Urine metabolomics of rats with chronic atrophic gastritis

Urine metabolomics

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Abstract

Background/Aim: To use liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) to identify endogenous differential metabolites in the urine of rats with chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG). Materials and Methods: Methylnitronitrosoguanidine (MNNG) was used to produce a CAG model in Wistar rats, and HE staining was used to determine the pathological model. LC-MS was used to detect the differential metabolic profiles in rat urine. Diversified analysis was performed by the statistical method. Results: Compared with the control group, the model group had 68 differential metabolites, 25 that were upregulated and 43 that were downregulated. The main metabolic pathways were D-glutamine and D-glutamic acid metabolism, histidine metabolism and purine metabolism. Conclusion: By searching for differential metabolites and metabolic pathways in the urine of CAG rats, this study provides effective experimental data for the pathogenesis and clinical diagnosis of CAG.

Introduction

Chronic atrophic gastritis (CAG) is a type of atrophy of gastric mucosal epithelial cells and glands where the number of glands is reduced, the mucosal layer thins, and the mucosal muscle layer thickens and may be accompanied by intestinal metaplasia and dysplasia. Digestive system diseases [1] mainly have the clinical manifestations of bloating, fullness of the stomach, belching, pain in the upper abdomen, loss of appetite, weight loss, etc. CAG has a wide variety of factors and is a common and frequently occurring clinical disease with a 2.55%- 7.46% canceration rate [2]. In 1978, the World Health Organization officially defined chronic atrophic gastritis as a precancerous state. The active treatment of CAG in clinical practice is an important node to block its development into gastric cancer.

As an important branch of systems biology, metabolomics technology is unique because it does not require the establishment of a large database of expressed gene sequences [3]. Metabolomics can express the physiological and biochemical state of the body through biological metabolic structure to better analyze pathogenesis. Among its advantages, liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) technology can be directly used to analyze biological metabolites to obtain final analysis results with the advantage of finding subtle changes in gene and protein expression during biological metabolism. Thus, LC-MS has become the most commonly used analytical technique in metabolomics research [4]. This study explains the molecular mechanism of action and metabolic pathways of chronic atrophic gastritis through pharmacodynamics and LC-MS.

Materials and methods

Animals

Twenty SPF grade Wistar male rats, 6 weeks old, 180 ± 20 g, were provided by Shandong Pengyue Experimental Animal Co., Ltd. [SCXK (Lu) 20140007]. The feeding environment was a temperature of $26 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, humidity $50 \pm 10\%$, and light illumination/dark cycle 12 h. The experiment started after 7 d of adaptive feeding from the time of purchase. During the period, the animals has free access to food and drinking water, and the experiment met animal ethical requirements.

Experimental reagents and instruments

Methylnitronitrosoguanidine (manufactured by Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd., NH8JH-DR), vetzyme tablets (Lepu Hengjiuyuan Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., 20170401), ranitidine hydrochloride capsules (Tianjin Pacific Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., 20170601), and ammonium hydroxide (Shanghai Wokai Biotechnology Co., Ltd., 20170220) were used. Anhydrous ethanol (Tianjin Fuyu Fine Chemical Co., Ltd., 20170808), methanol (Woke), acetonitrile and formic acid (Aladdin), ammonium formate (Sigma), hematoxylin staining solution, eosin staining solution, differentiation solution, blue back solution (Hebei Bohai Biological Engineering Development

Co., Ltd.), and xylene (Tianjin Yongda Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) were also utilized in this study.

A refrigerated centrifuge (Eppendorf, H1650-W), mixer (Vortex Mixer, QL-866), liquid chromatograph (Thermo, UltiMate 3000) and mass spectrometer Thermo (Q Exactive Focus) were instruments used in this study.

Animal model

Twenty Wistar rats were prepared, and 10 rats were randomly selected as a blank group. Normal diet was fed until the materials were collected. The remaining rats were model rats according to the following method [5]: rats were given 120 µg/mL MNNG from the 1st day of modeling, given 0.1% ammonia water freely for 24 h fed with 0.03% ranitidine feed using the hunger and satiety method (full food for 2 d, fasting for 1 d), and each given 2 ml of 40% ethanol on the fasting day. The above operation lasted for 16 weeks and each rat was weighed twice a week during the modeling process. During the experiment, the weight, coat color and behavior of the rats were observed.

