input was loaded from the same cell lysate and probed

for Raftlin, Coro1A, and Actin. Isotype antibody (IgG) was used as a negative control. Actin

was used as a loading control.

C. The table shows the possible SUMOylation sites in Raftlin, as predicted by GPS-SUMO and

JASSA. SUMoylation sites predicted by both software are highlighted in yellow.

D. Computational molecular docking of the alphafold structure of Raftlin and SUMO 2 using

HADDOCK2.4. web server. Alpha fold structure of Raftlin (Grey) and SUMO2 is (Magenta).

K31, the SUMO binding site is highlighted in Red.

E. Top: Raftlin^{WT}, Raftlin ^{K31R} and Vector control transfected into RAW264.7 cell lysates were

immunoprecipitated with an anti-GFP antibody and immunoblotted for SUMO2/3, Coro1A,

and GFP. Bottom: 10% of the input was loaded from the same cell lysate and probed for Raftlin,

Coro1A, Actin, and SUMO2/3. Isotype antibody (IgG) was used as a negative control. Actin

was used as a loading control.

F.   Representative images of structured illumination microscopy displaying images of transfected

RAW264.7 cells with Raftlin^{WT} and Raftlin ^{K31R} (Green) stained with Coro1A (Red) using anti-

Coro1A antibody. The inset shows zoomed areas of images, marked with arrows, to illustrate

colocalization (scale bar = 5 μm).

G.   Computational molecular docking of the crystal structure of Coro1A (2AQ5) and stable binary

structure of Raftlin and SUMO 2 performed using HADDOCK2. 4. 3-D structure of Coro1A

(Green), Raftlin-1 (Grey), and SUMO2 is Magenta, and SIM sites 155-159 and SIM 167-171

are in red. The area of SUMO2 interacting with Coro1A is highlighted in yellow.

Supplementary Figure 1

A. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of C-Myc from CC, non-polyp, and polyp tissue of

AOM-DSS mice model. GAPDH was used for gene normalization. Each dot represents one

mouse.

B. Schematic representation of the sporadic colorectal cancer (SCRC) model in Apc$^{+/+}$ and Apc

$^{+/-}$ mice.

C. Representative longitudinal cut-open colon image of Apc$^{+/+}$ and Apc$^{+/-}$ mice. Black arrows

indicate polyps present at the distal end of the colon.

Error bars represent mean ±SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t

test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001,

****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Supplementary Figure 2

A. The Gene Ontology (GO) Pathway analysis (cellular component) of differentially enriched

SENP5 interacting proteins in the non-polyp and polyp region, as compared to the Control.

Pathway enrichment significance was assessed using hypergeometric and multiple test

correction at FDR less than 0.05.

B. Volcano plot of differentially enriched proteins with SENP5 in CC as compared to the Control,

with shortlisted potential SENP5 interactors marked. Here, significance is defined as fold

change >2 and *p*-value < 0.05.

Supplementary Figure 3

A. Schematic representation of the CAC (AOM-DSS) model in WT and IL10$^{-/-}$ mice.

B. Schematic representation of the Acute colitis model (Day-7) in WT mice.

C. Immunoblot showing Coro1A expression in lysates of colonic tissue from the acute colitis

model. The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold intensity of Coro1A

expression, normalized to loading control.

D. Immunoblot showing Coro1A expression in colonic tissue lysates of Control, non-polyp, and

polyp (Apc$^{+/-}$)SCRC model. The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of fold

intensity of Coro1A expression, normalized to loading control.

Each dot represents one mouse (C and D). Actin was used as a loading control (C and D). The

immunoblots shown here are representative of three biological replicates. Error bars represent

mean ±SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value

<0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-

significant.

Supplementary Figure 4

A. Representative immunoblot confirming loss of Coro1A protein expression in colonic tissue

lysate of Coro1A ^{KO} mice compared to WT mice.

B. Representative agarose gel image confirming the genotype of Coro1A ^{KO} mice (400bp).

C. The graph represents the body weight of experimental animals during the development of the

AOM-DSS model.

