Studies on submandibular salivary gland peroxidase, its cellular localization and release mechanisms

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STUDIES ON SUBMANDIBULAR SALIVARY GLAND PEROXIDASE, ITS CELLULAR LOCALIZATION AND RELEASE MECHANISMS

bу

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This thesis is based upon the following publications, reference to which will be made by citation of the appropriate Roman numerals.

- I. <u>Carlsöö, B., Kumlien, A. and G.D. Bloom</u>: A comparative histochemical study of peroxidase activity in the submandibular glands of five mammalian species including man. <u>Histochemie</u> <u>26</u>, 80-88 (1971).
- II. <u>Carlsöö, B.</u>: Histochemical observations on endogenous lactoperoxidase activity of the bovine submandibular salivary gland. <u>Histochemical J.</u>
 3, 185-192 (1971).
- III. <u>Bloom, G.D. and B. Carlsöö</u>: Fine structure and peroxidase activity of the bovine submandibular gland cells. <u>Zentralblatt für Veterinärmedizin</u> (1974) in press.
- IV. Bloom, G.D., Carlsöö, B., Danielsson, Å., Marklund, S. and T. Stigbrand: Peroxidase and amylase activity of the guinea pig submandibular gland during the secretory cycle. An electronhistochemical and biochemical study. Histochemistry 38, 271-280 (1974).
- V. <u>Carlsöö, B., Danielsson, Å., Marklund, S. and T. Stigbrand</u>: Effects of 3',5'-cyclic adenosine monophosphate, 5-hydroxytryptamine, noradrenaline and theophylline on the simultaneous release of peroxidase and amylase from the guinea pig submandibular gland. <u>Acta physiol. scand.</u> (1974) in press.
- VI. <u>Carlsöö, B., Danielsson, Å., Marklund, S. and T. Stigbrand</u>: Effects of alpha and beta-receptor blocking agents on catecholamine and 5-hydroxy-tryptamine induced peroxidase and amylase secretion from guinea pig submandibular gland. <u>Acta physiol. scand</u>. (1974) in press.
- VII. Alm, P., Bloom, G.D. and B. Carlsöö: Adrenergic and cholinergic nerves of bovine, guinea pig and hamster salivary glands. A light and electron microscopic study. Z. Zellforsch. 138, 407-420 (1973).

INTRODUCTION

In 1809, Boulay, by chance, noted that an elixir used against toothache, and which probably contained guaiacum, turned blue intraorally. Shortly thereafter Planche (1810) reported that guaiacum in the presence of horseradish took on a bluish color. These two observations on the bluing of guaiacum by the saliva and in the presence of the fresh root of horseradish may be the first observations recorded on peroxidase reactions (Carlström, 1968). Guaiacum was widely used during the nineteenth century as a test for oxidizing enzymes. However, no clear distinction was made in those days between peroxidases and true oxidases. The name peroxidase was first introduced by Linossier, who in 1898 isolated an oxidase-free enzyme complex of peroxidases from pus.

Most peroxidases are hemoproteins and they occur in certain animal tissues, bacteria and fungi and are further widely distributed among plants. The enzymes catalyze the oxidation of certain electron donors by hydroperoxides. In mammals, the myeloperoxidase present in neutrophil leucocytes, the peroxidase of eosinophils and the lactoperoxidase present in certain glands are the only peroxidases that have been isolated in pure form. Lactoperoxidase was first obtained in the crystalline state from milk by Theorell and his co-workers (Theorell and Åkeson, 1943; Theorell and Paul, 1944). The peroxidases present in saliva and in salivary glands, which are the subject of the present study, have been shown to be lactoperoxidases (see e.g. Morrison and Steele, 1968).

As pointed out above, at a very early stage, "peroxidase activity" was noted intraorally, and numerous later workers have established the presence of peroxidase activity in the saliva. The source of the peroxidases of the oral cavity is, however, not definitely established, as this activity can be attributed to numerous cell types such as eosinophils, neutrophils or even the bacteria of the mouth (Morrison and Steele, 1968). Moreover, salivary glands have been found to possess peroxidase activity (Bancroft and Elliott, 1934). Thus, in a number of different mammalian species such as man, ox, pig, cat, hamster, dog, guinea pig, rat and mouse, the presence of peroxidase activity in the parotid and/or the submandibular gland has been demonstrated (Alexander, 1959; Thomson and Morell, 1967; Martin and Baserga, 1969; Kumlien, 1972). On the other hand, the salivary glands of the rabbit and sheep do not seem to

contain significant amounts of the enzyme.