Urine collection and preparation

Before taking the material, the rats were fasted for 24 h while drinking water normally, and urine was collected from the rats. Urine was centrifuged at 2500 rpm at room temperature for 1 hour in the morning, and the supernatant was divided into centrifuge tubes; each tube was > 0.3

ml. The urine samples were melted at 4 °C and 100 µL of each sample was placed into a 1.5 mL centrifuge tube, 100 µL of ddH₂O was added followed by shaking for 5 min to fully absorb and centrifugation at 10000 g and 4 °C for 10 min. Then, a 0.22 µm membrane was used to filter the supernatant to obtain the samples to be tested; 20 µL of the synthetic QC samples were extracted from each sample to be tested, and the remaining samples were tested by LC-MS.

LC-MS chromatographic mass spectrometry conditions

A Thermo Ultimate 3000 chromatograph and an ACQUITY UPLC® HSS T3 1.8 µm (2.1 × 150 mm) chromatographic column were used with an autosampler temperature of 8 °C, a flow rate of 0.25 mL/min, and a column temperature of 40 °C. The sample was eluted with an injection volume of 2 µL, and the positive mode mobile phases were 0.1% formic acid in water (A) and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile (B). The gradient elution program was 0 ~ 2 min, 2% B; 2 ~ 10 min, 2% ~ 50% B; 10 ~ 15 min, 50% ~ 98% B; 15 ~ 20 min, 98% B; 20 ~ 22 min, 98% ~ 2% B; 22 ~ 25 min, 2% B. The negative mode mobile phases were 5 mM ammonium formate (A) and acetonitrile (B). The gradient elution program was 0 ~ 2 min, 2% B; 2 ~ 10 min, 2% ~ 50% B; 10 ~ 15 min, 50% ~ 98% B; 15 ~ 20 min, 98% B; 20 ~ 22 min, 98% ~ 2% B; 22 ~ 25 min, 2% B [6]. The Thermo Q Exactive Focus mass spectrometer was operated with the following conditions: electrospray ion (ESI) source, positive and negative ion ionization mode, positive ion spray voltage of 3.50 kV, negative ion spray voltage of -2.50 kV, sheath gas of 30 arb, auxiliary gas of 10 arb, capillary temperature of 325 °C, full scan with a resolution of 70,000, scan range of

m/z 81-1000, secondary cracking with HCD, collision voltage of 30 eV, and dynamic exclusion to remove unnecessary MS/MS information.

Data processing

The obtained raw data was converted to mzXML format with ProteoWizard software (v3.0.8789) [7] and the RCMS (v3.3.2) XCMS package was used for peak identification, peak filtering, and peak alignment analysis. The main parameters were bw = 5, ppm = 15, peakwidth = c (10, 20), mzwid = 0.015, mzdif = 0.01, and method = centWave, which includes the mass to charge ratio (m/z) and information data matrix such as retention time (rt) and intensity.

Results

General situation

Control group: In good condition, sturdy body, strong limbs, neat, supple and shiny fur, mental state is excellent, responsive to external conditions, body weight gradually increases, and the stool is normal. Model group: Poor condition, thin body, weak limbs, messy fur, dryness, and dullness, poor mental state, drowsiness, unresponsive to external conditions, insignificant changes in body mass, slower rise, and less stool that is hard. Body mass changes are shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 1. Mass Variation Diagram of the Control Group and Model Group.

Observation of pathological tissues

As shown in Fig. 2A, the gastric tissue mucosa lamina propria in the blank group pathological section is rich in gastric glands that are closely arranged with a normal structure, and the gastric gland epithelial cells have a normal morphology. In the model group, the lamina propria were loosely arranged, the lamina propria of the gastric mucosa was severely congested (black arrow), and there were a large number of inflammatory cells (blue arrow) under the mucosa with edema, as shown in Fig. 2B.

Fig. 2. HE Staining Pathological Sections. A. HE Staining Pathological Sections of Gastric Mucosa in the Control Group (×200); 2-B: HE Staining Pathological Sections of Gastric Mucosa in the Model Group (×200).