D. A representative image showing the gross morphology of the colon from both genotypes (WT

and Coro1A ^{KO}). The graph at the bottom shows the quantification of colon length.

E. A representative image showing the gross morphology of the spleen (Splenomegaly) from both

genotypes (WT and Coro1A ^{KO}). The graph at the bottom shows the quantification of spleen

weight to the mice's body weight.

F. Histopathological scoring of murine colon tissue sections was performed in a blinded manner

by an experienced pathologist. Parameters such as collagen deposition, mascularis layer

widening, crypt architecture distortion, and inflammation were scored as 0 (absent), 1(mild),

and 2 (moderate). Field effect was scored as 0 (absent) and 1 (present), and dysplasia as 0

(absent), 1 (low-grade dysplasia), and 2 (high-grade dysplasia).

G. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of E-Cadherin relative to the average control values.

H. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of EMT markers, SLUG, and SNAIL relative to the

average control values.

Each dot represents one mouse (D, E, F, and G). Samples analyzed by qRT-PCR include CC ^{WT},

CAC ^{WT}, CC $^{Coro1A\ KO}$, and CAC $^{Coro1A\ KO}$. GAPDH was used for Gene normalization (F and G).

Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t-

test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001,

****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

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Supplementary Figure 5

A. Representative flow cytometry plots showing the gating strategy used for cell population

identification and analysis, including a fluorescence-minus-one (FMO) control.

B. Representative counter plots showing CD 45$^+$ and Ly6G$^+$ neutrophil infiltration in Control, CC,

non-polyp, and polyp regions.

C. Percentage infiltration of Neutrophils in Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp as determined by

flow cytometry.

D. Median Fluorescence intensity (MFI) of Coro1A in infiltrated neutrophils across Control, CC,

non-polyp, and polyp as measured by flow cytometry.

E. MFI of Coro1A in iNOS$^+$ macrophages across Control, CC, non-polyp, and polyp.

Here, each dot represents one mouse (B, C, D, and E). Error bars represent mean ± SEM.

Statistical analysis performed using the unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05

considered statistically significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-

significant.

Supplementary Figure 6

A. Top: RAW264.7 cell lysates immunoprecipitated with anti-Coro1A antibody and

immunoblotted for TGF-βRII. Bottom:10% of input loaded from the same cell lysate and

immunoblotted for Coro1A, TGF-β RII, and Actin. Isotype antibodies (IgG) were used as a

negative control.

B. Representative confocal images of J774 ^{WT} and J774 $^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells showing a marked reduction

in the expression of Coro1A in J774$^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells (Scale bar=5μm). Coro1a shows typical cortex-

based localization in J774^{WT} cells, which is absent in J774$^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells. Actin was stained with

Phalloidin to mark the cell boundaries.

C. Immunoblot showing TGF-β secreted by J774 ^{WT} and J774 $^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells in respective cell

culture media. Ponceau image was used as a loading control. The graph at the bottom shows

densitometric analysis of fold intensity of Coro1A expression, normalized to the loading control.

D. Immunoblot showing TGF-β RI expression in J774 ^{WT} and J774 $^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells with and without

MG-132 treatment (20 μM). The graph on the right shows densitometric analysis of the fold

intensity of TGF-βRI, normalized to the loading control.

E. Representative immunoblot showing p62 expression in J774 ^{WT} and J774 $^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells with

and without Bafilomycin-A treatment (100 nM).

F. Representative immunoblot showing poly-ubiquitination in J774 ^{WT} and J774 $^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cells with

and without MG-132 treatment (20 μM).

Each dot represents (C and D) one independent experiment of three biological replicates. Actin

is used as a loading control (A, D, E, and F). The immunoblots shown here are representative of

three biological replicates. Error bars represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis performed

using the unpaired Student's t-test, with a p-value <0.05 considered statistically

significant. *<0.05, **<0.01, ***< 0.001, ****<0.0001, ns: non-significant.