Morrison and co-workers (Morrison and Allen, 1963; Morrison et al., 1965) have established that the peroxidase present in the submandibular gland of the cow is identical with the lactoperoxidase of milk. This bovine submandibular gland peroxidase is a water-soluble hemoprotein with 1 heme/mole and has a molecular weight of 78,000. The enzyme is fairly heat stable and is not readly inactivated by proteolytic enzymes. The enzyme is further characterized by a high carbohydrate content (Morrison and Steele, 1968).

Whereas the physico-chemical properties of salivary peroxidase are well-studied and documented, its localization at a cellular and subcellular level in different glands has received less attention. Further, the relationship between salivary peroxidase and the peroxidase present in the salivary glands has hitherto not been fully clarified although Nickerson et al. (1957) proposed that the peroxidase of the human saliva is produced mainly by the salivary glands, and that little of the activity can be attributed to bacterial or leucocyte sources.

In exocrine glands, macromolecules synthesized for export are sequestered intracellularly in membrane-bounded structures. This is e.g. the case with the digestive enzyme amylase, which is stored within secretory granules of various salivary glands. As a matter of fact, practically all proteins secreted from digestive glands are hydrolytic enzymes. It has also been demonstrated that catecholamines are the most potent inducers of enzyme secretion in salivary glands, whereas cholinergic agents such as carbamylcholine and pilocarpine, although potent, are much less effective. According to Schramm (1967) it is quite possible that acetylcholine only indirectly induces enzyme secretion in rat parotid slices by releasing endogenous stores of catecholamines. Studies on the mechanisms of action of noradrenaline and adrenaline have revealed that 3',5'-cyclic AMP is the intracellular intermediate in the induction of secretion by these amines in the rat parotid gland.

The aim of the present investigation was to study the cellular and subcellular localization of peroxidase activity in different submandibular glands, and to study the mechanisms for release of the enzyme. The following questions were initially raised as guidelines for this series of investigations: 1) Is salivary gland peroxidase synthesized and stored within secretory cells as

are other exportable proteins? 2) Are the secretory mechanisms basically similar to those governing e.g. the release of the hydrolytic enzyme amylase? 3) To what extent are peroxidase-containing glands innervated by the sympathetic and/or parasympathetic portions of the autonomic nervous system? In an effort to answer these questions the following lines of approach were chosen for the study:

- 1) Histo- and cytochemical studies on the distribution and localization of peroxidase activity in the submandibular glands of different species.
- 2) <u>In vivo</u> and <u>in vitro</u> studies on peroxidase discharge from salivary glands, in combination with simultaneous measurements on amylase release.
- 3) Light and electron microscopic investigations of the autonomic innervation of some of the submandibular glands employed in the study.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Light and electron microscopic studies:

For light and electron microscopical purposes (I - IV) submandibular gland specimens from man, guinea pig, hamster, cow, dog and rabbit were fixed in 4 per cent glutaraldehyde in either 0.1 M phosphate or cacodylate buffer (pH 7.3 - 7.4), as well as in the Karnovsky fixative (Karnovsky, 1965) diluted 1:1 with 0.1 M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.3 - 7.4). Fixation time was 2 hrs at 4° C. The specimens were rinsed (2 - 12 hrs) at 4° C in 0.1 M phosphate or cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 0.2 M sucrose. For light microscopy, $6 - 10 \mu$ thick sections were cut in a cryostat prior to incubation. For electron microscopy sections (\sim 40 μ) were cut on a Sorvall TC-2 sectioner, collected in buffer and transferred to the incubation medium. Incubations were carried out in a 3',3'-diaminobenzidine-tetrahydrochloride (DAB)-hydrogen peroxide medium at pH 7.6 according to Graham and Karnovsky (1966) or at pH 6.0 - 9.0 in the modified media of Novikoff (Beard and Novikoff, 1969; Novikoff et al., 1971). In paper II the benzidine-hydrogen peroxide medium of Wachstein and Meisel (1964) was also employed. After incubation, the cryostat sections were rinsed in buffer and mounted on glass slides. For ultrastructural studies the sections were rinsed in buffer at pH 7.4, postfixed in 1 per cent buffered osmium tetroxide, dehydrated in graded ethanol solutions and propylene oxide and finally embedded in Epon. Roughly 1 μ thick

