Increased Copper in Individuals with Autism Normalizes Post Zinc Therapy More Efficiently in Individuals with Concurrent GI Disease

Anthony J. Russo
Visiting Assistant Professor of Biology, Hartwick College, Oneonta, NY 13820. Research Director Health Research Institute/Pfeiffer Treatment Center 4575 Weaver Parkway Warrenville, Illinois 60555.
Corresponding author email: ajrusso@hriptc.org

Abstract
Aim: To assess plasma zinc and copper concentration in individuals with autism.
Subjects and methods: Plasma from 79 autistic individuals, and 18 age and gender similar neurotypical controls, were tested for plasma zinc and copper using inductively-coupled plasma-mass spectrometry.
Results: Autistic individuals had significantly elevated plasma levels of copper and Cu/Zn and lower, but not significantly lower, plasma Zn compared to neurotypical controls. Zn levels increased significantly in autistic individuals with and without GI disease after zinc therapy. Cu decreased significantly after zinc therapy in the GI disease group but not in the autistic group without GI disease. Autistic children significantly improved with respect to hyperactivity and stimming after zinc therapy in autistic children with GI disease. Autistic children without GI disease did not improve in these symptoms after the same therapy.
Discussion: These results suggest an association between zinc and copper plasma levels and autism, and they suggest that zinc therapy may be most effective at lowering copper levels in autistic children with GI disease.

Keywords: autism, zinc, copper
Introduction

Autism is a complex, behaviorally defined neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by social deficits, language impairments, and repetitive behaviors. There has been a dramatic increase in the diagnosis of autism over the past decade.1,2

The etiology of this complex disease is highly heritable, but likely involves environmental factors.3 Twin studies demonstrate concordance rates of 82%–92% in monozygotic twins and 1%–10% concordance rate in dizygotic twins.1 Sibling recurrence risk (6%–8%) is 35 times the population prevalence.1,4

Genetic analysis suggests that as many as 15 genes might be involved in autism spectrum disorders (ASD), including variants on chromosomes 2q, 7q, 15q, and 17q.5–8

Children with ASD frequently have accompanying gastrointestinal, immunological, or nonspecific neurological symptoms.9–15

Zinc has a unique and extensive role in biological processes. Since the discovery of this element as an essential nutrient for living organisms,16–18 many diverse biochemical roles for it have been identified. These include roles in enzyme function,19 nucleic acid metabolism,20,21 cell signaling22 and apoptosis.23 Zinc is essential for physiological processes including growth and development,24 lipid metabolism,25 brain and immune function.24,26

Dietary factors that reduce the availability of zinc are the most common cause of zinc deficiency. However, inherited defects can also result in reduced zinc. Both nutritional and inherited zinc deficiency produce similar symptoms, such as dermatitis, diarrhea, alopecia and loss of appetite.27 With more prolonged deficiency causing growth impairment and neuropsychological changes such as emotional instability, irritability and depression.28–31

Deficiency of zinc in man has now been recognized to occur not only as a result of nutritional factors, but also in various disease states, including malabsorption syndromes, acrodermatitis enteropathica, Crohn’s disease, alcoholism and cirrhosis of the liver.59,60

Low intracellular zinc has been found to be associated with DNA damage, oxidative stress, antioxidant defenses, and DNA repair,32,33 and zinc may serve as an important anti-oxidant.34

Copper (Cu), a trace metal, is also an essential element for living cells. It plays an important role in redox reactions because of its easy conversion from Cu+ to Cu++. Copper is transported mainly by ceruloplasmin, a copper-binding antioxidant protein that is synthesized in several tissues, including brain.35,36

Copper levels are low in Menke’s kinky hair syndrome,37 malnutrition38 and Malabsorption.39 Elevated copper levels are associated with infections,40 inflammation,41 trauma,42 Wilson’s disease,43 excessive dietary intake44 systemic lupus erythematosus,35 as well as autism.46

Because of the potential association between Zn and Cu levels and autism, we tested patients with autism for plasma concentration of these elements and then compared those levels with severity of disease symptoms in autistic children with concurrent GI disease and those without GI disease.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

