

1 **Reference intervals of spot urine copper excretion in preschool**  
2 **children and potential application in pre-symptomatic screening of**  
3 **Wilson's disease.**

4  
5 **Running head:**

6 Biological variation of spot urine copper excretion

7  
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30 **Keywords:**

31 Wilson disease, spot urine copper excretion, Screening

32

33 **List of abbreviations:**

34 ROC: Receiver operator curve

35 AUC: area under curve

36 WD: Wilson's disease

37 IMD: inherited metabolic diseases

38

39 **List of "Human Genes":**

40 *ATP7B* gene: ATPase copper transporting beta

41

42 **ABSTRACT**

43

44 Background:

45 With spot urine collected from a large control sample of preschool children (aged 3-7 years),  
46 reference range of spot urine copper excretion indexes and their biological variation were defined.

47

48 Methods:

49 In order to investigate their test performance in screening of Wilson disease in this age group,  
50 multiple spot urine samples from 6 WD patients diagnosed at presymptomatic stage were analysed.

51 Cut-off values for spot urine copper concentration, copper to creatinine ratio and copper to  
52 osmolality ratio at 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ , 0.1  $\mu\text{mol/mmol}$  and 0.00085  $\mu\text{mol/mOsmol}$  (32  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , 56  $\mu\text{g/g}$   
53 creatinine and 0.054  $\mu\text{g/mOsmol}$ , respectively, in conventional units) have potential application in  
54 differentiation of WD patients.

55

56 Results:

57 The data provides a new insight that the inter-individual variation of spot urine copper indexes  
58 (CV<sub>g</sub>) were moderate with figures around 60% which was similar to other clinically useful urine  
59 tests, such as urine albumin excretion ratio. Spot urine copper excretion strongly correlated with  
60 both urine creatinine and osmolality. And more than 95% of data points in health preschool children  
61 fell within prediction regions by linear regression suggesting a good utility of normalisation by these  
62 2 analytes. Receiver operator curve (ROC) showed that copper to osmolality ratio was the best  
63 index with an area under curve (AUC) greater than 0.98.

64

65 Conclusions:

66 Based on the data, a new WD screening time window targeting preschool children is proposed.

67 Application of a bivariate screening strategy using spot urine copper concentration and urine

68 osmolality may be useful in a population screening program for preschool children.

69

70 **1. INTRODUCTION**

71

72 Wilson's disease (WD) is a common inherited disease of copper metabolism caused by mutations in  
73 *ATP7B* gene (OMIM: 277900). The disease incidence in the range of one in thousands is one of the  
74 highly prevalent inherited metabolic diseases (IMD), particularly in Asian populations (1,2). In the  
75 past, WD were typically diagnosed after symptoms onset due to cumulative damage to the liver  
76 (hepatic presentation) or CNS (neurologic presentation) after a prolonged period of copper  
77 accumulation and diagnosis has been made with a clinicopathologic scoring system (3,4).

78 Nowadays, with the advance in molecular diagnosis, a clear-cut definitive diagnosis for both  
79 affected and heterozygotes can be readily made. As early diagnosis and treatment are the key  
80 determinants of prognosis, there have been attempts of screening using various biomarkers (5).

81 Here, we studied the reference interval of spot urine copper excretion in healthy preschool children  
82 (age 3 to 7) and examined the feasibility of its application as a screening biomarker for WD.

83

84 With the help of mutation analysis for diagnosis the natural history of WD is changed. More and  
85 more young presymptomatic WD patients have been diagnosed before adolescence and treatment  
86 can be started early with the potential of preventing significant organ damage and hopefully  
87 attaining uneventful life expectancy similar to healthy individuals (6–9). Early and safe treatment of  
88 these presymptomatic WD with oral zinc therapy is effective in reducing dietary copper absorption  
89 and thus body copper load (6–9).

90

91 The benefit of early treatment stems from the ability to make early diagnosis in WD patients  
92 particularly before 10-years-of-age. This represents a wide (a decade long) presymptomatic window

93 period for making the early diagnosis before significant tissue damage occurs. Nature history of  
94 WD also supports this notion. First, neurological diseases have a typical onset after adolescence (2).  
95 Second, liver toxicity due to cumulative copper toxicity also commonly occurs after 10-years-of-age  
96 (8). Currently, presymptomatic patients were largely picked up by family screening after index  
97 cases had been diagnosed. While others were solely relied on clinical vigilance of the paediatricians  
98 when managing patients with unexplained symptoms and laboratory results, such as persistent  
99 elevation of liver enzymes (10). However, no biomarker suitable for large-scale case screening is  
100 available though some attempts had been reported (5).

101  
102 While 24-hour urine copper is the gold standard in the assessment of urine copper excretion in WD,  
103 its collection in children is difficult and it is not practical in large scale screening. Our previous  
104 attempts to develop a cut-off value of spot urine magnesium in the assessment of body magnesium  
105 status motivated us to develop a similar index for evaluation of copper excretion (11). These spot  
106 urine excretion indexes may have a role in triage of patients with suspected Wilson's disease or  
107 even population screening of pre-symptomatic Wilson's disease among preschool children.

108  
109 To make such a spot urine index useful, we must first evaluate the reference intervals (RI) which are  
110 important in the interpretation of all laboratory test results. Although large scale programs like  
111 CALIPER have been set up to better define RI in the paediatric age group, they are confined to  
112 analytes in serum or blood samples (12). It is reasonable as they are more commonly encountered in  
113 routine laboratories.

114

115 In this article, we first examined the reference intervals spot urine copper excretion indexes among  
116 153 preschool children. Then, data of urine excretion from prevalent paediatric WD patients were  
117 compared to these reference intervals to show the potential test utility of these biomarkers. The  
118 results are promising with good sensitivity, suggesting that WD screening by spot urine in preschool  
119 children is feasible.  
120

## 121 2. SUBJECTS AND METHODS

122

123 The reference range of spot urine copper excretion in preschool children was established from 153  
124 archival urine samples. These archival samples had been collected in a previous community-based  
125 studies to establish reference standards of forced expiratory indices in Hong Kong Chinese  
126 preschool children (13) and to investigate the association between urinary metal excretion and lung  
127 function in these subjects (14). In brief, spot urine samples had been collected from preschool  
128 children (age range of 3 to 7 years old) on-site at the participating kindergartens. Spot urine samples  
129 were properly collected into acid-washed bottles which were specially prepared for trace element  
130 analysis to avoid contamination by the environment. The samples were transported back to our  
131 laboratory within 4 hours and were stored at a -80°C freezer until analysis in one batch.

132

133 Spot urine copper concentration was measured by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry  
134 (ICP-MS) 7700 with octopole reaction system, Agilent Technologies. The measurement procedure  
135 included mixing an internal standard containing rhodium with the urine sample. Urine samples were  
136 warmed to room temperature before dilution with pre-treatment standard containing solution. After  
137 vortex, the samples were loaded into the ICPMS 7700 Analyser together with standard calibrators  
138 and QC samples. ICPMS is a powerful analyser for measurement of multiple elements. In-house  
139 assay has a detection limit of 0.02  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  for copper. The mean concentration of Low QC sample  
140 of 0.66  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  had an analytical CV% of 5.4%. Urine creatinine was measured by a modified Jaffe  
141 reaction on autoanalyzers of Roche Diagnostics. Urine osmolality was measured by freezing point  
142 depression on automated osmometer.

143



144 Six WD patients who were diagnosed before the age of 11 and had been followed up in outpatient  
145 clinic were invited to participate. Their diagnosis had been confirmed by mutation analysis of the  
146 ATP7B gene (10). 2-3 spot urine samples of the same day in addition to a next day standard 24-hour  
147 urine sample for copper excretion monitoring were collected. Patients' data were subdivided  
148 according to the time of spot urine collection, 4 of them had samples collected within 1 year of  
149 diagnosis and treatment (labelled as WD patients). They and other patients also collected spot urine  
150 after being treated for longer than one year (labelled as WD patients on treatment). Those patients  
151 after treatment for more than one year might have a reduction of copper load and urine copper  
152 excretion. Some patients collected urine at multiple occasions more than one year apart and their  
153 samples were labelled accordingly. Informed consent will be obtained from their parents. The study  
154 has been approved by institutional clinical research ethic committee.

