

The biomarkers discovery of hyperuricemia and gout: proteomics and metabolomics

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Background. Hyperuricemia and gout are a group of disorders of purine metabolism caused by increasing production and(or) decreasing excretion of uric acid. In recent years, the incidence of hyperuricemia and gout has been increasing, which is a severe threat to people's health. Although uric acid-lowering, as well as anti-inflammatory drugs have been widely used, some drugs still have toxic side effects. At the same time, the early symptoms of asymptomatic hyperuricemia are often ignored, resulting in the loss of optimal treatment time in the disease process. By reviewing the literature, to summarize the research progress of hyperuricemia and gout on proteomics and metabolomics.

Methodology. We used professional databases including PubMed, Web of Science to conduct the literature review. This review addresses the current landscape of hyperuricemia and gout biomarkers with a focus on proteomics and metabolomics.

Results. The development of mass spectrometry-based technologies has accelerated studies on hyperuricemia and gout. Proteomic methods are used to identify relevant proteins, discover potential biomarkers and related therapeutic targets to explore the pathogenesis and provide a scientific basis for preventing, diagnosing, and treating hyperuricemia and gout. It also reveals possible relationship between hyperuricemia, gout and kidney disease, metabolic syndrome, diabetes, and hypertriglyceridemia.

Metabolomics reveals the main influential pathways through small molecule metabolites, such as amino acid metabolism, lipid metabolism, or other characteristic metabolic pathways. However, the association of some potential biomarkers with gout needs to be further investigated. **Conclusions.** We suggest some possible relationships of potential biomarkers with inflammatory episodes, complement activation, and metabolic pathways. However, there are relatively few proteomic as well as metabolomic studies on hyperuricemia and gout, and some experiments are only primary screening tests, which need further in-depth study.

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Abstract

Background. Hyperuricemia and gout are a group of disorders of purine metabolism. In recent years, the incidence of hyperuricemia and gout has been increasing, which is a severe threat to people's health. Several studies on hyperuricemia and gout in proteomics and metabolomics have been conducted recently. Some literature has identified biomarkers that distinguish asymptomatic hyperuricemia from acute gout or remission of gout. We summarize the physiological processes in which these biomarkers may be involved and their role in disease progression.

Methodology. We used professional databases including PubMed, Web of Science to conduct the literature review. This review addresses the current landscape of hyperuricemia and gout biomarkers with a focus on proteomics and metabolomics.

Results. Proteomic methods are used to identify differentially expressed proteins to find specific biomarkers. These findings may be suggestive for the diagnosis and treatment of hyperuricemia and gout to explore the disease pathogenesis. The identified biomarkers may be mediators of the link between hyperuricemia, gout and kidney disease, metabolic syndrome, diabetes and hypertriglyceridemia. Metabolomics reveals the main influential pathways through small molecule metabolites, such as amino acid metabolism, lipid metabolism, or other characteristic metabolic pathways. These studies have contributed to the discovery of Chinese medicine. Some traditional Chinese medicine compounds can improve the metabolic disorders of the disease.

Conclusions. We suggest some possible relationships of potential biomarkers with inflammatory episodes, complement activation, and metabolic pathways. These biomarkers are able to distinguish between different stages of disease development. However, there are relatively few proteomic as well as metabolomic studies on hyperuricemia and gout, and some experiments are only primary screening tests, which need further in-depth study.

Keywords: Hyperuricemia; gout; proteomics; metabolomics; uric acid; biomarkers

Introduction

For decades, patients with hyperuricemia and gout have been increasing. However, gout is a part of patients with hyperuricemia(Robinson, 2018). The development of hyperuricemia is closely related to metabolic syndrome (Mets)(Chen et al., 2018), chronic kidney disease(Kielstein, Pontremoli&Burnier, 2020), and cardiovascular disease. Hyperuricemia generally has a serum uric acid level of $>420\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ($7\text{mg}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$) for men and $>350\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ($6\text{mg}\cdot\text{dL}^{-1}$) for women(Johnson et al., 2003). Moreover, the prevalence of hyperuricemia in men is higher than in women because female gonadal hormones and anti-androgen treatment can prevent the occurrence of hyperuricemia(Wan et al., 2020). In contrast, serum uric acid (SUA) levels will increase in postmenopausal women. Uric acid (UA) is vital in developing hyperuricemia and gout. Studies have found that high SUA levels are correlated with cardiovascular disease risk factors (dyslipidemia, obesity, diabetes, renal failure, and so on) (Chales, 2019). As a risk factor, it can increase the risk of death from cardiovascular disease(Borghini et al., 2018). The organism generates UA through purine metabolism. When too much UA forms Monosodium urate monohydrate (MSU) crystals, acute inflammation can develop into gout onset and progression. The clinical manifestations of gout include asymptomatic hyperuricemia (AHU)(Yip, Cohen&Pillinger, 2020) in the early stage, acute and chronic arthritis, and renal impairment. About one-third of patients with hyperuricemia may develop severe kidney disease, including acute and chronic urate nephropathy and urinary calculi(Sellmayr et al., 2020). In addition, hyperuricemia and gout, risk factors for many conditions, can lead to many metabolic disorders.

Omics technologies, including genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and transcriptome, have extensively promoted the development of medicine and biology(Monti et al., 2019). Marc Wilkins first proposed proteomics, that is, all the proteins expressed by a genome or a cell(Wilkins et al., 1996). Proteomics based on mass spectrometry(MS) is crucial for identifying proteins in various diseases(Mann, 2003). At present, the methods for protein separation in proteomics include two-dimensional gel electrophoresis (2-DE) (Lee, Saraygord-Afshari&Low, 2020), capillary electrophoresis (CE), high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and other methods. Then, the proteins were identified by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS), liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS), and liquid chromatography-electrospray mass spectrometry (LC-ESI-MS), protein microarray, and so on(Andrea D Weston 2004, Aslam et al., 2017). Some protein detected techniques such as tandem mass tag (TMT) labeling, isobaric tag for relative and absolute quantification (iTRAQ) and stable isotope labeling by amino acids in cell culture (SILAC) can improve the sensitivity of MS. In recent years, proteomic studies of hyperuricemia and gout have emphasized differential proteins that provide potential molecular markers for disease diagnosis. Metabolomics has been widely used in various fields such as plant biology, pharmacology, and medicine. Metabolomics can be divided into untargeted and targeted metabolomics according to the target(Gika et al., 2014). For decades, untargeted metabolomics studies have been widely

used to identify broadly characterized novel substances. Targeted metabolomics, on the other hand, aims to specific metabolites for study. Metabolomics analysis requires using spectroscopic techniques, such as nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), spectroscopy (VS), an MS, or a combination of several methods. LC-MS has been developed as the primary technology platform for metabolic profiling, such as gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (GC-MS) and ¹H NMR(Fraga-Corral et al., 2022). More importantly, the results of metabolomics and proteomics are combined, each reflecting a different level of information to reveal different pathways of disease pathogenesis and biomarkers of predictive action. Modern medicine is eventually moving towards precision medicine and pursuing personalized treatment as a benchmark. The application of "omics" technology reveals the physiological mechanisms and biochemical changes in human systems from different perspectives and explores the metabolite changes in pathological states. Integrating proteomic and metabolomic analysis, biomarkers are capable of distinguishing disease abnormalities to serve as risk, diagnostic or prognostic markers as well as therapeutic targets.