Experimental and control

Plasma from consecutive individuals with diagnosed autism (n = 73; 36 male; mean age 38 years) and controls (n = 16; 7 male; mean age 42 years) was obtained from patients presenting at the Health Research Institute/Pfeiffer Treatment Center. These individuals meet the DSM-IV criteria and many were diagnosed using The Autism Diagnostic Interview-Revised—ADI-R before presenting for treatment at the Pfeiffer Treatment Center, Warrenville, Il.47

Twenty-five of the autistic patients in this study had documented GI disease (7 had chronic constipation; 3 had GERD; 7 had gluten intolerance; 1 with IBS, 1 with Colitis and 1 with Celiac disease; 5 had generalized GI disease). Patient consent was obtained from all patients involved in this study and this study was approved by the IRB of the Health Research Institute/Pfeiffer Treatment Center.

Severity of disease

An autism questionnaire was used to evaluate symptoms. The questionnaire (Pfeiffer Questionnaire) asked parents or caregivers to assess the severity of the following symptoms: Awareness, Expressive Language, Receptive Language, (Conversational)
Pragmatic Language, Focus, Attention, Hyperactivity, Impulsivity, Perseveration, Fine Motor Skills, Gross Motor Skills, Hypotonia (low muscle tone), Tip Toeing, Rocking/Pacing, Stimming, Obsessions/Fixations, Eye Contact, Sound Sensitivity, Light Sensitivity, Tactile Sensitivity, Pica/eats dirt, metal, Tics and Seizures. The symptoms were rated on a scale of 0–5 (5 being the highest severity) for each of these behaviors.

**Zinc and anti-oxidant therapy**

Individuals in this study who presented to the Pfeiffer Treatment Center with autism were tested for zinc, copper and anti-oxidant levels. Based on deficiencies, they were then prescribed the appropriate dose of anti-oxidants. Pre-therapy patients represent those who were tested when they first presented and were not previously taking any zinc or anti-oxidants. Post-Therapy patients received anti-oxidant therapy (Vitamin C, E, B-6 as well as Magnesium, and Manganese if warranted), and zinc supplementation (as zinc picolinate), daily, for a minimum of 8 weeks.

**Serum/plasma**

All experimental and control plasmas were treated in an identical fashion—refrigerated (4C) immediately after collection and cell/serum separation, then used within 4 hours for inductively-coupled plasma-mass spectrometry.

**Statistics**

Inferential statistics were derived from t-test with 95% confidence intervals.

**Results**

Plasma from 79 autistic individuals (diagnosed by the Autism Diagnostic Interview-Revised—ADI-R), and 18 age and gender similar neurotypical controls, were tested for plasma zinc and copper using inductively-coupled plasma-mass spectrometry.

Autistic individuals had significantly elevated plasma levels of copper ($P = 0.0133$) and Cu/Zn (Copper Zinc ratio) ($P = 0.05065$) and lower, but not significantly lower Zn ($P = 0.3541$) compared to neurotypical controls (Table 1).

There was no difference in Cu and Zn levels based on type of GI disease (ANOVA $P = 0.74$ Cu levels; $P = 0.84$ Zn levels). There was not enough data to adequately assess any differences in symptom severity between these groups.

Zn levels increased in autistic individuals with GI Disease (N = 25) ($P = 0.0003$) and without GI disease (N = 54) ($P = 0.0001$) (Table 3) after zinc therapy. Cu decreased significantly after zinc therapy in the GI disease group ($P = 0.02425$) but not in the autistic group without GI disease ($P = 0.0839$) (Table 2).

Autistic children significantly improved with respect to hyperactivity ($P = 0.00491$) and stimulating ($P = 0.05594$) after zinc therapy in autistic children with GI disease. Autistic children without GI disease did not improve in hyperactivity ($P = 0.1937$) or stimulating ($P = 0.97406$) after the same therapy (Table 4).