155  
156 The regression between spot urine copper concentrations were examined against spot urine  
157 creatinine and osmolality. Regression lines and confidence intervals of regression lines were plotted  
158 for controls. In addition, the prediction region covering the predicted distribution of 95% control  
159 data points were shown (blue rectangles in scatter plots, e.g. figure 2). Difference in spot urine  
160 indexes are compared between WD and control by non-parametric group-wise statistics (Wilcoxon  
161 test). Statistical significance was defined by type I error of 0.05.

162

163 **3. RESULTS**

164

165 *Spot urine copper excretion indexes in preschool children (Table 1)*

166 Among the 153 preschool children older than 3 years, the spot urine copper concentration had a  
167 median 0.19  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  with inter-quartile values from 0.09 to 0.28  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ . Only 4 children (3%) had  
168 a urine copper concentration exceeding 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ . These values were 0.51, 0.52, 0.54 and 0.55  
169  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ . Although there was a mild age effect on spot urine copper concentration (increase by 0.026  
170  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  per year,  $p=0.02$ ), the effect of age was corrected after normalization by creatinine or  
171 osmolality supporting the use of these ratios or bivariate interpretation (Supplemental Figure 1).

172

173 The two normalised indexes were investigated, namely copper to creatinine ratio and copper to  
174 osmolality ratio and their mean values were 0.05  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mmol}$  and 0.000353  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mOsm}$ ,  
175 respectively. Copper to osmolality ratio had the least biological variance (inter-individual variation)  
176 and CVg was 56% which was comparable to other spot urine tests, for example, urine microalbumin  
177 test for Diabetes nephropathy. On the other hand, copper to creatinine ratio had the highest CVg.

178

179 On the other hand, spot urine copper excretion was much higher in the patient groups irrespective of  
180 duration of treatment. Among 37 spot urine samples (with creatinine results) collected from all 6  
181 WD patients, the median copper concentration was 1.10  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  with inter-quartile values from 0.60  
182 to 1.30  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ . There were 6 samples (19%) with spot urine copper below 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  (Figure 1A).  
183 Most of them (4 out of 6) were collected from patients whom received more than one year of  
184 treatment so these urine samples were categorised into the subgroups in subsequent analysis.

185

186 ***Spot urine copper correlated with urine creatinine in control preschool children***

187 It is a common practice to normalised spot urine excretion by creatinine. Indeed, spot urine copper  
188 concentration showed a strong correlation with spot urine creatinine concentration among controls  
189 (Pearson  $r=0.62$ ,  $p \leq 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ , Figure 2a). The predicted range of 95% distribution of individual data  
190 points (Prediction interval) are shown as blue rectangles in Figure 2a and 2b. The predicted range  
191 shows a good match with the actual distribution of data points. Only three control urine samples had  
192 urine copper concentration above the prediction range and another 5 samples were below, which  
193 represented ~5% (Figure 2a). Increased spot urine copper concentration among WD patients were  
194 clearly separated from the predicted control range. The results indicate that bivariate analysis of spot  
195 urine copper excretion or copper/creatinine ratio should be informative for diagnosis of WD in  
196 preschool children.

197  
198 For patients after long term treatment, spot urine copper excretion tends to reduce and approach  
199 towards that in the control (red triangle symbols in Figure 2b). Three WD patient (after treatment)  
200 samples fell into the prediction range of control (Figure 2b). The 2 regression lines (one for control  
201 and one for WD patients) represent urine copper to creatinine ratios and difference in two slopes  
202 could clearly differentiate between patients and control. The median urine copper to creatinine ratio  
203 were 0.23 (WD patients at diagnosis) and 0.17 (WD patients after treatment), which were almost 6  
204 folds and 4 folds higher to that of the controls, 0.04 (Figure 1B). Therefore, 0.1 may be a reasonable  
205 cut-off value for urine copper to creatinine ratio to demarcate WD patients from controls which was  
206 marked in the subsequent ROC plot (Figure 4). In addition, the spot urine may also be useful in  
207 monitoring patients' responses after treatment.

208

209 ***Spot urine to osmolality ratio is the best biomarker***

210 Likewise, spot urine copper concentration showed a highly significant correlation with spot urine  
211 osmolality among controls (Pearson  $r=0.6$ ,  $p=<2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ , Figure 3A). In the scatter plot Figure 3A,  
212 there is a good demarcation between patients and controls. As only 3 data points were available  
213 from WD patient at diagnosis, all WD samples (N=22) were analysed together. There was only one  
214 WD sample that was located in the predicted range of control data. This samples were one of the  
215 more dilute urine samples collected from a patient at osmolality of 206 mOsmol/kg. When the  
216 distribution of the copper to osmolality ratio (Figure 3B) were analysed, the control group had a  
217 median of 0.00032 and a quartile range from 0.00024 to 0.00043. Meanwhile, the median in WD  
218 patients were 0.0012 with a quartile range from 0.001 to 0.0016. A cut-off value of 0.00085 could  
219 be used to differentiate WD from controls.

220

221 ***ROC analysis of various spot urine parameters***

222 Cut-off values for spot urine copper concentration, copper to creatinine ratio and copper to  
223 osmolality ratio at 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ , 0.1  $\mu\text{mol/mmol}$  and 0.00085  $\mu\text{mol/mOsmol}$  (the cut-off values are  
224 32  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , 56  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine and 0.054  $\mu\text{g/mOsmol}$ , respectively, in conventional units) have  
225 potential application in differentiation of WD patients.

226

227 In fact, both copper concentration and the copper to creatinine ratio can easily differentiate them.  
228 ROC analysis of all indexes had area-under-curve (AUC) values of greater than 0.95 and over 90%  
229 sensitivity in identification of WD from health preschool children control (Figure 4).

230

231 The best index was spot urine copper to osmolality ratio, which had the highest AUC of 0.98. Both  
232 sensitivity and specificity were better than 0.95 at cut-off value of 0.00085. Therefore, it is likely  
233 that such bivariate classifier will be used in future implementations.

234

235 For example, there was an overlap if the urine sample was dilute urine (at the low end of creatinine  
236 concentration). Therefore, low spot urine osmolality or creatinine concentration could be used as an  
237 additional filter to call for repeat. For example, spot urine osmolality lower than 500 or creatinine  
238 concentration lower than 1.5 mmol/L will be used as criteria to call for repeat samples.

239

#### 240 4. DISCUSSION

241

242 WD is among the most prevalent IMD in Chinese and many ethnic groups. A population scale  
243 screening program is highly desirable for making early diagnosis. Furthermore, the recent use of  
244 oral zinc in the treatment of early diagnosed cases (before 10 years old) is highly promising with  
245 little side effect (15). Together with the natural history of WD, we propose to utilities this new  
246 screening window targeting preschool children or school children before 10 years-of-age. This new  
247 screening window has the advantage that there is a substantial and detectable body copper load at  
248 this age, while the patients are still largely asymptomatic and will response well to treatment. This  
249 study is carried out to investigate if screening of preschool children is feasible by firstly  
250 understanding the reference excretion of copper in this age group. Here we report that various spot  
251 urine copper excretion parameters are informative in differentiating WD from preschool controls,  
252 which will make wide scale screening feasible.

253

#### 254 *In search of a suitable biomarker for large scale screening of WD*

255 Timing of screening for WD is very important. Many previous attempts with limited success had  
256 targeted to screen WD at newborn (5). However, such approach is restricted by the limited exposure  
257 to copper of the foetus before birth resulting a small body copper load at birth. Here, we propose a  
258 novel screening strategy to make use of the fairly long presymptomatic phase of WD to screen at  
259 preschool age or before 10 years-of-age. Such flexibility also allows better integration into the local  
260 children health surveillance program. Starting with a non-invasive spot urine biomarker, large scale  
261 screening is logistically feasible and well received by both children and parents.

