

1 *Review*

2 **Copper metabolism of newborns is adapted to milk** 3 **ceruloplasmin as a nutritive source of copper**

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20 **Abstract:** Copper, which can potentially be a highly toxic agent, is an essential nutrient due to its
21 role as a co-factor for cuproenzymes and participation in signaling pathways. In mammals, the liver
22 is a central organ that controls copper turnover throughout the body: copper absorption,
23 distribution, and excretion. In ontogenesis, there are two types of copper metabolism: embryonic
24 and adult, which maintain the balance of copper in each of these periods, respectively. In the liver
25 cells, these types are characterized by specific expression patterns and activity levels of the genes
26 encoding ceruloplasmin, which is the main extracellular ferroxidase and copper transporter and
27 proteins mediating ceruloplasmin metalation. In newborns, the molecular-genetic mechanisms
28 responsible for copper homeostasis and the ontogenetic switch from embryonic to adult copper
29 metabolism are highly adapted to milk ceruloplasmin as a dietary source of copper. In the mammary
30 gland cells, the level of ceruloplasmin gene expression and the alternative splicing of its pre-mRNA
31 govern the amount of ceruloplasmin in milk, and thus, the amount of copper absorbed by the
32 newborn is controlled. In the newborns, absorption, distribution, and accumulation copper are
33 adapted to milk ceruloplasmin. In the newborns, which are not breast-fed at the early stages of
34 postnatal development, the control for alimentary copper balance is absent. We tried to focus on the
35 neonatal consequences of a violation of the balance of copper in the mother / newborn system.
36 Although there is still much to be learned, the time to pay attention to this problem came because
37 the neonatal misbalance of copper may provoke the development of copper related disorders for
38 future life.

39 **Keywords:** embryonic type copper metabolism; milk ceruloplasmin; baby formula

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 According to the modern scientific concept of nutrition, the suboptimal content of
43 micronutrients in a mother's diet during pregnancy and lactation may be a cause of developmental
44 defects in newborns. This concept is fully supported by data showing that severe neonatal defects
45 can be prevented by correction of a mother's diet, e.g. iodine, folate, and iron supplementation [1-8].

46 Less clear effects of deficiency/excess of copper, one of the most important micronutrients, in
47 fetus/neonate have been report [9]. In mammals, about two dozen enzymes, which control the basic
48 cellular processes: respiration, antioxidant defense, formation of connective tissue, neurotransmitter
49 synthesis, neuropeptide processing, iron transport and others, require copper as a co-factor for their
50 activity [10,11]. Moreover, copper operates as a secondary messenger in some signaling ways [12]. In
51 adult mammals, copper deficiency or excess of copper from dietary factors are rarely observed.
52 However, it can be developed from surgical removal of the small intestine, genetic disease, diseases
53 which alter micronutrient metabolism [13,14]. The inherited defects in copper transport cause the
54 development of both copper deficiency and accumulation simultaneously because the loss of copper
55 from transporting proteins results in copper accumulation in inappropriate cellular compartments
56 and the deficiency of bioavailable copper. As a result, copper dyshomeostasis is developed [15]. The
57 liver and the brain, the organs with the most intensive copper metabolism, are affected first by the
58 defects of copper transport. In these organs, signs of toxic copper accumulation and cuproenzyme
59 deficiency manifest earlier compared to other organs.

60 In newborns, the mechanisms for excreting copper through bile and controlling copper
61 absorption in the small intestine do not operate [16]. Therefore, dietary factors may cause copper
62 misbalance in the early stages of postnatal development. Copper deficiency in the food of pregnant
63 and nursing females caused a lack of cuproenzyme activity, multiple developmental aberrations,
64 teratoma formation, and death among fetuses or offspring during the early postnatal stages [17,18].
65 In babies, fed cow's milk that has much lower concentration of copper than human milk, copper-
66 dependent anemia almost inevitably develops [19]. On the other hand, there are two inherited
67 diseases (childhood copper-associated cirrhosis [20] and Indian childhood cirrhosis [21]), in which
68 even a small excess of copper in the food is fatal for infants [22].

69 The aim of the present review is to emphasize the dependence of copper homeostasis in
70 newborns on food sources and pay attention to possible long-term consequences of copper
71 imbalances in neonates.

72 2. Biological roles of copper

73 Copper is an essential component of the cells of almost all modern organisms. It was involved
74 in metabolic processes in the early stages of Earth's evolution, possibly at the beginning of the Great
75 Oxygenation Event when it became bioavailable due to the oxidation of insoluble sulfides. In aqueous
76 media, copper ions have two stable oxidation states $\text{Cu(I)} \leftrightarrow \text{Cu(II)}$; and both forms can have high
77 toxicity [23]. Because copper ions have strong coordination properties, they can readily form
78 coordination compounds with ligands that contain carboxyl, amine, pyrrole (imidazole, indole),
79 pyridine, hydroxyl, nitrile, and, especially, thiol donor groups. Depending on the chemical nature of
80 ligands and the geometry of the coordination sphere, copper displays a wide range of redox
81 potentials. A combination of these properties makes copper a valuable cofactor for enzymes
82 catalyzing redox reactions. Cuproenzymes catalyze different redox reactions in which copper is
83 cycled in $\text{Cu(I)} \leftrightarrow \text{Cu(II)}$ states and serve both as an electron donor and an electron acceptor depending
84 on the stage of the catalytic cycle. The most abundant enzymes are the cuproenzymes that catalyze
85 electron transfer to dioxygen. In active centers of cuproenzymes, copper is typically tightly bound by
86 4, 5 or 6 ligand groups and cannot be easily released or removed from the enzyme under
87 physiological conditions [23]. The largest fraction of copper, which is present in mammals, is
88 contained in the active centers of cuproenzymes and does not possess toxic properties. The
89 physiological role of major mammalian cuproenzymes, their structure, function, localization in the
90 cell and in the organism, and their gene expression has been actively studied for many decades. The
91 established data on these cuproenzymes are briefly summarized in Table 1.