The aim of this review is to summarize the biomarkers of hyperuricemia and gout disease as well as metabolic pathways. We discuss the role of some biomarkers in influencing disease progression to understand the current state of research. We also summarize some types of metabolic disorders present in hyperuricemia and gout, and the improvement of metabolic disorders by some Chinese medicines.

Survey methodology

This review is the result of a systematic literature search on PubMed and Web of Science to find articles related to the proteomics and metabolomics of hyperuricemia and gout. The search terms used for the article in various combinations included “hyperuricemia and proteomics,” “gout and proteomics,” “hyperuricemia and metabolomics,” “gout and metabolomics,” “gout and inflammation”. Meanwhile, we consulted the literature on the relationship between hyperuricemia, gout and diabetes, Mets and kidney disease. The search strategy was used to obtain the titles and abstracts of the relevant studies initially screened, and retrieved the full text. We also reviewed the relevant references in the article to ensure comprehensive coverage and no bias in the article.

The mechanism of hyperuricemia and gout

The production and excretion of uric acid

The UA synthesis-related enzyme gene mutation and the activity changes result in excessive UA production. The pathways leading to increased UA production are as follows (**Figure1**). Furthermore, fructose leads to the consumption of ATP and phosphate in liver metabolism and the accumulation of adenosine monophosphate (AMP). Then, AMP generates inosine monophosphate (IMP) under the action of AMP deaminase (AMPD), resulting in the production of UA(King et al., 2018, Zou, Zhao&Wang, 2021). After the formation of UA, about 1/3 is excreted from the gastrointestinal tract, and 2/3 passes through the kidney(Kielstein,

Pontremoli&Burnier, 2020). Reabsorption and secretion of renal tubules regulate the excretion of UA, in which the proximal convoluted tubules play a dominant role. Eventually, about 90% of UA is reabsorbed into the blood(Maiuolo et al., 2016). The deficiency of uricase prevents UA into highly water-soluble allantoin in the kidney(Braga, Foresto-Neto&Camara, 2020). Recombinant forms of uricase such as rasburicase, and PEG uricase(Otani et al., 2020) can reduce the level of UA and are routinely utilized in clinical research studies. Additionally, some renal urate transporters, such as URAT1, GLUT9, OAT1, OAT3, and ABCG2, are of great significance in participating in the active secretion and reabsorption of urate in proximal convoluted renal tubules(Alghamdi, Soliman&Nassan, 2020, Sun et al., 2021). ABCG2 can also regulate urate excretion in the intestine, which is also very important for UA levels in the gastrointestinal tract. Due to the urate transporter gene mutation, its structure and function change, urate deposits in the kidney and causes renal impairment. Therefore, based on the urate transporter gene study, clinical research drugs to reduce UA have been developed(Sun et al., 2021).

Inflammation caused by urate deposition

MSU crystals form when the blood UA reaches the saturation concentration. In the early stage of gout, MSU activates neutrophils to produce a large number of inflammatory cytokines. Furthermore, MSU can also induce phagocytes to release many mediators, including the cytokines interleukin-6 (IL-6), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), growth-related oncogene α (GRO α)/ CXCL1, the C-X-C chemokines (IL-8)/CXCL8, and myeloid-related proteins S100A8, S100A9(Rousseau et al., 2017, Hemshekhar et al., 2020), continuously drive the inflammatory response. IL-1 β is well established as the primary trigger for inflammation(Pillinger&Mandell, 2020). The process of IL-1 β release is crucial: One is that inflammatory signals induce gene expression and synthesis of the pro-IL-1 β ; The second is exogenous ATP or reactive oxygen species (ROS), which causes the NACHT, LRR, and PYD domains-containing protein 3 (NLRP3) inflammasome activation and secretion of IL-1 β (Wu et al., 2020).

MSU crystals recognize entry into macrophages and activate the NLRP3 inflammasome. NLRP3 inflammasome activates the cysteinyl aspartate specific proteinase-1 (caspase-1) that cleaves the pro-IL-1 β , producing IL-1 β (Wu et al., 2019a). In mouse macrophages, extracellular ATP can activate the P2X purinoreceptor 7 (P2X7R), leading to potassium ion (K⁺) outflow, which activates the NLRP3 inflammasome and the release of IL-1 β (Alessandra Piccini, 2008, Marinho et al., 2020). IL-1 β promotes the release of various inflammatory mediators, including TNF- α , interleukin-1(IL-1), IL-6, IL-8, and other mediators, such as prostaglandin-E2 (PGE2), leukotriene, intercellular cell adhesion molecule-1(ICAM-1), and ROS(Szekanecz et al., 2019, Luo et al., 2020). The release of chemokines (such as IL-8/CXCL8) and adhesion factors recruits polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs), continues to release IL-1 β , IL-8/CXCL8, S100A8, S100A9, and other pro-inflammatory mediators, causing inflammation to continue, leading to systemic inflammation(Rousseau et al., 2017). S100A9 could enhance neutrophils induced by

MSU and increase IL-8/CXCL8, IL-1, and ROS(Rousseau et al., 2017). A series of inflammatory reactions revealed that IL-1 β is the core of gout patients. Currently, IL-1 β blockers(Otani et al., 2020, Szekanecz et al., 2019) have been widely used in clinical settings to relieve inflammation in gout patients.

Proteomic study of hyperuricemia and gout

Plasma proteomics

There are some proteomic studies of hyperuricemia and gout (**Table 1**). Despite the detection of very low abundance proteins remains challenging, blood specimens are the most commonly collected samples. Fei et al. used 2DE combined with the MALDI-TOF-MS technique to study the differential proteins in serum from Uyghur patients with hyperuricemia and normal population and found that complement C3, haptoglobin (Hp), complement C4, and apolipoprotein A1(apo A1) expression were upregulated(Fei et al., 2012). In a follow-up study, Fei et al. further analyzed the serum of Han Chinese patients with hyperuricemia by using the same technique. The expression of complement C3, Hp, and α 1 antitrypsin (α 1-AT) was upregulated, and apolipoprotein L1(apo L1) was downregulated(Fei et al., 2013). These differentially expressed proteins are all roughly the same and can influence the development and progression of hyperuricemia. In contrast, regional and ethnic differences can lead to different protein expressions. In addition, a study demonstrated high expression of apolipoprotein A-I (apo A-I) in the plasma of patients with acute gout (AG) and a proportional relationship with UA(Chiang et al., 2014).