262

263 Our long-term interest in nutritional research and biomarker studies provided us an insight into the  
264 application of spot urine as biomarkers (11,16). In the past, we pioneered the use of spot urine  
265 magnesium as a biomarker for assessment of body status of magnesium (11) and it had been used in  
266 both clinical and research settings (17,18). There were other groups which carried out pilot studies  
267 in the use of spot urine in assessment of body status or dietary intake of sodium (19–21),  
268 magnesium and other trace elements (22,23). Spot urine collection is a common practice in the  
269 assessment of renal function in children. For example, spot urine protein to creatinine and urine  
270 albumin to creatinine ratios are commonly used in paediatric nephrology. They serve as reliable  
271 biomarkers in particularly this younger age group as the variation of body anthropometry is less in  
272 extent than in adults. Furthermore, the inter-individual biological variations in daily creatinine  
273 production and excretion are more stable (24). In a latest review, Armer et al also suggested a  
274 potential use of spot urine copper indexes in WD (25). However, the differences and test  
275 performance of spot urine copper indexes between WD and control have not been fully investigated.  
276 Furthermore, the evaluation of these variations in the paediatric age group is also lacking. Our study  
277 fills in this knowledge gap and supports the potential of use of spot urine copper index (in particular  
278 spot urine to osmolality ratio) in the screening of WD among preschool children.

279

280 With the ultimate goal of identifying a screening biomarker for WD of high sensitivity and  
281 specificity, both spot urine copper to creatinine and urine to osmolality ratios showed a huge  
282 potential in this study. While all spot urine indexes were informative, urine to osmolality may have  
283 an edge over other 2 parameters. An example strategy using bivariate screening approach is shown  
284 in Figure 5. Spot urine biomarkers have several obvious advantages over other blood markers.  
285 Firstly, it is non-invasive and large scale screening application can be easily implemented and

286 compliance is not a problem. Secondly, repeat sample or a multiple sample collection protocol  
287 could be arranged. Advances in molecular genetics nowadays enable the definite diagnosis of WD  
288 to be made robustly (26). The presence of locally prevalent mutations also enhances the diagnostic  
289 efficiency. Presymptomatic WD patients picked up by spot urine screening can be followed by a  
290 molecular test to make the definite diagnosis.

291  
292 While there is a long-held myth that urine copper excretion is highly variable (3), we showed that it  
293 was not the case in the control preschool children. In fact, urine excretion of magnesium and copper  
294 had the least biological variation among all trace metals, in terms of intra-individual variation (27).  
295 The data suggests that spot urine concentration of copper correlates with the average daily  
296 concentration in a 24-hour urine. This property of low biological variation provides the explanation  
297 that spot urine excretion is a reliable biomarker for selected elements like magnesium and copper. In  
298 the past, many confounding factors of urine copper excretion had been described, e.g. kidney  
299 disease, acute liver failure, hepatitis which were commonly listed as differential causes of elevated  
300 urine copper excretion. However, many of them are only found in the hospital setting but do not  
301 apply if urine is collected from presymptomatic (healthy) subjects. Therefore, they do not come into  
302 the picture in the setting of screening for presymptomatic WD among healthy children.

303  
304 There is a normal range of excretion in relation to creatinine or osmolality in the spot urine sample.  
305 These parameters differentiate early WD patients from controls fairly robustly with AUC greater  
306 than 0.95. On the other hand, such differentiation may be blurred in symptomatic WD patients who  
307 also had proteinuria or patients with other causes of proteinuria, as spot urine copper assessment is  
308 no longer valid for assessment of body copper status. Therefore, it is advisable to perform a



309 proteinuria assessment together with spot urine copper as a screening package or subsequent follow-  
310 up test. Any samples with significant proteinuria will invalid the screening.

311

312 *Limitation of the study*

313 This is the first attempt to use a bivariate analysis of spot urine for screening of WD in preschool  
314 children. We had data from only 6 WD patients in this age range. Although our results are  
315 encouraging, more data from childhood WD patients are required to fully understand the biological  
316 variation of spot urine copper excretion in early WD. Future multi-centre studies will be required to  
317 gather data from more patients.

318

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388

389 **TABLES**

390

391 Table 1:

392 Distribution of spot urine copper excretion in preschool children between 3 and 10 years old

393 (N=153). CVg stands for inter-individual variation in controls. Urine Copper to osmolality has the

394 lowest CVg and the proposed cut-off values 0.00085  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mOsm}$  represented the mean + 2.5 SD

395 value.

	Spot urine copper concentration ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ )	Copper to creatinine ratio ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mmol}$ )	Copper to Osmolality ratio ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mOsm}$ )
Mean	0.20	0.05	0.000353
Quartile values	0.09, 0.28	0.03, 0.06	0.00024, 0.00042
St. deviation	0.13	0.037	0.0002
CVg (%)	64%	72%	56%
Potential Cutoff values			
Mean+2.5 SD	0.52	0.14	0.00085
Mean+2.7 SD	0.54	0.15	0.00089

396

397 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

398

399 Figure 1A:

400 Figure 1A shows distribution of spot urine copper concentration of control (N=153), WD patients at  
401 diagnosis (WD\_patient) and WD after more than 1 year of treatment (WD\_treatment). The mean  
402 value of control was 0.2  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  and few subjects had values above 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$  while most of WD  
403 patients had concentration higher than 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ .

404

405 Figure 1B:

406 Figure 1B shows the distribution of urine copper to creatinine ratios ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mmol}$ ) among three  
407 groups of subjects. All WD patients at diagnosis had ratio above 0.1. The value of control group  
408 was significantly lower than the two patients' groups (p values  $<1e-7$ ).

409

410 Figure 2A:

411 Figure 2A shows a strong correlation between urine copper and urine creatinine concentration in  
412 controls. The slope is much steeper in the WD patients at diagnosis. The blue rectangular band  
413 shows the predicted distribution area of control samples.

414

415 Figure 2B:

416 Figure 2B includes all WD patients. WD patients after treatment (WD\_treatment, triangle symbol)  
417 had reduced copper to creatinine ratio and three samples were inside the predicted area of control  
418 distribution.

419

420 Figure 3A:

421 Figure 3A shows a strong correlation between urine copper and urine osmolality in control  
422 ( $R=0.64$ ). The slope is much steeper in the WD patients. The blue rectangular band shows the  
423 predicted distribution area of control samples.

424

425 Figure 3B:

426 Figure 3B shows the distribution of urine copper to osmolality ratios ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mOsm}$ ) among three  
427 groups of subjects. All WD patients at diagnosis had ratio above 0.00085. The value of control  
428 group was significantly lower than the two patients' groups (p values  $<1e-12$ ).