Chromatogram in total ion mode:

The components separated by chromatography entered into mass spectrometry (MS) analysis, and data collection was performed by continuous scanning of the mass spectrum. The intensity is on the ordinate, and the time is on the abscissa. The resulting spectrum is the base peak chromatogram (BPC); see Fig. 3A and B (G: model group, H: control group)

Fig. 3. Chromatogram in Total Ion Mode. 3-A: Typical Sample BPC in Positive Ion Mode, 3-B: Typical Sample BPC in Negative Ion Mode.

Urine metabolomics analysis in positive ion mode

CAG urine metabolomics analysis is corrected positive ion data. After the data were preprocessed, the principal component analysis (PCA) method was used to explore CAG urine in positive ion mode. Changes in the fluid metabolism profile yielded a model with three principal components ($R^2 = 0.548$) and a score chart reflecting the degree of dispersion between groups, as shown in Fig. 4A. The PCA score graph shows that most samples are within the ellipse of the 95% confidence interval except for individual outliers. The PCA score graph shows that the urine samples of the two groups are significantly separated and are statistically significant. Furthermore, PLS-DA and OPLS-DA analysis methods (Fig. 4B and C) were used to remove information that was not related to sample classification, and pattern discrimination analysis was performed on the full spectrum of the urine. The results showed that the two groups of samples could be significantly separated. In order to check whether the repeatability of the model is good and ensure the reliability of the data model, a permutation test was performed on the model (Fig. 4D). The above results show that the multivariate data model of urine samples meets the parameter standard, indicating that the model has high stability and good predictive ability.

Fig. 4. Urine Metabolism Profile of CAG Model Rats in Positive Ion Mode. 4-A: PCA Scores, 4-B: PLS-DA Scores, 4-C: OPLS-DA Scores, 4-D: Replacement Test of the CAG Model Urine Fit Model in Positive Ion Mode.

Analysis of urine metabolomics in negative ion mode

The PCA method was used to explore changes in the CAG urine metabolic spectrum. After data preprocessing, a model with 3 principal components ($R^2 = 0.515$) and the degree of dispersion between groups were obtained from the score chart. The PCA score graph shows that most samples fall within the ellipse of the 95% confidence interval, with only a few outliers. The PCA score (Fig. 5A) graph shows the spatial distribution of the urine samples of the two groups, which can be significantly separated. PLS-DA and OPLS-DA analysis methods were used to further analyze the full spectrum of urine, and the results showed that the two groups of samples could be significantly separated (Fig. 5B and C). In order to test whether the repeatability of the model is good and to ensure reliability of the data model, the model was replaced and verified (Fig. 5D). The intercept of Q2 is negative, indicating that the model is valid. The above results indicate that the multivariate data model of urine samples meets the parameter standard, indicating that the model has high stability and good predictive ability.

Fig. 5. Urine Metabolism Profile of CAG Model Rats in Negative Ion Mode. 5-A: PCA Scores, 5-B: PLS-DA Scores, 5-C: OPLS-DA Scores, 5-D: Replacement Test of the CAG Model Urine Fit Model in Negative Ion Mode.

Extraction and analysis of differential metabolites

From the PCA, PLS-DA, OPLS-DA analysis model group and blank group, the screening conditions were in accordance with a P-value ≤ 0.05 , $VIP \geq 1$ [6], and molecular weight error < 20 ppm). According to the fragmentation information obtained from MS/MS mode, further matching

annotations were obtained in the HMDB, METLIN, MassBank, LipidMaps, and mzCloud databases to obtain accurate metabolite information. A total of 68 differential metabolites were screened, of which 25 were upregulated and 43 that were downregulated, compared with metabolites with the same or similar metabolic modes clustered to obtain differential metabolite heat maps and metabolite correlation heat maps (Fig. 6). These differential metabolites relied on the Marker-view, KEGG, HMDB, MetaboAnalyst and other databases, which were searched and identified, and the results are shown in Table 1.

Fig. 6. Heat Map of the Differential Metabolites. A: Heat Map of the Differential Metabolites in CAG Rats; 6-B: Correlation Heat Map of Differential Metabolites in CAG Rats.