Together with the three aforementioned reports, these detected proteins revealed a potential link between hyperuricemia and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) components. HDL has anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and complement-activating effects, and prevents thrombosis. Apo A-I has cholesterol transport and anti-atherosclerotic effects and is a major HDL component. Elevated levels of apo A-I during acute gouty arthritis (AGA) may be associated with spontaneous remission(Georgila, Vyrla&Drakos, 2019). HDL regulates lipid metabolism and influences the development of cardiovascular disease (CHD), diabetes, and other metabolic disorders(Gordon&Remaley, 2017, van der Vorst, 2020). In an experiment, a rat model of pregnancy-induced insulin resistance enhanced insulin sensitivity in adipose tissue after infusion of apo A-I. Both TNF- α and IL-6 in rat plasma were decreased, and apo A-I could inhibit inflammation(Wu et al., 2019b). Similarly, in a rabbit model, apo A-I treatment downregulated the expression of serum and aortic inflammatory mediators, including ICAM-1, vascular adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), monocyte chemotactic protein-1, TNF- α , IL-6, and C-reactive protein (CRP)(Li et al., 2017). Thus, apo A-I inhibition may contribute to the development of atherosclerosis (AS) through a mechanism of chronic inflammation. Like apo A-I, apo A1 treatment induces a significant reduction in macrophage chemotaxis as well as inhibition of monocyte recruitment in vivo, exerting an anti-inflammatory effect(Iqbal et al., 2016). Moreover, α 1-AT is an important serine protease inhibitor in plasma, and enhanced anti-protease activity of α 1-AT bound to HDL reduces TNF- α production by macrophages(Gordon et al., 2015). Hp,

whose primary function is through binding to free hemoglobin (Hb). Serum Hp is significantly elevated in patients with coronary artery disease (Lee et al., 2013). In a clinical study, Hp with high HDL-bound Hb levels led to microvascular as well as coronary artery endothelial dysfunction (Asleh et al., 2019). And coronary endothelial dysfunction is one of the early stages of AS manifestations. However, the direct relationship between these study indicators and hyperuricemia and gout has not been elucidated yet, and further studies are needed. Interestingly, two recent studies have investigated the proteomic profile of complement-containing components. Shen et al. detected differential plasma proteins using label-free quantitative proteomics based on HPLC-MS/MS in simple gout patients, gout with renal damage patients, and non-gout patients (Shen et al., 2021a). These three groups of detected proteins have processes involved in natural immune response, complement activation response, etc. More importantly, among these proteins, inflammation factors gelsolin (GSN), S100A8, S100A9, Alpha-1-acid glycoprotein 2 (ORM2), and Annexin A1 (ANXA1) were most significantly associated with SUA. Consequently, this may suggest a combinatorial form of diagnosing gout disease and also help establish a clinical model for gout patients. In addition, the results of Shen et al. in patients with gout and gout with renal impairment suggested that complement C4A, C4B, and SERPINF1 were significantly upregulated in patients with gout combined with renal impairment compared to simple gout patients. To analyze the plasma protein profiles of patients with AG, remission of gout (RG), and AHU, Chen and co-workers established an iTRAQ and parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) based method. Authors found 11 essential proteins, including Histone H2A, Histone H2B, Thrombospondin-1 (THBS1), Inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain H4 (ITIH4), Alpha-1-acid glycoprotein 1 (ORM1), Multimerin-1 (MMRN1), Myeloperoxidase (MPO), Carbonic anhydrase 1 (CA1), Serum albumin (ALB), Complement component C8 beta chain (C8B), and Complement C2 (Chen et al., 2021a). Most of the above proteins are involved in the inflammatory process of gout, regulate cytokines, or enhance the inflammatory response. Among them, Histone H2A, Histone H2B, and THBS1 may be potential markers for distinguishing AG, RG, AHU, and healthy people. THBS1 is an extracellular matrix glycoprotein that can bridge cell interaction and promote inflammation. In addition, THBS1 expression helps to maintain tissue homeostasis and reduce inflammation during the regression of chronic inflammation (McMorrow et al., 2013, Xiaofang Tang 2020). THBS1 may be involved in the regression of inflammation in patients with RG. The discovery of these proteins may be a potential biomarker for the diagnosis of gout. From the proteomic characteristics of this study, the research team found that complement and coagulation cascades were one of the main functional pathways in the gout process. Thus, the interaction between the complement and coagulation systems may influence the development of inflammation. Activation of NLRP3 mediates the massive release of IL-1 β and interleukin-18 (IL-18), which can lead to various pathological inflammatory diseases, including AS, gout, and type 2 diabetes (T2DM). Complement and the coagulation system are closely related functionally. On the one hand, arousal of the complement system activates platelets and promotes coagulation. On the other hand, a thrombus can activate the complement system to trigger an inflammatory response

further(Oncul&Afshar-Kharghan, 2020). The complement system is an essential component of innate immunity and plays a role in preventing infections, among others. When the complement system is activated, component C5a is a potent pro-inflammatory mediator, promoting monocyte as well as neutrophil chemotaxis and activation. MSU can induce IL-1 β and release inflammatory cytokines by activating complement system component C5a(Khameneh et al., 2017, Yu et al., 2019). The ability of complement antagonists alone to determine inflammation control is limited by various factors that influence gout inflammation activation. Therefore, C5a antagonists may combine with IL-1 β blockers as a therapeutic target for treating inflammatory diseases.

Proteomics of other samples

Urine belongs to a non-invasive collection of samples. It has certain advantages to studying urine samples at the protein level. Huo et al. looked at urinary protein metabolism in patients with HUA and healthy people by label-free liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (LC–MS/MS) analysis (Huo et al., 2021). Through enrichment analysis of these differentially expressed proteins (DEPs), plausible pathways include the processes for insulin receptor recycling and lipid metabolism. Among them, V-type proton ATPase subunit B kidney isoform (VATB1) and Complex factor D (CFAD or adipsin) affect insulin levels in patients with hyperuricemia. Apolipoprotein C3(APOC3) may play a role in hypertriglyceridemia in patients with hyperuricemia. Moreover, abnormal expression of apolipoproteins (APOC4, APOD) in the plasma of gout patients(Shen et al., 2021a).

Triglyceride metabolism and the prevalence of T2DM are closely related to APOC3, which reduces triglyceride-rich lipoproteins (TRLs) and residual uptake in the liver by inhibiting the activities of lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and liver lipase (HL) (Norata et al., 2015). The concentration of triglyceride can be regulated by controlling APOC3. However, it is unclear whether APOC3 alone regulates triglyceride concentrations in patients with hyperuricemia. Interestingly, Zewinger et al. introduced that APOC3 identified monocytes activating NLRP3 processes that drive IL-1 β inflammatory processes leading to renal damage(Zewinger et al., 2020). APOC3 could promote the inflammatory response in patients with gout and provide a new target for treatment. APOD is a class of proteins that transports lipids, and arachidonic acid (AA) is its common ligand. APOD exerts neuroprotective and anti-inflammatory effects by stabilizing AA at the cell membrane(Rassart et al., 2020). In a cohort study, the authors examined APOD expression in three intra-abdominal adipose tissues, including omental, mesenteric, and round ligament (RL). In particular, with high levels of APOD in the RL depot, women exhibited lower plasma insulin levels and lowered circulating pro-inflammatory PAI-1 and TNF- α levels(Desmarais et al., 2018). High levels of APOD may improve inflammatory conditions. APOD has been shown to correlate with obesity, diabetes, and other metabolic diseases. Patients with hyperuricemia and gout are accompanied by lipid metabolism disorders that can promote the development of diabetes and hyperlipidemia. Adipocytes secreted fat factors such as CFAD that participated in activating complement component C3a and could