Epon sections were cut on an LKB ultrotome and examined unstained in the light microscope. Thin sections were collected on naked copper grids and examined after staining with lead citrate or after double-staining with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. The microscope employed was a Philips EM 300 electron microscope.

For the histochemical demonstration of biogenic amines (VII), salivary gland specimens were rapidly frozen in liquid isopentane cooled by liquid nitrogen and further processed according to the method of Falck and Hillarp (Falck et al., 1962). For the demonstration of acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity the copper thiocholine method of Koelle and Friedenwald (1949), as modified by Holmstedt (1957), was employed, as was a slightly modified El Badawi and Schenk (1967) method.

To demonstrate autonomic nerve endings at the ultrastructural level (VII) specimens were fixed in ice-cold 3 per cent potassium permanganate in Krebs-Ringer phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) (Hökfelt, 1968). The specimens were rinsed in Ringer solution and contrasted <u>en bloc</u> for 60 min at 4°C in 1 per cent uranyl acetate, also in Ringer's solution. The specimens were dehydrated and embedded in Epon as described above.

Studies on secretion and biochemical analyses:

Male guinea pigs were starved overnight prior to the <u>in vitro</u> experiments (V, VI). They were anesthetized by an intraperitoneal injection of sodium pentobarbital. The submandibular glands of both sides from two animals were rapidly excised and extraglandular tissue was removed under a stereomicroscope. They were cut into small fragments, which were randomly distributed among the incubation vessels. All specimens were preincubated for 30 min in 3 ml of bicarbonate buffer (pH 7.4), supplemented with pyruvate, glutamate and fumarate (Krebs, 1950) and also containing albumin (5 mg/ml) and glucose (0.6 mg/ml). After preincubation, the medium was replaced by 3 ml of fresh incubation medium containing different test substances. Control incubations without added substances were included in each experiment.

Preincubation as well as incubation was carried out at 37° C under continuous gassing with 0_2 -C0 $_2$ (95:5) in a metabolic shaker (Danielsson, 1974). After 60 min of incubation the specimens were separated from the incubation medium by filtration through a nylon net and were homogenized in 3 ml of 50 mM phos-

phate buffer (pH 6.9) using an Ultra-Turrax homogenizer, run at a speed of 9,600 r.p.m. for 45-60 sec at 4° C. The homogenates were centrifuged at roughly 3,000 g for 5 min. Both incubation media and supernatants were assayed for peroxidase and amylase.

In the <u>in vivo</u> investigation (IV) guinea pigs were injected intraperitoneally with a combination of isoprenaline and pilocarpine. The submandibular glands of both sides were rapidly removed. One gland was used for histochemical purposes and the other for quantitative enzyme analysis. The wet weight of the glands was determined, and each gland was separately homogenized and centrifuged in the phosphate buffer as described above. The supernatants were assayed for peroxidase and amylase.

Peroxidase assays: In the <u>in vivo</u> experiments (IV), samples from the supernatants were transferred to a 17 mM guaiacol solution (pH 7.0) in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer. The total volume amounted to 3.0 ml. Hydrogen peroxide (0.3 mM) was added and peroxidase activity was calculated from the initial increase in absorbance at 470 nm. The enzyme activities were expressed as Δ A₄₇₀/g wet weight of tissue per min. In the <u>in vitro</u> studies (V, VI), samples of tissue extract (supernatant) and incubation media were added to 16.7 mM pyrogallol in 200 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.0) to a total volume of 3.0 ml. Hydrogen peroxide was added to a final concentration of 1.67 mM. Peroxidase activity was calculated from the initial rate of increase in absorbance at 400 nm. The enzyme activities in incubation media and tissue extracts were expressed as Δ A₄₀₀/g wet weight of tissue per min. Peroxidase release was expressed as percentage of the total peroxidase activity of tissue and medium.

