Super-omics and PCAS reveal rheumatoid arthritis as a tumor-like disease

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SUMMARY

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a debilitating systemic autoimmune disorder that
significantly impairs quality of life. To elucidate the molecular alterations in RA
progression, we performed comprehensive super-omics analyses on synovial
tissues from patients with joint trauma, arthritis, and RA. These analyses
included transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, microbiomics, and
fourteen PTMs (phosphorylation, acetylation, lactylation, O-GlcNAc
glycosylation, arginine monomethylation, lysine monomethylation, lysine
dimethylation, lysine trimethylation, succinylation, malonylation, glutarylation,
tyrosine nitration, N-glycosylation, and O-glycosylation). Additionally, we
developed a protein-centered association study (PCAS) method to integrate
these complex datasets. Using this approach, we identified key proteins, such
as STK17B, and its interactors, which may be crucial in RA pathogenesis.
Tumor-like features, including aberrant angiogenesis and
epithelial-mesenchymal transition, were observed in RA, alongside the
potential involvement of oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes. Finally, we
constructed a molecular interaction blueprint of RA, providing a
comprehensive framework for advancing RA pathogenesis, diagnosis, and
therapy.

INTRODUCTION

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is one of the most prevalent systemic autoimmune
diseases, affecting approximately 0.5% to 1% of the global population(Smolen
et al., 2018). RA is characterized by immune-mediated persistent synovial
inflammation, manifesting as symmetric polyarthritis with pain and swelling,
typically involving small joints of the hands and feet, and frequently affecting
critical organs such as the heart, lungs, and kidneys(Tobón et al., 2010). The

loss of tissue-protective macrophage populations, the emergence of tissue-invasive T effector cells, and the formation of an aggressive fibroblast-like synoviocyte (FLS) phenotype contribute to joint damage(Weyand and Goronzy, 2021). Another hallmark of RA is the production of autoantibodies, particularly anti-citrullinated protein antibodies (ACPA), which are generated through the activation of antigen-presenting cells (APCs) that present citrullinated proteins, further activating specific T and B cells(McInnes and Schett, 2011). This leads to the initiation of a series of immune responses that contribute to the autoimmune inflammatory process characteristic of RA. Consequently, RA is widely considered to be an immune and inflammatory disorder. The continuous development and application of biologic and targeted synthetic disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (b/tsDMARDs) have significantly improved treatment outcomes. However, some patients remain refractory to therapy due to drug resistance, side effects, or other factors, leading to severe impacts on their quality of life. This highlights the need for a more comprehensive understanding of RA.

Advancements in biotechnology, coupled with the development of various omics technologies, have enabled a deeper understanding of the disease. Post-translational modification (PTM) refers to the chemical modification of protein amino acid residues after translation through the addition or removal of specific groups, thereby regulating protein activity, localization, folding, and interactions with other biomolecules. PTMs play a crucial role in various biological processes and disease pathogenesis(Wu et al., 2023). Phosphorylation is one of the most common and important PTMs, widely involved in regulating immune cell behavior. Tyrosine nitration is closely associated with cellular oxidative stress(Chen et al., 2024), while malonylation is involved in energy metabolism, macrophage inflammatory signaling, and cartilage cell metabolic regulation. Glutarylation has been reported to participate in transcriptional regulation, immune inflammation, and amino acid metabolism (Fu et al., 2022). Lysine and arginine methylation play significant roles in transcriptional regulation and signal transduction(Demicco et al., 2024; Yan et al., 2024). Lactylation can affect the function of key immune regulatory molecules, such as NLRP3 and TCR, altering immune cell activity and the intensity of autoimmune responses(Souto-Carneiro et al., 2020). Previous studies have shown that succinylation of the mitochondrial transcription factor BRD2 promotes the abnormal differentiation of tissue-resident memory T cells (Trm cells) in RA patients(Wu et al., 2024), and acetylation of the T cell

microtubule system facilitates T cell migration(Wu et al., 2020). In RA patients,
the immune response to post-translationally modified proteins is abnormally
active(Scherer et al., 2022), yet proteomic studies on PTMs other than
citrullination in RA remain rare.

Existing multi-omics studies have provided valuable insights into the cellular
composition and functions of synovial tissues in RA, identifying key factors
driving FLS heterogeneity(Floudas et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2019), the
significance of immune regulation in RA(Consortium, 2007; Weyand and
Goronzy, 2021), and characteristics of the gut microbiome and serum
metabolic profiles in RA patients(Cheng et al., 2022). However, current
multi-omics studies are limited in both the types of omics and the depth of
analysis, resulting in incomplete molecular portraits and a lack of specialized
data analysis methods for multi-omics data. The analysis of multi-omics data
faces significant challenges due to the increasing complexity and diversity of
data types. To address these issues, we propose a more advanced
multi-omics approach, super-omics, which integrates a comprehensive
analysis of key functional molecules in biological activities. Based on this, we
have developed a protein-centered association study (PCAS), leveraging
known interactions among biomolecules. This new super-omics data analysis
pipeline—comprising data preprocessing, differential analysis, PCAS analysis,
and network/enrichment analysis—aims to handle the increased omics layers
and data diversity, addressing the complexities that arise from traditional
analytical methods and identifying key molecular changes.

RESULTS

Super-omics and PCAS analysis

Traditional multi-omics studies typically combine multiple omic layers, but
without strict requirements for the specific levels of omic analysis (such as
DNA, DNA modifications, RNA, RNA modifications, proteins, protein
modifications, metabolites, etc.). Additionally, these studies often lack sufficient
diversity in the area of protein post-translational modifications (PTMs). As a
result, both single-omic and multi-omic approaches can be limited by the depth
of omic layers and the number of omics types included, leading to outcomes
that are often narrowly focused. In these cases, researchers may be so
focused on a small number of omics that they can't see the forest for the trees,
failing to provide a comprehensive reflection of the entire biological system and
introducing the potential for biased or even inaccurate results. In contrast,

super-omics study requires the incorporation of at least ten omic types, spanning at least three omic layers, with a strong emphasis on proteins and PTMs, which are directly involved in the regulation of biological functions. Super-omics offers a significant advancement over traditional multi-omics by broadening both the number and depth of omic layers, thus offering a more holistic perspective. Furthermore, with advances in mass spectrometry, the detection depth of PTMs has been greatly enhanced, enabling the identification of an expanding array of modifications. This progress improves our ability to map the molecular landscape more comprehensively. The Protein-Centered Association Study (PCAS) integrates differential omic data from various layers, based on known molecular interactions and upstream-downstream regulatory pathways, enabling a more nuanced understanding of molecular changes. This approach significantly reduces the risk of error and false discovery rates, ensuring that key alterations are identified (Figure 1).

Comprehensive super-omics analysis of synovial tissue

Between December 2023 and May 2024, we recruited 6 patients with rheumatoid arthritis (RA), 6 with osteoarthritis (OA), and 6 with meniscus injuries (normal controls, NC) (Supplemental Table 1). Synovial tissue samples were collected through Knee Arthroplasty and arthroscopic surgery. We performed a super-omics analysis on these samples, encompassing 18 distinct omic layers: transcriptomics (mRNA), proteomics (WCP), metabolomics (Meta), microbiomics, and 14 types of PTMs, including phosphorylation (P), acetylation (Ac), lactylation (Lac), O-GlcNAc glycosylation (Oglc), arginine monomethylation (Rmme), lysine monomethylation (Pmm), lysine dimethylation (Pmd), lysine trimethylation (Pmt), succinylation (Succ), malonylation (Mal), glutarylation (Glut), tyrosine nitration (Ynit), N-glycosylation (Ng), and O-glycosylation (Og). Our analysis identified 27,459 genes in transcriptomics, 3,424 metabolites in metabolomics, 2,271 amplicon sequence variants (ASV) in microbiomics, and 6,540 proteins in proteomics. PTMs were extensively characterized, with 18,838 phosphorylation sites, 3,420 acetylation sites, 11,684 succinylation sites, 300 lactylation sites, 158 malonylation sites, 74 O-GlcNAc glycosylation sites, 55 lysine monomethylation sites, 69 lysine dimethylation sites, 1,142 lysine trimethylation sites, 70 glutarylation sites, 136 arginine monomethylation sites, 105 tyrosine nitration sites, 566 N-glycosylation sites, and 377 O-glycosylation sites (Figure 2A, Supplementary materials 1). Notably, many proteins displayed multiple PTMs.

For example, 440 proteins exhibited both phosphorylation and succinylation,
and 144 proteins were modified by acetylation, succinylation, and
trimethylation. Among these, alpha-1-antitrypsin (SERPINA1) displayed 10
PTMs, and Mimecan (OGN) displayed 9 PTMs (Figure 2B). The predominant
modifications observed were phosphorylation, succinylation, and acetylation
(Figure 2C). The correlation analysis of the quantitative results across various
omics showed that the within-group correlation in the RA, OA, and NC groups
was higher than the between-group correlation, and the within-group
correlation among the samples in the RA group was lower than that in the
other two groups (Figure S1A). When proteins underwent multiple
modifications, the proportion of phosphorylation decreased, while succinylation
and acetylation increased, with succinylation emerging as the dominant
modification (Figure S1B). The results of the principal component analysis
show that in most omics, the RA group is well-distinguished from the OA and
NC groups, while the OA and NC groups are closer to each other. At the same
time, the samples within the RA group are farther apart, which is consistent
with the results of the correlation analysis (Figure S2A). The quantitative
results for proteins and PTMs are detailed in Figure S2B (Supplementary
materials 2). Among the detected PTMs, O-GlcNAc glycosylation exhibited the
highest intensity, followed by phosphorylation, with tyrosine nitration showing
the lowest intensity (Figure S2C). N-glycosylation and O-glycosylation were
most strongly correlated with protein expression levels (Figure 2D), likely due
to their prevalence in secretory proteins. In contrast, arginine monomethylation
and lysine monomethylation displayed the weakest correlation with protein
expression, potentially because these modifications predominantly occur in
nuclear proteins. The relatively low correlation between mRNA and protein
levels suggests that protein expression is primarily regulated at
post-transcriptional and post-translational levels (Figure 2D).

Subcellular localization analysis of omic data revealed that N-glycosylation and
O-glycosylation were primarily localized in the endoplasmic reticulum and
secretory proteins, indicating their involvement in humoral immunity and
inflammatory responses(Rudd et al., 1998). O-GlcNAc glycosylation was
concentrated in the nucleus and cytoplasm, suggesting its role in signal
transduction, in line with existing literature(Rudd et al., 1998). Glutarylation
was more prevalent in membrane proteins, implying a role in substance
transport, signal transduction, and cell-cell recognition. Acetylation and lysine
trimethylation were found primarily in mitochondria, pointing to their

involvement in cellular metabolism (Figure 2E). There are differences in the
overall level of certain omics modifications among the three groups. For
instance, the levels of acetylation, malonylation, lysine dimethylation, and
lysine trimethylation are higher in the RA compared to the OA, while the
N-glycosylation level is lower in the RA group compared to the OA group.
Additionally, the lysine trimethylation was higher in the RA group compared to
the NC group (Figure 2F).