protect β Cells. At the same time, complement C3a can enhance β Cellular insulin secretion(Tafere et al., 2020). Hence, it is unsurprising that adipsin can be used as a T2DM marker. Adipsin is also associated with subcutaneous fat accumulation. When adipsin measurements were below BMI level, the risk of diabetes was lower (Gomez-Banoy et al., 2019). In addition, it has been verified that adipocytes can affect inflammatory arthritis. Adipsin is an intermediate mediator, regulating neutrophil-induced inflammatory response(Li et al., 2019). Therefore, obesity can also lead to an inflammatory response in gout patients. The discovery of CFAD in patients with hyperuricemia may affect the prevalence of T2DM. However, hyperuricemia not only affects T2DM through CFAD but may also have other mediators. However, further experimental verification is needed. APOC3 and CFAD may serve as potential targets as related factors.

T2DM is characterized by hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, and lack of insulin secretion. As an effective stimulus, Hyperglycemia is involved in NOX-mediated ROS production of endothelial cells and leads to endothelial dysfunction(Meza et al., 2019). Hyperuricemia and gout patients can lead to oxidative stress response and inflammatory process. Oxidative stress leads to endothelial dysfunction and worsens insulin resistance(Ko et al., 2019, Yariibeygi et al., 2020). According to a survey, patients with high BMI, diabetes, hypertension, and hypertriglyceridemia have the highest risk of hyperuricemia(Liu et al., 2020). Hypertension, insulin resistance, and high triglycerides serve as the relevant influencing factors of Mets. Additionally, a large amount of fructose intake can lead to the occurrence of Mets that affects the production of metabolites such as glucose, triglyceride, UA, and free fatty acids. These metabolites contribute to fat accumulation, insulin resistance, and inflammation and are associated with hypertension, diabetes, and hyperuricemia(Zhang, Jiao&Kong, 2017). Overall, it is possible to focus on the influence of apolipoproteins and complement components on gout progression and acute inflammation occurrence. Some proteins (components of HDL) could act as proteases that activate complement, initiate the coagulation cascade response, and in turn, could trigger the inflammatory switch. These several physiological pathways and processes are all interconnected(Gordon&Remaley, 2017). Integrating multiple omics approaches to explore biomarkers of hyperuricemia and Mets may be a considerable challenge.

Interestingly several studies investigated the proteome profiles of the synovial fluid (SF)-derived exosome samples aiming to define its impact on gout progression. Chiu et al. injected sodium urate crystals into the murine air pouch (resembles the synovial membrane) to induce inflammation(Chiu et al., 2015). The differentially expressed proteins participated in the alternative complement pathway through proteomic analysis based on an iTRAQ labeling coupled with offline 2D LC-MS/MS. The results suggested that the levels of Catherine-related antimicrobial peptide (CRAMP) and S100A9 were positively correlated with MSU. The authors propose that activation of NALP3 inflammasome in late gout is associated with the upregulation of proteins S100A9 and CRAMP. These differential proteins can be used as future therapeutic targets for AG. Another study aiming to analyze the proteomics of SF-derived exosomes used TMT labeled LC-MS/MS techniques. Sixty-nine differentially expressed proteins were identified

in gout patients, with 25 highly unique expressions, including lysozyme C, ORM1, lactotransferrin, S100A9, and MPO, which may be involved in neutrophil degranulation and prion disease as well as complement and coagulation cascade(Huang et al., 2022). Along the same lines, Qiu et al. also found that differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were predominantly enriched in the inflammatory response, S100 protein binding, in the male gout group compared to the control healthy group(Qiu et al., 2021). Therefore, the inflammatory response associated with differentially expressed proteins plays a vital role in gout patients. According to research, MSU can stimulate neutrophils to release S100A8 and S100A9 (Sreejit et al., 2020). S100A9 further enhances MSU to promote neutrophils and signaling pathways (Rousseau et al., 2017). In gout patients, S100A8 and S100A9 can stimulate neutrophils to produce ROS, so as to regulate inflammatory bodies and release pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β , IL-8, IL-6, and TNF- α (Sreejit et al., 2020). Like S100A8 and S100A9, CRAMP is a component of innate immunity, which plays a role in preventing pathogen infection, damage, and repair as well as is related to chemotaxis and inflammatory response activation(G H Gudmundsson, 1999). Interestingly, CRAMP and LL-37 have some similarities in structure and function. CRAMP and LL-37 belong to antimicrobial peptides (AMPs, also known as host defense peptides). CRAMP and LL-37 have some similarities in structure and function. CRAMP is a functional homologue of LL-37 in mammals, and LL-37 is the form of cathelicidin protein in humans(Kang et al., 2020). In inflammatory arthritis patients, CRAMP was not only up-regulated but also accompanied by increased S100A8 and S100A9 proteins(Hemshkhar et al., 2020, Choi et al., 2021). Although the specific physiological role of CRAMP in hyperuricemia and gout is unknown, it has been confirmed that CRAMP can affect the progression of inflammation. Therefore, S100A8, S100A9, and CRAMP are closely related to inflammatory response and can promote the activation of the NALP3 inflammasome. These proteins may provide new targets for inflammatory drug therapy in gout patients.

The “stones” of gout

Hyperuricemia may lead to severe kidney damage, such as the formation of urinary calculi. Most urinary calculi are calcium stones, followed by UA stones, or can lead to calculus mixed with urate and calcium oxalate. Jou et al. introduced that the protein composition of UA stones may be related to the phospholipids and fatty acid pathway and inflammatory response(Jou et al., 2012). These proteins may promote the formation of UA stones, and some irritants encourage inflammation. In addition, whether the UA stone composition protein is consistent with the protein in plasma and urine of patients with hyperuricemia and gout. In 2012, Kaneko et al. measured matrix proteins in 17 different urinary stones (patients with gout and hyperuricemia). They found that some proteins were detected in both CaOx stones and UA stones(Kaneko et al., 2012). For the analysis of proteins, urinary stones were separated by SDS-PAGE and subjected to LC-MS/MS analysis to identify the specific proteins. Osteopontin, prothrombin, protein Z, and protein S were mainly identified from CaOx stones, and IgG fragments were detected in UA stones. The proteins detected in the above test are a group of substances that are not similar to

those seen in plasma and urine samples. Identical proteins were found in CaOx and UA stones. These proteins may be roughly involved in the formation of the urinary stone structure. Interestingly, someone found IgG and TF10 macromolecules in the urine of patients with high UA, which can have specific damaging effects on the kidney(Gao et al., 2019). However, the particular influence of IgG on hyperuricemia and the kidney is not clear. In this context, Kaneko and co-workers studied the matrix proteins in a gouty tophus from a patient with recurrent gout via a micro-area X-ray diffractometer. Then, the authors utilized LC-MS/MS to analyze protein composition and determine the composition of tophi as MSU(Kaneko et al., 2014). The proteins identified in the experiment are related to inflammation and host defense. In another study, IgG encapsulated MSU was found in the tophus of patients with AG. And apolipoprotein B(ApoB) was detected in the mouse airbag during the anti-inflammatory process(E Ortiz-Bravo, 1993). A similar study has shown that altering protein coating on MSU and M-CPPD can inhibit or promote crystal-induced IL-1 β inflammatory processes. Surface IgG enhances inflammatory responses, while HLD, apolipoprotein A (Apo A), and apolipoprotein E(Apo E) inhibit inflammatory processes (E Ortiz-Bravo 1993, Renaudin et al., 2019). The changes in the inflammatory properties of the crystal by protein coating may provide a new method for treating inflammation in gout patients.