Supplementary Figure 7

A. Multiple sequence alignment of Coro1A protein sequences from eight mammalian species

reveals that selected SIM sites are conserved (highlighted in a red rectangle).

B. Table representing site-directed mutations performed in SUMO-interacting motifs (SIM) sites; Valine (V) of the SIM site replaced by Lysine (K).

C. RMSF plots of Coro1A^{WT} and Coro1A^{V155K} mutant showing fluctuations of residues observed in molecular dynamics run by the CABS flex server.

D. qRT-PCR-based fold change expression of UBC9 and Coro1A from RAW264.7 cells transfected with Scr siRNA and UBC9 siRNA. GAPDH was used for gene normalization. Each dot represents one independent experiment.

E. Top: RAW 264.7 cell lysates immunoprecipitated with anti-Coro1A antibody and immunoblotted for Raftlin. Bottom:10% of input loaded from the same cell lysate and immunoblotted for Coro1A, Raftlin, and Actin. Isotype antibodies (IgG) were used as a negative control.

F. Multiple sequence alignment of Raftlin protein sequences from eight mammalian species reveals a conserved SUMO-binding site (K31) (highlighted in a black rectangle).

G. Representative immunoblot showing stable expression of Raftlin ^{K31R}, similar to Raftlin ^{WT}.

Material Methods:

Human patient samples:

Human patient samples for IBS (10), UC (19), SCRC (9), and CAC (15) were obtained from the Gastroenterology Department at All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi, India. Colonic biopsies of patients were obtained during routine colonoscopies, with exclusion and inclusion criteria as specified by Mustafa et al. (2017) and Suhail et al. (2019).Six biopsies were collected from each patient for use in qRT-PCR, immunoblotting, and histopathology. The study included patients with mild and moderate Ulcerative Colitis Endoscopic Index of Severity (UCEIS) scores. Informed consent forms were obtained from each patient during the biopsy procedure. The patient's sex was not considered in the current study. Ethical approval was obtained from the

Regional Centre for Biotechnology (Approval No. RCB-IEC-H-11) and AIIMS (Approval No.
IEC-217/05.04.2019, RP-19/2019) for using these patients' samples in the current study.

Mice: All C57BL/6 mice were maintained in pathogen-free conditions by following all husbandry
standards in the small animal facility of RCB. All mice were provided with sterilized food and
water at 25 °C, under a 12-hour light/dark cycle. To induce CAC, Azoxymethane (AOM) was
injected intraperitoneally into 6-8-week-old male/ female mice weighing 18-20 g at a dose of 10
mg/kg. To induce chronic colonic inflammation, mice were fed 1% Dextran-sulfate-sodium (DSS)
(w/v) (36–50 kDa molecular weight) through autoclaved drinking water for 7 days, followed by a
recovery period of 1 week, during which mice were fed normal drinking water. The model lasts
for 14 weeks. Mice in the control group were fed with normal drinking water. The same procedure
was employed for developing CAC in IL10 $^{-/-}$ mice (C57BL/6 background, obtained from the
National Institute of Immunology, India) and Coro1A$^{-/-}$ mice (C57BL/6 background, kindly
provided by Prof. Jean Pieters, Biozentrum, Switzerland). An acute colitis model was performed
in 6-8-week-old male/female mice weighing 18-20 g, as described by (Suhail et al., 2019).
Symptoms of colitis, such as diarrhea, rectal bleeding, and body weight loss, were monitored
routinely throughout the experiment. Sporadic colorectal cancer model performed in APC$^{+/-}$ mice.
For 1 week, WT and APC$^{+/-}$ mice were fed 2% DSS, followed by 14 weeks of normal drinking
water. Organs, such as the colon and spleen, were examined for gross morphological changes and
used for further experimental analysis. For some crucial *in vitro* experiments, Bone marrow-
derived macrophages (BMDMs) from WT and Coronin1a $^{-/-}$ mice were harvested. The RCB
Institutional Animal Ethics Committee (IAEC) has approved the above-mentioned animal studies
(RCB/IAEC/2024/199, RCB/IAEC/2023/177, RCB/IAEC/2023/156, RCB/IAEC/2021/101).