Metabolomics identified 9 major classes of metabolites, with carboxylic acids
and derivatives (15.74%) and fatty acyls (13.76%) being the most abundant
(Figure S2D). Microbiome analysis revealed that the most abundant bacterial
families in the synovial tissue were *Muribaculaceae*, *Prevotellaceae*, and
Lachnospiraceae (Figure S2E).

Differential analysis of RA synovial tissue

Comparison of RA with NC revealed significant differences in mRNA, proteins,
and PTM sites. Specifically, 1,250 mRNA, 169 proteins, and multiple PTM sites
(including 665 phosphorylation sites, 67 acetylation sites, 232 succinylation
sites, 12 lactylation sites, 7 malonylation sites, and others) were upregulated in
RA, while 1,324 mRNA, 302 proteins, and several PTM sites (including 617
phosphorylation sites and 118 acetylation sites) were downregulated (Figure
3A, Figure S3, Supplementary materials 3). When compared to OA, RA
showed upregulation of 381 mRNA, 8 proteins, and several PTM sites, while 1
protein and several PTM sites were downregulated. In entries of the PTMs
analyzed in this study, the overall number of upregulated and downregulated
PTMs between RA and NC were relatively similar (up: 1133; down: 1204).
However, a closer examination of specific PTMs revealed that, compared to
NC, the overall levels of acetylation (up: 67; down: 118) and succinylation (up:
232; down: 288) in RA were reduced. When compared to OA, RA exhibited
significantly increased levels of phosphorylation and acetylation (Figure S3).
Further analysis of the overall differences across various omics showed that
the proteomics and phosphorylation differences between the comparison
groups were relatively small. Notably, the greatest differences were observed
between RA and NC in entries of N-glycosylation, and O-glycosylation, while
the overall differences in malonylation were most pronounced between RA and
OA, as well as between OA and NC (Figure 3B, Figure S4A). After
summarizing the differential entries between the RA and NC comparison
groups across all omics, we found that the intensity variation among the
differential entries in the RA group is larger, which may indicate greater

synovial heterogeneity in RA patients (Figure 3C). Notably, SYK, and BTK(Ding et al., 2023), and protein expression of SUCLG2(Wu et al., 2020) were consistent with previous findings in RA research (Figure 3D). In general, greater intensity in PTMs was associated with fewer differential genes, suggesting that housekeeping proteins are more stable and less prone to regulation. However, genes such as ALB, which are typically stable, exhibited significant changes, highlighting their potential role in the pathogenesis of RA. Of course, this could also be due to contamination, as we deliberately retained contaminant proteins when searching the database (Figure 3E, Figure S4B). To screen candidate clinical diagnostic markers, we selected the top five entries with the largest differential changes in each omics from the comparison groups. After summarizing all omics, the top 10 entries with the highest intensity were chosen. These entries are easier to detect due to their high intensity, and they exhibit better specificity for detection because of the large differences between the comparison groups. For example, serine phosphorylation at position 241 of SPP1 and threonine O-glycosylation at position 519 of HCFC1 can serve as candidate diagnostic markers for differentiating RA and NC (Figure 3F).

In our investigation of differential genes between RA and NC, we identified 24 genes exhibiting concurrent alterations in both phosphorylation and succinylation. Additionally, 13 genes showed changes in succinylation as well as transcriptomic and proteomic alterations, while 4 genes displayed significant differences in succinylation, acetylation, and lysine trimethylation. Mimecan (OGN) was found to be downregulated across eight PTMs, including succinylation, lactylation, malonylation, O-GlcNAc glycosylation, lysine dimethylation), tyrosine nitration, N-glycosylation, and O-glycosylation. Lumican showed decreased protein levels, accompanied by downregulation in acetylation, succinylation, lactylation, lysine trimethylation, tyrosine nitration, N-glycosylation, and O-glycosylation, indicating that some of these changes may stem from alterations at the protein expression level (Figure 3G, Figure S4C).

The top 10 genes with the highest number of differential PTMs sites between RA and NC were identified, including AHNAK, IGHG1, ASPN, LAMCA1, LUM, SPTAN1, OGN, ANXA2, TNS1, and IGHM (Figure S4D). Furthermore, genes with a large proportion of differential PTMs sites were also examined (Figure S4E). Genes such as AHNAK, IGHG1, ASPN, ATP5PO, PLIN1, and SPP1 exhibited numerous differential PTMs sites with a high proportion relative to

protein expression, suggesting that these genes may serve as potential clinical biomarkers of RA (Figure 3H). A joint analysis of transcriptomic and proteomic data revealed 97 genes exhibiting consistent changes in both transcript and protein levels between RA and NC. Among these, SAA1(Chambers et al., 1983) and GBP5(Li et al., 2023) were notably upregulated at both the transcript and protein levels (Figure S5A), corroborating previous studies that suggest these genes as potential contributors to RA pathogenesis. In contrast, the transcriptional and protein levels of FABP4 and PLIN1 were significantly lower in comparison to NC, with further reductions observed in the phosphorylation and succinylation of PLIN1, and succinylation, acetylation, malonylation and lysine trimethylation of FABP4. Although no changes were detected in the protein levels of Serotransferrin, PEA15, and SERPINA3, substantial increases were found in the lysine trimethylation and glutarylation of Serotransferrin, and acetylation in the latter two proteins showed marked alterations. OGN exhibited reduced protein expression, with concurrent downregulation in lysine dimethylation and lactylation (Figure S5B).

Metabolic alterations, which are critical for cellular energy homeostasis, were found to be significantly more active in RA compared to both OA and NC, as evidenced by a higher number of upregulated differential metabolites (Figure S5C). Specifically, RA exhibited elevated levels of L-Glutamic acid and D-Lactic acid relative to NC, while sodium lactate was more abundant in RA compared to OA (Figure S5C). Microbiome analysis revealed that the families Muribaculaceae, Rikenellaceae, and Rhodocyclaceae were more prevalent in RA compared to NC, whereas Caulobacteraceae and Beijerinckiaceae were less abundant in RA compared to NC. Additionally, Bifidobacteriaceae and Moraxellaceae were found to be more abundant in RA than in OA (Figure S5D).

Pathway and functional analysis of RA synovium

To explore the biological functions of RA synovium, we performed Gene Ontology (GO)/Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis of the significant differential genes from each omics and select the top three entries with the smallest FDR values for each omics. The results revealed enrichment of the "activation of immune response" pathway across eight omics, the "B cell receptor signaling pathway" across nine layers, "lysosomal lumen" across 13 omics, "extracellular matrix structural constituent" across 11 omics, and the "complement and coagulation cascades" across eight omics (Figure 4A, Supplementary materials 4). In contrast, differential

gene enrichment analysis between RA and OA revealed that the "collagen-containing extracellular matrix" pathway was enriched in seven omics, the "extracellular matrix structural constituent conferring compression resistance" in five layers, and both "vacuolar lumen" and "lysosomal lumen" in four omics (Figure S6A). These findings are in alignment with previous research, highlighting the prominent enrichment of immune and cytoskeletal pathways in RA(Li et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2023). Further analysis indicated that differential proteins with succinylation were particularly enriched in the tryptophan (Trp) metabolism pathway (Figure 4B). In contrast, the pathways most significantly enriched in the proteomics and phosphorylatomics were thermogenesis and proteoglycans in cancer, respectively (Figure S6B). Recent studies have reported significant changes in Trp metabolites in RA patients, which correlate closely with inflammation, disease activity, and quality of life, and which influence the proliferation and metabolism of fibroblast-like synoviocytes(Moulin et al., 2024). In our analysis of genes involved in the "activation of immune response" and "rheumatoid arthritis" pathways, we found significant activation of complement and immune pathways in RA, along with high expression of HLA-DRB1 and other human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-specific markers. Elevated mRNA expression of CCL1, CCL2, CCL3, CCL5, CCL3L3, CXCL2, CXCL3, CXCL6, and CXCL12, as well as transcription factors such as IRF1, JUN, MYD88, and TLR1, was observed in RA compared to OA and NC (Figure 4C). Metabolomic analysis highlighted significant enrichment in amino acid metabolism and pathways such as choline metabolism in cancer and central carbon metabolism in RA (Figure S6C).

By comparing the differential gene expression levels between RA and NC, as well as between RA and OA, we predicted that inflammation-related transcription factors such as RELA, NFKB, and JUN are highly active in RA (Figure 4D, Figure S6D). Upon examining the levels of these predicted transcription factors across various omics, we found that, in RA, JUN exhibited higher protein and phosphorylation levels compared to both NC and OA. Additionally, STAT1 showed elevated transcriptional, protein, and acetylation ompared to NC, while STAT3 displayed lower succinylation level in RA relative to NC. RUNX1 also exhibited higher protein and phosphorylation levels in RA compared to NC (Figure 4E). PTM-SEA analysis indicated that several inflammation-related kinases, including PKACA, ULK3, and MAP2K7, were activated in RA compared to NC and OA (Figure 4F, Figure S6E, Figure S7A), while KSEA analysis revealed the activation of kinases such as CSNK2A2,

PRKG1, CSNK2A1, and MAPKAPK2 in RA (Figure 4G, Figure S7B). These
kinases' phosphorylation profiles showed distinctive patterns, including
decreased phosphorylation of RPS6KA1 and PRKG1, and increased
phosphorylation of PAK1 in RA compared to NC (Figure S7C). Joint analysis of
kinases and their substrates revealed that in the RA and NC comparison
groups, the phosphorylation levels of certain substrates were positively
correlated with changes in the modification or expression levels of their
corresponding kinases. For example, the phosphorylation level of BAD at
serine 118 was highly positively correlated with the phosphorylation level of its
kinase PAK1 at threonine 103 ($R = 0.777$, $P < 0.05$). Similarly, the
phosphorylation level of LCP1 at serine 5 was positively correlated with the
mRNA level of its kinase RPS6KA1 ($R = 0.674$, $P < 0.05$) (Figure S7D). Finally,
we plotted the pathways and genes with the most significant changes in RA
across all omics into a signaling pathway network diagram, including the
activation of immune response, fatty acid metabolic processes, rheumatoid
arthritis, extracellular matrix structural constituents, and the PPAR signaling
pathway (Figure S7E).