In a follow-up study, Kaneko et al. examined a urinary stone with two layers from a male patient with hyperuricemia. Then, they separated the two layers of urinary stones, and the interface was detected with a micro-area X-ray diffractometer. UA is formed internally first, and then COM covers UA externally. The analysis successfully identified 51 proteins with proteomic analysis by LC-MS/MS. 14 were cell adhesion and cytoskeleton proteins, and 7 were metabolism-related proteins. There were five defense proteins and five plasma proteins(Kaneko et al., 2018). Later, there was a protein related to inflammation(S100A8) in UA, while some proteins played the role of cell adhesion, self-defense, and plasma in the formation of the interface. S100A8 was significantly correlated with UA(Shen et al., 2021a). MSU promotes the production of S100A8 and S100A9, which strengthen neutrophils and participate in inflammatory responses(Sreejit et al., 2020). S100A8 and S100A9 can be used as potential targets for future research.

Metabolomics of hyperuricemia and gout

Amino acid metabolism

Here are some of the metabolic disorder pathways involved in hyperuricemia and gout (**Figure 2**). Several studies have the same results that amino acid metabolism is highly associated with hyperuricemia and gout. Many animal models of hyperuricemia and gout have disorders of amino acid metabolism. In an NMR metabolomics, the metabolite profile of a rat model of gouty arthritis showed a significant increase in plasma leucine and lysine compared to the control group, indicating that gouty arthritis (GA) induces disturbances in amino acid metabolism(Han et al., 2016). Similarly, a urine metabolomics approach by UHPLC-ESI-QTOF-MS revealed a significant disorder of tryptophan metabolism and tyrosine metabolism in a rat model of hyperuricemia(Wei et al., 2018). Towards investigating the correlation between the plasma-free

amino acid (PFAA) profile and gout patients, an approach using HPLC-ESI-MS was applied by Mahbub et al (Mahbub et al., 2017). The authors confirmed that the levels of alanine, isoleucine, leucine, phenylalanine, tryptophan, and valine were positively correlated with gout. In contrast, the levels of glycine and serine were negatively associated with gout. Similarly, another experiment based on UPLC-MS found that gout patients involved purine metabolism and branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) metabolism. The levels of valine and leucine, and phenylalanine levels in blood were increased (Huang et al., 2020). Together these studies mentioned above reported that the difference and metabolism of amino acids might be related to the occurrence of gout. Gout patients may have a disorder of amino acid metabolism. Following a different methodological approach, Wang et al. studied the relationship between hyperuricemia and amino acids. They found that cysteine, glutamine, phenylalanine, and threonine were related to the changes in UA levels in hyperuricemia patients (Wang et al., 2020a). From previous experiments, glycine (van Milgen, 2021) and glutamine (Otani et al., 2020) (**Figure1**) are indispensable parts of the de novo synthesis of purine, and threonine is the source of glycine. Likewise, these amino acids reflect the dietary habits of hyperuricemia. Glutamine is common in meat, while phenylalanine and threonine are more abundant in bean products. Understanding the purine production and dietary consumption of hyperuricemia and gout are helpful to the prevention of diseases.

The transition stage of hyperuricemia and gout onset is ambiguous. The early symptoms of AHU are often ignored, resulting in the loss of treatment time in the disease process. There is a gradual progression from the discovery of hyperuricemia to the onset of gout. A metabolomic approach based on ¹H NMR spectroscopy reveals disturbing pathways in serum HUA and gout patients. This study showed a more severe metabolic disorder in gout patients compared to the three metabolic pathways of hyperuricemia patients, with an increase in glutamine found only in gout patients (Zhang et al., 2018). LC-MS/MS was also performed by Luo et al. to screen for the plasma amino acids (AAs) profile of AG and AHU (Luo et al., 2018). AG Patients consume more glycine because glycine is the raw material for the de novo synthesis of purine. When serum UA levels are similar, L-isoleucine, L-lysine, and L-alanine may be potential markers to distinguish AG from AHU. Interestingly, when the amino acid content changes, the precipitation of MSU at the limb end of AG patients is more accessible. The changes in plasma amino acids will affect the generation of MSU. Different amino acid metabolic abnormalities are present in patients with hyperuricemia and gout. The most significant changes in arginine metabolism were found by Shen et al. Arginine biosynthesis is associated with the development of inflammation in the gout process, and arginine may be a potential biomarker to differentiate between patients with hyperuricemia and gout (Shen et al., 2021b). However, only focusing on the changes of amino acids can't accurately distinguish between patients with AG and AHU, which may be because the type and physiological function of amino acids are not evident in patients with AG and AHU.

Other metabolic pathways

Purine metabolic pathways are also closely related to the development of hyperuricemia. UA is the end product of purine metabolism, and when purine nucleotide synthesis is disturbed, serum UA concentration increases(Li et al., 2018). And this is followed by the formation of urate crystals, which leads to the development of gout inflammation. Similar to purine metabolism, other metabolic pathways are influencing hyperuricemia and gout in one way or another. The untargeted metabolomic analysis of blood and stool samples collected by Bian et al. by the UHPLCQ-TOF/MS method revealed the presence of abnormal glycerophospholipid metabolism in the hyperuricemia animal model. The authors used chicory to modulate the related lipid metabolites involved in glycerophospholipid metabolism, thereby improving hyperuricemia(Bian et al., 2018). Li et al. also found significant differences in glycerophospholipid metabolism between gout patients and controls(Li et al., 2018). Hyperlipidemia and obesity(Lai et al., 2021) have been proved to be risk factors for hyperuricemia. It has been confirmed that BMI, waist circumference, and body fat proportion are related to hyperuricemia(Rivera-Paredes et al., 2019). Glycerophospholipid metabolism is strongly influenced by diet. According to a prospective study, consumption of ultra-processed food (UPF)(Zhang et al., 2021) and a Western diet are related to the risk for hyperuricemia. In terms of composition, UPF and Western diets generally include a large amount of fat, saturated fat, sugar, and salt. These findings suggest that hyperuricemia has a disorder of lipid metabolism, and a diet with high-fat content will increase the risk of hyperuricemia.