Amylase assays: In both in vivo and in vitro experiments (IV - VI), samples of incubation media and tissue extracts were appropriately diluted with 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) and assayed for amylase using a micro-modification of the 3,5-dinitrosalicylate (DNS) method with 2 per cent soluble starch as substrate (Danielsson, 1974). One unit of amylase was defined as the activity liberating reducing groups corresponding to one μ mole of maltose monohydrate per min at 25° C. Amylase activities were expressed as units/wet weight of tissue. Enzyme release was expressed as the percentage of the total amylase content of tissue and medium.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Light and electron microscopic observations.

In the light microscope the serous cells of the human and guinea pig glands, the granular convoluted tubule cells of the hamster and the seromucous cells of the bovine gland displayed a positive reaction after incubation in a DAB- $-H_2O_2$ peroxidase medium (I, II). The mucous cells of the human, bovine and guinea pig glands were unreactive. Furthermore the seromucous acinar cells of the rabbit and the mucous cells of the dog were also completely unreactive (II).

At the ultrastructural level, a positive cytochemical staining was observed at particular sites within the serous and seromucous cells of the guinea pig and bovine glands (III, IV). The nuclear envelope consistently displayed a positive reaction, as did the rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER) and the secretory granules, both serous (guinea pig) and seromucous (cow). In the guinea pig gland, (IV) reaction product was also present in transitional elements of the RER and in condensing vacuoles. The Golgi apparatus was generally unreactive, although occasionally reaction product could be observed in the inner Golgi elements. Electron-opaque deposits were frequently observed in acinar lumina of both glands and in intercellular canaliculi of the cow.

In the present study, the Graham and Karnovsky (1966) DAB- $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ method for demonstrating peroxidase activity was employed. This method is very sensitive and advantageous for electron microscopic studies. DAB forms upon oxidation an insoluble brown polymeric precipitate which is strongly osmiophilic (Seligman et al., 1968). In paper II the classical benzidine technique of Wachstein and Meisel (1964) was also applied.

The DAB technique was originally introduced as a method whereby exogenous peroxidase, used as a tracer protein, could be identified. The technique has
proved extremely valuable in studies on transport and uptake, and the enzyme
most frequently employed for such studies has been horseradish peroxidase. The
technique has also been used to study the uptake of or the capillary permeability to other exogenously introduced hemoproteins such as catalase, myeloperoxidase, lactoperoxidase, hemoglobin and cytochrome c (for ref. see e.g. Herzog
and Miller, 1972a). The Graham-Karnovsky technique has also proved invaluable
for the fine structural localization of endogenous peroxidase activity in a

variety of cells. Endogenous peroxidase activity has thus been demonstrated in leucocytes from various species (e.g. Yamada, 1966; Bainton and Farquhar, 1967, 1970; Dunn et al., 1968; Miller and Herzog, 1969; Ackerman and Clark, 1971), the epithelial cells of the uterus (Bröckelman, 1969), acinar cells of the lacrimal and laryngeal glands of the rat (Essner, 1971; Kataoka, 1971; Herzog and Miller, 1972a,b), epithelial cells of the rat colon (Venkatachalam et al., 1970), peritoneal macrophages (Fahimi et al., 1970), Kupffer cells of the liver (Fahimi, 1970; Novikoff et al., 1971) and thyroid follicular cells of the adult and fetal rat (Nakai and Fujita, 1970; Strum and Karnovsky, 1970b; Strum et al., 1971). In addition to the findings on salivary gland peroxidases reported in this series of investigations, other histochemical studies have shown peroxidase activity in rat and hamster salivary glands (Bloom et al., 1970; Herzog and Miller, 1970; Strum and Karnovsky, 1970a; Novikoff et al., 1971; Strum, 1971; Yamashina and Barka, 1972, 1973). In all above cited cell types, peroxidase activity, with few exceptions, is localized to the RER, the nuclear envelope, some components of the Golgi apparatus as well as to cytoplasmic granules.