PCAS analysis of super-omics data from RA

The PCAS score integrates various protein-protein and protein-metabolite
regulatory relationships to evaluate the significance and reliability of regulated
proteins. This score incorporates changes in four dimensions: self-regulation,
upstream regulation, downstream regulation, and molecular interactions, with
four levels RNA, WCP, PTM, and metabolite data considered. The PCAS score
follows three core principles: (1) Balance between the different omic layers'
ability to reflect protein activity, sequencing depth, and differential analysis
algorithm; (2) Enrichment to mitigate errors due to proteins with multiple
modification sites, calculating the proportion of differential molecules involved
in the same regulatory pathway; and (3) Fuzziness, where the direction of
modification is less important than the overall regulatory relationship (Figure
5A).

Upon ranking differential proteins by PCAS score, we found that key
RA-related genes, such as PTPN22(Ding et al., 2023), SUCLG2, and SYK
were among the top 25% of differential proteins calculated by RA vs NC.
Besides, compared with other comparisons, the comparison between RA and
NC found more known RA-associated genes (Figure 5B, Figure S8A,
Supplementary materials 5). Further analysis of factors influencing the PCAS
score revealed that different omics levels and regulatory layers all have an

impact on the final PCAS score, indicating that our scoring method indeed integrates multidimensional information (Figure 5C, Figure 5D). The fold change (FC) values in WCP and PTM gradually decreased across the PCAS score quartiles (from 0-25% to 75%-100%), emphasizing the importance of WCP and PTM on PCAS score (Figure 5E). High-intensity proteins were more abundant in the last 25% of PCAS score, indicating greater stability in housekeeping genes (Figure 5F). Notably, the PCAS score of differential proteins from RA and NC showed a weak correlation with FC in tyrosine nitration, but a strong positive correlation with FC in O-GlcNAc glycosylation, and a negative correlation with FC in most omics. In contrast, the PCAS score of differential proteins from RA and OA, as well as OA and NC, exhibited a positive correlation with FC in the majority of omics (Figure 5G). Differential analysis of various omics also showed that differential entries from WCP and PTMs, particularly in phosphorylation, acetylation, and succinylation, were more strongly associated with higher PCAS score, while transcriptomic showed the opposite trend (Figure 5H). The top 25% of differential genes by PCAS score between the RA and NC groups exhibited significantly more percent of differential entries compared to differential genes in the other quartiles (Figure 5I). Except for transcriptomics and malonylation, the differential entries in all other omics are primarily distributed among genes with high PCAS scores (Figure S8B). In summary, the PCAS score was derived from an integrative analysis of multiple omics and multiple interaction type.

We further selected the top 20 genes by PCAS score from the differential genes from RA vs NC group, RA vs OA group, and OA vs NC group (Figure 5J, Figure S8C). Taking the RA vs NC group as an example, these genes did not overlap with the top 10 genes identified in single-omics differential analysis between the RA and NC group. Among these genes, we observed that PRKAR2B, PNPLA2, and LIPE exhibited downregulation across transcription, protein, and phosphorylation. PLIN1 showed consistent downregulation in transcription, protein, phosphorylation, and succinylation levels. LDB3 demonstrated downregulation in transcription, protein, and arginine monomethylation, whereas MZB1 and JCHAIN showed upregulation in transcription, protein, and succinylation. CRIP2 exhibited downregulation across protein, lysine trimethylation and acetylation. Remarkably, the directional changes in the transcriptional, protein, and PTMs of these genes were consistent. Additionally, ITIH3 showed downregulation in transcription and upregulation in both protein and succinylation levels, while STK17B

displayed no changes in transcription or protein levels, but exhibited increased phosphorylation at S10 and S12 (Figure 5J).

We selected 5 genes with the highest absolute values of FC in each omics from top 25% differential genes based on PCAS score (Figure 5K, Figure S8D). we found genes from RA vs NC group that the intensity of several PTMs such as lactylation, succinylation, malonylation, and lysine trimethylation were generally lower in RA than NC and OA. In contrast, O-GlcNAc glycosylation exhibited the opposite trend. These differential genes may serve as potential biomarkers for RA (Figure 5K).

The calculation of the PCAS score takes into account changes in four key dimensions: self-regulation, upstream regulation, downstream regulation, and molecular interactions. Additionally, it incorporates alterations across four levels of biological data: RNA, WCP, PTM, and metabolism. We present diagrams illustrating the upstream and downstream relationships of top genes based PCAS score of RA vs NC, such as STK17B, PLIN1, LDB3, ITIH3, RGCC, and ADH1C (Figure 5L, Figure S9). For instance, changes in the phosphorylation of STK17B lead to downstream alterations in RPS6KB1 phosphorylation, while also interacting with multiple molecules, including TPM2, IGHM, and ATXN2L, all of which undergo various changes of PTMs. Clearly, STK17B undergoes multiple regulatory changes at the molecular, downstream, and interaction levels, which contributes to its high PCAS score. This analysis highlights the ability of the PCAS analysis method to identify genes with significant regulatory impact (Figure 5L).

RA synovium exhibits tumor-like characteristic

We grouped the top 25% genes based on PCAS score from RA vs NC into several modules according to the interactions among these genes. Modules 1 and 2 were predominantly composed of genes involved in PTM interactions, while Modules 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 were enriched in genes associated with transcription factor (TF) interactions (Figure 6A, Figure S10A). We then conducted GO/KEGG pathway analyses for the quartile genes based on PCAS score from differential comparison (Figure 6B, Figure S10B). RA synovium was enriched in immune-related and adhesion-related pathways, in line with the results of the previous individual enrichment analyses of each omics. Notably, RA also displayed enrichment in pathways such as integrin-mediated signaling, SH2 domain binding, and pyruvate metabolism, which were not typically observed in conventional enrichment analyses (Figure

6B, Figure 4A). Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) further confirmed RA
enrichment in previously identified pathways, such as kinase activity, focal
adhesion, and fatty acid metabolism(Wu et al., 2020). In addition, novel
pathways, including epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT),
VEGFA-VEGFR2 signaling, RAS signaling, and MYC targets v1, were
enriched in RA, indicating new areas of relevance for the disease (Figure 6C).
Moreover, compared to OA, RA displayed significant enrichment in the "PD-L1
expression and PD-1 checkpoint pathway in cancer" pathway (Figure S10B).

Interestingly, we found that most genes in the epithelial-mesenchymal
transition, RAS signaling, VEGFA-VEGFR2 signaling, fatty acid metabolism,
MYC targets v1, integrin-mediated signaling, and pyruvate metabolism
pathways were enriched among the top 25% of genes based on PCAS score
in RA vs NC (Figure 6D, Figure S11A). The integrin signaling pathway, which
plays a critical role in signal transduction, angiogenesis, inflammation, and
tumorigenesis(Cooper and Giancotti, 2019), and MYC, which can modulate
the tumor microenvironment, immune checkpoints, and cytokine secretion to
promote tumorigenesis(Jung et al., 2017), are both highly relevant to RA.
Given that RA is an immune-driven disease with invasive characteristics and
that synovial angiogenesis is active, the enrichment of cancer-related
pathways in RA synovium suggests that RA shares tumor-like features.

Finally, by integrating the genes from the seven identified modules with the
enriched pathways, we found that the genes in module 2 had the highest
proportion belonging to important pathways such as immune response
activation, cell-substrate junctions, and RAS signaling, suggesting that module
2 plays a relatively more important role in RA (Figure 6E). Several top genes
based on PCAS score, including STK17B and PTPN22, are also in Module 2,
and their molecular interactions primarily involve PTMs and protein-protein
interactions (Figure 6F). Modules 5 and 6, in contrast, are predominantly
involved in epithelial-mesenchymal transition and SH2 domain binding (Figure
S11B).

Clinical and applied investigations of PCAS analysis outcomes

We conducted an analysis of the top 20 genes based on PCAS score in RA vs
NC, and explored their correlations with clinical indicators (Figure 7A). Our
findings revealed that the phosphorylation level of STK17B at S12 was
positively correlated with erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) and C-reactive
protein (CRP) (Figure 7B). Additionally, we performed the same analysis on

the most functionally important genes in Figure 6F and found relationships
between these genes and clinical indicators, as well. For example, the
phosphorylation level of MATR3 at S157 showed a positive correlation with
rheumatoid factor and ESR (Figure 7C, Figure 7D). We searched the DGIdb
database for FDA-approved drugs and found that the number of
FDA-approved drugs targeting the differential genes of RA vs NC decreased
progressively across quartiles (from 0-25% to 75%-100%) of the PCAS score
(Figure 7E). Besides, we examined the top 20 genes based on PCAS score of
RA vs NC, along with genes in Figure 6F, for FDA-approved drugs across the
DrugBank, DGIdb, and DSigDB databases (Supplemental Table 2). Notably,
several genes within the top 10, including CRIP2, LIPE, PLIN1, PRKG1, and
STK17B, had existing targeted drugs.

We also assessed the correlation between differential PTMs of these top 20
genes based PCAS score of RA vs NC and their known associations with
diseases across OncoKB (Supplemental Table 3). PLIN1 showed high
expression in various malignancies. PLIN1 phosphorylation was found to be
associated with melanoma and lung adenocarcinoma. Similarly, RGCC
phosphorylation was linked to colorectal cancer, while PNPLA2
phosphorylation was associated with neutral lipid storage myopathy. Next, we
analyzed the differential PTMs of the top 20 genes based PCAS score of RA
vs NC, as well as those in Figure 6F, and examined their effects on protein
functional activity (Supplementary Materials 6). A total of 129 differential PTM
sites were identified, 14 of which were associated with known alterations in
protein activity. These were categorized into 14 functional processes, 9
biological processes, and 8 protein interactions (Figure 7F).

To further explore the connection between RA and cancer, we analyzed the
expression of cancer-related genes within the top 30 genes based PCAS score
of each comparison. Notably, we found that the transcription and
phosphorylation levels of the oncogene AR were lower in RA compared to NC,
whereas RA showed higher phosphorylation of the oncogenes CNBP and FES.
Additionally, ETV6 and MSH6, both tumor suppressor genes, exhibited
increased phosphorylation in RA compared to NC. The acetylation levels of
NBN and NSD3 were also higher in RA than in OA. On the other hand, the
phosphorylation levels of PRKCB and TEC, both cancer-related genes, were
lower in RA compared to NC, while SKI exhibited higher phosphorylation levels
than in the other two groups (Figure 7G).

Through PCAS analysis, we constructed a super-omics landscape,

representing the primary genes and crucial pathways involved in the
pathogenesis of RA. This landscape not only elucidates the interrelationships
between genes, pathways, and their upstream and downstream interactions,
but also highlights the potential targeted drugs for each molecular entity,
providing a molecular blueprint for future RA research (Figure 8).