Table 1. Differential Metabolic Markers in Urine of CAG Rats (Upregulated ↑, Downregulated ↓).

chemical compound	chemical formula	Model vs Control_VIP	log2 (FC)	p value
Arbutin	C12H16O7	1.771574784	2.3461	0.012648447↑
Inosine	C10H12N4O5	1.528975498	2.1558	0.037258488↑
Adenosine	C10H13N5O4	1.934286006	2.0713	0.004285334↑
5-S-Methyl-5-thioadenosine	C11H15N5O3S	2.284849647	1.8528	0.000234115↑
10-Hydroxy capric acid	C10H20O3	1.823597606	1.5684	0.008306808↑
7-Methylguanosine	C11H16N5O5	1.568140916	1.549	0.031843615↑
Pipecolic acid	C6H11NO2	1.781759339	1.5181	0.010438908↑
delta-Decalactone	C10H18O2	1.849847045	1.5177	0.007156206↑

3-Methyl-L-histidine	C7H11N3O2	1.872481394	1.4212	0.00738418↑
Dihydro-3-coumaric acid	C9H10O3	1.528214666	1.394	0.037370134↑
Adipic acid	C6H10O4	2.113128751	1.3866	0.001516902↑
2-Methylguanosine	C11H15N5O5	1.751775025	1.367	0.012215874↑
Guanosine	C10H13N5O5	1.53671651	1.3507	0.032900583↑
Suberic acid	C8H14O4	1.612701672	1.3484	0.026434225↑
2-Deoxycytidine	C9H13N3O4	1.915004809	1.3307	0.004840515↑
D-Glucuronic acid	C6H10O7	2.241280415	1.2756	0.000512579↑
CMPF	C12H16O5	2.124552651	1.2416	0.001388456↑
Gentisic acid	C7H6O4	1.835909917	1.2406	0.009038573↑
TMCA	C12H14O5	1.954028191	1.161	0.003771041↑
2-Aminopteridine-4,7-Diol	C6H5N5O2	2.016289866	1.1144	0.003043425↑
4-Hydroxy nonenal Mercapturic acid	C14H25NO5S	1.548812817	1.0965	0.034435408↑
D-Biotin	C10H16N2O3S	1.515098427	1.0857	0.035928770↑
N-Acetylcadaverine	C7H16N2O	1.640234776	1.0602	0.020995681↑
Benzaldehyde	C7H6O	1.762739968	1.0398	0.011540491↑
Guanidinoacetic acid	C3H7N3O2	1.705152566	1.0027	0.015441198↑
3-Methylindole	C9H9N	1.876426797	0.9857	0.007221167↓
2-Oxoglutaric acid	C5H6O5	1.495118055	0.9552	0.042475723↓
Marmesin acetate	C16H16O5	1.720421852	0.9461	0.014319362↓

N-Lactoyl-phenylalanine	C12H15NO4	1.57132921	0.907	0.028460454↓
Taxifolin	C15H12O7	1.718717369	0.8785	0.016387198↓
3-(3,4-Dihydroxyphenyl)Propanoic acid	C9H10O4	2.070984986	0.8642	0.002077192↓
N(2)-Acetyl-L-Lysine	C8H16N2O3	2.049816081	0.8419	0.001930407↓
L-Phenylalanyl-L-Proline	C14H18N2O3	2.077282892	0.7931	0.001566615↓
O-Toluic acid	C8H8O2	1.805758215	0.7836	0.009169037↓
Quinaldic acid	C10H7NO2	1.669168777	0.7797	0.020624237↓
3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaric acid	C6H10O5	1.480741362	0.7542	0.044849483↓
Dopamine	C8H11NO2	1.825498392	0.753	0.008218865↓
Syringic acid	C9H10O5	1.538159222	0.7057	0.035930624↓
N-Acetyl-Glutamic acid	C7H11NO5	1.606367357	0.6886	0.024447196↓
N,N-Diethyl-M-Toluamide	C12H17NO	1.658473782	0.6825	0.019299997↓
N-epsilon-Acetyl-L-lysine	C8H16N2O3	2.024611789	0.6354	0.00287668↓
Glutaric acid	C5H8O4	1.55606035	0.6234	0.033445496↓
3-Indoleacetic acid	C10H9NO2	1.490647745	0.5842	0.043203485↓
Homovanillic acid	C9H10O4	1.602561332	0.5841	0.027598265↓
L-Histidine	C6H9N3O2	1.603838417	0.5723	0.024721392↓
Hexanoylcarnitine	C13H25NO4	1.466692106	0.5425	0.043469353↓
Nonic acid	C9H16O4	2.208499912	0.5276	0.000690754↓
4-Acetamidobutanoic acid	C6H11NO3	1.641325837	0.526	0.02089112↓