92

Table 1. The main mammalian cuproenzymes.

Cuproenzyme	Localization (the main place)	The main functions
SOD1 (Cu(II)/Zn(II)-superoxide dismutase)	Cytosol, nuclear matrix, lysosomes, peroxisomes, mitochondria	Disproportionation of superoxide anions to oxygen and hydrogen peroxide [24] Antioxidant functions, signaling, stimulation of cell proliferation, decrease of apoptosis and inflammation [24]
SOD3 (Cu(II)/Zn(II)-superoxide dismutase)	Extracellular liquids (blood serum, lymph, sclera, etc.)	Transfer of electrons from the respiration chain to molecular oxygen [25] Oxidation of lysine residues to aldehydes in collagen and elastin precursors [26]
COX (cytochrome-c-oxidase)	Mitochondrial inner membrane	Pro-neuropeptide processing by converting to the corresponding amide [27]
Protein-lysine 6-oxidase (lysyl oxidase)	Extracellular matrix	Conversion of dihydroxyphenylalanine (DOPA) to noradrenaline [28,29]
PAM (peptidylglycine α -hydroxylating monooxygenase)	Vesicles, membrane-bound and soluble forms	Synthesis of melanin from tyrosine [30]
DBH (dopamine- β -hydroxylase)	Vesicles, membrane-bound and soluble forms	Oxidation of Fe(II) to Fe(III), oxidation of aromatic amines, copper transporter [31,32]
Tyrosinase (phenol oxidase)	Melanosomes	Oxidation of Fe(II) to Fe(III) [33]
Soluble ceruloplasmin (Cp)	Blood serum, milk, cerebrospinal fluid, and other extracellular liquids	Oxidation of Fe(II) to Fe(III) [34]
GPI-Cp ¹ (splice isoform Cp)	Plasma membrane, brain	Oxidation of Fe(II) to Fe(III) [35]
Hephaestin	Plasma membrane, enterocytes	
Zyklopen	Plasma membranes, placenta	

¹ - glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor.

95 The native tertiary structure of cuproenzymes is formed during successful metabolic insertion
96 of copper ion(s). The removal of copper from holoenzymes in vitro, or defects in the processes of
97 metalation of apo-enzymes in vivo can cause disruption of the tertiary structure and loss of catalytic
98 functions [36]. Therefore, copper is considered both as a catalytic and structural cofactor of
99 cuproenzymes.

100 In the past few years, evidence has been accumulated for the existence of regulatory role of
101 copper, and this role remained elusive for a long time although the first evidence for the involvement
102 of copper in the regulation of endothelial cell growth was obtained almost 40 years ago [37]. Recently,
103 it was shown that intracellular and local extracellular changes in copper concentration influence the
104 activity of transcription factors NF- κ B, nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells
105 [38], and HIF1, hypoxia-inducible factor 1 [39]. These factors regulate the expression of several dozens
106 of genes, including genes, whose products take part in the reprogramming of energy metabolism in
107 tumor cells. XIAP protein (X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis protein), which is a common member of
108 several signaling pathways, can bind copper. This binding leads to the release of caspase 3, which
109 triggers XIAP-mediated apoptosis [40,41]. Copper also takes part in the Ras/MAP-kinase [42] and
110 BRAF-dependent [43] signaling pathways, modulates the function of growth factor receptors [44,45],
111 γ -aminobutyric acid [46] and glutamate receptors [47], regulates cyclic-AMP-dependent lipolysis
112 [48], and induces Golgi-complex independent secretion of interleukins and cytokines [49]. It has been
113 shown that copper controls organogenesis and cell differentiation in embryo development [50].

114 Two prerequisites are implied from the existence of copper regulatory functions: a pool, in which
 115 copper is accumulated and from which it is liberated on demand and copper-regulated sensors
 116 should exist. In the cell, two copper pools that may take part in rapid local change of copper
 117 concentrations exist (Table 2).

118 **Table 2.** Mammalian proteins and substances for controlling copper homeodynamics or participating
 119 in copper-dependent signaling.

Protein/substance	Localization	Function
Metallothionein (a large set of isoforms)	Cytosol, mitochondrial matrix, nucleoplasm, blood serum	Detoxification of heavy metals, maintenance of copper and zinc balance, control of apoptosis, cell protection from death and neoplasia [51,52]
COMMD1 (Copper Metabolism gene MURR Domain 1; previously named MURR1)	Cytosol, nucleoplasm	Excretion of Cu(II) through bile, stabilization of the ATP7B ¹ structure, participation in copper-dependent signaling with NF-κB [53]
XIAP (X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis protein)	Cytosol	The inhibitor of caspase 3, ubiquitin-ligase related to COMMD1, and a copper level regulator in the cell [40]
SCO1/SCO2 (assembly of cytochrome c oxidase 1/2)	Inner mitochondrial membrane	Incorporation of copper ions into COX ² , assembly of the COX complex, control of copper balance in the cells [54,55]
SCC (small copper carrier)	Circulation, urine	Removal of copper from the liver to the bloodstream [56]
Copper ligand (CuL)	Cytosol, mitochondrial matrix	Transfer of copper between the mitochondrial matrix, mitochondrial intermembrane space and cytosol [57-58]
LOXL (1-4) (lysyl-oxidase-like proteins) transcription factors	Cytosol, nucleus	Copper-dependent suppressors and activators of tumor growth and metastasis [59,60]
Sp1 (specificity protein 1)	Cytosol, nucleus	Multifunctional transcription factor; regulator of CTR1 gene activity [61,62]
MAC1* (Copper-sensing transcription factor)	Cytosol, nucleus	Transcription factor involved in regulation of CTR1 gene [63]
ACE1* (transcription factor)	Cytosol, nucleus	Regulation of expression of the metallothionein gene [63]