429

430 Figure 4:

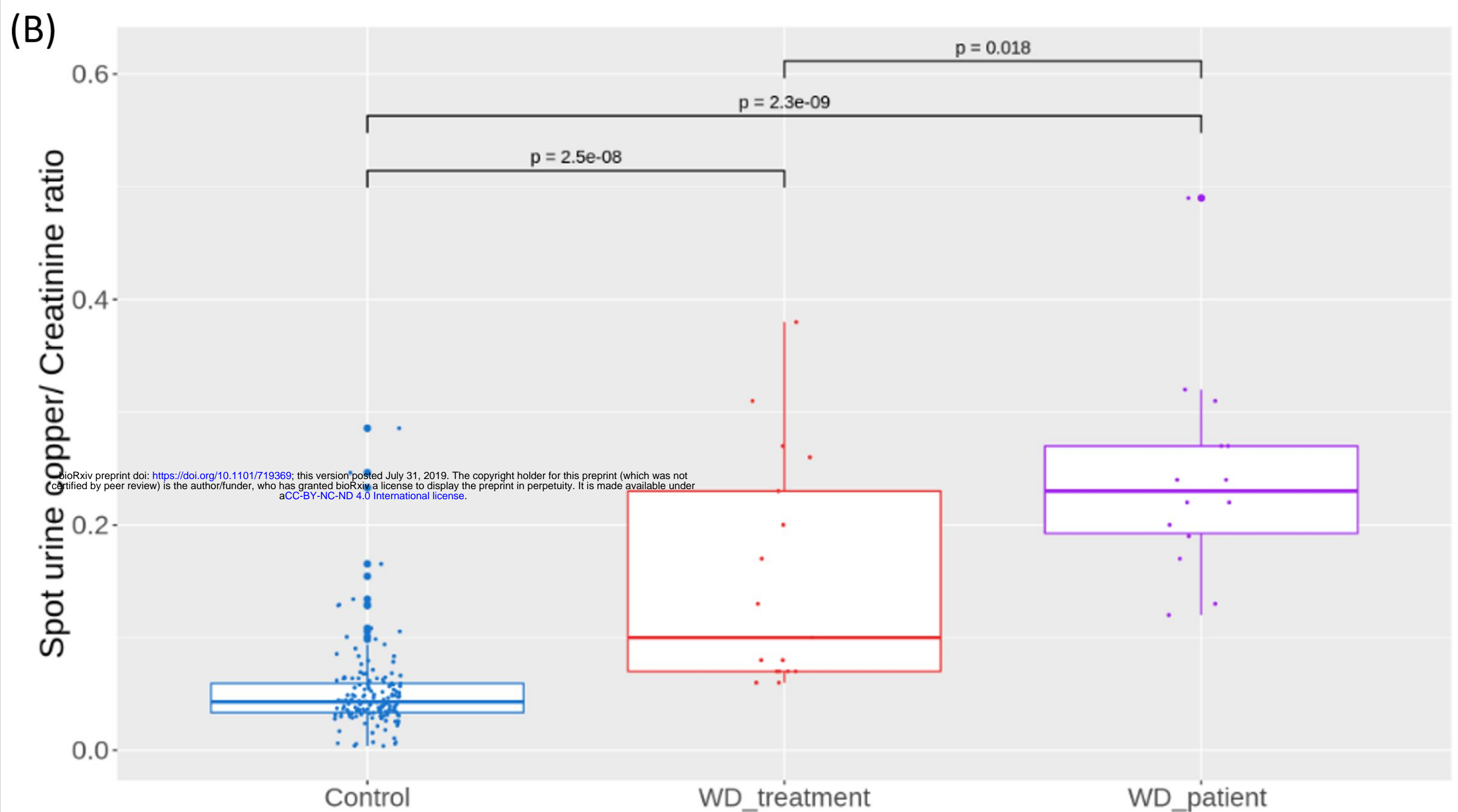
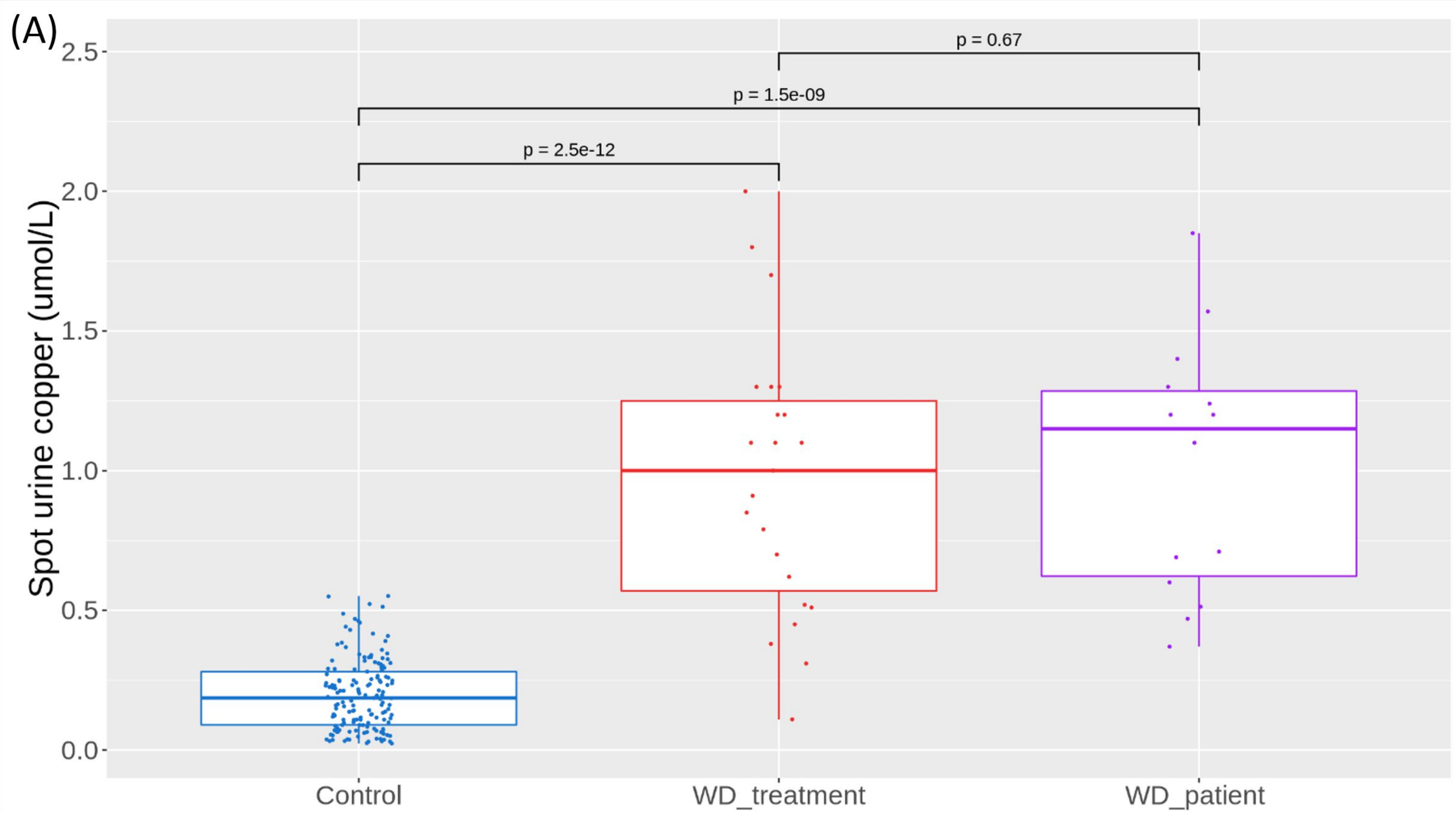
431 Figure 4 shows three ROC curves for diagnosis of WD using (A) spot urine copper, (B) copper to  
432 creatinine and (C) copper to osmolality ratios and cutoff values used are  $0.5 \mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ ,  $0.1$   
433  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mmol}$  and  $0.00085 \mu\text{mol}/\text{mOsm}$ , respectively. While all parameters had area under curve  
434 greater than 0.95, copper to osmolality ratio had the best AUC of 0.986.

435

436 Figure 5:

437 Figure 5 illustrates a potential screening strategy using bivariate data of spot urine copper and  
438 osmolality. Samples of low osmolality will be taken as non-diagnostic and subjects will be called to  
439 repeat. Subjects with samples inside the screen-positive area will be followed up with additional  
440 definitive tests.