DISCUSSION

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a systemic autoimmune disorder primarily
affecting the synovial joints(Radu and Bungau, 2021) It is also classified as an
immune-mediated inflammatory disease. The immunopathogenesis of RA
spans several decades, beginning with the production of autoantibodies
against post-translationally modified proteins. Over the years, this leads to
asymptomatic autoimmunity and progressive immune system remodeling,
eventually resulting in the transformation of fibroblast-like synoviocytes (FLS)
from benign mesenchymal cells to aggressive, tumor-like cells capable of
tissue destruction and invasion(Weyand and Goronzy, 2021). Despite
extensive research, the mechanisms by which these cells acquire their
pathogenic state remain incompletely understood. Current therapeutic targets
for RA include biologic and targeted synthetic DMARDs (b/tsDMARDs), which
act on signaling molecules and adaptive immune system components (e.g.,
TNF-α, IL-6 inhibitors)(Brown et al., 2024). Although early inflammation control
improves patient outcomes, a significant proportion of patients do not achieve
adequate therapeutic goals despite initiating csDMARDs or b/tsDMARDs.
Furthermore, some patients, although in remission, face difficulties when
tapering their medications. As personalized cancer therapies continue to
evolve, RA precision medicine has lagged behind, and no reliable biomarkers
have been established for clinical use(Brown et al., 2024). Given the limited
understanding of RA's molecular mechanisms and the paucity of effective
treatments, more in-depth research into its underlying pathogenesis is crucial.

In recent years, various omics techniques, particularly the emergence of
various post-translational modification (PTM) omics, have provided powerful
methods for generating comprehensive molecular profiles of cells and tissues.
These approaches offer significant potential for investigating disease
mechanisms. However, in RA, systematic multi-omics studies remain scarce,
with existing studies often lacking diversity, particularly in the range of PTMs
explored. To address this gap, we introduced the concept of super-omics and
developed the PCAS method for processing super-omics data. Using these
approaches, we conducted a thorough analysis of RA synovial tissue and

discovered that RA shares characteristics with tumor-like diseases. We have
identified certain genes, such as STK17B, that may play a significant role in
the occurrence and development of RA.

Multi-omics refers to the integration of two or more omics, such as genomics,
transcriptomics, and proteomics, to conduct comprehensive investigations.
The primary goal is to identify composite biomarkers by correlating and deeply
integrating data across multiple omic layers. Super-omics, however, extends
this approach by integrating over ten different omics, with protein serving as
the focal point. In contrast to traditional multi-omics studies, super-omics
incorporates at least three omic layers, making it a more robust approach for
understanding disease biology.

Traditional multi-omics analyses typically rely on differential analysis at the
single omic level, followed by statistical correlation and pathway analysis.
However, these methods often integrate only 2-3 omic datasets at a time,
which limits their ability to capture the full complexity of disease mechanisms.
In contrast, PCAS enables the simultaneous integration a dozen of omic data
types, consolidating the findings across different omic layers, identifying key
molecular alterations, and providing the regulatory relationships between key
molecules. By assigning a PCAS score to each differential protein, we can
efficiently prioritize the most significant molecules for further investigation.

Our PCAS analysis revealed several novel findings, particularly regarding
cancer-associated pathways that had not been previously highlighted in
conventional immune-related analyses. These included the integrin-mediated
signaling pathway, VEGFA-VEGFR2 signaling, RAS signaling, MYC targets v1,
and SH2 domain binding. These pathways were largely enriched in the top
quartile of genes based PCAS score, suggesting their critical importance in RA
pathogenesis. Moreover, multiple cancer-related genes within the top 30
genes based PCAS score showed significant changes in phosphorylation and
acetylation levels in RA, further supporting the hypothesis that RA may
resemble a tumor-like disease.

Our findings underscore the invasive characteristics of RA synovial tissue,
which exhibits elevated angiogenesis and infiltration, forming pannus that
eventually invades joint cartilage and bone(Paleolog, 2002). Chronic
inflammation is a hallmark of RA and is also considered a risk factor for
malignancies. A recent large-scale real-world study(Wang et al., 2023)
confirmed that RA patients have a higher risk of lymphoma and lung cancer,

further suggesting the tumor-like nature of RA.

In conclusion, we have developed and introduced the super-omics approach,
which provides a comprehensive molecular blueprint of RA pathogenesis,
paving the way for identifying the key genes and pathways involved. While the
methodology is still in its infancy, it holds great promise as a robust framework
for more integrated and impactful studies of life sciences research. As the
saying goes, 'Don't miss the big picture while chasing the details'—in the
intricate web of molecular mechanisms, focusing on key molecules and their
interactions rather than haphazardly dissecting individual functions is vital for
advancing RA research. The super-omics landscape presented here plants the
seeds for future breakthroughs, offering fertile ground for innovative studies
and therapeutic interventions targeting RA.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, X.O., L.W., F.J.; methodology, S.J., Q.M., M.Z., Z.S., F.J.;
validation, L.X., S.J., Q.H.; formal analysis, N.A., D.C., J.Z., L.S., D.Z., J.Y.,
F.J.; data curation, L.X., N.A., F.Z., F.J.; investigation, W.C., J.X., D.Z., Y.L.,
J.W., J.Z., D.X., J.L., Y.C., Y.H.; writing – original draft, L.X., N.A., S.J., X.O.;
writing – review & editing, all authors; supervision, Z.S., L.W., J.L., F.J.; project
administration, L.X., N.A., X.O., J.L., F.J.; funding acquisition, J.Z., Z.S., J.L.,
F.J.;

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Biological samples		
Tissue samples	This paper	N/A
Chemicals		
Urea	Sigma	U5378
sodium chloride	Aladdin	C111535
protease inhibitor	Sangon	C600387
0.5M EDTA	Beyotime	ST063
Phosphatase inhibitor	Beyotime	P1081
Deacetylase inhibitor	Beyotime	P1113
PR-619	MCE	HY-13814
PUGNAc	Aladdin	P275897
DTT	Sigma	43816
CAA	Aladdin	C106072
Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)	Beyotime	ST780
Tris-HCl (pH 10.0)	Sangon	B548129
Tyrisin	Beierli	BELT001
TFA	Thermo	85183
ACN	Sigma	34851
Water	Aladdin	W433894
Triethylammonium acetate	Aladdin	T345383
Ethanolamine	Sigma	398136
DMP	Sigma	D8388
Hydroxylamine	Sigma	467804
TEAB	Aladdin	T331003
ammonium hydroxide	Sigma	5438300100
ammonium bicarbonate	Sigma	A6141
Formic acid	Thermo	28905
Critical commercial assays		
TMTpro 18-plex	Thermo	A52047
Fe-NTA Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit	Thermo	A32992

PTMScan Acetyl-Lysine Motif [Ac-K] Kit	CST	13416
PTMScan O-GlcNAc [GlcNAc-S/T] Motif Kit	CST	95220
PTMScan Mono-Methyl Arginine Motif [mme-RG] Kit	CST	12235
PTMScan Pan-Methyl Lysine Kit	CST	14809
PTMScan Glutaryl-Lysine [Glut-K] Kit	CST	26101
PTMScan Malonyl-Lysine [Mal-K] Kit	CST	93872
PTMScan Succinyl-Lysine Motif [Succ-K] Kit	CST	13764
PTMScan Nitro-Tyrosine Motif [Nitro-Y] Kit	CST	44462
Anti-L-lactyllysine kit	Micron Bio	WM102
Deposited data		
DrugBank	(Knox et al., 2011)	https://go.drugbank.com/
DGIdb	(Cannon et al., 2024)	https://dgidb.org/
DSigDB	(Yoo et al., 2015)	https://dsigdb.tanlab.org
PTMD	(Xu et al., 2018)	https://ptmd.biocuckoo.cn/
hTFtarget	(Zhang et al., 2020)	https://guolab.wchscu.cn
iPTMnet	(Huang et al., 2018)	https://research.bioinformatics.udel.edu/iptmnet/
UbiBrowser	(Wang et al., 2022)	http://ubibrowser.bio-it.cn/ubibrowser_v3/

DEPOD	(Damle and Köhn, 2019)	https://depod.bioss.uni-freiburg.de/
UbiNet	(Li et al., 2021)	https://awi.cuhk.edu.cn/~ubinet
Phospho.ELM	(Diella et al., 2008)	http://phospho.elm.eu.org/
PhosphoSitePlus	(Hornbeck et al., 2015)	https://www.phosphosite.org/
KEGG	(Kanehisa et al., 2021)	https://www.genome.jp/kegg/
BioGRID	(Oughtred et al., 2021)	https://thebiogrid.org/
UniprotKB	(Consortium, 2025)	https://www.uniprot.org/
Enzyme and substrate dataset	This paper	N/A
Software and algorithms		
R v4.3.0	R Development Core Team	https://www.r-project.org/
MaxQuant v2.6.2.0	(Cox and Mann, 2008)	http://maxquant.org/
PCAS algorithms	This paper	N/A
Other		
Sep-Pak C18 1 cc Vac Cartridge	waters	WAT023590
Empore C18 diaphragm	3M	98060402181

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Requests for additional information, resources, and reagents should be addressed to the lead contact, Feiyang Ji (feiyangji@zju.edu.cn).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability

Raw proteomic data files and processed proteomic datasets have been deposited in the ProteomeXchange Consortium (https://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org) via the iProX partner repository (dataset identifier: PXD059446)(Chen et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2019). The raw and processed transcriptomic data have been submitted to the GEO database (dataset identifier: GSE285865)(Clough and Barrett, 2016). Raw and processed metabolomic data are available in the MetaboLights database (dataset identifier: MTBLS11642)(Kale et al., 2016). All other data can be obtained upon request from the lead contact.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Human Subjects

6 RA patients, 6 OA patients and 6 patients with meniscus injuries (NC patients) were included in this study. RA were diagnosed according to the 1987 American College of Rheumatology criteria for and knee OA were diagnosed according to American College of Rheumatology criteria, respectively.   The detailed clinical information of all Subjects is presented in supplemental Table S1. Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the First Affiliated Hospital, Zhejiang University School of Medicine, and informed consent was obtained from all participants included in this prospective study.

METHOD DETAILS

Specimen Acquisition

All synovial tissues were obtained from the knee joints of 18 patients who underwent knee replacement surgery and arthroscopic surgery at the First Affiliated Hospital of Zhejiang University School of Medicine. To avoid RNA and protein degradation, all synovial tissues were obtained within 30 minutes after surgery. After washed twice with cold PBS, synovial tissue was immediately freeze in liquid nitrogen after then stored at -80 °C until use.