In addition, the GA rat model involves energy metabolism as well as gut microbial metabolism. Han et al. found an increase in lactate levels in plasma(Han et al., 2016). Lactic acid is a common biomarker of arthritis and is seen to be elevated. At the same time, urinary levels of succinate, 2-ketoglutarate, citrate, and pyruvate were elevated. Metabolites such as citrate, 2-ketoglutarate, and succinate are key intermediates in the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, linking lipid and amino acid metabolism. As a metabolic pathway, the TCA cycle was identified by GeneGo analysis in this study by Chiu et al. Pyruvate carboxylation appears to be a novel therapeutic metabolic target in GA(Chiu et al., 2015). Along the same lines, in a study exploring the biomarker profile of HUA and gout, gout patients also had disturbed energy metabolism(Zhang et al., 2018). Mitochondrial dysfunction alters the level of citric acid. In addition, urinary levels of TMAO and hippuric acid, metabolites produced by bacteria in the intestinal tract, were significantly lower in the gouty arthritis model rats compared to healthy controls(Han et al., 2016). Similarly, during the acute phase of gout, the intestinal bacterial metabolite hippuric acid is reduced(Liu et al., 2011). In addition, lower levels of phenylalanine in the urine of gout patients(Li et al., 2018). Hyperuricemia and gout diseases disrupt the balance of microbial metabolism in the gut, leading to changes in metabolites in the urine. Therefore, intestinal flora metabolism will be a new direction for future research.

Interestingly, a noteworthy study identified primary bile acid biosynthesis as a possible new metabolic pathway. UPLC-QTOF/MS was utilized for the serum metabolic profiles of metabolite extracts from gout patients, and urate and bilirubin are reliable metabolites in gout patients(Zhong et al., 2021). Significantly different metabolites are mainly involved in primary

bile acid biosynthesis, purine metabolism, and glycerophospholipid metabolism. Bile acids can affect UA levels in mice by interfering with orphan nuclear receptor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha (PPAR α) activation of the XOD gene(Kanemitsu et al., 2017). Bilirubin may be a potential biomarker. While new metabolic pathways are constantly being discovered to influence the development of hyperuricemia and gout, the metabolic pathways intersect with each other, thus forming large networks. More importantly, if we can further explore the network metabolic key nodes, it is beneficial to discover possible biomarkers. Through this approach, it is possible to know which metabolic pathways the therapeutic drugs act on and reveal the pharmacological effects of the drugs.

Chinese Medicine and metabolomics

Currently, detailed drug evaluation is not possible based on the available reference indicators. More and more studies are exploring the mechanisms of traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) compounds for disease treatment and the efficacy of TCM through metabolomics(Wang et al., 2017, Wu, Li&Zhang, 2019). Another study aimed to explore the effect of Gout Party on plasma metabolic profiles in a rat model of AGA by UHPLC-Q-TOF/MS(Wang et al., 2019). Compared to controls, the Gout Party treatment group affected 14 biomarkers, with the main pathways involved being fatty acid metabolism, bile acid metabolism, amino acid metabolism, and energy metabolism pathways. Not only that, but it also effectively reduced the release of inflammatory factors IL-6 and IL-8, exerting an anti-inflammatory effect. Another similar study investigated a mouse model of hyperuricemia by UPLC-ESI-Q-TOF/MS metabolomics. Chen et al. presented that Tongfengxiaofang (TFXF) could regulate various disorders of arginine biosynthesis, galactose metabolism, pyrimidine metabolism, glycerophospholipid metabolism, tryptophan metabolism, and TCA cycle caused by hyperuricemia(Chen et al., 2021b). In addition, not only the effects of drugs for disease treatment are studied by metabolomics, but also the comparative efficacy of a large class of Chinese medicine prescription composed can be compared for performance assessment. Shan et al. performed UPLC-Q-TOF/MS untargeted metabolomics to investigate the effect of Ermiao wan categorized formulas (ECFs) on a model of high fructose combined with potassium oxonate (HFCPO)-induced hyperuricemia(Shan et al., 2021). ECFs included Ermiao wan (2 MW), Sanmiao wan (3 MW), and Simiao wan (4 MW). The results showed that 2 MW, 3 MW, and 4 MW could partially modulate the disturbed lipid metabolic pathway. More importantly, 4 MW was superior to 2 MW and 3 MW in interfering with the disturbance of TCA metabolism and purine metabolism induced by hyperuricemia. Lipidomics, an important branch of metabolomics, has recently become a hot research topic and independent histology in biology. Due to the continuous development of technology, lipidomics can identify individual lipid molecule species, and the integration studies with genomics and metabolomics can uncover the complete picture of diseases(Tabassum&Ripatti, 2021, Wang et al., 2020b). By metabolomics followed by transcriptomics, a model of diosgenin on potassium oxonate (PO)-induced hyperuricemia was studied by UHPLC-MS combined with ¹H NMR(Tan et al., 2020). There were 53 altered metabolites in plasma and urine metabolomics, 19 of which

were lipids, mainly involved in the TCA cycle, lipid metabolism, amino acid metabolism, and pyrimidine metabolism. Subsequently, genes affecting the cell cycle and energy metabolism were identified in transcriptomics. Since metabolomics provides an understanding of the overall changes in metabolism, it is suitable for the therapeutic evaluation of multi-targeted features of herbal compounding. Therefore, studying metabolomics provides a deep dissection of the organism's metabolites to identify the effective pathways through which drugs affect the disease. It can be said that lipidomics can provide insight into the lipid metabolic pathways of hyperuricemia and combine with other omics such as transcriptomics to understand the disease development process from all levels. The combination of transcriptomics has elucidated the genes affecting hyperuricemia from different perspectives, providing a basis for studying the pathogenesis of hyperuricemia.

Conclusions

Gout is treated clinically with urate-lowering therapy (ULT), such as allopurinol, UA excreting drugs, and uricase. In addition, anti-inflammatory treatment with drugs such as colchicine is also available (Dalbeth et al., 2021). However, there is an urgent need to find alternative remedies for gout due to co-morbidities and the prohibition of medications. On the one hand, since a proportion of patients with hyperuricemia do not have gout manifestations, and gout increases the risk as uric acid levels rise, it is not possible to accurately classify the stage of the disease based on UA alone as an indicator. Clinically, this stage is usually determined by imaging, but there are deficiencies. And this leads to some limitations in early prevention as well as diagnosis. These point to the lack of specificity of some existing biomarker tests and the need to explore new validated biomarkers to diagnose the disease. On the other hand, since high SUA levels are a risk factor for some metabolic diseases, especially cardiovascular diseases, they can even develop into kidney disease (Pisaniello et al., 2021). Analytical techniques for studying hyperuricemia and gout proteomics have evolved from 2DE-based protein extraction, followed by LC-MS, to a broader range of screening methods. For quantitative protein detection, tag-based methods include isotope-encoded affinity labeling, SILAC, iTRAQ, and TMT (Tian, Permentier & Bischoff, 2021). In addition, the protein species of the crystalline components were explored by using micro-area x-ray diffraction determination followed by infrared analysis. SDS-PAGE followed by LC-MS/MS is widely used to analyze urinary stones and gouty tophus. In metabolomics studies, depending on the application and instrumentation, information on small molecules in liquids is obtained using spectroscopy (i.e., NMR) and MS (i.e., LC/GC-MS or tandem MS) to capture solids (i.e., solid-state NMR) or using LC-MS, CE-MS, GC-MS. Studies on proteomics as well as metabolomics can identify possible biomarkers and the metabolic pathways involved, providing insights into disease pathogenesis and therapeutic targets. Studies on diseases such as hyperuricemia and gout are still relatively small in sample size. Metabolomics has much experience in exploring herbal components for the treatment of hyperuricemia as well as gout and analyzing the pharmacological effects of Chinese medicine. Most metabolomics studies are based on establishing animal models to reveal the