Cell culture and transfections: Murine macrophage cell lines RAW 264.7 and J774 ^{WT} and J774
$^{Coro1A\ KD}$ cell lines were grown in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum, 3.7 g/litre Sodium
bicarbonate, 1% sodium pyruvate, 1% penicillin and streptomycin solution, and 14 mM HEPES
buffer (pH 7.4). BMDMs isolated and cultured from WT and Coronin1A $^{-/-}$ mice as described
by(Toda et al., 2021). All cells were incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO_2. RAW264.7 cells were used
for plasmid-based overexpression and siRNA-based knockdown studies. WT plasmids and
mutants of Coro1A and Raftlin, and Scrambled and targeted UBC9 siRNA were transfected in
RAW264.7 using Xtremegene (Merck) and DharmaFECT (Horizon Discovery) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. RAW264.7, BMDMs, J774 [WT,] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells were

stimulated with IL-4 (20ng/ml) and TGF-β (10ng/ml) for a specified time period. The

pharmacological drugs used in this study to treat RAW264.7, J774 [WT,] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells are

MG-132, Bafilomycin-A1, BAPTA-AM, FK-506, Cyclosporin-A, and Ionomycin. Unstimulated

or untreated cells served as the control.

Immunoblot: Human and murine tissues and cell lysates were prepared using RIPA lysis buffer

containing 1X protease inhibitor and 20 mM NEM. The BCA assay was used to quantify proteins.

Equal concentrations of proteins were separated on sodium-dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and transferred to a 0.2 μm or 0.4 μm nitrocellulose membrane. Blots

were blocked with 5% skim milk for 1 hour at room temperature, then probed with antibodies

against the desired proteins overnight at 4 °C. Protein blots were probed with the following set of

antibodies: SENP5, SUMO2/3, SMAD3, Coronin1A, GFP, Actin, GAPDH, TGF-beta, TGF-βRI,

pAKT, AKT, Raftlin, Ubiquitin, and P62. The next day, host-specific HRP-conjugated secondary

antibodies, anti-Rabbit and anti-Mouse, were added and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature.

Protein bands were then detected with Immobilon Forte Western HRP substrate and visualized

with the ImageQuant LAS-4000 imaging system. Immunoblot densitometry analysis was

performed using ImageJ software.

Quantitative real-time PCR: RNA was extracted from human patient biopsies, mouse tissue, and

different cell lines using the RNeasy RNA isolation kit. cDNA was synthesized using 1 μg of

isolated RNA from each sample using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit. Real-time PCR was

performed using SYBR Green Master Mix in a 20 μL reaction volume on 96-well plates with the

CFX96 Real-Time System. The housekeeping genes GAPDH and HPRT were used for

normalization based on each sample's origin. The list of primers used in this study is included in

the supplementary material.

Immunohistochemistry: Mice colon tissue sections were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution

overnight and transferred to cryomatrix, followed by snap-freezing in liquid nitrogen. 5 μm-thick

sections were cut onto glass slides using a Cryotome. The patient's archived tissue biopsy slides

were obtained from the Department of Pathology at AIIMS, New Delhi, India. Tissue sections

were washed three times in 1x PBS (5 minutes each). Further, slides were treated with 3%

Hydrogen peroxide for 10 minutes to quench endogenous peroxidase activity, followed by a

second wash with PBS. Further slides were blocked with 5% Goat serum for 1 hour. Then, the sections were incubated overnight in a humid chamber with Coronin1A. The next day, sections were washed with PBS, then incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 2 hours. Further slides were washed in PBS, stained with DAB, and counterstained with Hematoxylin. Tissue sections were imaged using a Nikon Bright Field microscope.

Co-Immunoprecipitation: Tissue lysate and cell lysate prepared using IP lysis buffer having 1X protease inhibitor. Samples were centrifuged at high speed at 4ºC for 10 minutes to remove debris. The supernatant was quantified to 1 mg protein, followed by the addition of the appropriate antibody at its concentration. Antibody-protein complexes were incubated overnight on an end-to-end rotor. The next day, activated Agarose-A-beads were used to pull down the antibody-protein complex. Beads were sedimented by centrifugation (0.5 rcf, 4ºC), washed with IP lysis buffer, and then denatured. An isotype control IgG was used as a negative control.