120 1 – copper transporting ATPase, 2 - cytochrome c oxidase, *- not found in mammals.

121 The first one is the system that includes metallothionein-Cu(I), glutathione (Cu(I)/Cu(II)) and
 122 COMMD1 (Cu(II)), which possibly controls the changes of copper concentration in cytosol [64]. The
 123 members of this system can bind copper, change its oxidation state and share it on demand with
 124 cuproenzyme metalation, signaling pathways and excretion routes. The second pool is associated
 125 with mitochondria, which play an important role in copper homeodynamics and may be viewed as
 126 an intracellular copper depot [65]. It has been shown that in yeast and mammals, mitochondria
 127 accumulate copper from cytosol and release it back with the help of copper ligand, which is a low
 128 molecular weight substance (~1 kDa) whose structure has not been identified yet. Therefore, there
 129 are means for rapid changes in the copper concentration in the cytosol. The existence of a kinetically
 130 labile copper pool, which is predominantly localized in the mitochondria and the Golgi apparatus
 131 were shown by synchrotron X-ray fluorescence microscopy [66]. The local changes in the extracellular

132 space near the cell membrane may occur when copper is secreted in complexes with interleukins,
 133 cytokines, growth factors and metallothioneins under stress conditions. Copper-regulated sensors
 134 have been characterized in yeast, insects and mammals (Table 2). In mammals, they include lysyl-
 135 oxidase-like proteins (LOXL1-4), and an imbalance in LOXL levels promotes tumor and metastasis
 136 growth. Another example is Sp1 (specificity protein 1), which is a transcription factor regulating the
 137 activity of the CTR1 (copper transporter 1) gene (see Table 3). Studies of copper's regulatory role are
 138 relatively novel, and to date, there are insufficient data to examine the consequences of impaired
 139 copper-dependent of the gene's regulation.

140 **Table 3.** Mammalian copper transporting proteins involved in intracellular copper routes.

Protein	Localization	Function
CTR1 (high affinity copper importer 1)	Plasma membrane homotrimeric integral protein, universal copper importer	Transfer of Cu(I) from extracellular space to cytosol (ATP-independent); Cu ⁺ /K ⁺ -exchanger; control of morphogenesis [69]; stabilization of the CTR2 structure [70]
CCS (Cu(I)-chaperon for SOD1)	Cytosol	Transportation of Cu(I) from CTR1 to apo-SOD1 [76]
COX17 (Cu(I)-chaperon for COX)	Mitochondrial intermembrane space	Transportation of Cu(I) from CTR1 to SCO1/SCO2 [77]
SCO1/SCO2	Inner mitochondrial membrane	Insertion of copper to COX; control of copper balance in the cell, implementation of the Cu(II)→Cu(I) redox cycle [54,55]
ATOX1 (Antioxidant 1, Cu(I)-chaperon for ATP7A/B)	Cytosol	Transportation of Cu(I) from CTR1 to copper-binding motifs of the ATP7A/B; a component of the cytosolic antioxidant system, transcription factor [78,79]
Menkes ATPase (ATP7A, Cu(I)/Cu(II)-transporting ATPase P1 type)	Membranes of trans-network Golgi complex (except for hepatocytes of adult mammals)	Acceptance of Cu(I) from ATOX1 and its ATP-dependent transfer to the lumen of Golgi complex; oxidation of Cu(I) to Cu(II) and insertion of copper into extracellular cuproenzymes [80]
Wilson ATPase (ATP7B, Cu(I)/Cu(II)-transporting ATPase P1 type)	Membranes of trans-network Golgi complex and plasma membrane of the liver, mammary gland, brain cells	Acceptance of Cu(I) from ATOX1 and its ATP-dependent transfer to the lumen of Golgi complex; oxidation of Cu(I) to Cu(II) and insertion of copper into ceruloplasmin, copper excretion through bile [80]
CTR2 (low affinity copper transporter 2)	Membranes of the endolysosomes, plasma membrane	Transfer of Cu(I) from lysosomes to cytosol; regulation of copper import [81,82]
DMT1 (divalent metal transporter 1)	Apical domain of the plasma membrane of the enterocytes and other cells	Transfer of Cu(II) from GIT into enterocytes [84]; compensation of CTR1 deficiency [85]

141 3. Transport of copper during cuproenzyme formation in adult mammals

142 The formation of holo-cuproenzymes completely is depended on copper traffic, which delivers
 143 copper from extracellular space to the locations of apo-cuproenzyme metalation in the cell (i.e., the
 144 cytosol, mitochondria, lumen of Golgi complex). The extracellular part of the pathway involves the
 145 absorption of food copper ions from the gastrointestinal tract and the delivery of them to the liver.
 146 On it, copper is transferred in the oxidation state of Cu (II). The intracellular pathway starts at the
 147 surface of the hepatocytes; it requires the reduction of Cu(II) to Cu (I), followed by their transfer to
 148 the cell. Copper ions with random coordination spheres, which are usually called 'free' copper ions,

149 are highly toxic agents. They can initiate Fenton-type reactions and produce reactive oxygen species,
150 which produce the same effects as ionizing radiation [67].