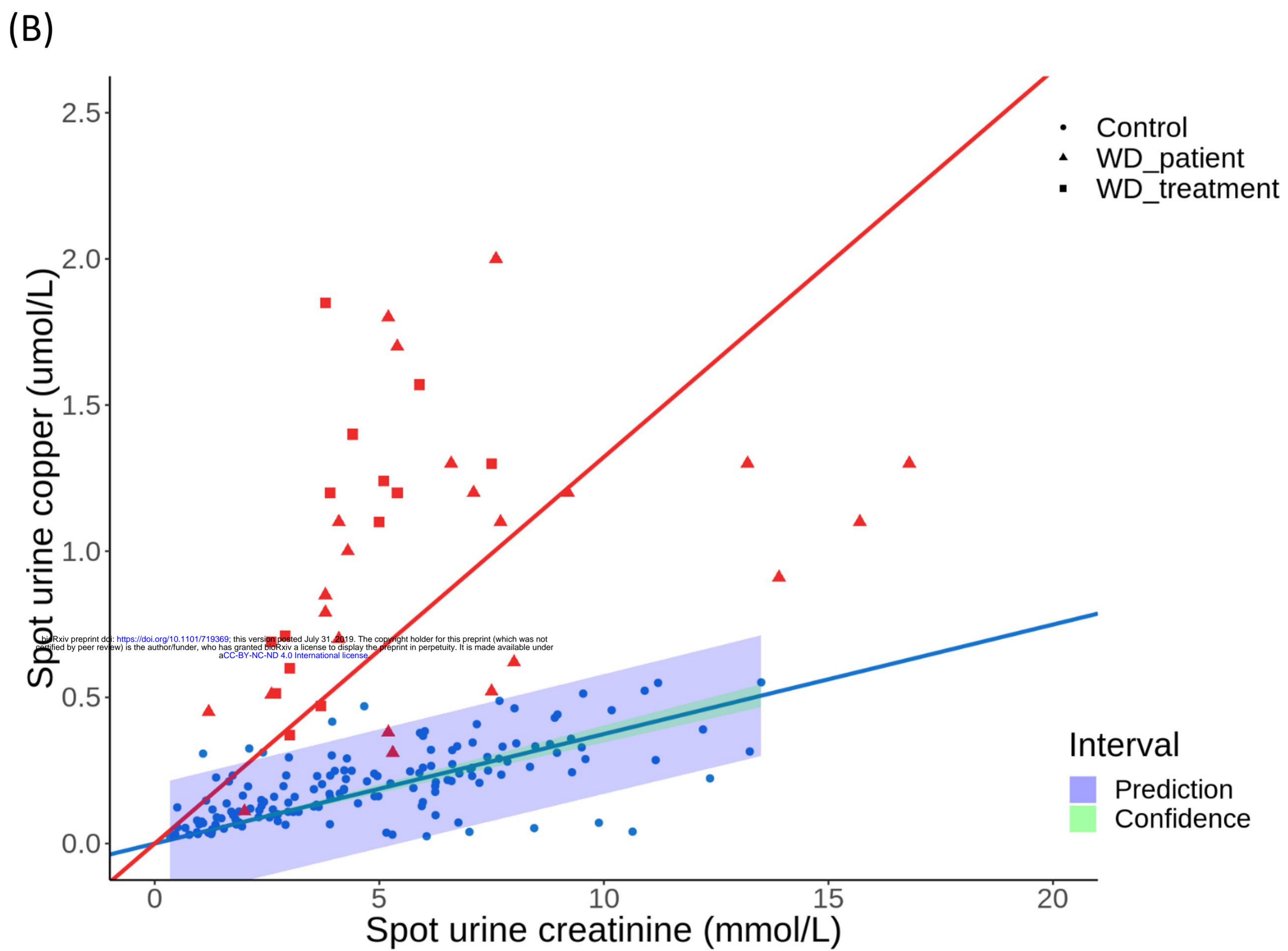
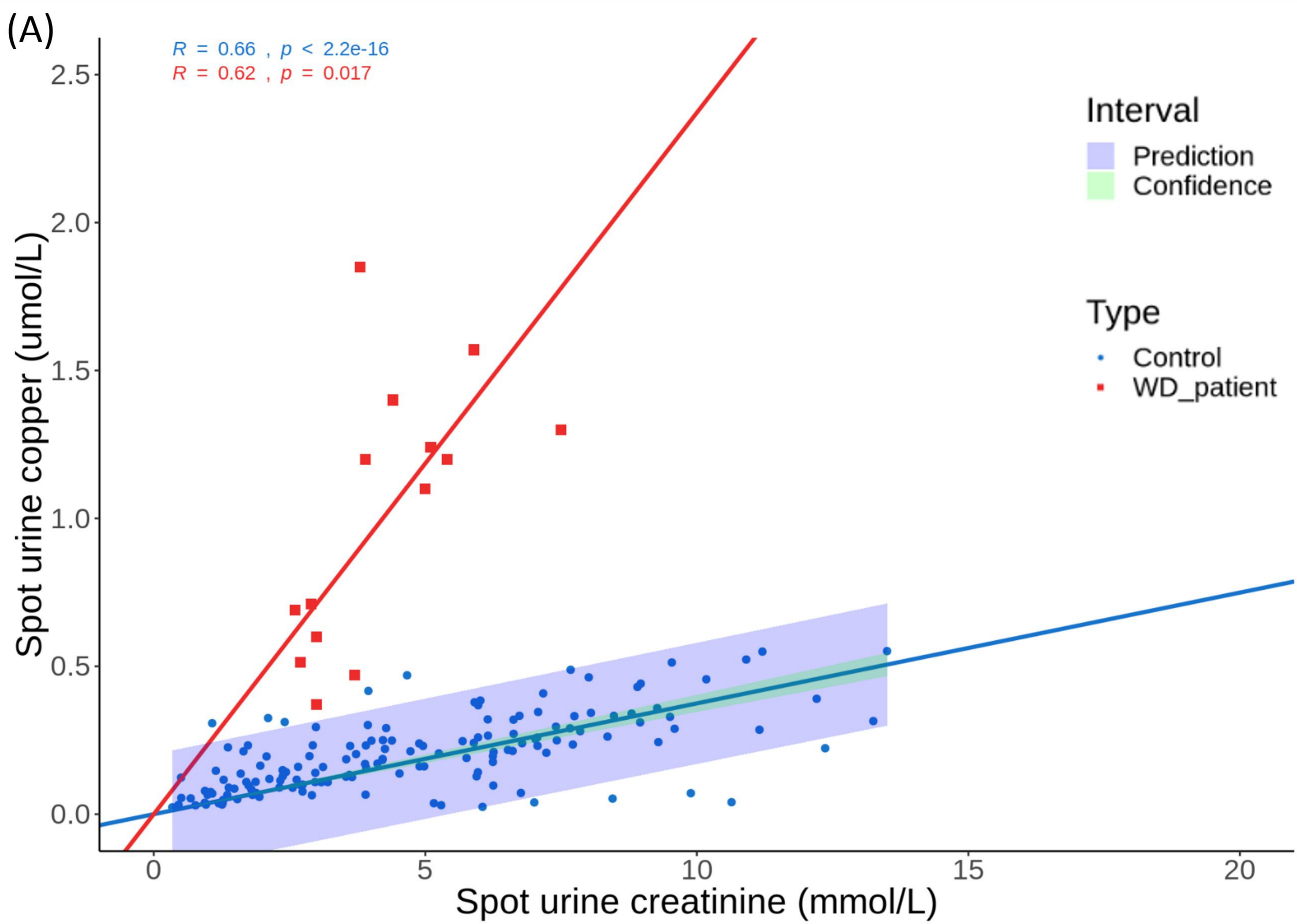


### Figure 1A:

Figure 1A shows distribution of spot urine copper concentration of control (N=153), WD patients at diagnosis (WD\_patient) and WD after more than 1 year of treatment (WD\_treatment). The mean value of control was  $0.2 \mu\text{mol/L}$  and few subjects had values above  $0.5 \mu\text{mol/L}$  while most of WD patients had concentration higher than  $0.5 \mu\text{mol/L}$ .

### Figure 1B:

Figure 1B shows the distribution of urine copper to creatinine ratios ( $\mu\text{mol/mmol}$ ) among three groups of subjects. All WD patients at diagnosis had ratio above 0.1. The value of control group was significantly lower than the two patients' groups (p values  $<1e-7$ ).



**Figure 2A:**

Figure 2A shows a strong correlation between urine copper and urine creatinine concentration in controls. The slope is much steeper in the WD patients at diagnosis. The blue rectangular band shows the predicted distribution area of control samples.

**Figure 2B:**

Figure 2B includes all WD patients. WD patients after treatment (WD\_treatment, triangle symbol) had reduced copper to creatinine ratio and three samples were inside the predicted area of control distribution.