Nuclear fraction isolation: Cells were washed with chilled PBS, scraped, and collected in pre-chilled tubes on ice. After centrifugation (10,000 rpm, 5 minutes, and 4 °C), the pellet was resuspended in a lysis buffer containing chilled PBS, protease inhibitors (PI), and NP-40, and incubated on ice for 10 minutes. To separate the cytoplasmic fraction, the cell lysate was centrifuged (10 minutes, 10,000 rpm, 4 °C). The supernatant is the cytoplasmic fraction, and the pellet is the nuclear fraction. The obtained nuclear pellet was washed 3 times with lysis buffer and subsequently denatured.

Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) and Sirius red staining: 5-μm-thick paraffin-embedded tissue sections were deparaffinized in Xylene and rehydrated through a graded ethanol to distilled water. For H & E staining, tissue sections were stained with Hematoxylin, followed by eosin counterstaining. For Sirius red staining, tissue sections were stained with Weigert's iron hematoxylin, followed by Sirius red stain, and subsequently washed with acidified water to visualize collagen. Sliders were dehydrated in graded alcohol, cleared in Xylene, and mounted using DPX mountant. Tissue sections were visualized under a bright-field microscope.

Immunocytochemistry and structured illumination microscopy: Cells seeded on a glass coverslip, fixed with 4% methanol-free paraformaldehyde, washed with PBS, and blocked in 0.1 % BSA containing 0.01% Triton X-100 for 1 hour. Further cells were incubated overnight at 4ºC

with primary antibodies against Coro1A, TGF-βRI, GFP, pSMAD3, Lysotracker, and Phalloidin-
594, followed by a fluorochrome-conjugated secondary antibody the next day for 2 hours at room
temperature. DAPI was used to counterstain nuclei. Coverslips were mounted using Prolong Gold
antifade reagent and imaged by confocal microscopy (Leica SP8) or structured illumination
microscopy (Elyra PS1, Carl Zeiss).

Lamina propria isolation: The Lamina propria of the colon was isolated using the method
described by Weigmann et al. (2007). Briefly, the harvested mouse colon was washed with ice-
cold PBS, then longitudinally cut open and again washed with PBS to remove mucus. The open
intestine is cut into small pieces and subjected to predigestion in a buffer containing 5 mM EDTA
and 1 mM DTT for 15-20 minutes in a shaking incubator. With vigorous vortexing, the predigested
tissue was filtered through a 100 μm filter. The remaining tissue was finely chopped and incubated
in a buffer containing collagen and DNase I (50mg per 100 ml PBS) for one hour at 37ºC on slow
shaking. After incubation, the tubes were vortexed, and the cell suspension was passed through a
40 μm strainer. The collected single-cell suspension was vortexed and centrifuged at 500 g for 10
minutes at room temperature. The pellet obtained was resuspended in PBS, and proceeded to flow
cytometric immune phenotyping.

Flow Cytometry: Flow cytometric analysis was carried out for immune cells retrieved from the
lamina propria region of the colon (*in vivo*) and cultured J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells (*in vitro*).
In vivo-derived immune cells were stained with fixable live-dead stain (Aqua Zombie) for 15
minutes at room temperature in the dark, followed by surface marker staining with fluorophore-
conjugated antibodies against CD-45, CD11b, F4/80, and Ly6G for 1 hour at 4ºC. Further, cells
were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature, followed by permeabilization with
chilled methanol for 20 minutes on ice. Intracellular staining was performed using anti-iNOS and
anti-Arginase-1 fluorophore-conjugated antibodies, along with a primary antibody against
Coronin1A for 1 hour of incubation, followed by secondary antibody staining for 1 hour. The same
fixation, permeabilization, and intracellular staining procedure was employed for *in vitro*-cultured
J774 [WT] and J774 [Coro1A KD] cells to stain Arginase-1. Stained cells were resuspended in FACS
buffer, acquired on a BD FACSymphony, and analyzed using FlowJo software.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay: Cell supernatant collected from the cell culture system
and colonic tissue lysates were centrifuged to remove debris. The samples were quantified using

the BCA assay, and equal concentrations of samples were subjected to a kit-based enzyme-linked

immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (R&D Systems) to measure TGF-β & IL-10.