151 Inside the cells, the problem of safe copper transport is solved by the system of transporter
152 proteins, which bind copper in a Cu(I) state [68]. Briefly in general, this system is highly conserved
153 in the evolution of eukaryotes. In mammals, the copper transport system (CTS) contains the largest
154 number of components, and their patterns and expression levels are specific to tissues and stages of
155 ontogenesis. These proteins share a common trait, which is a copper binding domain that typically
156 contains a motif with two cysteine residues (CXC or CXXC). This domain is capable of bidentate Cu(I)
157 coordination. The total length of the domain with the cysteine motif is comprised of dozens of amino
158 acid residues. Their composition and sequence tune the affinity of the protein to copper and its
159 abilities to accept or deliver copper ions. The proteins, which are also known as Cu(I)-chaperones,
160 form transport chains and pass copper to each other in direct protein-protein contacts cycling
161 between the holo-form and apo-form. The direction of transportation is determined by the increasing
162 affinity to copper ions along the chain, which provides delivery of copper from the extracellular space
163 to various cell compartments. Transporters have two domains for interaction with their respective
164 partners. One domain is characteristic of the apo-form and provides binding to copper donors, and
165 the other domain provides recognition of a copper recipient in its apo-form. Cu(I)-chaperones that
166 insert copper into active centers of cuproenzymes have domains for interaction with apo-forms of
167 these enzymes. While all transporter proteins share the same principles and mechanisms of copper
168 transfer, they can be naturally classified into soluble and integral transmembrane proteins (pore-like
169 transporters or active pumps). Detailed, copper is transported into the cell by the CTR1 protein,
170 which is a universal high affinity copper importer (Table 3). The transport does not require ATP, and
171 this protein has a highly selective Cu(I) pore [69,70]. Knockout of the *Ctr1*^{-/-} gene in mice is lethal, and
172 the embryos die in the first half of gestation as well as display globally impaired morphogenesis [71].
173 The extracellular copper donors for mammalian CTR1 can be ceruloplasmin [72,73], albumin, and
174 alfa-2-macroglobulin [74]. Cu(I), which crosses the membrane through the CTR1 pore, is bound by
175 the cytosolic domain of this protein [75]. Then, the ion is passed to cytosolic chaperones (CCS, COX17,
176 ATOX1) that deliver copper to SOD1, mitochondria and Cu(I)/Cu(II)-ATPases, respectively [76-80].
177 In mammals, there are two P1-type copper transporting ATPases: ATP7A (Menkes ATPase) and
178 ATP7B (Wilson ATPase) [80]. These proteins were named according to the hereditary diseases
179 (Menkes disease and Wilson disease) that are associated with the loss of the respective functions of
180 each protein. The translocation of copper from the cytosol to the lumen of Golgi complex is ATP-
181 dependent and coupled with copper oxidation to Cu(II).

182 The CTR2 protein (low affinity copper transporter 2) is homologous to CTR1 through its primary
183 structure and channel-forming domain architecture, and it is localized to the membranes of
184 endosomes and lysosomes basically [81,82]. The proteins of the STEAP (Six-Transmembrane
185 Epithelial Antigen of Prostate) metalloreductase family are also present in those locations, including
186 cupric reductase STEAP4, which reduces Cu(II) to Cu(I) in endosomes [83]. Therefore, STEAP4/CTR2
187 activity may recycle copper from cuproenzymes that gets into the endolysosomal space during
188 endocytosis or macroautophagy and returns copper to a bioavailable pool. Perhaps, CTR2 controls
189 the entry of copper into cells, since copper is accumulated in *Ctr2*^{-/-} strains [82]. It is possible that part
190 of the copper is transported by DMT1 (the divalent metal transporter 1) [84], which can play role of
191 the compensatory mechanism for CTR1 deficiency in *Ctr1*^{-/-} cells [85]. One of the unresolved questions
192 in copper import mechanisms is how Cu(II) is converted to Cu(I) near cellular surface. The reductase
193 reducing copper prior to binding by the N-terminal domain of CTR1 was found in unicellular
194 eukaryotes but was not identified in mammals. STEAP2, localized on the plasma membrane, is
195 suspected as a copper reductase [73]. Maybe in high eukaryotes, specific reductase is not required,
196 and copper reduction is realized by CTR1 ectodomain, which resembles bacterial CopK protein
197 capable of intramolecular reduction of Cu(II) [86].

198 Copper is not accumulated by the proteins of the transport system, and these proteins may be
199 viewed as a temporary package for safe delivery. Therefore, the physiological role of CTS comprises
200 copper import, metalation of cuproenzymes, copper recycling and copper excretion from the cell.

201 Because of CTS, there are no 'free' copper ions in the cell [87]. However, copper disbalance can result
202 in the appearance of 'free' copper, the generation of ROS and oxidative stress as well as in the
203 decrease of bioavailable copper leading to cuproenzyme deficiency. As a result, neurodegeneration,
204 oncological and cardiovascular disorders develop [14]. The increase of 'free' copper levels also poses
205 a risk of zinc-copper displacement in zinc-finger transcription factors, which may cause global
206 changes in the regulation of gene expression [88]. "Free" copper ions were also shown to be able to
207 disrupt active sites of [Fe-S]-metalloproteins [89], which control electron transport, DNA synthesis
208 and repair, regulation of gene expression, iron metabolism *etc.* [90-92].