N-Acetyl-beta-Alaninate	C5H9NO3	1.573650573	0.5139	0.028179966↓
(S)-2-Hydroxyglutarate	C5H8O5	1.464880663	0.5013	0.047581863↓
N-Acetyl-L-Histidine	C8H11N3O3	1.573531368	0.4979	0.028194318↓
2-Pyrrolidone-5-Carboxylic acid, Methyl Ester	C6H9NO3	1.868632508	0.4193	0.006413493↓
2-Hydroxypropanoic acid	C3H6O3	1.874058772	0.3997	0.00731866↓
3-Hydroxycapric acid	C10H20O3	1.944065438	0.3836	0.004843594↓
®-Noradrenaline	C8H11NO3	1.526685758	0.3797	0.037595251↓
Dacarbazine	C6H10N6O	1.587732534	0.2827	0.026523445↓
Phenacylamine	C8H9NO	1.489849766	-0.4527	0.039727046↓
Threonate	C4H8O5	1.547635686	-0.6082	0.034598259↓
Adenine	C5H5N5	1.792987662	-0.7032	0.011340028↓
Dodecanedioic acid	C12H22O4	1.66119894	-0.9546	0.021378107↓
2-Deoxyuridine	C9H12N2O5	1.943477192	-0.979	0.004861136↓
Formononetin	C16H12O4	2.025071834	-1.1042	0.002867682↓
L-Glutamic acid	C5H9NO4	1.777690879	-1.1167	0.010667276↓
Genkwanin	C16H12O5	2.062070851	-1.1857	0.002214871↓
Nicotinic acid	C6H5NO2	2.168087639	-1.2801	0.000737259↓
Guanine	C5H5N5O	2.476437968	-1.3203	3.25E-05↓
Adenosine 3-monophosphate	C10H14N5O7P	1.68169368	-1.3227	0.019481197↓
AMP	C10H14N5O7P	1.900260783	-1.5778	0.005302741↓

CAG model group urine differential metabolite pathway information

This study mapped the differential metabolites to the KEGG database. There are 23 common metabolic pathways involved in the obtained differential metabolites, as shown in Fig. 7: D-glutamine and D-glutamine histidine metabolism, histidine metabolism, purine metabolism, nitrogen metabolism, tyrosine metabolism, arginine-proline metabolism, butyric acid metabolism, biotin metabolism, alanine-aspartic acid-glutamic acid metabolism, ascorbic acid-bitter almond metabolism, niacin-nicotinamide metabolism, pentose-glucuronate interconversion, pyrimidine metabolism, lysine degradation, citric acid cycle (TCA cycle), starch-sucrose metabolism, Inositol phosphate metabolism, glutathione metabolism, porphyrin and chlorophyll metabolism, cysteine-methionine metabolism, glycine-serine-threonine metabolism, aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis, and tryptophan metabolism. Among them, the metabolic pathways with * P <0.5 and Impact > 0 include D-glutamine and D-glutamic acid metabolism, histidine metabolism, and purine metabolism, as shown in Table 2.

Fig. 7. Metabolic Pathways of CAG Rat Metabolites Mapped to KEGG.