Protein Digestion and LC-MS/MS: Murine tissue lysates were immunoprecipitated using an

anti-SENP5 antibody, and J774 cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with an anti-Coronin1A

antibody. An isotype-matched IgG antibody was used as a negative control. The co-

immunoprecipitated samples were resolved on 10% SDS–PAGE, followed by in-gel digestion

with Trypsin Gold at a 1:50 enzyme-to-substrate ratio. The resulting peptides were extracted and

purified using C18 StepPak columns, desalted, and reconstituted in a solution of 98% water, 1%

acetonitrile, and 0.1% formic acid.

Tandem MS/MS analysis was performed on a TripleTOF 5600 mass spectrometer (AB Sciex)

operated in information-dependent acquisition (IDA) mode. The instrument was coupled to a trap

column (Magic C18 AQ, 0.1×20 mm, 3 μm, 200 Å) and an analytical column (Magic C18 AQ,

0.1×150 mm, 3 μm, 200 Å) via a nano-electrospray ionization source. Peptide separation was

achieved using a linear gradient of 5–75% solvent B (100% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid)

over 135 minutes at a flow rate of 300 nL/min; solvent A was 100% water with 0.1% formic acid.

The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent acquisition mode, automatically switching

between MS and MS/MS scans. Survey MS spectra were acquired over an m/z range of 300–2000

at a resolution of 75,000. The six most abundant precursor ions per cycle were selected for

fragmentation by collision-induced dissociation (CID), with a fixed cycle time of 3 s and a dynamic

exclusion period of 2 min. The obtained raw files from the MS system (.wiff) were processed for

peptide/protein identification using MaxQuant software (v1.6.0.16) under default settings. An in-

house combined UniProt (*Mus musculus*) database, together with common contaminants

sequences, was provided for MS/MS spectra search. The detailed workflow of peptide/protein

identification, including other search parameters and filtering criteria, was followed as mentioned

in (Suhail et al., 2019)

Structural modeling and docking: The crystal structure of Coro1A (PDB ID: 2AQ5) and the

AlphaFold-predicted structures of Raftlin1 and SUMO2 were used for protein–protein docking.

Blind docking was performed using the HADDOCK 2.4 web server

(https://rascar.science.uu.nl/haddock2.4/) in standard-precision mode, generating multiple poses

without predefined binding sites. The docked models were clustered and ranked using the default HADDOCK scoring function, and the top three complexes were selected for refinement. Further, using the Schrödinger software suite (https://www.schrodinger.com/), the energies of poses were minimized, and binding energies were calculated. The final model was selected based on the high docking score and favorable minimized binding energies.

Multiple sequence alignment (MSA): FASTA sequences of Coro1A and Raftlin from 8 organisms were retrieved from the Uniprot database and aligned using Clustal Omega with default parameters. Multiple sequence alignments were visualized and analyzed using Jalview (v2.11.5.0) with the ClustalX coloring scheme. Alignment annotations, including consensus, conservation, quality scores, and occupancy, were displayed below the alignment.

Molecular Dynamics Simulation: The wild-type Coro1A structure (PDB ID: 2AQ5) and the PyMOL-generated Coro1A V155K mutant were subjected to molecular dynamics simulations using the CABS flex server with default parameters for 10 seconds, an equivalent simulation time. The server uses coarse-grained Monte Carlo simulations to efficiently sample near-native protein conformational dynamics. Default parameters were used, including structural clustering and all-atom reconstruction. The resulting ensembles were analyzed for conformational flexibility and residue fluctuations, with residue-wise mobility quantified using root-mean-square fluctuation (RMSF) plots generated with the server's analysis tools.