209 4. Copper turnover in body of adult mammals

210 In the extracellular fluids of multicellular organisms, like intracellular space, copper is
211 coordinated by various carriers. Copper is found in ceruloplasmin (Cp), albumin, α 2-macroglobulin,
212 and the bis-histidine complex [93-96], but more than 95% of it is bound to Cp [93]. Experiments with
213 radioactive copper have shown that copper is absorbed in the intestine, passed through the intestinal
214 cells to the bloodstream, where it is bound by albumin and transported to the liver. Near the plasma
215 membranes of hepatocytes, copper from albumin is converted to [His₂Cu(II)] and hepatocytes absorb
216 copper from the latter complex [95-97]. Inside these cells, copper is inserted in Cp and intracellular
217 cuproenzymes, bound by metallothionein, or excreted in bile [97]. The copper, which was inserted in
218 Cp, is secreted back to the bloodstream and distributed to organs. Cp is an N-glycoprotein that binds
219 6-9 copper atoms, and six of them are tightly bound in active centers, while the others are weakly
220 associated with the peptide chain [98]. In ceruloplasmin, the labile copper atoms can be replaced by
221 zinc atoms [99]. Cp has many functions, and it is classified as a "moonlighting" protein [31]. Cp
222 belongs to the family of blue multicopper (ferr)oxidases [32]; and the major function of Cp is the
223 facilitation of iron redox transitions, which are required for transferrin/transferrin receptor mediated
224 iron transport through membranes. *In vivo* Cp oxidizes dopamine, serotonin, epinephrine, and
225 norepinephrine and thus inactivates these hormones. Cp is an acute phase protein. Its level increases
226 several times in inflammation, ovulation, pregnancy, lactation, etc. There is a weak antioxidant
227 activity of Cp towards ROS. Cp is possibly the strongest regulator of neutrophil oxidative status and
228 apoptosis [100]. Cp can also serve as a copper donor for non-hepatocyte cells. In pulse-chase
229 experiments, it has been shown that copper atoms associated with Cp are transferred to the cytosol
230 of non-hepatic cells following the binding of Cp by a protein of the cell membrane. Candidate
231 proteins for Cp binding include the Cp receptor [101-103], CTR1 [72] or STEAP2 [73]. The protein
232 part of Cp, which has given part of its copper atoms (apo-Cp), is absorbed by endocytosis, desalated
233 in endolysosomal vesicles and then returned to circulation. This processed Cp is then captured by
234 endocytosis in hepatocytes through the group-specific receptor of acidic desalted glycoproteins
235 [104,105]. Cp, containing copper atoms that do not dissociate at low pH, is secreted to bile [106]. Thus,
236 in adult mammals, Cp plays important role in supporting copper balance outside cells.

237 5. Ontogenetic changes in copper metabolism in mammals

238 Ontogenetic development of mammals relies on two systems of cuproenzyme metalation, which
239 successively operate in the liver. The first system corresponds to the embryonic type of copper
240 metabolism (ETCM). It is active in prenatal and early postnatal stages of development, and then it is
241 superseded by the adult type of copper metabolism (ATCM). The phenotypic traits of ETCM include
242 the absence of regulated copper absorption in the small intestine (copper freely passes through the
243 wall of the intestine), low copper and Cp levels in blood serum (3-4 times lower compared to the
244 adults), the absence of copper excretion through bile, when copper is excreted with urine, and copper
245 is accumulated in the liver [16,107-109]. The concentration of metallothionein-associated copper in
246 blood serum of the newborns is 2 times higher than in adults [108]. The distribution of copper
247 between the liver and blood in ETCM and the pathways of its excretion corresponds to that observed
248 in Wilson's disease [14].

249 In ETCM, blood serum copper status correlates with hepatic copper metabolism [110,111]. So,
250 hepatic Cp-gene expression is low; the expression of *Atp7b* is practically absent. The translocation of

251 copper to the Golgi complex is implemented only by ATP7A, consequently, Cp is metallated by
252 ATP7A, but not ATP7B. The activity of the *Sod1* gene and the level of holo-SOD1 are decreased by
253 30% compared to adults. However, the activity of the *Ccs* gene is decreased by a factor of 10 [108]. It
254 may be suggested that holo-SOD1 formation in newborns is performed with the help of the
255 MT/glutathione pair in cytosol, or in the intermembrane space of mitochondria [64,65]. Despite the
256 rapid, almost exponential, accumulation of copper in liver cells, the activity of the *Ctr1* gene coding
257 for the major universal copper importer is low, and its expression level comprises ~10% of that in the
258 adults. The low expression level of *Ctr1* in the liver of newborns is accompanied by high expression
259 levels of *Ctr2* [108]. It is possible that CTR1 is not the main route of copper import to the liver during
260 the stage of development, which is characterized by ETCM. During the transition from ETCM to
261 ATCM copper concentration in the liver drops abruptly, while concentrations of Cp and Cp-
262 associated copper in serum increase. The change in copper metabolism type accompanies profound
263 changes in the expression pattern of copper transporters in the liver: the *Atp7a* gene is repressed, the
264 *Mt* gene is downregulated, while the *Sp1*, *Atp7b*, *Cp*, *Ctr1*, *Atox1*, and *Ccs* genes are activated
265 [108,110,111]. In intestinal, the transition from ETCM to ATCM occurs through increased abundance
266 and altered localization of *Ctr1*, *Atp7A*, and *Atp7B* [110], as a result the mechanism controlling
267 copper absorption is formed [113].