Table 2. Differential Metabolic Pathways in Urine of CAG Rats

D-Glutamine and D-	Histidine	Purine metabolism
glutamate	metabolism	
metabolism		

p value	0.013036	0.016826	0.039418
Impact	1	0.24194	0.076410
constituent structures	C00025	C00025	C00020 C00147 C00212 C00294 C00387 C00242
Pathway	http://www.kegg.jp/pathway/rno00471+C00025	http://www.kegg.jp/pathway/rno00340+C00025+C00135+C01152	http://www.kegg.jp/pathway/rno00230+C00020+C00212+C00294+C00242+C00387
links			

Discussion

Metabolomics is an emerging technology for different metabolic pathways of the products by stimulating or disturbing the differences in metabolites displayed by organisms. It can qualitatively, quantitatively and systematically study endogenous small molecules (including blood, urine, and the overall and dynamic laws of tissue fluids) and is widely used in the early diagnosis of diseases, biomarker discovery, pathogenesis research and pharmacological mechanism research. This technology has obvious integrity and dynamic characteristics consistent with the overall theory of traditional Chinese medicine. There is also great potential in explaining the pathogenesis of diseases [8]. Combining pattern recognition and other informatics methods can

be used to analyze the changes in metabolic products caused by physiological and pathological stimuli of organisms and genetic factors. PCA technology can reduce data dimensions and maintain original data, which can improve the detection of abnormal data. It cannot, however, ignore intragroup errors and eliminate random errors that are irrelevant to the content of the study, while PLS-DA and OPLS-DA can maximize the specified sample differences in the analysis, making it easier to find differential metabolic profiles. MetPA can find interfering metabolic pathways and establish a regression model through the commonly used data processing methods of topological analysis [9] and make a discriminant analysis of the regression results [10]. OPLS-DA makes the difference between groups on the basis of PLS-DA useful to help analyze related metabolic pathways [11]. Therefore, the combination of these four methods is a powerful tool for determining disease biomarkers. Comparing the expression of urine metabolites from the level of metabolomics and determining differential metabolites and metabolic pathways can provide an objective basis for the clinical diagnosis of CAG.

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) is based on the principle of high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) adsorption combined with the analysis technique of the mass-to-charge ratio of charged particles. It is used to determine the mass of particles and determine the elemental composition of samples or molecules to elucidate the chemical structure of the molecule. Compared with other chromatographic methods, the LC-MS sample preparation time is short, has high selectivity, and is not affected by chromatographic resolution. It can carry out the structural analysis of compounds to identify known and unknown compounds and can

quickly identify and elute metabolites. Analysis, through limited instrument optimization, easily obtains quantitative and qualitative data [12].

In this study, the animal model of chronic atrophic gastritis was mainly prepared by MNNG combined with ammonia-free drinking water and hunger and satiety. The process of MNNG alkylating the DNA bases does not depend on enzymatic metabolism and can directly penetrate into the pylorus and stomach to cause canceration [13]. Alcohol can trigger acute ischemic damage to the gastric mucosa, causing damaged genes to fail to recover over time, which may be an important factor for initiating oncogenes [14]. Moreover, alcohol can accelerate the dissolution of MNNG and increase the mutation rate. Ammonia can simulate toxic damage to the stomach after *Helicobacter pylori* infection and maintain acute inflammation of the gastric mucosa [15,16]. Ranitidine hydrochloride can inhibit gastric acid secretion, but hunger and satiety are the fusion of spleen and stomach damage. CAG is a complex disease with multiple factors and multiple genes. Compound factor modeling can simulate human disease characteristics to a greater extent and is currently the most widely used and most mature CAG model application.

Through PCA, PLS-DA and OPLS-DA LC-MS diversified analysis, using statistics, bioinformatics, chemometrics and other methods to analyze and compare the differential metabolites, the model group and the blank group of rat urine had significant metabolic differences. A total of 68 different metabolites were screened, and 23 metabolic disturbance pathways were predicted. The metabolic pathways can regulate the growth, differentiation, apoptosis and the immune system of tumor cells [17]. The statistically significant metabolic

pathways are D-glutamine and D-glutamic acid metabolism, histidine metabolism, and purine metabolism. Among the metabolic pathways, the significantly different metabolites included L-glutamic acid and 10 different products, including ketoglutaric acid, histidine, 3-methyl-L-histidine, adenosine monophosphate, adenosine, adenine, hypoxanthine, guanosine and guanine.

L-Glutamic acid, which is in the metabolic pathway of D-glutamine and D-glutamic acid, plays an important role in protein metabolism in organisms. Studies have found that L-glutamic acid can inhibit cerebral cortex, hippocampal, gastric cancer cell and neural stem cell proliferation and differentiation and induce apoptosis [18,19]. Decreased glutamate expression levels will cause digestive system diseases. Based on this performance, L-glutamic acid is a commonly used therapeutic drug for the digestive system, especially gastric cancer and pancreatic cancer. Penicillin can induce the generation of glutamic acid and upregulate cycle-related expression genes and sugar degradation process of glucose to 2-oxoglutaric acid [20].