16S Sequencing

DNA Extraction and Amplification

Synovial tissue samples were promptly snap-frozen and stored at –80°C following collection. DNA was extracted from the tissues using the MagPure Soil DNA LQ Kit (Qiagen, Guangzhou, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA concentration was determined with a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and DNA

694 integrity was assessed via agarose gel electrophoresis. The V3-V4 regions of
695 the bacterial 16S rRNA gene were amplified in a 25 μL reaction mixture using
696 universal primers (343F: 5′-TACGGRAGGCAGCAG-3′ and 798R:
697 5′-AGGGTATCTAATCCT-3′). The reverse primer contained a sample barcode,
698 and both primers were tagged with Illumina sequencing adapters.

Library Construction and Sequencing

Amplified products were analyzed by gel electrophoresis to confirm successful
amplification. PCR products were then purified using Agencourt AMPure XP
beads (Beckman Coulter, USA) and quantified with the Qubit dsDNA Assay Kit
(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Concentrations were
normalized for sequencing. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina
NovaSeq 6000 platform, employing paired-end sequencing with 250-base
cycles (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA; OE Biotech Co., Shanghai, China).

Bioinformatics Analysis

The raw sequencing data were obtained in FASTQ format. Adapter sequences
were trimmed from paired-end reads using Cutadapt software. Following
trimming, reads underwent quality filtering, denoising, merging, and chimera
removal using DADA2(Callahan et al., 2016), with default parameters in
QIIME2(Bolyen et al., 2019). This process generated representative reads and
an Amplicon Sequence Variant (ASV) abundance table. Representative reads
for each ASV were selected in QIIME2 and annotated by aligning to the Silva
database (Version 138) using the q2-feature-classifier, with default settings.
For ITS data, the UNITE database was used for annotation. All 16S rRNA gene
amplicon sequencing and subsequent data analysis were carried out by OE
Biotech Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China).

RNA Sequencing

RNA Isolation and Library Preparation

Total RNA was extracted from tissue samples using the RNeasy Lipid Tissue
Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol. RNA
purity and concentration were assessed with a NanoDrop 2000
spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), while RNA integrity was
evaluated using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa
Clara, CA, USA). RNA-seq library construction was performed using the
VAHTS Universal V6 RNA-seq Library Prep Kit as per the manufacturer's
instructions. RNA sequencing and analysis were conducted by OE Biotech Co.,

Ltd. (Shanghai, China).

RNA Sequencing, Quantification, and Normalization

Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform, generating
paired-end reads of 150 bp. Approximately 47 million raw reads were
generated per sample. Raw reads in FASTQ format were processed using
Fastp(Chen et al., 2018) to remove low-quality reads, resulting in
approximately 46 million clean reads per sample. Clean reads were then
aligned to the reference genome using HISAT2(Kim et al., 2015). Gene
expression was quantified in fragments per kilobase of transcript per million
mapped reads (FPKM)(Roberts et al., 2011), and read counts for each gene
were determined using HTSeq-count(Anders et al., 2015).

Non-targeted metabolomics

Sample Preparation

Thirty milligrams of the sample were accurately weighed and transferred into a
1.5 mL Eppendorf tube. To this, two small steel beads were added, followed by
400 µL of a methanol-water solution (4:1, v/v) containing a mixed internal
standard at a concentration of 4 µg/mL. The mixture was pre-chilled at -40°C
for 2 minutes, then homogenized using a bead mill at 60 Hz for 2 minutes.
Ultrasonic extraction was performed in an ice-water bath for 10 minutes, after
which the sample was incubated at -40°C for 2 hours. The sample was then
centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4°C. A 150 µL aliquot of the
supernatant was carefully transferred into an LC vial using a syringe and
stored at -80°C until analysis by LC-MS. Quality control (QC) samples were
prepared by pooling equal volumes of extract from all samples. All reagents
were pre-chilled at -20°C before use.

LC-MS/MS Analysis

Metabolomic analysis was carried out by Shanghai Luming Biological
Technology Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China) using an ACQUITY UPLC I-Class Plus
system (Waters Corporation, Milford, USA) coupled with a Q-Exactive mass
spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), equipped with a
heated electrospray ionization (ESI) source. Both ESI positive and negative
ion modes were employed for metabolic profiling. Chromatographic separation
was achieved using an ACQUITY UPLC HSS T3 column (1.8 µm, 2.1 × 100
mm) in both modes. The mobile phase consisted of (A) water with 0.1% formic
acid (v/v) and (B) acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid (v/v). The gradient elution

program was as follows: 0 min, 5% B; 2 min, 5% B; 4 min, 30% B; 8 min, 50%

B; 10 min, 80% B; 14 min, 100% B; 15 min, 100% B; 15.1 min, 5% B; 16 min, 5%

B. The flow rate was 0.35 mL/min, and the column temperature was

maintained at 45°C. The injection volume was 3 μL. Mass spectrometric

detection was performed over a range of m/z 70 to 1,050 with a resolution of

70,000 for full MS scans and 17,500 for HCD MS/MS scans. Collision energies

were set at 10, 20, and 40 eV. The mass spectrometer parameters were as

follows: spray voltage, 3800 V (+) and 3000 V (−); sheath gas flow rate, 35

arbitrary units; auxiliary gas flow rate, 8 arbitrary units; capillary temperature,

320°C; aux gas heater temperature, 350°C; S-lens RF level, 50.

Data Preprocessing and Statistical Analysis

LC-MS data were processed using Progenesis QI V2.3 software (Nonlinear

Dynamics, Newcastle, UK) for baseline correction, peak detection, integration,

retention time alignment, and normalization. Parameters included a 5 ppm

precursor mass tolerance, 10 ppm product mass tolerance, and a 5% product

ion threshold. Compound identification was based on accurate mass-to-charge

ratios (m/z), fragmentation patterns, and isotopic distributions, referencing

databases such as the Human Metabolome Database (HMDB), Lipidmaps

(V2.3), Metlin, and in-house databases. Missing values (>50% of data points

missing per group) were imputed by replacing them with half of the minimum

detected value. Inaccurate compound identifications (scores <36 out of 60)

were excluded. The resulting data matrix was constructed from both positive

and negative ion mode data.

Orthogonal Partial Least-Squares Discriminant Analysis (OPLS-DA) was

applied to identify metabolites distinguishing the groups. To assess model

reliability, 7-fold cross-validation and 200 permutations (Response

Permutation Testing, RPT) were performed. Variable Importance in Projection

(VIP) scores from the OPLS-DA model were used to prioritize metabolites

contributing to group separation. Statistical significance of differences between

groups was evaluated using a two-tailed Student's t-test. Differential

metabolites were selected with VIP scores >1.0 and p-values <0.05.

Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)
proteomics

Sample Preparation

Twenty milligrams of joint synovial tissue was homogenized in liquid nitrogen

and resuspended in 200 μL of 4°C lysis buffer (8 M urea, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH

8.0, 75 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM DTT, 1 mM EDTA, 1× protease inhibitor cocktail, 1×

phosphatase inhibitor cocktail, 1× acetylation inhibitor cocktail, 20 μM

PUGNAc). The sample was sonicated in an ice-water bath for 4 min, followed

by a 2 min resting period, repeating the cycle three times. The lysate was then

centrifuged at 15,000 × g for 20 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was collected.

Protein concentration was determined using the BCA assay. DTT was added

to the supernatant to a final concentration of 5 mM and incubated at 30°C for

30 min. After cooling to room temperature, CAA was added to a final

concentration of 15 mM, and the sample was incubated at 25°C for 30 min in

the dark. Based on the protein concentration, 1 mg of protein from each

sample was mixed with 3 volumes of 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). Porcine trypsin

was added at a 1:50 (w/w) protein-to-enzyme ratio, and the digestion was

performed at 25°C for 12 hours with agitation at 200 rpm. TFA was added to

the digestion mixture to a final concentration of 0.5%, and the sample was

incubated on ice for 10 min. The mixture was then centrifuged at 1500 × g for

10 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was collected. Peptides were desalted

using a C18 column, which was washed sequentially with two volumes of

acetonitrile (ACN) and three volumes of 0.1% TFA. After acidification, the

peptides were passed through the column and wash three times with 0.1%

TFA. Finally, peptides were eluted with 50% ACN containing 0.1% TFA and

dried under vacuum.

Tandem mass tag (TMT) labeling of peptides

The dried peptides were dissolved in 100 μL of 50 mM TEAB

(triethylammonium bicarbonate buffer). To prepare the TMT labeling reagent,

40 μL of acetonitrile (ACN) was added to 0.5 mg of the TMT reagent, followed

by vortexing and incubation. The dissolved peptides were then transferred to

TMT labeling tubes and incubated at room temperature for 1.5 hours. After

incubation, 10 μL of 5% hydroxylamine was added to quench the reaction, and

the mixture was incubated at room temperature for an additional 15 min. The

labeled samples were pooled and dried by vacuum centrifugation. The dried

peptides were reconstituted in 2 mL of 0.1% TFA and desalted using a C18

column. After desalting, the peptides were dried again by vacuum

centrifugation.

Offline bRP fractionation

TMT-labeled peptides were fractionated using an Agilent 1260

chromatography system with solvent A consisting of pure water containing 0.1% triethylamine and solvent B containing acetonitrile with 0.1% triethylamine. The flow rate was set to 0.5 mL/min. Prior to loading the sample, the column was equilibrated for 30 min with the following gradient: 90% solvent B for 10 min, 50% solvent B for 5 min, and 2% solvent B for 15 min. The sample was dissolved in solvent A to a final peptide concentration of 20 mg/mL, followed by centrifugation at 15,000 × g for 5 min at room temperature, and the supernatant was collected for analysis. Fractions were collected every minute, yielding a total of 70 fractions. The liquid chromatography gradient was as follows: 0 min at 2% solvent B, 5 min at 12% solvent B, 54 min at 30% solvent B, 57 min at 36% solvent B, 60 min at 51% solvent B, 65 min at 90% solvent B, and 75 min at 90% solvent B. After collection, the fractions were dried and combined into 10 intervals. One percent of the total peptide was set aside for standard proteomics analysis, while the remaining fractions were used for proteomics analysis focused on post-translational modifications.