268 In adult mammals, the brain, like the liver, is organ with the high copper concentrations [114].
269 This fact is related to high concentrations of cuproenzymes in the brain cells. In addition to ubiquitous
270 cuproenzymes (COX and SOD1), the brain contains copper-dependent enzymes that take part in iron
271 transport, processing of the pro-neuropeptides and metabolism of neurotransmitters and synthesis
272 of melanin (Table 1). The distribution of the enzymes and the respective copper content in brain tissue
273 is not uniform [114,115]. The primary stages of copper delivery to the brain are unknown, and the
274 specific ontogenetic features are not known either. During development, the concentration of copper
275 in brain does not change dramatically (in contrast to the liver), but significantly increases in some
276 regions (cortex, hippocampus, cerebellum) [116], possibly in accordance with the synthesis of brain-
277 specific cuproenzymes during differentiation as shown on the PC12 cells [117]. Also, the
278 differentiation of PC12 cells into neurons induces metallothionein-3 expression, thereby resulting in
279 intracellular copper accumulation [118]. The cerebrospinal fluid contains copper and Cp, and their
280 concentrations are approximately 100 times lower compared to blood serum and they do not change
281 during ontogenetic development [119]. So, in the mammalian brain, intimate changes occur in the
282 copper metabolism during transition from ETCM to ATCM, which have not yet been evaluated.

283 In many regions of the brain, the synthesis of Cp splice-isoforms (secretory Cp and membrane-
284 associated GPI-Cp), which are formed by the alternative splicing of the primary transcript, occurs
285 [120]. GPI-anchored Cp is required for iron efflux from cells in the central nervous system [121]. The
286 synthesis of secretory Cp is stimulated by adjacent endothelial cells, which form the blood-brain
287 barrier [122] through synthesis of interleukin-6 activating transcription of the *Cp* gene [123]. In some
288 brain regions, secretory Cp is used as a ferroxidase [124]. *In vivo* the formation of Cp splice forms is
289 shifted towards GPI-Cp during neuronal differentiation [116]. Generally, the brain copper
290 metabolism are unrelated to the changes that occur in the liver during the early stages of
291 development. However, the facts are enough to consider that ontogenetic changes in the liver and
292 brain are controlled by transcriptional and posttranscriptional regulation of the genes for extracellular
293 and intracellular copper transporters.

294 6. Copper metabolism in the mammary gland through milk ceruloplasmin production

295 In adult mammals, copper assimilated in the small intestine is typically absorbed completely by
296 the liver in several minutes. In approximately 90 minutes, copper is returned to the bloodstream as a
297 component of serum Cp [125]. However, in lactating females, ~30% of assimilated copper (the total
298 amount of which is 9-10 times higher compared to non-pregnant animals) bypasses the liver and is
299 absorbed by the cells of the mammary gland. In 30 minutes, this copper can be found in milk [126].
300 The dynamics of copper transfer in lactating females perfectly coincides with the dynamics of the
301 secretion of [¹⁴C]Cp to the milk [127]. The mRNA coding the secretory form of Cp is found in the

302 transcriptome of cells of the lactating mammary glands. The length of milk Cp-mRNA and the
303 molecular mass of milk Cp do not differ from hepatic Cp-mRNA and plasma Cp correspondingly
304 [127,128]. Milk Cp possesses oxidase and ferroxidase activities [129-131]; however, the structure of
305 glycan chains in milk Cp are different from serum Cp, as indicated by 2D-immunoelectrophoresis
306 with lectins [131]. It is likely that milk Cp glycan moiety has no N-acetyl neuraminic acid residues.
307 Concentration of milk Cp is the highest in colostrum and decreases during lactation [129-131].

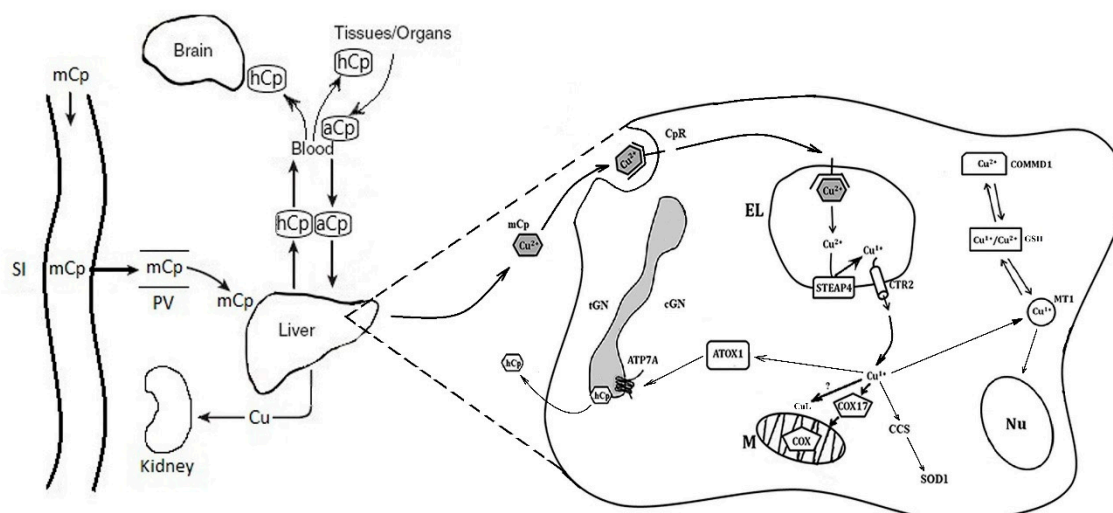
308 In mammary gland cells, strong and rapid upregulation of the *Cp* gene as well as the *Ctr1* and
309 *Atp7b* genes, which provide Cp metalation, is observed shortly before the end of gestation [132].
310 During lactation, the expression levels of *Cp*, *Ctr1* and *Atp7b* genes gradually decrease according to
311 change in Cp concentration in milk. The same pattern of Cp gene expression was reproduced *in vitro*
312 in the PMC42-LA mammary epithelial cell culture models [133]. The activity level of the Cp gene
313 expression in the cells of the mammary gland does not depend on the availability of copper in the
314 female's diet or Cp levels in the blood [134,135]. Thus, the cells of the mammary gland produce a
315 tissue-specific molecular form of soluble Cp, and the concentration of that Cp is strictly regulated at
316 the transcription and splice levels in during pregnancy and lactation.