It should be stressed that the DAB method is not entirely specific for peroxidases; other hemoproteins also give a positive reaction. Endogenous catalase is reactive in liver peroxisomes at high pH and increased concentrations
of DAB (Fahimi, 1969; Novikoff and Goldfischer, 1969). The staining reaction
of mitochondrial cristae is probably due to cytochromes (Beard and Novikoff,
1969) or cytochrome oxidase (Seligman et al., 1968, 1970). However, biochemical data from experiments on the effects of inhibitors strongly indicate that
the staining of the RER and related structures in peroxidase-synthesizing
cells is due to endogenous peroxidase activity (Novikoff et al., 1971). A
similar localization of peroxidase as that reported in the submandibular gland
of the cow (II, III) has recently been demonstrated in the sublingual gland
of this species using a highly specific immunohistochemical technique for the
demonstration of lactoperoxidase (Harada et al., 1973). No cross-reactivity
between lactoperoxidase and hemoproteins such as catalase, cytochrome c and
hemoglobin was observed with this immunological method.

The results obtained in the present study regarding the intracellular localization of peroxidase activity in salivary glands (III, IV) are thus in agreement with other reports dealing with peroxidase activity in different enzyme-synthesizing glands. The staining of the Golgi apparatus, however, seems to

be somewhat ambiguous, and the role of this organelle in the synthesis of the enzyme is not clear. This organelle has been implicated in the synthesis of carbohydrates in many different cells. Lactoperoxidase has a high content of carbohydrate (Morrison and Steele, 1968), and it is possible that the carbohydrate moiety is incorporated into the enzyme in the Golgi apparatus of salivary gland cells.

It cannot be excluded, however, that peroxidase may play some specific role in certain metabolic functions of the ER. Yamashina and Barka (1972) have suggested the existence of at least two types of peroxidases in salivary glands, a soluble and a membrane bound, not rejecting the interpretation that ascribes the presence of peroxidase in the RER to the synthesis of the enzyme. Further studies are required to clarify whether or not all of the peroxidase present in the RER of salivary glands is destined for secretion.

Current concepts of events in the cell secretory cycle are mainly based on the work by Palade and co-workers (e.g. Jamieson and Palade, 1967a,b) on the exocrine pancreas of the guinea pig. In the cells of this organ secretory proteins are synthesized on ribosomes attached to the membranes of the RER, and are transferred across these membranes to the cisternae of this organelle. They are then transported via small vesicles, pinched off from the cisternae, to a condensing vacuole located in the Golgi region, where condensation of the contents takes place, giving rise to the mature granule.

The results of the present work on peroxidase-synthesizing salivary glands are in accord with the general pathway for intracellular transport of secretory proteins as worked out on exocrine pancreatic cells.

2. Studies on secretion.

In the present investigation experiments were performed to elucidate whether salivary peroxidase is an exportable enzyme and whether the secretory mechanisms involved are similar to those regulating the release of amylase. The studies were carried out on the submandibular gland of the guinea pig. This gland is almost entirely serous and contains large amounts of both peroxidase and amylase (Thomson and Morell, 1967; Bhoola and Dorey, 1971; Kumlien, 1972).

Both peroxidase and amylase were released simultaneously from the submandibular

gland after stimulation in vitro with various secretagogues (V, VI). Cate-cholamines were the most potent secretagogues tested (V, VI). Cholinergic agents such as carbamylcholine appear to be less effective than the cate-cholamines in eliciting a secretory response from this gland (Carlsöö et al., 1972). This is in accord with findings on amylase discharge from the rat parotid gland (Schramm, 1967). In a previous report (Carlsöö et al., 1972) 2-4-dinitrophenol (DNP), an uncoupler of oxidative phosphorylation, was found to abolish the adrenaline-induced secretion of both peroxidase and amylase from the guinea pig submandibular gland. These findings suggest that sustained release of both enzymes requires an adequate provision of ATP.