Phosphopeptide enrichment

The peptides were dissolved in 200 μL of Binding/Wash Buffer (80% acetonitrile with 0.1% TFA) and centrifuged at 15,000 × g for 10 min at room temperature to collect the supernatant. The inner tube of the kit was trimmed at the bottom and placed in a 1.5 mL EP tube, followed by centrifugation at 1000 × g for 30 s at room temperature to discard the filtrate. Next, 300 μL of Binding/Wash Buffer was added to the inner tube, and the centrifugation was repeated at 1000 × g for 30 s to discard the filtrate. This step was repeated once. Afterward, a rubber filter was inserted into the bottom of the inner tube, and the peptide supernatant was added. The top cap was placed on the tube, and the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 30 min, with gentle tapping every 10 min. After removing the rubber filter, the top cap was loosened, and the inner tube was centrifuged at 1000 × g for 30 s at room temperature to collect the filtrate. Binding/Wash Buffer (300 μL) was added to the inner tube, and centrifugation was performed again at 1000 × g for 30 s to discard the filtrate, repeating the step twice. Next, 300 μL of mass spectrometry-grade water was added to the inner tube, followed by centrifugation at 1000 × g for 30 s to discard the filtrate. Finally, the inner tube was transferred to a new 1.5 mL EP tube, and 100 μL of Elution Buffer (5% ammonia solution) was added. The tube was centrifuged at 1000 × g for 30 s to collect the eluate. The elution step was repeated, and both eluates were combined and dried under vacuum.

Antibody-based PTM peptide enrichment

To prepare antibody-conjugated beads for the enrichment of post-translationally modified peptides, protein A/G beads were covalently coupled with antibodies. First, the antibody-bound protein A/G beads were centrifuged at 2000 × g for 30 s at 4°C, and the supernatant was discarded. The beads were then washed three times with 1 mL of pre-chilled antibody cross-linking wash buffer (100 mM sodium borate, pH 9.0). Afterward, 1 mL of antibody cross-linking buffer (20 mM DMP in antibody cross-linking wash buffer) was added, and the mixture was incubated on a 3D shaker at room temperature for 30 min. The beads were then centrifuged to remove the supernatant. The beads were blocked by washing twice with 1 mL of pre-chilled antibody blocking buffer (200 mM ethanolamine, pH 8.0), followed by resuspension in 1 mL of antibody blocking buffer and incubation on a 3D shaker at 4°C for 2 hours. The supernatant was discarded after centrifugation. The beads were then washed three times with 1 mL of pre-chilled IAP buffer (50 mM MOPS/NaOH, pH 7.2, 10 mM Na_2HPO_4, 50 mM NaCl) and stored at 4°C for short-term use. For peptide loading, dried peptides were dissolved in pre-chilled IAP buffer, vortexed, and sonicated. After centrifugation at 15,000 × g for 5 min at 4°C, the supernatant was collected and added to the antibody-conjugated beads. The mixture was incubated on a 3D shaker at 4°C for 2 hours. After centrifugation at 2000 × g for 30 s at 4°C, the supernatant was retained, and the beads were washed five times by adding 0.5 mL of pre-chilled IAP buffer, mixing by inversion, and centrifuging at 2000 × g for 30 s at 4°C. The beads were washed once more with 0.5 mL of pre-chilled mass spectrometry-grade water, following the same centrifugation steps. The beads were then incubated with 50 µL of 0.15% TFA at room temperature on a 3D shaker for 10 min, followed by centrifugation at 2000 × g for 30 s at room temperature to collect the supernatant. This step was repeated, and the supernatants were pooled into a single 1.5 mL EP tube. The collected supernatant was desalted using homemade C18 cartridges and then vacuum-dried.

Glycosylated peptide enrichment

The peptides were dissolved in a solution of 95% acetonitrile (ACN) and 1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), and centrifuged at 15,000 × g for 5 min at room temperature to collect the supernatant. The MAX column was equilibrated by washing sequentially with 1 mL of ACN (three times), 1 mL of 100 mM triethylammonium acetate buffer (three times), 1 mL of mass

spectrometry-grade water (three times), and 1 mL of 95% ACN + 1% TFA

solution (three times). The peptide solution was then loaded onto the

equilibrated column, and the process was repeated once. After loading the

peptides, the column was washed with 0.5 mL of 95% ACN + 1% TFA once,

followed by five washes with 1 mL of 95% ACN + 1% TFA. Finally, the

glycosylated peptides were eluted with 500 µL of 50% ACN + 0.1% TFA, and

the eluate was vacuum-dried.

LC-MS/MS analysis

For general proteomics, TMT-labeled peptide samples, prepared after offline

bRP fractionation, were desalted, subjected to vacuum evaporation, and then

resuspended in 2% ACN and 0.1% formic acid (FA). LC-MS/MS analysis was

performed using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Orbitrap Exploris 480 mass

spectrometer coupled with an UltiMate NCS-3500RSC system. Gradient

elution was carried out at a flow rate of 450 nL/min over 120 minutes. The

solvent gradient composition was as follows: 3%-8% solvent B from 0 to 3

minutes, 8%-26% solvent B from 4 to 90 minutes, 26%-38% solvent B from 91

to 110 minutes, 38%-80% solvent B from 111 to 115 minutes, and 80% solvent

B from 116 to 120 minutes. MS spectra were acquired at a resolution of 60,000

over a mass range of 400–1200 m/z, with a normalized automatic gain control

(AGC) target of 300%. MS2 spectra were collected at a resolution of 15,000,

using Turbo TMT and higher-energy collision-induced dissociation (HCD) with

a collision energy of 35%. The isolation window was set to 1.6 m/z, and the

dynamic exclusion time was 30 seconds.

For phosphoproteomics, the solvent gradient was as follows: 2%-5% solvent B

from 0 to 5 minutes, 5%-22% solvent B from 6 to 90 minutes, 22%-35%

solvent B from 91 to 110 minutes, 35%-80% solvent B from 111 to 116 minutes,

and 80% solvent B from 117 to 120 minutes. The MS spectra were acquired

with a resolution of 60,000 over a mass range of 350–1400 m/z, using the

same AGC target (300%). MS2 spectra were obtained with a resolution of

15,000, Turbo TMT, and HCD at 35% collision energy, with an isolation window

of 1.6 m/z and a dynamic exclusion time of 20 seconds.

For other post-translational modifications (PTMs), the solvent gradient was:

6%-11% solvent B from 0 to 3 minutes, 11%-26% solvent B from 4 to 40

minutes, 26%-40% solvent B from 41 to 52 minutes, 40%-80% solvent B from

53 to 56 minutes, and 80% solvent B from 57 to 60 minutes. MS spectra were

recorded at a resolution of 60,000 in the mass range of 350–1400 m/z with a

300% AGC target. MS2 spectra were obtained at a resolution of 15,000, using
Turbo TMT and HCD at 35%, with a 1.6 m/z isolation window and a dynamic
exclusion time of 20 seconds.

Raw data processing

Protein identification and quantification were performed using MaxQuant,
except for complex glycosylation analysis. TMT18plex quantification was used
for the whole-cell proteome, acetylome, and phosphoproteome. The human
UniProtKB database was employed for searching, with automatic reverse
database and known contaminants as decoys. Carbamidomethylation of
cysteine was set as a fixed modification, while N-terminal acetylation and
methionine oxidation were considered variable modifications. For
phosphoproteomics, acetylomics, and other post-translational modification
analyses, additional variable modifications were included: phosphorylation
(79.966331), acetyl-Lysine (42.010565), O-GlcNAc (203.079373),
mono-methyl arginine (14.015650), pan-methyl lysine (14.015650; 28.031300;
42.046950), glutaryl-Lysine (114.031694), malonyl-Lysine (86.000394),
succinyl-Lysine (100.016044), nitro-Tyrosine (44.985078), and lactyl-Lysine
(72.021129). A maximum of five modifications per peptide was allowed, and
trypsin was used as the enzyme with up to two missed cleavages. Default
MaxQuant settings were used for all other parameters.

For complex glycosylation analysis (including N- and O-glycosylation), raw
data were processed using pGlyco and pQuant(Zeng et al., 2021) for
qualitative and quantitative analysis, respectively. pGlyco-N-Human and
Multi-Site-O-Glycan were used as glycan databases for N- and O-glycosylation,
with TMT18 quantification applied. Max missed cleavages were 2, maximum
variable modifications on peptides were 3, and precursor tolerance was 4 ppm.
Other settings were kept at the software defaults.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Normalization and differential analysis

Transcriptomic data: Sequencing data were quality-controlled, and genes
expressed in at least 80% of the samples were retained. Differential
expression analysis was performed on the filtered count matrix using the
DESeq2 package(Love et al., 2014). Genes with an absolute fold change ≥ 2
and an FDR < 0.05 were considered differentially expressed. p-values were
adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method.

Proteomic and PTM data: Raw data obtained from MaxQuant were cleaned by
removing reverse hits and data with localization probability < 0.75. Quantitative
data were log2-transformed and median-normalized before performing
differential analysis using the limma package(Ritchie et al., 2015). A absolute
fold change ≥ 1.5 and an FDR < 0.05 were applied to identify significantly
differentially expressed proteins.

Enrichment analysis

Gene Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG)
Enrichment Analysis: Differentially expressed genes were subjected to GO
and KEGG functional enrichment analysis using the clusterProfiler
package(Wu et al., 2021). This analysis assessed biological processes (BP),
molecular functions (MF), cellular components (CC), and signaling pathways
related to the genes. A p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA): Gene sets from the MSigDB
database(Liberzon, 2014), including Hallmark, GO, KEGG, Reactome, and
WikiPathways, were used for GSEA. ClusterProfiler was utilized to perform
GSEA based on gene fold change values or PCAS scores. A p-value < 0.05
was considered statistically significant.

PTM-SEA enrichment analysis

For phosphorylation modification data, PTM-Signature Enrichment Analysis
(PTM-SEA) was performed based on the PTMsigDB v2.0.0 database(Krug et
al., 2019). Using the ssGSEA 2.0 package(Barbie et al., 2009) , enrichment
analysis was conducted to obtain NES scores and p-values from 1000
permutation tests. The analysis identified phosphorylation modification-related
features, such as stress disturbances, kinase activities, signaling pathways,
and diseases. Differential analysis was used to filter features with a p-value <
0.05 as significantly enriched.

KSEA kinase activity analysis

Kinase-substrate enrichment analysis (KSEA) was performed on
phosphorylation data using the KSEAapp package(Wiredja et al., 2017) to
evaluate kinase activities associated with the identified phosphorylation sites.
Kinase-substrate relationships were obtained from the PhosphoSitePlus and
NetworKIN databases(Linding et al., 2007) .

Transcription factor activity analysis

Transcription factor-regulon interactions were retrieved from the CollecTRI
database(Müller-Dott et al., 2023). Transcription factors with at least five target
genes were selected. Transcription factor activity was evaluated using a
univariate linear model (ULM) based on the fold changes of the target genes.

Correlation analysis

Pearson correlation analysis was applied to assess the relationships between
samples, genes, or genes and clinical indicators. A p-value < 0.05 was
considered statistically significant, and the correlation coefficient (r) was
calculated to represent the strength of the association.