317 7. Milk Cp is a source of copper, which adapted to ETCM of the newborns

318 In milk, copper is present in a nondialyzable fraction and approximately 75-80% of copper is
319 found in Cp [136,137]. In colostrum, the Cp molecule binds more labile copper atoms, which can be
320 removed by the copper-specific resin Chelex-100, than in mature milk [137]. The concentrations of
321 Cp and copper in milk decrease proportionally during lactation. In human colostrum, Cp and copper
322 concentrations are 150 ± 30 mg/L and 600 ± 200 μ g/L, respectively, and they drop to 40 ± 20 mg/L and
323 150 ± 20 μ g/L in transitional milk and decrease up to ~10% of the initial values in mature milk. The
324 decrease of the copper concentration follows the increase of the consumed milk volume, so the total
325 quantity of copper in the daily diet of the newborn remains practically invariable. Up to an age of 6
326 months, the infant typically consumes approximately 1 L of milk, and the concentration of copper is
327 10 times lower than in the colostrum. We measured milk Cp and copper levels in more than 200
328 women during the first ten days of lactation, and only in one case their concentrations did not
329 decrease to the 10th day of lactation. In this patient, an A→C point mutation was found in the
330 promoter region of the *Cp* gene (at position -1966). This nucleotide is part of the *cis*-element for
331 transcription factor C/EBP β , which may potentially take part in gradual suppression of the Cp gene
332 activity [137]. The copper concentration in breast milk decreases approximately the same manner in
333 Turkish women [138]. In all mammalian species (rats, pigs, dogs, mares, cats, human), in which milk
334 copper status indexes were assessed, Cp and copper concentrations decrease during lactation, and
335 this process does not depend on the copper concentration in blood [136-142]. Due to, in breastfeeding,
336 the copper content in the infant's food can be approximately maintained at a constant level. Therefore,
337 the decrease of Cp and the Cp-associated copper concentration in milk is a trait that is conserved
338 between species and inside the species. Looks like that the decrease in the activity of the *Cp* gene in
339 breast cells during lactation is preserved by natural selection.

340 The high biological importance of milk Cp is indicated by the following facts. Copper atoms that
341 are associated with Cp molecules are assimilated by newborns more easily [130]. Knockout of the *Cp*
342 ^{-/-} gene in mice causes a decrease in the copper concentration in milk of the females and copper
343 misbalance in the pups [143]. The same effect is produced by mutations of the *Atp7b* gene in the *toxic*
344 *milk* line of mice [144]. The progeny of *tx/tx* mice dies because of the copper deficiency in mother's
345 milk, but it completely survives if fed from the first day of life by a wild type 'nurse' [145]. In the
346 gastrointestinal tract of newborns, milk Cp molecule is not degraded and retains oxidase activity
347 [146], because in stomachs of newborns the pH levels are close to neutral. From the gastrointestinal
348 tract to bloodstream milk Cp is transferred without any modifications by transcytosis. A specific
349 endocytic Cp receptor takes part in this process. The same receptor facilitates the capture of milk Cp
350 by the membranes of hepatocytes. The Cp receptor is synthesized in the cells of the small intestine
351 and the liver only at the ETCM stage [146,147]. It is likely that copper is released from milk Cp in the
352 acidic medium of endolysosomes, then it is reduced to Cu(I) by STEAP4 and transported to the

353 cytosol by CTR2 [107]. Thus, the copper transport system of newborns is adapted to milk Cp as the
354 source of copper nutrients (Figure 1).