Bdolah et al. (1964) first showed that adrenaline in vitro instigated amylase secretion from rat parotid slices. Babad et al. (1967) noted that theophylline as well as butyryl derivatives of cyclic AMP also induced amylase secretion from the rat parotid gland. Those authors concluded that cyclic AMP was the most likely mediator of the adrenaline-induced amylase secretion. It is now well established that catecholamines stimulate adenylate cyclase which may be located in the cell membrane. This enzyme catalyzes the formation of cyclic AMP in many cells (Sutherland and Robison, 1967). Robison et al. (1967) have suggested that in most, and perhaps all tissues, the adrenergic beta receptors and adenylate cyclase are identical. Thus, sympathetic stimulation of amylase secretion from salivary glands may be due to stimulation of the adenylate cyclase system; the adenylate cyclase of the salivary gland cell membrane may be identical with the beta receptors (Yamamoto et al., 1968). Recent studies have also clearly established that the enzymatic activity of adenylate cyclase in salivary glands is increased by catecholamines (Schramm and Naim, 1970; Malamud, 1972).

In addition to noradrenaline and adrenaline, dibutyryl cyclic AMP and theophylline stimulated the secretion of peroxidase and amylase from the guinea pig gland (V, VI). Since theophylline is a known inhibitor of the cyclic AMP degrading phosphodiesterase it is conceivable that the theophylline-induced secretion of peroxidase is caused by increased levels of intracellular cAMP.

Sympathetic stimulation of the parotid gland <u>in vivo</u> does not markedly alter the volume of saliva, although it greatly augments the level of amylase. This effect appears to be mediated by adrenergic beta receptors, as isoprenaline is a more potent agonist than either of the naturally occuring catecholamines,

and furthermore, the effects can be blocked by beta- but not by alpha adrenergic blocking agents (Pohto, 1968; Katz and Mandel, 1968; Yamamoto et al., 1968). With respect to peroxidase secretion, the receptors involved also appear to be beta receptors, as adrenaline- and noradrenaline-induced peroxidase secretion was completely inhibited by propranolol (β -blocker) but not by phenoxybenzamine (α -blocker) (VI). The secretory effect of DBcAMP in combination with theophylline is not altered by adrenergic blocking agents (VI).

Dopamine and 5-HT were also found to be potent enzyme secretagogues with respect to both peroxidase and amylase secretion (V, VI). The physiological significance of the effects of these two amines in salivary gland function is unclear. A striking degree of synergism between 5-HT, exogenous cyclic AMP and theophylline on salivary secretion in insects has been reported, and that the effect of 5-HT is mimicked by theophylline and cyclic AMP stands as evidence that the effect of 5-HT is mediated via cyclic AMP (Berridge, 1970). However, an effect of 5-HT on adenylate cyclase or on the cellular levels of cyclic AMP in salivary glands has not yet been demonstrated. In the dog pancreas, dopamine markedly enhances fluid secretion, and a specific dopamine receptor has been postulated to exist in this gland (Furuta et al., 1973). Further studies are required to elucidate whether specific 5-HT and dopamine receptors also exist in salivary glands, or whether these amines only interact nonspecifically with adrenergic receptors.

The present <u>in vivo</u> investigation (IV) has shown that a combined injection of isoprenaline and pilocarpine causes a virtually total depletion of secretory granules from the guinea pig submandibular gland. It was also found that after such an injection roughly 50 per cent peroxidase and 75 per cent amylase was discharged from the gland. At 24 hrs after the injection the glandular levels of the enzymes were restored to those of untreated controls. At this stage the acinar cells were refilled with secretory granules. There was a good correlation between the quantitative analysis of release and subsequent reaccumulation of the enzyme and the sequence of ultrastructural and cytochemical cellular events.

The morphological changes observed during the secretory cycle in the guinea pig gland are in agreement with those reported in salivary glands of the rat (Simson, 1969; Amsterdam et al., 1969). Shortly after induction of secretion,

granules are seen to be fusing with the cell membrane, thus releasing their contents into the duct system. The possibility that cyclic AMP is involved in this process of fusion between granules and plasma membrane has been discussed elsewhere (Amsterdam et al., 1969), but a definite role for the nucleotide in exocytosis processes has not been established.

The present results (IV, V, VI) have clearly shown that peroxidase and amylase are secreted concomitantly from the guinea pig submandibular gland. Furthermore the findings suggest that the cellular release mechanisms governing peroxidase secretion are similar to those controling amylase release. It can also be concluded that cyclic AMP plays an important role in the regulation of peroxidase secretion from salivary glands.