PCAS analysis

Integration of prior knowledge

Prior knowledge was integrated by compiling relationships from various
databases (hTFtarget, iPTMnet, UbiBrowser, DEPOD, UbiNet, Phospho.ELM,
PhosphoSitePlus, KEGG, BioGRID, and summarized from the published
literature (Supplementary materials 7)), including transcription factor-target
gene interactions (TF), enzyme-substrate interactions (ES),
enzyme-metabolite interactions (EM), and protein-protein interactions
(INTACT), to construct a prior knowledge table. Quantitative and differential
gene expression data from transcriptomics, proteomics, PTM, and
metabolomic were obtained. The deduplicated quantitative genes from
transcriptomics, proteomics, and PTM data were compiled into "GENE". The
deduplicated quantitative genes from transcriptomics and proteomics were
compiled into "EXP", while the deduplicated quantitative genes from
proteomics and PTM were compiled into "FUN". The genes with significant
changes were categorized as "GENE_R", "EXP_R", and "FUN_R",
respectively, forming the PCAS_ID table.

Using the PCAS_ID table and the integrated prior knowledge table, a
PCAS_knowledge table was generated, which was divided into the following
sub-tables:

TF Sub-table: Genes in the "GENE" category of PCAS_ID that are
transcription factors, and genes in the "EXP" category that are transcription
factor target genes.

ES Sub-table: Genes in the "GENE" category of PCAS_ID that are
post-translational modification enzymes, and genes in the "FUN" category that

are enzyme substrates.

EM Sub-table: Genes in the "GENE" category of PCAS_ID that correspond
to enzymes catalyzing metabolites.

INTACT Sub-table: Genes in the "GENE" category of PCAS_ID that are
part of protein-protein interactions.

Each sub-table contains a "regulated" column with values of "YES" or "NO",
indicating whether the corresponding gene is regulated (based on "GENE_R",
"EXP_R", or "FUN_R"). These sub-tables were merged into a comprehensive
PCAS_knowledge_use table, which includes columns for the upstream "gene",
downstream "target", "direction" (values of "YES" or "NO"), "type" (values of TF,
ES, EM, or INTACT), and "regulated" status (values of "YES" or "NO").
Duplicate values were removed, and the entries with overlapping relationships
between ES and INTACT were excluded.

Parameter settings

The following parameters were set based on balance principles:

Omics-level Balancing (BL):

$BL_{RNA} = 1$, $BL_{WCP} = 2$, $BL_{PTM} = 2$, $BL_{META} = 2$

Sequencing Depth (BD):

$BD_{RNA} = 1$, $BD_{WCP} = 1$, $BD_{PTM} = 1$, $BD_{META} = 1$

Differential Analysis Method (BA):

$BA_{RNA} = \sqrt{(All_{RNA} / Regulated_{RNA})}$, $BA_{WCP} = \sqrt{(All_{WCP} / Regulated_{WCP})}$, BA_{PTM}
$= \sqrt{(All_{PTM} / Regulated_{PTM})}$, $BA_{META} = \sqrt{(All_{META} / Regulated_{META})}$

The following enrichment principles were applied:

Protein Site Enrichment (ES):

$ES_{RNA} = 1$, $ES_{WCP} = 1$, $ES_{META} = 1$, $ES_{PTM} =$ (number of differential sites in
the protein / total detected sites in the protein) × (total differential proteins /
sum of differential sites in proteins)

Regulatory Mode (ER):

The number of differential molecules for a specific regulation type and
direction divided by the total detected molecules of that regulation type and
direction.

PCAS score calculation

The PCAS score was calculated in three tiers:

1. Omics-Level Score (Scoreomic):

$\quad$ $Score_{RNA} = BL_{RNA} \times BD_{RNA} \times BA_{RNA} \times ES_{RNA}$

$\quad$ $Score_{WCP} = BL_{WCP} \times BD_{WCP} \times BA_{WCP} \times ES_{WCP}$

$\quad$ $Score_{PTM} = BL_{PTM} \times BD_{PTM} \times BA_{PTM} \times ES_{PTM}$

$\quad$ $Score_{META} = BL_{META} \times BD_{META} \times BA_{META} \times ES_{META}$

2. Regulation type Score (Scoreregulation):

$\quad$ $Score_{TF}$, $Score_{ES}$, $Score_{EM}$, and $Score_{INTACT}$ were calculated for each
regulatory type.

3. Directionality Score (Scoredirection):

$\quad$ $Score_{up}$, $Score_{down}$, $Score_{self}$, and $Score_{intact}$ were calculated.

The individual scores were computed as follows:

$\quad$ $PACS\ score = Score_{self} + Score_{up} + Score_{down} + Score_{intact}$

$\quad$ $Score_{self} = Score_{RNA} + Score_{WCP} + Score_{PTM}$

$\quad$ $Score_{up} = ER_{TF} \times Score_{self} + ER_{ES} \times Score_{self}$

$\quad$ $Score_{down} = ER_{TF} \times Score_{TF} + ER_{ES} \times Score_{ES} + ER_{EM} \times Score_{EM}$

$\quad$ $Score_{intact} = ER_{INTACT} \times Score_{INTACT}$

For cases where the upstream and downstream genes are the same, an
additional coefficient of r = 0.5 was applied. The resulting PCAS scores were
sorted in descending order to generate the PCAS score table. The top 25% of
proteins based on PCAS score were selected, and clustering was performed
using the igraph package. The clustering results were added to the PCAS
score table in the "Cluster" column.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Super-omics and PCAS analytical model

In this analogy, omics can be compared to a fishing rod, and the changes occurring during a biological process are akin to the fish in a pool. The central principle is that changes at different biological levels are represented by fish residing in different layers of the pool. Conventional multi-omics research involves fewer fishing rods and fewer water layers, while super-omics research involves a greater number of rods and more water layers. The PCAS analysis is likened to inferring the number of fish in a pool by examining the parent-child relationships across various fish colors.

Figure 2. Super-omics analysis of RA synovial tissues

(A) Study workflow and the number of identifications across various omics platforms. RA, rheumatoid arthritis. OA, Osteoarthritis; NC, normal control; TMT, Tandem Mass Tag; LC-MS, Liquid Chromatograph Mass Spectrometer; mRNA, transcriptomics; WCP, proteomics; Meta, metabolomics; ASV, microbiomics; P, phosphorylation, Ac, acetylation; Lac, lactylation; Oglc, O-GlcNAc glycosylation; Rmme, arginine monomethylation; Pmm, lysine monomethylation; Pmd, lysine dimethylation; Pmt, lysine trimethylation; Succ, succinylation; Mal, malonylation; Glut, glutarylation; Ynit, tyrosine nitration; Ng, N-glycosylation; Og, O-glycosylation.

(B) UpSet plot showing the cross-distribution of different post-translational modification (PTM) quantification data of proteins.

(C) Scatter plot of the number of modifications on the same protein across PTM quantification data, with a pie chart representing the proportion of each

PTM type.

(D) Box plot displaying the correlation coefficients between proteomic data and other omics.

(E) Subcellular localization of proteins across various PTM and proteomic datasets.

(F) Scatter-bar plot showing the ratio of median intensity of each PTM to median intensity of protein for total detected proteins across various groups (* p value < 0.05)

Figure 3. Differential analysis of super-omics data

(A) Volcano plot depicting differential analysis between RA and NC groups across transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and phosphorylation modifications.

(B) Manhattan plot showing omics-based differential analysis between RA and NC groups.

(C) Circos plot illustrating differential entries across all omics comparisons.

(D) Heatmap showing omics-based changes in genes such as HLA-DRB1, PTPN22, ETS1, SUCLG2, HIF1A, SYK, and BTK between RA and NC groups.

(E) Scatter plot of intensity vs fold change (FC) correlation for different omics in RA vs NC groups.

(F) First, the top five genes with the largest absolute fold change (FC) values were selected from each comparison group for each PTMs omics. Subsequently, the top ten genes with the highest intensity values were chosen from this subset. Finally, a heatmap was generated to display the log (total intensity), log (FC) and z-score intensity for these selected genes.

(G) Upset plot showing the overlap of differential genes between RA vs NC groups across different omics. The table lists genes that exhibit multiple types of PTMs simultaneously.

(H) Circos plot showing differential entries for genes with a large number of modification sites or higher proportions of differential modification sites in RA vs NC.

Figure 4. Direct enrichment analysis of differential results from super-omics data

(A) Heatmap showing Gene Ontology (GO) /Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis between RA and NC groups across various omics.

(B) Bubble plot displaying GO/KEGG enrichment analysis for succinylation between RA and NC groups.

(C) Heatmap of differential entries in the "Rheumatoid Arthritis" and "Activation of Immune Response" pathways.

(D) Bar plot illustrating the predicted transcription factors with the most significant changes in activity between the RA and NC groups.

(E) Circos plot showing the intensity of gene in figure 4D across transcriptome, proteome and differential PTMs between the RA and NC groups.

(F) Bar plot illustrating the top 15 kinases from the PTM-sea analysis between the RA and NC groups.

(G) Bar plot illustrating the top 15 kinases identified from KSEA kinase analysis between the RA and NC groups.

Figure 5. Principles, influencing factors, and analysis results of PCAS

(A) PCAS analytical model diagram. transcription factor-target gene interactions (TF), enzyme-substrate interactions (ES), enzyme-metabolite interactions (EM), and protein-protein interactions (INTACT) represent four primary molecular regulatory mechanisms; transcriptome (RNA), proteome (WCP), and Post-translational modification omics (PTM) are the three primary omics levels. The enrichment ratio is defined as the proportion of differential molecules in a specific dimension and regulatory mechanism, calculated using enrichment analysis, or the proportion of differential modification sites in a PTM dimension relative to all detected modification sites.

(B) Scatter plot showing the differential genes between RA and NC groups, ranked in descending order by PCAS score. The red dots indicate RA-related genes that have been previously reported.

(C) Box plot showing RNA, WCP and PTM scores for PCAS score quartile differential genes between RA and NC groups.

(D) Box plot displaying self/up/down/intact scores for PCAS score quartile differential genes between RA and NC groups.

(E) Violin plot displaying fold change (FC) distribution of PCAS score quartile differential genes across omics between RA and NC groups.

(F) Violin plot showing intensity distribution of quartile differential genes in various omics between RA and NC groups.

(G) Heatmap showing the correlation between PCAS score and fold change across omics.

(H) Box plots showing the PCAS score and the distribution of differential and non-differential genes across various omics between RA and NC group.

(I) Box plot showing the number of differential and non-differential entries for PCAS score quartile differential genes between RA and NC groups.