In the histidine metabolism pathway, 3-methyl-L-histidine, histidine, and L-glutamic acid play the role of substrate, intermediate, and product, respectively, and protein nutrition comes from the content of 3-methyl-L-histidine. Each of these compounds are effective indicators of histidine metabolic status [21]. Studies have confirmed that histidine can inhibit the proliferation and migration of lung cancer cells, thereby exerting an antitumor effect [22]. Histamine formed after the decarboxylation of histidine can relax blood vessels and is associated with inflammation. In gastritis and in the duodenum, the reaction in ulcers is sensitive. Currently, histidine is mostly used for the treatment of reducing gastric acid, relieving gastrointestinal pain and as a blood pressure

treatment. L-Glutamic acid is formed after a series of processes, such as phosphoester and propionic acid formation, and its antagonists can reverse the abnormal expression of mGlu R5 and PSD-95 in the striatum of LID rats [23].

Purine metabolism provides cells with the necessary energy and cofactors to promote the growth and proliferation of cells. The most common disease with purine dysfunction is gout, and purine metabolism and its metabolites include adenosine monophosphate, adenosine, adenine, and, at times, the abnormal expression of xanthine, guanosine and guanine will promote the occurrence of gastric cancer [24]. The decomposition of purine nucleotides will promote the dephosphorylation of inosine or guanylic acid and generate inosine or guanosine, which can decompose into xanthine or guanine. The CN-II enzyme is highly expressed in tumor cells [25]. Studies have shown that purine nucleotides are essential for metabolic functions. Hypoxanthine, guanine phosphoribosyl transferase and other related purines can affect hematopoietic stem cell cycle progression, proliferation kinetics and changes in mitochondrial membrane potential [26].

Conclusions

Metabolomics is an important technical means for studying the pathogenesis of diseases. This experiment is the first to use LC-MS metabolomics to study the pathogenesis of CAG from the perspective of urine metabolites. From the method (PCA) and supervised analysis method (PLS-DA and OPLS-DA), differential metabolites of the model group and the control group were screened. These differences were mainly distributed among 23 metabolic pathways, which were

glutamine metabolism with L-glutamic acid, 2-ketoglutarate in the D-glutamic acid metabolism pathway, 3-methyl-L-histidine, histidine, L-glutamic acid and purine in the histidine metabolism pathway. Adenosine monophosphate, adenosine, adenine, inosine, guanosine and guanine may be potential biomarkers for the diagnosis of CAG.

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Supporting information

S1 Fig. Mass Variation Diagram of the Control Group and Model Group.

S2 Fig. HE Staining Pathological Sections. A. HE Staining Pathological Sections of Gastric

Mucosa in the Control Group ($\times 200$); 2-B: HE Staining Pathological Sections of Gastric Mucosa in the Model Group ($\times 200$).

S3 Fig. Chromatogram in Total Ion Mode. 3-A: Typical Sample BPC in Positive Ion Mode, 3-B: Typical Sample BPC in Negative Ion Mode.

S4 Fig. Urine Metabolism Profile of CAG Model Rats in Positive Ion Mode. 4-A: PCA Scores, 4-B: PLS-DA Scores, 4-C: OPLS-DA Scores, 4-D: Replacement Test of the CAG Model Urine Fit Model in Positive Ion Mode.

S5 Fig. Urine Metabolism Profile of CAG Model Rats in Negative Ion Mode. 5-A: PCA Scores, 5-B: PLS-DA Scores, 5-C: OPLS-DA Scores, 5-D: Replacement Test of the CAG Model Urine Fit Model in Negative Ion Mode.

S6 Fig. Heat Map of the Differential Metabolites. A: Heat Map of the Differential Metabolites in CAG Rats; 6-B: Correlation Heat Map of Differential Metabolites in CAG Rats.

S7 Fig. Metabolic Pathways of CAG Rat Metabolites Mapped to KEGG.