### Table 1. Significant differences in zinc and copper concentrations (mg/dL) and Cu/Zn between individuals with autism and neurotypical controls.

|                | Controls Cu | Autistic Cu |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| Mean           | 90.42       | 111.50      |
| SD             | 19.55       | 27.73       |
| $P = 0.0133$   |             |             |

### Table 2. Plasma copper decreases significantly in autistic children with GI disease.

|                | Autistic Cu pre therapy | Autistic Cu post therapy |
|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Mean           | 111.50                  | 98.78                    |
| SD             | 27.73                   | 24.86                    |
| $P = 0.00972$  |                         |                          |

|                | GI Cu pre therapy | GI Cu post therapy |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Mean           | 112.74            | 95.80              |
| SD             | 23.82             | 17.86              |
| $P = 0.02425$  |                    |                    |

|                | Non GI Cu pre therapy | Non GI Cu post therapy |
|----------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| Mean           | 110.94                | 100.03                 |
| SD             | 29.53                 | 27.38                  |
| $P = 0.0839$   |                       |                       |
No other symptoms improved significantly post therapy.

**Discussion**
There is much support for the role of GABA in the etiology of autism. Alterations in levels of GABA and GABA receptors in autistic patients indicate that the GABAergic system, which is responsible for synaptic inhibition in the adult brain, may be involved in autism.47-49

Zinc has been found to be associated with GABA and glutamate regulation, particularly through anxiolytic activity, modulating GABAergic inhibition and seizure susceptibility.50-52 Zinc deficiency has also been found to be associated with GABAergic impairment.53

Copper, on the other hand, has been found to be a potent inhibitor of GABA-evoked responses, particularly in Purkinje cells. Copper toxicity, notably in Wilson’s disease, could result, to some extent, from chronic GABAA receptor blockade.54 Data strongly suggest that Cu and Zn might interact with each other with GABAA receptor complex and participate in modulation of synaptic transmission.55

Dopamine-β-hydroxylase (DBH) is a neurotransmitter, synthesizing enzyme which catalyzes the formation of norepinephrine from dopamine. Copper is a co-factor required for this enzyme’s activity.57,58 Increased norepinephrine levels have been found in autistic individuals,56 which, at least in part, could be explained by excess copper.

Our study shows that autistic individuals have lower levels of zinc and significantly higher levels of copper when compared to neurotypical controls. We suggest that the low zinc and high copper may modulate GABA, ultimately causing a lowering of transmitter concentration. High copper may also be associated with high norepinephrine found in autistic children, and low GABA and high epinephrine may, in turn, manifest as excitability and hyperactivity associated autistic symptoms. To evaluate this relationship, future studies will assess more patients with autism and evaluate GABA and norepinephrine levels, as they are associated with Cu and Zn levels.

Our data also showed that, post zinc therapy, zinc levels normalized in both autistic children with GI disease and those without GI disease. However, copper only decreased significantly (normalized) in the GI group and this decrease correlated with symptom (hyperactivity and stimming) improvement. This suggests that copper normalization after zinc supplementation is most effective in autistic children with GI Disease. This may be associated with concurrent improvement of GI and immune functionality or related to a dysfunctional carrier, such as metallothionein, in these patients.

### Table 3. Plasma zinc increases significantly in autistic children with and without GI disease.

|                    | Autistic Zn pre therapy | Autistic Zn post therapy |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Mean               | 78.36                   | 102.59                   |
| SD                 | 20.32                   | 28.14                    |
| P                  | 0.0001                  |                          |

|                    | GI Zn pre therapy | GI Zn post therapy |
|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Mean               | 74.30             | 112.27             |
| SD                 | 26.66             | 31.86              |
| P                  | 0.0003            |                    |

|                    | Non GI Zn pre therapy | Non GI Zn post therapy |
|--------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| Mean               | 80.20                 | 98.56                  |
| SD                 | 16.71                 | 25.85                  |
| P                  | 0.0001                |                        |