(J) Circos plot showing z-score intensity of top 20 genes based on PCAS score across transcriptome, proteome and differential PTMs between the RA and NC groups.

(K) Circos plot illustrating the z-score intensity of the top 5 differential entries with the largest absolute fold change across various omics datasets for the top 25% of genes based on PCAS score between the RA and NC groups.

(L) Upstream and downstream interaction diagram for Serine/Threonine Kinase 17b (STK17B), which shows the changes of various omics in STK17B as well as its upstream and downstream genes.

Figure 6. Pathway enrichment analysis and network analysis of PCAS results

(A) Network diagram for Module 4. The Network diagram showing three interactions between genes such as INTACT, PTM and TF, as well as the value of the gene's PCAS score.

(B) Integrated heatmap showing GO/KEGG enrichment analysis for quartile genes based on PCAS score between RA and NC groups.

(C) Integrated heatmap showing Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) analysis for differential genes based on PCAS score between RA, OA , and NC groups.

(D) Scatter plot showing the genes related with "Activation of Immune Response," "Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition," "RAS Signaling," and "VEGFA-VEGFR2 Signaling" pathways among quartile genes based on PCAS score between RA and NC groups.

(E) Sankey diagram showing the relationships between interaction modules and pathways of RA and NC groups.

(F) Network diagram for module 2 and important pathways. The network diagram showing INTACT and TF interaction types between genes. Meanwhile, it also showing the value of the gene PCAS score, and the signaling pathway.

Figure 7. Application research of PCAS results in clinical

(A) The correlation between differential omics values of the top 20 PCAS score genes and clinical parameters. CRP, C-reactive protein; ESR, erythrocyte sedimentation Rate; RF, rheumatoid factor; DAS28, Disease Activity Score-28; Anti-cyclic citrullinated peptide (CCP)

(B) Scatter plot of the correlation between differential omics results of STK17B and MZB1 and clinical parameters.

(C) The correlation between differential omics values of genes from Figure 6F excluding "other" genes and clinical parameters.

(D) Scatter plot of the correlation between differential omics results of MART3 and clinical parameters.

(E) The proportion of quartile genes based on PCAS score with targeted drugs in the RA and NC groups. T, true, have targetd drug; F, false, do not have targetd drug.

(F) Statistical plot of the impact of differential modification sites on protein function for the top 20 genes based on PCAS score in the RA and NC groups, and genes from Figure 6F excluding 'other' genes.

(G) The cancer-associated genes among the top 30 genes based on PCAS score with differential omics values across comparison groups.

Figure 8. Super-omics landscape of RA.

The landscape showing the changes of each gene in the three dimensions:

1268 RNA, WCP, and PTM; Meanwhile, it also showing the relationship between
1269 genes, the PCAS score of gene, and the signaling pathway. Finally, the
1270 blueprint also provides targeted drugs for the genes (displayed with red
1271 borders and text) and differential post-translational modification sites that
1272 affect protein function (with underlines added to the corresponding sites).

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SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure S1. Correlation between different samples in each omics

(A) Heatmap showing correlation coefficients between samples in different
omics.   RA, rheumatoid arthritis. OA, Osteoarthritis; NC, normal control;
mRNA, transcriptomics; WCP, proteomics; Meta, metabolomics; ASV,
microbiomics; P, phosphorylation, Ac, acetylation; Lac,lactylation; Oglc,
O-GlcNAc glycosylation; Rmme, arginine monomethylation; Pmm, lysine
monomethylation; Pmd, lysine dimethylation; Pmt, lysine trimethylation; Succ,
succinylation; Mal, malonylation; Glut, glutarylation; Ynit, tyrosine nitration; Ng,
N-glycosylation; Og, O-glycosylation (Og).

(B) Pie chart depicting the distribution of different PTMs across proteins with
different number of modification types (1, 2, 3, 4, or more than 4).

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Figure   S2.   Statistical   analysis   of   qualitative   and   quantitative
identification results of super-omics data

(A) PCA plot of samples across different groups.

(B) Bar plot showing the number of quantifications across various omics.

(C) Box plot of total intensity values for different PTM omics across all
samples.

(D) Identification of metabolites in all samples.

(E) Relative abundance of microbial families in different groups.

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1297 **Figure S3. Differential analysis of quantitative results in super-omics**

1298 Volcano plots of differential analysis between different groups across various

1299 omics.

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Figure S4. Screening of candidate clinical diagnostic biomarkers for RA

(A) Manhattan plot showing differential analysis across various omics between
RA and OA groups, as well as OA and NC groups.

(B) Scatter plot of intensity vs fold change (FC) correlation for different omics
between RA vs OA and OA vs NC.

(C) Upset plot showing the overlap of differential genes between RA and NC
groups, as well as OA and NC groups, across different omics.

(D) Bar plot depicting the top 10 genes with the highest number of regulated
PTM sites between the RA and OA groups, as well as between the OA and NC
groups.

(E) Bar plot depicting the top 10 genes (at least 10 quantified PTM sites) with
the highest percent of regulated PTM sites between RA vs OA and OA vs NC.

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Figure S5. Integrated analysis between different omics

(A) Scatter plot showing the combined analysis of transcriptomics and
proteomics for RA vs NC, RA vs OA, and OA vs NC.

(B) Scatter plot of proteomic and PTM combined analysis for RA vs NC, RA vs
OA, and OA vs NC.

(C) Heatmap of differential metabolites across comparison groups.

(D) Differential microbial abundance at the family level across comparison
groups.

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Figure S6. Enrichment analysis and kinase analysis of multi-omics data
from different groups

(A) Heatmap displaying Gene Ontology (GO) /Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes
and Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis heatmap between RA vs OA, and
OA vs NC groups.

(B) Bubble plot displaying GO/KEGG enrichment analysis for proteomics and

phosphorylation modification in RA vs NC groups.

(C) Bar plot displaying the pathway enrichment analysis of differential
metabolic between RA and NC groups.

(D) Bar plot illustrating the predicted transcription factors with the most
significant changes in activity in RA vs OA, and OA vs NC.

(E) Bar plot illustrating the top 15 kinases from the PTM-sea analysis between
RA vs OA, and OA vs NC.

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Figure S7. Kinase analysis of phosphorylation modifications

(A) Heatmap showing the signature set scores of molecular signaling
pathways and kinase-substrate using regulated PTMs across different groups
by the PTM-sea method.

(B) Bar plot displaying the top 15 kinases from KSEA kinase analysis between
RA vs OA, and OA vs NC groups.

(C) Heatmap of transcriptome and proteome results (with differences marked
by *) and differential post-translational modification results for genes identified
in Figures 4F and 4G.

(D) Scatter plot showing the changes in substrate phosphorylation modification
sites and their correlation with changes in kinase expression or modification
between RA and NC groups.

(E) Network diagram showing differential proteins and pathways in RA vs NC
groups.

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Figure S8. Identification of important genes in RA using PCAS analysis.

(A) Scatter plot showing the differential genes in RA vs OA, and OA vs NC,
ranked in descending order by PCAS score. The red dots indicate RA-related
genes that have been previously reported.

(B) PCAS score distribution of genes associated with differential entries in
different omics (0-25%, 25%-50%, 50%-75%, 75%-100%).

(C) Circos plot showing z-score intensity of top 20 genes based on PCAS
score across transcriptome, proteome and differential PTMs in RA vs OA, and

OA vs NC. Differential transcriptome and proteome results are marked with *.

(D) Circos plot illustrating the z-score intensity of the top 5 differential entries with the largest absolute fold change across various omics datasets for the top 25% of genes based on PCAS score between RA vs OA, and OA vs NC.

Figure S9. Upstream and downstream regulatory genes of high PCAS score genes and their changes

Upstream and downstream interaction diagram for PLIN1, LDB3, ITIH3, RGCC, and ADH1C. The interaction diagram showing the changes of various omics in PLIN1, LDB3, ITIH3, RGCC, and ADH1C as well as their upstream and downstream genes.

Figure S10. Network analysis and enrichment analysis of PCAS results

(A) Network diagrams for Modules 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, and 7 from regulated genes with top 25% PACS score. The Network diagram showing three interactions between genes such as INTACT, PTM and TF, as well as the value of the gene's PCAS score.

(B) Integrated heatmap showing GO/KEGG enrichment analysis for quartile genes based on PCAS score in RA vs OA, and OA vs NC.

Figure S11. The network and pathway joint analysis of the PCAS results

(A) Scatter plot showing the regulated genes related with "Cell-Substrate Junction," "Integrin-Mediated Signaling Pathway," "Fatty Acid Metabolism," "Pyruvate Metabolism," and "MYC Targets v1" pathway, based on PCAS score between RA and NC groups.

(B) Network diagram showing the relationship for module 5 and module 6 with important pathways. The Network diagram showing three interactions between genes such as INTACT, PTM, and TF. Meanwhile, it also showing the value of the gene PCAS score, and the signaling pathway.

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1596

A

B

1 type

Modification
P: 54.72%
Ac: 4.59%
Succ: 38.3%
Lac: 0.29%
Mal: 0.13%
Oglc: 0.02%
Pmm: 0.05%
Pmd: 0.05%
Glut: 0.59%
Glut: 0.19%
Rmme: 0.28%
Ynit: 0.08%
Ng: 0.53%
Og: 0.18%

2 types

Modification
P: 30.2%
Ac: 16.35%
Succ: 46.16%
Lac: 0.43%
Mal: 0.26%
Oglc: 0.03%
Pmm: 0.05%
Pmd: 0.07%
Pmt: 2.51%
Rmme: 0.77%
Ynit: 0.1%
Ng: 1.94%
Og: 0.97%

3 types

Modification
P: 14.6%
Ac: 22.04%
Succ: 51.27%
Lac: 0.56%
Mal: 0.41%
Pmm: 0.15%
Pmd: 7.08%
Glut: 0.21%
Glut: 0.18%
Rmme: 0.65%
Ynit: 0.15%
Mng: 1.57%
Mog: 1.13%

4 types

Modification
P: 16.03%
Ac: 22.07%
Succ: 46.05%
Lac: 1.18%
Mal: 1.1%
Oglc: 0.15%
Pmm: 0.11%
Pmd: 0.42%
Pmt: 7.9%
Glut: 0.23%
Rmme: 0.27%
Ynit: 0.65%
Og: 1.56%

>4 types

Modification
P: 12.94%
Ac: 16.59%
Succ: 38.72%
Lac: 4.03%
Mal: 1.95%
Oglc: 0.03%
Pmm: 0.54%
Pmd: 0.54%
Pmt: 5.57%
Glut: 0.57%
Rmme: 1.88%
Ynit: 9.1%
Ng: 7.05%

A

B