Quantification and statistical analysis: Data were analyzed and visualized using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.1. Results are presented as the mean ± standard error from independent experiments performed in triplicate. As appropriate, statistical analysis was carried out using the unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Welch's t-test. A p-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

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Competing Interest:
The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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1626

- 2. Altered interactome of SENP5 in Chronic colitis and colitis-associated colorectal cancer (CAC)

A

B

Sample Name	Number of Unique Elements
Control	460
Chronic colitis	508
NP CAC	510
Polyp CAC	406

Parameters	Values
Peptide tolerance	0.5 Da
Significant Threshold	0.05
Protein FDR	5 %
MS/MS tolerance	50ppm

C

D

Name of the Protein	Condition of identification	Presence of SUMOylation and/or SIM site	Function and disease reported	References
Coronin1A (Coro1a)	Control, CC, Non-Polyp and Polyp	20, 461, 200-204, 155-159	Cytoskeleton remodeling, immune cells maturation and trafficking.	Pick R. et al. Blood, 2017 Jean Pieters et al. Nat. Rev. 2013
Myosin-9 (Myh9)	Control, CC, Non-Polyp and Polyp	47, 82,180, 228,289, 580, 778,	Cell adhesion, migration. Involved in the EMT process. Play role in SCRC.	Yan Zhong et al, Cell Death and Differentiation, 2021 Zixuan Gou et al. Rev. Frontier 2021.
Tropomyosin 4 (Tmp4)	Control, CC, Non-Polyp and Polyp	104, 113, 153, 125, 190, 56-60, 189-193	Binds actin filaments in muscle and non-muscle cells. Act as Tumor suppressor in SCRC.	Rui Yang et al. Biomed. 2018, Piesi Li et al. Cell Death and Disease 2024
Collagen alpha-3(VI) (Col6a3)	Control, CC, Non-Polyp and Polyp	32, 98, 698, 504, 242-246, 278-282	Key structural component of VI collagen, part of the ECM. Predominantly expressed in the stroma of the tumor. Serves as a stromal-specific diagnostic marker.	Jie Qiao et al. Oncotarget, 2015 Wei Liu et al. Oncol Reports, 2018
Cytoplasmic Dynein 1 heavy chain 1 (Dync1h1)	Control, CC, Non-Polyp and Polyp		Key motor protein involved in retrograde transport, intracellular cargo trafficking, and cytoskeleton organization Promote proliferation in gastric cancer	Hongyu Pan et al. Expt. Cell Research, 2021.

E

- 3. Coro1A as an interactor of SENP5

- ## 4. Absence of Coro 1A confers resistance to CAC development in mice

5. Increased expression of Coro1A is associated with M2 macrophages

- 6. Coro 1A interacts directly with the TGF-β RI and controls TGF-β-mediated M2 macrophage polarization

- 7. Coro1A is required for the stability of TGF-βRI

- 8. Coro1A utilizes the calcium-calcineurin signaling pathway to protect TGF-βRI from degradation

- 9. SUMO2/3 governs stability of Coro1A

A

IP: Coronin 1A
IB: SUMO2/3

Reverse IP

IP: SUMO 2/3
IB: Coronin 1A

10% inputs

B

Protein	GPS	JASSA
	SIM sites	SIM sites
Coronin 1a	155-159	155-159 (High)
	167-171	167-171(High)
	124-128	124-128 (High)
	281-285 (High)	84-87
	440-444	200-204

C

D

E

F

G

- Supplementary Figure 01:

- Supplementary Figure 02:

- Supplementary Figure 03:

Supplementary Figure 04:

- Supplementary Figure 05:

A

- Supplementary Figure 07:

A

B

Protein	SIM Sites	SIM Sequence	Mutation in SIM Sequence
Coro1A	124-128	VITL	KITL
	155-159	VILV	KILV
	167-171	VLTL	KLTL

C

D

E

IP: Coronin 1A
IB: Raftlin

G

F