The fact that different exportable enzymes are present in the zymogen granules and are secreted together raises the question whether each individual granule contains the whole complement of enzymes, or a small defined selection (Neurath, 1962). The cytochemical findings seem to indicate that peroxidase and amylase are stored together within the same granule.

3. <u>Light and electron microscopic observations on salivary gland autonomic innervation</u>.

With the aid of histochemical methods the enzyme acetylcholinesterase (AChE) was visualized in nerve terminals around the secretory acini of the submandibular gland of the cow, guinea pig and hamster as well as of the sublingual gland of the two latter species. Furthermore, AChE activity was observed in nerve fibres in close proximity to striated duct cells in all five glands, as well as around the granular convoluted tubules of the hamster submandibular gland. Fluorescence microscopy showed that adrenergic nerves occurred around the secretory acini of the bovine, guinea pig and hamster submandibular gland, as well as around those of the hamster sublingual gland. In the hamster submandibular gland a fluorescent network was also seen surrounding the granular convoluted tubules. The mucous secretory acini of the guinea pig sublingual gland were devoid of adrenergic nerve supply (VII).

The general distribution of nerves in all of the five glands examined when studied in the electron microscope correlated well with the light and fluore-scence microscopic observations. In all glands unmyelinated nerve bundles, which usually contained several axons enveloped to some degree by a Schwann

cell, were found in the connective tissue stroma. Axons and varicosities were intimately associated with the acini, the duct system and the glandular vessels but did not penetrate the basement membranes to establish a close contact with the parenchymal cells. The striated duct cells of the hamster sublingual gland displayed a rich supply of axons and varicosities of both adrenergic and cholinergic type. This was in contrast to the same cells of the other glands studied. In this hamster gland an occasional close contact between varicosities and striated duct cells was also found (VII).

Recent developments in histochemical techniques as well as the electron microscope as an instrument have contributed substantial information with respect to the innervation of salivary glands in a wide variety of animals (see e.g. Emmelin, 1967). One aspect which has attracted much attention is the role of adrenergic versus cholinergic nerves in the secretory process of these glands. It is evident from the literature that there is no clear-cut separation of function between the two systems; the response of different glands to nervous stimulation and injected secretion-evoking drugs is extremely varied (Hand, 1972). Catecholamine fluorescence and acetylcholinesterase methods have demontrated that both adrenergic and cholinergic nerves are closely associated with the acinar cells of the parotid and submandibular glands of several animal species (Norberg and Olson, 1965; Fujiwara et al., 1966; Freitag and Engel, 1970). Studying this feature at the electron microscopic level, it is found that certain variations occur with respect to the presence of intraacinar nerve terminals in different salivary glands. Such terminals viz. nerves which penetrate the acinar basement membrane and establish close contact with the effector cells, are frequently encountered in rodent parotid glands (Scott and Pease, 1959) and in the submandibular gland of the cat (Shackleford and Wilborn, 1970). On the other hand, in the submandibular gland of the rat and mouse (Tamarin, 1966; Bogart, 1970; Yohro, 1971) and in the parotid and submandibular glands of man (Norberg et al., 1969) nerve terminals are only found external to the acinar basement membrane. These finer variations in innervation pattern indicate certain differences in the regulation of secretory activity (Scott and Pease, 1959), and as pointed out by those authors this should always be borne in mind when the effect of nervous stimulation of salivary glands is studied.

In the secretory studies on the guinea pig submandibular gland performed in the present investigation (V, VI) as well as in a previous study (Carlsöö

et al., 1972) peroxidase and amylase secretion could be initiated by both cholinergic agents and catecholamines. The findings are thus consonant with the observations on the distribution of autonomic nerves in this gland, viz. the secretory cells are innervated by both sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves.

The secretory acini of the sublingual gland of the guinea pig were found to be devoid of adrenergic nerve supply. Similar findings have also been reported with respect to the sublingual glands of the rat and the mouse (Norberg and Olson, 1965; Olson, 1967). The only salivary glands studied so far by histochemical techniques in which the secretory cells apparently lack sympathetic innervation are the sublingual glands of these three mentioned species. The hamster sublingual gland, however, with a structure essentially similar to that of the rat and mouse, is richly innervated by adrenergic nerves (VII). In the latter gland numerous adrenergic nerves form plexa around the striated ducts. To the author's knowledge a sympathetic innervation of these ducts has not been previously reported in the literature.