pharmacological effects of TCM on diseases. From the above studies, the TCA cycle in question has an impact on hyperuricemia as well as in gout models. More importantly, the TCA cycle is the intertwined core of other pathways such as arginine metabolism, glycerophospholipid metabolism, pyrimidine metabolism, tryptophan metabolism, etc. Some metabolomic studies found that hyperuricemia is associated with disorders of the primary bile acid pathway or intestinal metabolism, which provides new ideas to guide the subsequent treatment. Specific amino acid species can be identified and become biomarkers of the disease requires further research. The metabolic pathways and the related substances involved are relatively large routes and lack specificity to reflect a comprehensive disease pathogenesis profile. Therefore, further studies of the main pathways and substances are needed.

In addition, proteomics has focused more on plasma and urine studies as well as have a portion of SF samples. In urinary stone specimens, different protein types than plasma and urine are reflected. And this also indicates that different sample types result in a significant difference in test results. These substances may predict early AHU, AG, and complications (renal damage). The proteins explored in the abovementioned studies are broadly related to inflammation or involved in complement and coagulation cascade reactions. Or they may be involved in kidney stone composition and influencing the development of concomitant diseases such as diabetes and hyperlipidemia. They have good suggestions for the treatment of gout inflammation and concomitant diseases. In proteomic studies of patients with gout and hyperuricemia, apolipoproteins and related substances promote the development of several disease risk factors such as hypertriglyceridemia, AS, and diabetes. The specific mechanisms linking apolipoprotein and complement components to inflammatory pathway activation need to be further explored.

Despite the current identification of differential proteins are mainly based on proteomic approaches, biomarker discovery is limited by the ability to understand the function of the proteins and incomplete studies of the specific signaling pathways of the proteins. These studies are not optimal for biomarker discovery as most of them are preliminary screening tests and are only associated with changes in specific biochemical associations of hyperuricemia and gout. More importantly, the protein targets lack specificity and require multiple approaches for validation.

Considerably fewer researches integrated data from multiple omics. A single proteomic or metabolomic study is insufficient but requires the integration of genetic epigenomics, transcriptomics, genomics, and other multifaceted findings(Bodofsky et al., 2020). Multi-omics data analysis has become the focus of many disease studies to understand the pathogenesis of disease processes comprehensively. In the next five or even ten years, find specific biomarkers through the role of high-resolution technology. With multi-omics data integration, humankind will thoroughly understand hyperuricemia and gout disease progression. More importantly, it is hoped that the management protocols for AHU and gout interval will be better improved, and a staged approach to treatment will be established(Dalbeth et al., 2021). Consequently, it is a tremendous challenge to get biomarkers into clinical trials for application in clinical diagnosis

and treatment, combined with clinical laboratory automation. And this will allow better management of patients with hyperuricemia and gout and play a role in disease prevention.

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The authors declare there are no competing interests.

Author Contributions

Xinghong Wu conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.
Chongge You conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.

Data Availability

The following information was supplied regarding data availability:
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Figure 1

De novo synthesis and salvage pathway of purine metabolism

The purine metabolism shows the first step of de novo purine synthesis mediated by the enzyme 5'-phosphoribosyl-1-pyrophosphate (PRPP) synthase, and the second step by PRPP amidotransferase. PRPP from adenosine-triphosphate (ATP) and ribose-5-phosphate is catalyzed by PRPP synthase. PRPP amidotransferase converts PRPP to ribosylamine-5-phosphate (PRA). This is then catalyzed by a series of enzymes to produce hypoxanthine nucleotides (IMP), which in turn produce adenosine monophosphate (AMP) and guanosine monophosphate (GMP). Xanthine oxidase (XO) converts hypoxanthine to xanthine and xanthine to uric acid. Meanwhile, the salvage pathway mediated by hypoxanthine phosphorybosyltransferase (HPRT) and adenine phosphorybosyltransferase (APRT). The enzyme HPRT salvages hypoxanthine to IMP and guanine to GMP. In a similar salvage pathway, APRT converts adenine to AMP.

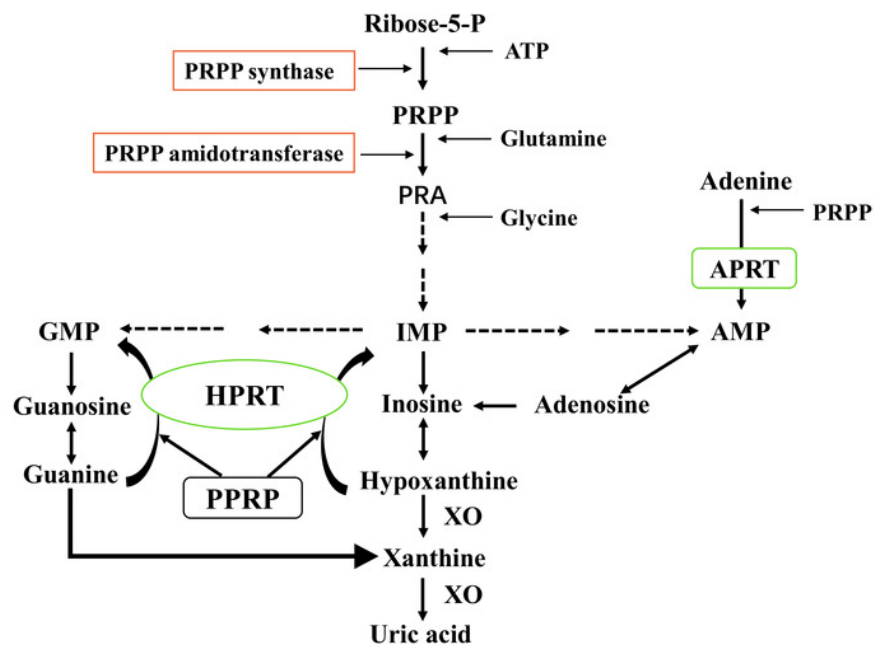


Table 1(on next page)

Overview of proteomics studies in hyperuricemia and gout

We performed a detailed analysis of proteomic studies of hyperuricemia and gout including sample types, methods used, sample sizes, protein involved pathways, and key proteins.