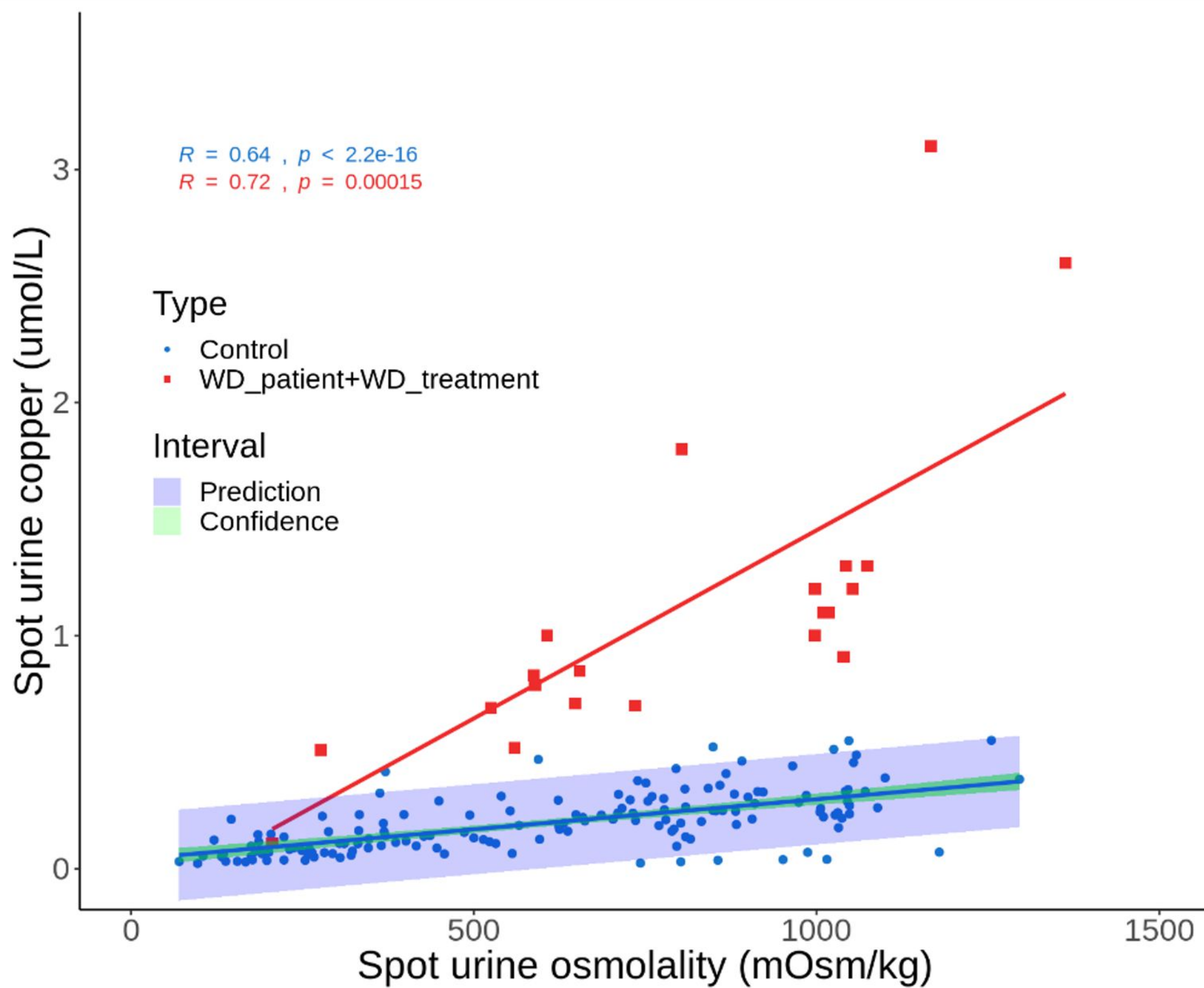
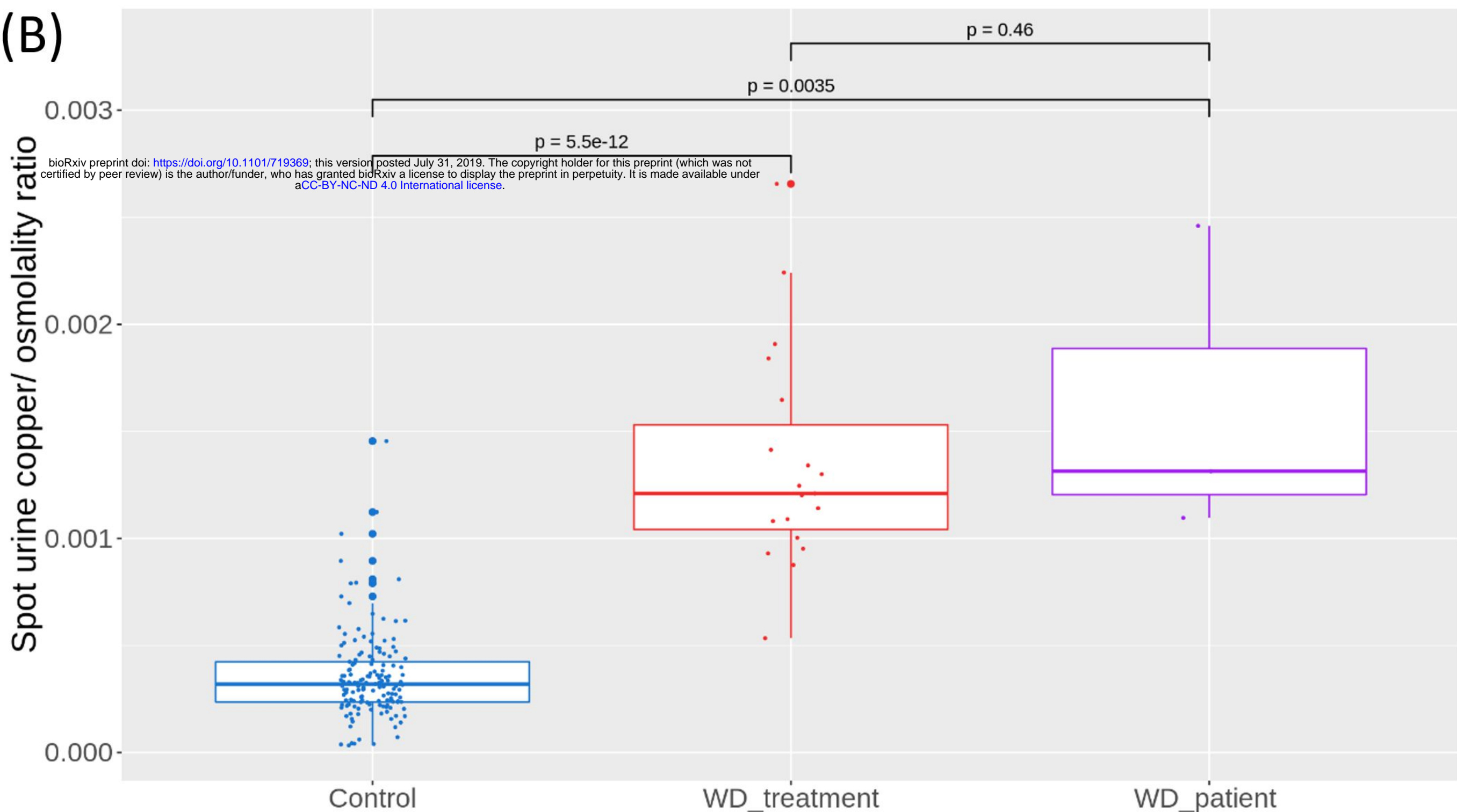
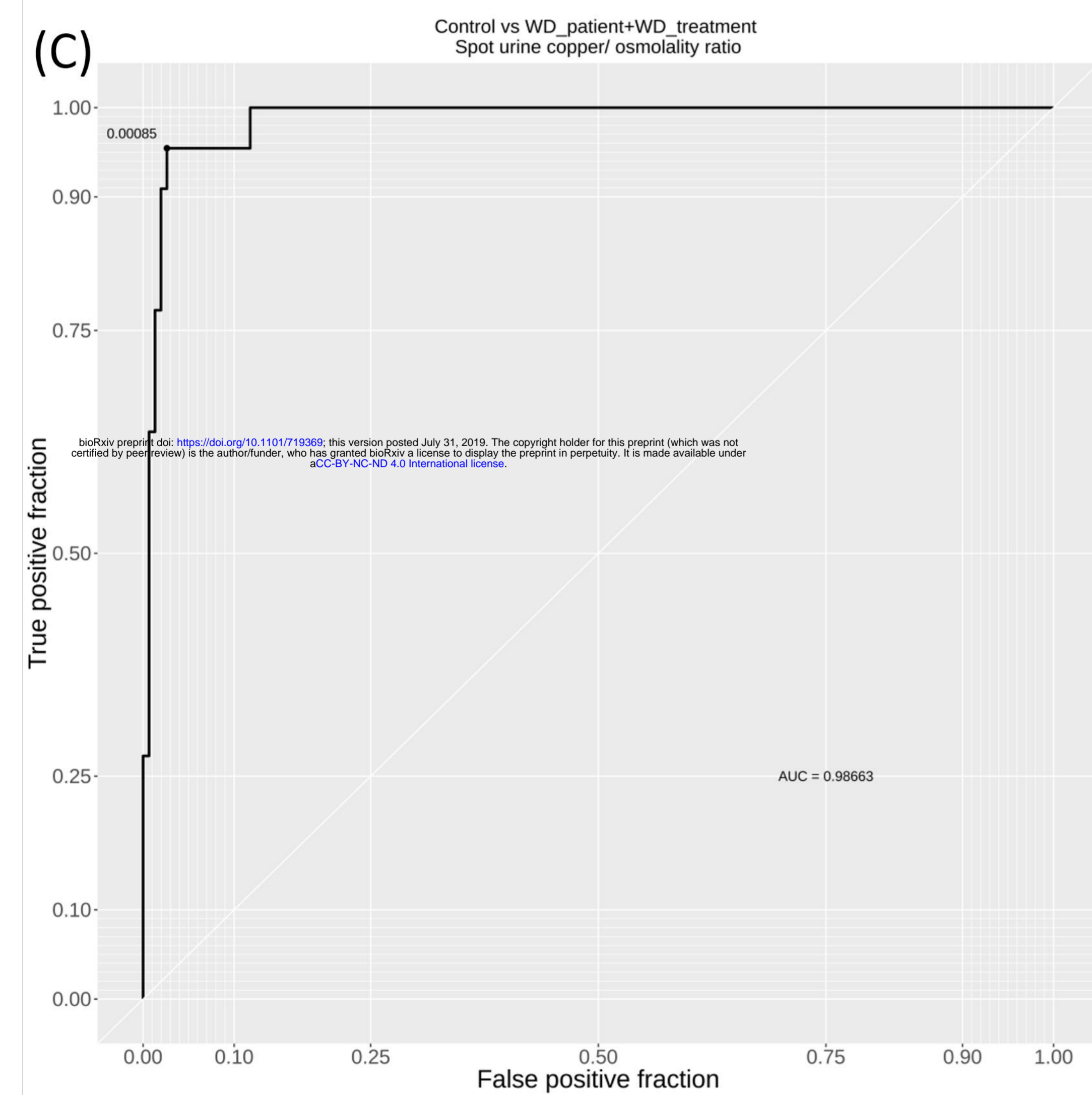