### Table 4. Hyperactivity and stimming improve significantly in autistic children with GI disease post zinc therapy.

**Hyperactivity**

|                    | GI pre therapy | GI post therapy |
|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Mean               | 4.13           | 1.57            |
| SD                 | 1.03           | 1.13            |
| P                  | 0.00491        |                 |

|                    | Non GI pre therapy | Non GI post therapy |
|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Mean               | 3.25                | 2.24                |
| SD                 | 1.72                | 1.58                |
| P                  | 0.1937              |                     |

**Stimming**

|                    | GI pre therapy | GI post therapy |
|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Mean               | 3.63           | 1.25            |
| SD                 | 0.95           | 2.05            |
| P                  | 0.05594        |                 |

|                    | Non GI pre therapy | Non GI post therapy |
|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Mean               | 2.00                | 2.03                |
| SD                 | 2.02                | 1.74                |
| P                  | 0.97406             |                     |
Disclosures

Author(s) have provided signed confirmations to the publisher of their compliance with all applicable legal and ethical obligations in respect to declaration of conflicts of interest, funding, authorship and contributorship, and compliance with ethical requirements in respect to treatment of human and animal test subjects. If this article contains identifiable human subject(s) author(s) were required to supply signed patient consent prior to publication. Author(s) have confirmed that the published article is unique and not under consideration nor published by any other publication and that they have consent to reproduce any copyrighted material. The peer reviewers declared no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgement

This study was supported by a grant from the Autism Research Institute.