Table 1 Overview of proteomics studies in hyperuricemia and gout

Reference	Sample	Technique	Study size	participation way	proteins	Key proteins
(Fei et al., 2012)	Serum	2-DE and MALDI-TOF-MS	Hyperuricemia:15 Control group:15	—	Complement 3, complement 4, haptoglobin, and apolipoprotein A1.	Complement 3, complement 4, haptoglobin, apolipoprotein A1.
(Fei et al., 2013)	Serum	2-DE and MALDI-TOF-MS	Hyperuricemia:15 Control group:15	—	Complement 3, haptoglobin, α 1 -antitrypsin, and apolipoprotein L1.	Complement 3, haptoglobin, α 1-antitrypsin, and apolipoprotein L1.
(Chiang et al., 2014)	Plasma	2-DE and MS	Male acute gouty patients:80 Male controls:129.	—	Fibrinogen gamma, transthyretin, pre-serum amyloid P component, C-reactive protein, and apolipoprotein A-I.	apolipoprotein A-I.
	Synovial fluid	LC/MS/MS	Male acute gouty patients:24	—	Fibrinogen, ORM1, ORM 2, angiotensinogen, alpha 2-macroglobulin, apolipoprotein A-I, apolipoprotein D and apolipoprotein H.	Apolipoprotein A-I
(Shen et al., 2021)	Plasma	HPLC-MS/MS	Gout patients:8; Gout patients combined with renal injury:8	These proteins participated in innate immune response, platelet degranulation, protein hydrolysis, and the classical activation pathway of complement.	In the normal control group and gout group: 32 proteins; In the gout and gout with renal injury group: 10 proteins; Correlated with SUA: GSN, S100A8, S100A9, ORM2, and ANXA1.	GSN
(Chen et al., 2021)	Plasma	iTRAQ-PRM	AG: 8; RG: 7; AHU: 7; Healthy controls: 8	The complement and coagulation cascades is one of the main functional pathways.	Eleven differentially expressed proteins such as Histone H2A, Histone H2B, Thrombospondin-1, Myeloperoxidase, complement C2, complement component C8 beta chain, ORM1, Inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain H4, Carbonic anhydrase 1, Serum albumin and Multimerin-1 were identified.	Histone H2A, Histone H2B and Thrombospondin-1.
(Huo et al., 2021)	Urine	Label-free LC-MS/MS	HUA:26; Healthy controls: 25	Including the processes for insulin receptor recycling and lipid metabolism.	In HUA samples: 11 proteins were found decreased and 2 proteins were found increased.	V-type proton ATPase subunit B kidney isoform, Complex factor D, apolipoprotein C3.

Table 1 Overview of proteomics studies in hyperuricemia and gout

Reference	Sample	Technique	Study size	participation way	proteins	Key proteins
(Chiu et al., 2015)	Pouch membranes	Labeling and offline 2D LC-MS/MS	—	The identified proteins were involved in an alternative complement pathway and tricarboxylic acid cycle.	Alternative complement pathway: complement component 3, complement component 8, complement component C9, complement component factor I, complement D, complement factor B, clusterin, integrin α M, and integrin β -2. Related to NALP3 inflammasome: CRAMP and S100A9.	Two upregulated proteins, S100A9 and CRAMP.
(Huang et al., 2022)	Synovial Fluid-Derived Exosomes	TMT labeled LC-MS/MS	Gout:42; Rheumatoid arthritis:30; Axial spondyloarthritis:10; Osteoarthritis :18	These proteins were significantly involved in complement and coagulation cascades, acute-phase response and citrate cycle in gout.	In gout: Sixty-nine differentially expressed proteins were found. Twenty-five proteins were found highly expressed in gout uniquely, lysozyme C, ORM1, lactotransferrin, S100A9, and myeloperoxidase.	—
(Kane et al., 2012)	Urinary stone	LC-MS/MS and SDS-PAGE	Gout or hyperuricemia patients:15; Urinary stones:17	some of these proteins should play an essential role in the early stage of CaOx stone formation.	In calcium oxalate monohydrate or calcium oxalate dihydrate stones, osteopontin, uromodulin, albumin, protein Z, prothrombin, protein S, hemoglobin and histone H4 were identified. In uric acid stones, uromodulin, albumin, hemoglobin, calgranulins and immunoglobulin G fragments were detected. In CaOx stones and uric acid stones: Albumin, hemoglobin, uromodulin, calgranulin A and B, and histone H4 were detected.	In CaOx stones: osteopontin, prothrombin, protein Z and protein S were often identified. In UA stones: IgG fragment was detected characteristically.
(Kane et al., 2014)	Gouty tophus	Micro-area X-ray diffractometer and LC-MS/MS	Patients:1; Tophus:1	Many proteins relevant to inflammation and host defense were identified.	Proteomic analysis identified 134 proteins from the tophus as matrix proteins.	Immunoglobulins

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Table 1 Overview of proteomics studies in hyperuricemia and gout

Reference	Sample	Technique	Study size	participation way	proteins	Key proteins
(Kane et al., 2018)	A urinary stone with two layers	Micro-area X-ray diffractometer and LC-MS/MS	Patients:1; Urinary stone:1	14 of 51 were functionally categorized as cell adhesion and cytoskeleton proteins and 7 as metabolism-related proteins. There were 5 defense proteins and 5 plasma proteins.	In COM part: 48 proteins (non-muscle myosin heavy chain, uromodulin, coagulation factor II, protein S, protein Z, apolipoprotein E, and others.); In UA part: 7 proteins (S100A8, hemoglobin, albumin, and others); In the interface: 4 proteins (dermcidin, coagulation factor II, keratin 1, and osteopontin isoform OPN-b).	Proteins relevant to cell adhesion, self-defense, and plasma commonly play a major role in the generation of both COM and UA part.

Notes.

Abbreviations: 2-DE, two-dimensional gel electrophoresis; MALDI-TOF-MS, matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry; MS, mass spectrometry; LC, liquid chromatography; ORM1, alpha-1-acid glycoprotein 1; ORM2, alpha-1-acid glycoprotein 2; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; SUA, serum uric acid; GSN, inflammation factors gelsolin; S100A8, protein S100-A8; 100A9, protein S100-A9; ANXA1, annexin A1; iTRAQ-PRM, isobaric tag for relative and absolute quantification- parallel reaction monitoring; AG, acute gout; RG, remission of gout; HUA, asymptomatic hyperuricemia; NALP3, NACHT, LRR, and PYD domains-containing protein 3; CRAMP, catherine-related antimicrobial peptide; TMT, tandem mass tag; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; CaOx, calcium oxalate; UA, uric acid; COM, calcium oxalate.

Figure 2

Some metabolic disorders pathways in hyperuricemia and gout

The network is based on the metabolic pathways and biomarkers mainly affected by hyperuricemia and gout. Metabolic processes that cause abnormalities include the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, purine metabolism, pyrimidine metabolism, glycerophospholipid metabolism, and gut microbial metabolism. Also, various amino acid metabolism disorders are common, such as tryptophan metabolism, ornithine and arginine biosynthesis in the urea cycle. Key intermediates of the TCA cycle such as citric acid, 2-ketoglutarate and succinic acid metabolites build up the entire metabolic network, making the TCA cycle an intertwining point of metabolic pathways.