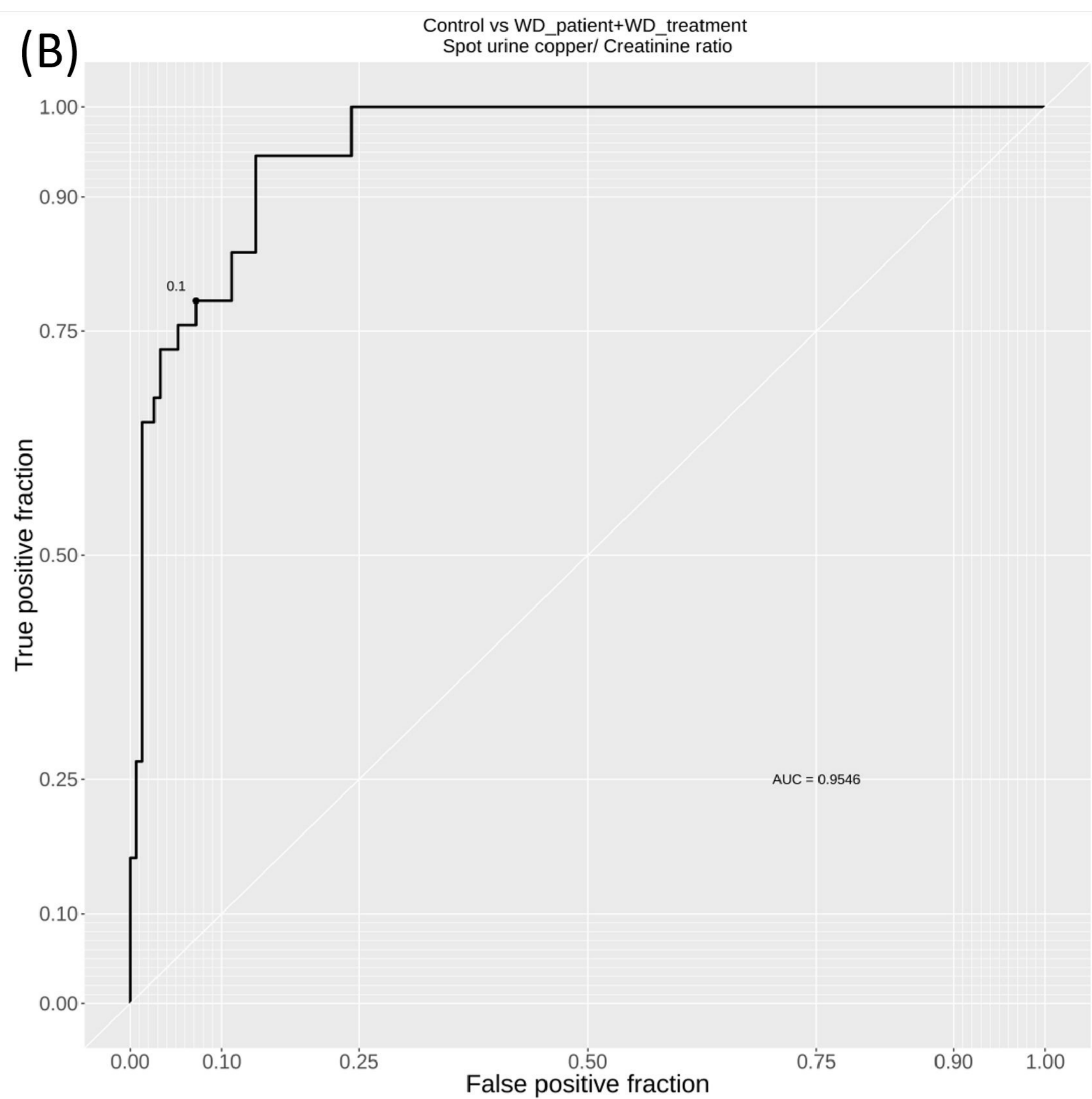
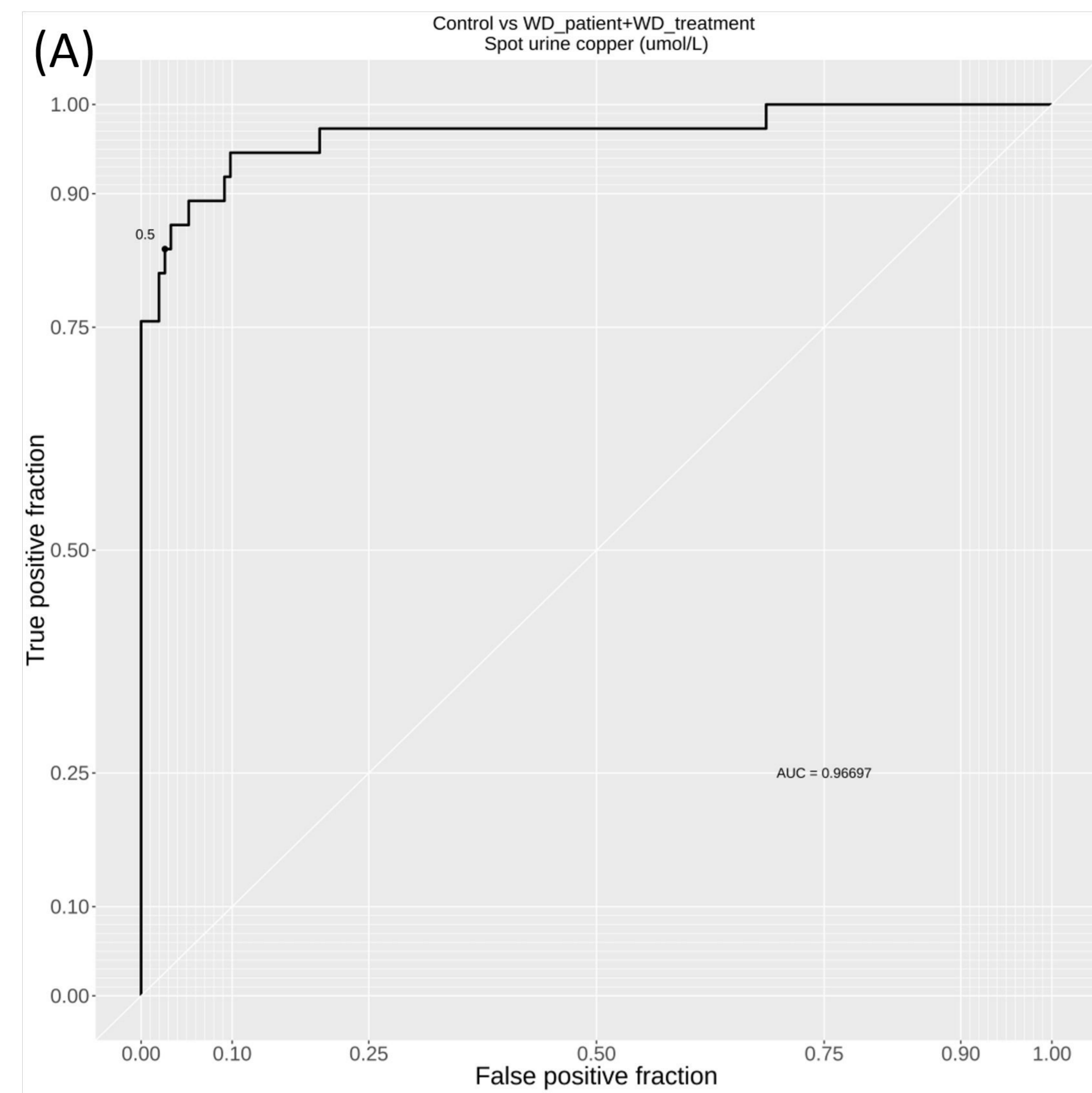
**(A)****(B)****Figure 3A:**