References

1. Muhle R, Trentacoste SV, Rapin I. The genetics of autism. Pediatrics. 2004;113:e472–86.
2. Yeagin-Allsopp M, Rice C, Karapurkar T, Doernberg N, Boyle C, Murphy C. Prevalence of autism in a US metropolitan area. J Am Med Assoc. 2003; 289:49–55.
3. Schenen CN. Epigenetics of autism spectrum disorders. Human Molecular Genetics. 2006;15:138–50.
4. Formbene E. Epidemiological surveys of autism and other pervasive developmental disorders: an update. J Autism Dev Disord. 2003;33: 365–82.
5. Barrett S, Beck JC, Bernard R, et al. An autosomal genomic screen for autism. Collaborative linkage study of autism. Am J Med Genet. 1999;88: 609–15.
6. International Molecular genetics study of autism consortium. Further characterization of the autism susceptibility locus AUTS1 on chromosome 7q. Hum Mol Genet. 2001;10:973–82.
7. Yonan AL, Alarcon M, Cheng R, et al. A genomewide screen of 345 families for autism-susceptibility loci. Am J Hum Genet. 2003;73: 886–97.
8. Hutcheson HB, Olson LM, Bradford Y, et al. Examination of NRCAM, LRRN3, KIAA0716, and LAMB1 as autism candidate genes. BMC Med Genet. 2004;5:12.
9. Valicenti-McDermott M, McVear K, Rapin I, Wershil BK, Cohen H, Shinmar S. Frequency of gastrointestinal symptoms in children with autistic spectrum disorders and association with family history of autoimmune disease. J Dev Behav Pediatr. 2006;27:5128–36.
10. Iyonouchi H, Geng L, Ruby A, Zimmerman-Bier B. Dysregulated innate immune responses in young children with autism spectrum disorders: their relationship to gastrointestinal symptoms and dietary intervention. Neuropsychobiology. 2005;51:77–85.
11. White JF. Intestinal pathophysiology in autism. Exp Biol Med (Maywood). 2003;228:639–49.
12. Russo AJ, Krigsman A, Jepson B, Wakefield A. Low serum Alpha-1 Antitrypsin Associated with Anti-PR3 ANCA in Autistic children with GI Disease. Genomics Insights. 2009;2:1–9
13. Russo AJ, Krigsman A, Jepson B, Wakefield A. Anti-PR3 and anti-MPO IgG ANCA in autistic children with chronic GI disease. Immunology and Immunogenetics Insights. 2009;2:21–8.
14. Russo AJ. Anti-Metallothionein IgG and levels of metallothionein in autistic families. Swiss Med Weekl. 2008;138(5–6):70–7.
15. Russo AJ. Anti-metallothionein IgG and levels of metallothionein in autistic children with GI disease. Drug, Healthcare and Patient Safety. 2009;1: 1–8.
16. Raulin J. Etudes clinique sur la vegetation. Annales des Sciences Vegetation. 1869;11:93–299.
17. Maze P. Influences respectives des elements de la solution gmineral du mais. Annales de l’Institut Pasteur (Paris). 1914;28:21–69.
18. Todd WR, Elvehjem CA, Hart EB. Zinc in the nutrition of the rat. American Journal of Physiology. 1934;107:146–56.
19. Vallee BL, Auld DS. Zinc coordination, function, and structure of zinc enzymes and other proteins. Biochemistry. 1989;29:5647–59.
20. Miller WJ, Blackmon DM, Gentry RP, Pitts WJ, Powell GW. Absorption, excretion, and retention of orally administered zinc-65 in various tissues of zinc-deficient and normal goats and calves. Journal of Nutrition. 1967;92: 71–8.
21. Brown RS, Sander C, Argos P. The primary structure of transcription factor IIIA has 12 consecutive repeats. FEBs Letters. 1985;186:271–4.
22. McNulty TJ, Taylor CW. Extracellular heavy- metal ions stimulate Ca2+ mobilization in hepatocytes. Biochemical Journal. 1999;339(Pt 3):555–61.
23. Zalewska PD, Forbes JJ, Betts WH. Correlation of apoptosis with change in intracellular labile Zn(II) using zinquin [(2-methyl-8-p-toluenesulphonami-do-6 quinolyl)oxacyclic acid], a new specific fluorescent probe for Zn(II). Biochemical Journal. 1993;296:403–8.
24. Prasad AS. Clinical manifestations of zinc deficiency. Annual Review of Nutrition. 1985;5:341–63.
25. Cunnane SC. Role of zinc in lipid and fatty acid metabolism and in membranes. Progress in Food and Nutrition Science. 1988;12:151–88.
26. Endre L, Katona Z, Gyurkovits K. Zinc deficiency and cellular immune deficiency in acrodermatitis enteropathica. Lancet. 1975;2:119–6.
27. Aggert PJ. Acrodernatitis enteropathica. Journal of Inherited Metabolic Disease. 1983;1:39–43.
28. Halsted JA, Ronaghy HA, Abadi P. Zinc deficiency in man. American Journal of Medicine. 1972;53:277–84.
29. Prasad AS. Role of zinc in human health. Boletin de la Asociacion Medica de Puerto Rico. 1991;83:558–60.
30. Villee BL, Falcuk KH. The biochemical basis of zinc physiology. Physiological Reviews. 1993;73:79–118.
31. Hambridge M. Human zinc deficiency. J Nutr. 2000;130(SS Suppl):1344S–9.