355
356 **Figure 1.** Cartoon scheme of the copper turnover in the hepatocytes of newborns. In newborns, milk
357 Cp enters to gastrointestinal tract and due to transcytosis transfers into bloodstream without
358 modification, and then it binds with hepatic Cp receptor and proceeds into endolysosomes. At pH >
359 5, Cu(II) ions are dissociated from milk Cp molecule, Cu(II) is reduced to Cu(I) by STEAP4 and
360 imported by CTR2 in cytosol. Here, Cu(I) is redistributed between Cu(I)-chaperons to be delivered to
361 COX, SOD1 and Cp. In cytosol, copper is bound with MT1, involved to redox cycle MT/GSH and can
362 be excreted by COMMD1. CuL bind Cu(I) ions and transported their into mitochondria as well as
363 exported to extracellular space. Because MT1 is found in mitochondria and nucleus, possibly, it
364 transfers copper to the nucleus and mitochondria (or brings copper to their cytosolic surface).
365 Abbreviations on the schema: mCp – milk ceruloplasmin; SI – small intestine; PV – portal vein; hCp –
366 holo-ceruloplasmin; aCp – desialic ceruloplasmin; CpR – ceruloplasmin receptor; Nu – nucleus; M –
367 mitochondria; EL – endolysosome; cGN – cis-Golgi; tGN – trans-Golgi; GSH – glutathione; MT1 –
368 metallothionein 1; ATP7A – Cu(I)/Cu(II)-transporting ATPase; CTR2 – low affinity copper transporter
369 2; ATOX1, CCS, and COX17 – cytosolic Cu(I)-chaperons for ATP7A, superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1),
370 and cytochrome-c-oxidase (COX) respectively; STEAP4 – six-transmembrane epithelial antigen of
371 prostate; CuL – low molecular weight carrier of copper; Cu – copper ions.

372 8. Specific features of copper metabolism in newborns fed infant formulas

373 The children fed exclusively with cow milk, which contains copper and milk Cp, but at
374 concentrations that are lower compared human milk, at an age of 6 months develop severe anemia,
375 neutropenia, hypocupremia, display malformation of their bones, defects in erythrocyte maturation
376 *etc* [18]. These symptoms can be avoided by adding copper salts to the infant formula. The adapted
377 infant formulas contain approximately 600 µg of copper per 1 L of the consumed liquid, and that
378 amount roughly corresponds to the concentration of copper in colostrum. Copper ions are added as
379 inorganic salts, as simple coordination compounds, or as a [His₂Cu(II)] complex. In infant formula,
380 copper is dialyzable, it is not “packed” into Cp and its concentration in the diet from birth up to 6
381 months of age does not change. So, the newborns fed with such formulas receive copper in a highly
382 mobile form, which easily gets to the bloodstream but is not delivered to the endosomes of
383 hepatocytes. Additionally, the daily copper supply progressively increases along with the volume of
384 consumed food. By the end of the first month, copper consumption with the milk formula exceeds
385 the normal copper consumption of breastfed infants many times [136]. In rats, which were fed

386 analogous milk formula during 1-9 days of life, the transition from ETCM to ATCM occurred on the
387 fifth day of life, that is, seven days earlier than in nursed rats (Table 4, borrowed from our article
388 [136]). The transition manifested as an abrupt drop of copper concentration in the liver, an increase
389 in blood serum copper levels and preterm activation of the *Cp* gene at the transcription and
390 translation levels. Copper status was also affected in the cerebrospinal fluid. The concentration of
391 copper and *Cp* were increased by a factor of 7. The specific content of copper in the brain cells did
392 not change. In newborn rats with ETCM and ATCM, which were supplemented with copper ions,
393 *Ctr1*, *Atp7b*, and metallothionein mRNA levels in the liver increase [148]. Simultaneously, alanine
394 aminotransferase levels elevated suggesting a risk of copper toxicity with supplementation during
395 infancy. Both experiments with baby formula [136] and copper oral supplementation [148] show that
396 suckling rat pups are ability to adapt higher amounts of nutrition copper due to changes in copper
397 transporters expression. But the data also demonstrate that a high concentration of 'free' copper ions
398 in the food strongly disturbs physiological copper balance in newborns. And brain copper
399 dyshomeostasis is one of the traits of neurodegenerative diseases [149].

400 9. Conclusion

401 The reviewed data suggest that the copper imbalance in early postnatal period, which is induced
402 by feeding infant formulas, influences various aspects of copper metabolism. This is primarily an
403 increase in the *Cp* and copper concentration in the blood serum and cerebrospinal fluid, but there are
404 no grounds that it can affect the cuproenzymes formation. It is possible that, in individuals that carry
405 no latent inherited defects in copper homeostasis, the nutrient copper excess is compensated in
406 further development and has no significant impact on health. But the individuals carrying
407 heterozygous mutations in genes related to copper homeostasis (e.g., heterozygous carriers of
408 Wilson's disease) may be especially sensitive to copper imbalance in early childhood [150]. However,
409 the disturbance of regulatory pool copper can influence on the signaling, activity of the transcription
410 factors (*HIF1*, *p53*, nuclear hormone receptors), and [Fe-S]-dependent enzymes. Such effects can be
411 very significant, but now their identification is difficult. Because some participants of CTS are still
412 unknown while some copper-binding proteins are 'moonlighting' and their activities dependent on
413 copper level (e.g. *Cp*, *CTR1*, *ATOX1*, *COMMD1*) [31,151-155], we may suggest that the differences
414 between breastmilk and infant formulas with respect to copper concentrations and copper
415 'packaging' by the *Cp* protein may be one of the factors that contribute to the negative effects of bottle
416 feeding on the cognitive abilities of children [156,157].

417 The delayed effects of impairments of copper homeostasis in early infancy remain poorly
418 studied. If this problem is ignored, there is a risk that it will impact the development of intellectual
419 abilities, physical and mental health. Although many aspects of copper metabolism need further
420 thorough investigation, it may be stated that for ideal development of the intellectual and physical
421 qualities of the individual significant attention should be given to the balanced content of copper in
422 the infancy diet.

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425 turnover in the hepatocytes of newborns: P.S.B., Y.A.Z.; Co-author of conceptualization and critical revision of
426 the manuscript for important intellectual content: F.D.S.

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