Figure 3A shows a strong correlation between urine copper and urine osmolality in control ( $R=0.64$ ). The slope is much steeper in the WD patients. The blue rectangular band shows the predicted distribution area of control samples.

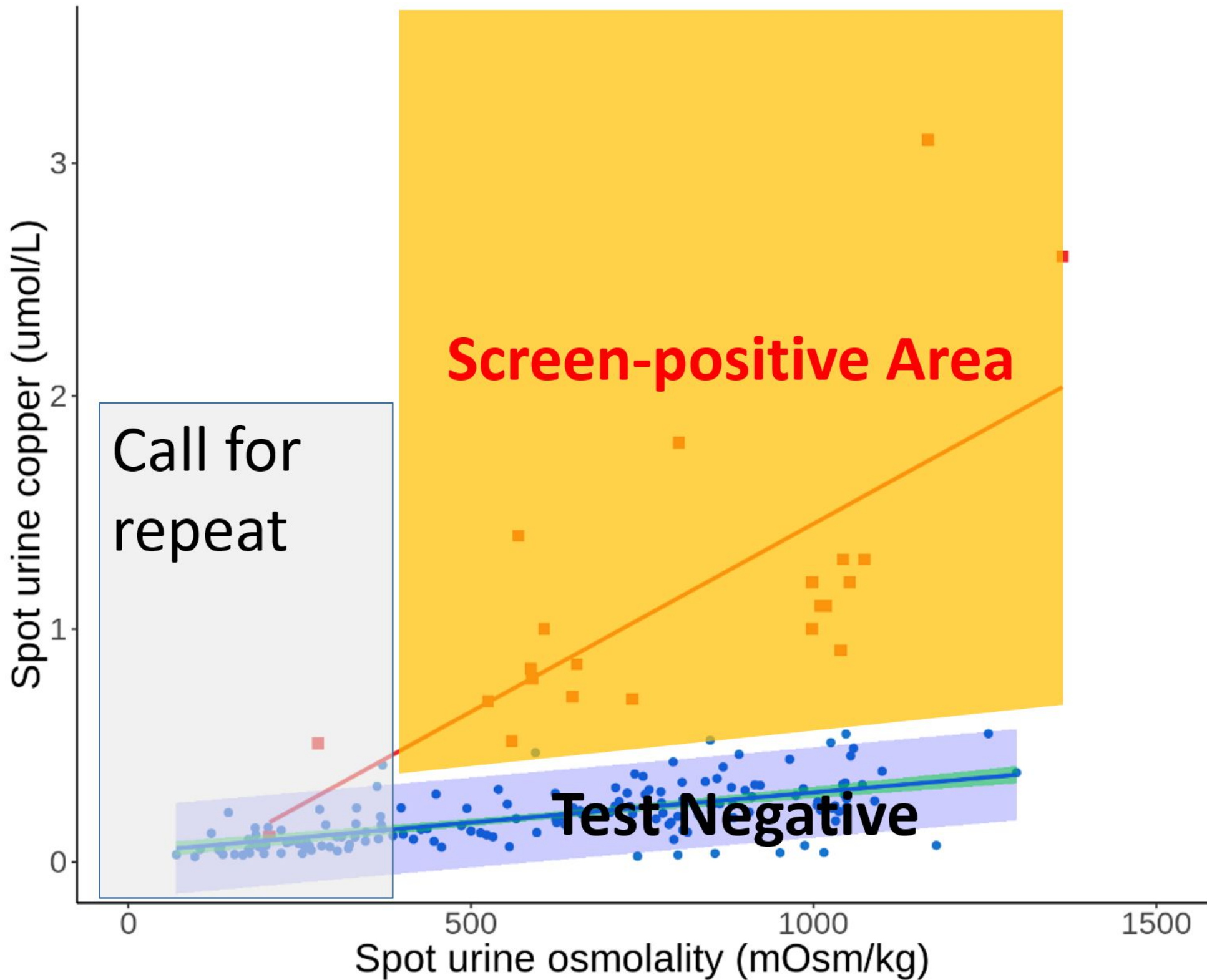
**Figure 3B:**

Figure 3B shows the distribution of urine copper to osmolality ratios ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mOsm}$ ) among three groups of subjects. All WD patients at diagnosis had ratio above 0.00085. The value of control group was significantly lower than the two patients' groups ( $p$  values  $<1e-12$ ).



**Figure 4:**

Figure 4 shows three ROC curves for diagnosis of WD using (A) spot urine copper, (B) copper to creatinine and (C) copper to osmolality ratios and cutoff values used are 0.5  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ , 0.1  $\mu\text{mol/mmol}$  and 0.00085  $\mu\text{mol/mOsm}$ , respectively. While all parameters had area under curve greater than 0.95, copper to osmolality ratio had the best AUC of 0.986.



**Figure 5:**

Figure 5 illustrates a potential screening strategy using bivariate data of spot urine copper and osmolality. Samples of low osmolality will be taken as non-diagnostic and subjects will be called to repeat. Subjects with samples inside the screen-positive area will be followed up with additional definitive tests.