32. Ho E, Ames B. Low intracellular zinc induces oxidative DNA damage, disrupts p53, NFκB, and AP1 DNA binding, and affects DNA repair in a rat glioma cell line. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2002;99(26):16770–5.
33. Song Y, et al. Zinc deficiency affects DNA damage, oxidative stress, antioxidant defenses, and DNA repair in rats. Journal of Nutrition. 2009; 139:1626–31.
34. Powell S. The Antioxidant properties of zinc. Journal of Nutrition. 2000; 130:1447S–54.
35. Vassiliiev V, Harris ZL, Zatta P. Ceruloplasmin in neurodegenerative diseases. Brain Res Rev. 2005;49:633–40.
36. Arnaud P, GianaZZa E, Mirbel Ceruloplasmin L. Methods Enzymol. 1988;163: 441–52.
37. Horn N, Tonessen T, Tumer Z. Menkes disease: an X-linked neurological disorder of the copper metabolism. Brain Pathol. 1992;2:351–62.
38. Wendland BE, Greenwood CE, Weinberg I, Young KW. Malaria and institutionalized seniors: the iatrogenic component. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2003; 51:85–90.
39. Kumar N. Copper deficiency myelopathy (human swayback). Mayo Clin Proc. 2006;81:1371–84.
40. Kassu AT, Yabutani ZI, Mahmud A, et al. Alterations in serum levels of trace elements in tuberculosis and HIV infections. Eur J Clin Nutr. 2006; 60:580–6.
41. Ko WS, Guo CH, Heph MS, et al. Blood micronutrient, oxidative stress and viral load in patients with chronic hepatitis C. World J Gastroenterol. 2005; 11:4679–72.
42. Molteni A, Ward WF, Kim YT, et al. Serum copper concentration as an index of clinical lung injury. Adv Exp Med Biol. 1989;258:273–85.
43. Das SK, Ray K. Wilson’s disease: an update. *Nat Clin Pract Neurol.* 2006;2:482–93.
44. Wapnir RA. Copper absorption and bioavailability. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1998;67:141–3.
45. Yilmaz A, Sari RA, Gundogdu M, Kose N, Dag E. Trace elements and some extracellular antioxidant proteins levels in serum of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus. *Clin Rheumatol.* 2005;24:331–5.
46. Chauhan A, et al. Increased copper-mediated oxidation of membrane phosphatidylethanolamine in autism. *American Journal of Biochemistry and Biotechnology.* 2008;4(2):95–100.
47. Collins A, et al. Investigation of autism and GABA receptor subunit genes in multiple ethnic groups. *Neurogenetics.* 2006;7(3):167–74.
48. Ma DQ, et al. Identification of significant association and gene–gene interaction of GABA receptor subunit genes in autism. *Am J Hum Genet.* 2005;77(3):377–88.
49. Ashley-Koch AE, et al. An analysis paradigm for investigating multi-locus effects in complex disease: examination of three GABA receptor subunit genes on 15q11-q13 as risk factors for autistic disorder. *Ann Hum Genet.* May 2006;70(Pt 3):281–92.
50. Xie X, Smart T. Properties of GABA-mediated synaptic potentials induced by zinc in adult rat hippocampal pyramidal neurones. *J Physiol.* 1993;460:503–23.
51. Ben-Ari Y, Cherubini E. Zinc and GABA in developing brain. *Nature.* 1991;353:220.
52. Takeda A, Hirate M, Tamano H, Oku N. Release of glutamate and GABA in the hippocampus under zinc deficiency. *J Neurosci Res.* 2003;72(4):537–42.
53. Takeda A, Itoh H, Imamo S, Oka N. Impairment of GABAergic neurotransmitter system in the amygdala of young rats after 4-week zinc deprivation. *Neurochem Int.* 2006;49(8):746–50.
54. Sharonova IN, Vorobjev VS, Haas HL. High-affinity copper block of GABA(A) receptor-mediated currents in acutely isolated cerebellar Purkinje cells of the rat. *Eur J Neurosci.* 1998;10(2):522–8.
55. Kim H, Macdonald RL. An N-terminal histidine is the primary determinant of α subunit-dependent Cu²⁺ sensitivity of αβγγ3L GABA₃ receptors. *Molecular Pharmacology.* 2003;64:1145–52.
56. Lake CR, Ziegler MG, Murphy DL. Increased norepinephrine levels and decreased dopamine-beta-hydroxylase activity in primary autism. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* May 1977;34(5):553–6.
57. Rahman K, et al. Dopamine-β-hydroxylase (DBH), its cofactors and other biochemical parameters in the serum of neurological patients in Bangladesh. *Int J Biomed Sci.* 2009;5(4):395–401.
58. Deinum J, et al. DBH gene variants that cause low plasma dopamine β-hydroxylase with or without a severe orthostatic syndrome. *J Med Genet.* 2004;41:e38 doi:10.
59. Prasad AS. The role of zinc in gastrointestinal and liver disease. *Clin Gastroenterol.* Sep 1983;12(3):713–41.
60. Prasad AS. Clinical manifestations of zinc deficiency. *Annu Rev Nutr.* 1985;5:341–63.