Recent studies suggest that peroxidase may play a role in at least two processes in salivary glands. One concerns iodination reactions and the other participation in an antibacterial system.

It has been shown experimentally that bovine lactoperoxidase is more active than most other peroxidases with respect to its ability to catalyze the oxidation of iodide (Morrison and Steele, 1968). Iodide is known to be concentrated within salivary gland cells of certain species (Myant, 1960). Furthermore, in 19 out of 21 salivary glands from eight different species, a correlation has been found between peroxidase activity of the gland and its ability to concentrate iodide from the blood (Kumlien, 1972). In the thyroid gland, peroxidase is believed to catalyze the iodination reactions involved in the synthesis of the thyroid hormones, triiodothyronine and thyroxine. In this gland the iodine trapping from the blood is followed by a rapid organic binding of iodine to iodoproteins. In salivary glands, on the other hand, most or possibly all iodine is rapidly excreted into the saliva and no protein-bound iodine is recovered in salivary gland homogenates (Kumlien, 1972).

Lactoperoxidase, the peroxidase of salivary glands, together with thiocyanate and $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ has also been shown to be very effective in inhibiting the growth of certain bacteria. Furthermore, lactoperoxidase exerts a strong viricidal and fungicidal action. The possible role of an antibacterial peroxidase system in the saliva has been discussed in papers I, II and III.

GENERAL SUMMARY

- The localization of endogenous peroxidase activity in the submandibular gland of six mammalian species was studied at the light microscopical level. Peroxidase activity was found in the serous acinar cells of the human and guinea pig gland; mucous cells were negative. In the hamster, only the granular convoluted tubule cells displayed a strong positive peroxidase reaction. In the mixed gland of the bovine species the seromucous demilunar cells revealed a positive staining whereas the mucous cells were unreactive. The secretory cells of the rabbit and dog submandibular glands showed no staining.
- The fine structural localization of peroxidase activity was studied in the guinea pig and bovine glands. Reaction product was observed in the cisternae of the rough endoplasmic reticulum including the nuclear envelope, in condensing vacuoles of the guinea pig gland and in secretory granules of both animals. The demilunar cells of the cow show a prominent RER which further appears to be associated with a peculiar peroxidase-positive labyrinth of interconnecting tubules.
- 2a After stimulation of guinea pigs <u>in vivo</u> with a combined injection of isoprenaline and pilocarpine, a discharge of peroxidase-positive secretory granules from the submandibular gland was observed. A few minutes after induction of secretion a fusing of granules with the apical cell membrane was noticed and a release of peroxidase-positive material into acinar lumina took place. At 90 min after injection an almost complete depletion of secretory granules was noted. At this stage about 50 per cent of the glandular contents of peroxidase was secreted from the glands. At 6 and 12 hrs a reaccumulation of peroxidase-positive secretory granules was noticed. At 24 hrs the acinar cells were refilled with peroxidase-positive granules.

- 2b A concomittant discharge of peroxidase and amylase from the guinea pig submandibular gland was recorded <u>in vitro</u>. Noradrenaline, adrenaline, dopamine, 5-HT and dibutyryl cyclic AMP were all found to be potent secretagogues of both enzymes. Theophylline (5 mM) alone had only a small effect in eliciting a secretory response, but it markedly potentiated the effects of noradrenaline, 5-HT and DBcAMP in submaximal concentrations.
- 2c Catecholamine (noradrenaline and adrenaline)-induced peroxidase secretion was inhibited by propranolol (a beta adrenergic blocking agent). The secretory effects of dopamine and 5-HT could be prevented by both propranolol and phenoxybenzamine. The adrenergic blocking compounds were, on the other hand, without effect on secretion induced by DBcAMP in combination with theophylline.
- The distribution of adrenergic and cholinergic nerves was studied in the submandibular gland of the cow, guinea pig and the hamster. The peroxidase-containing cells of these glands were found to be innervated by both parasympathetic and sympathetic nerves, as revealed by fluorescence microscopic, enzyme histochemical and electron microscopic studies. Ultrastructurally no close membrane-to-membrane contact between autonomic nerves and effector cell was observed in these salivary glands.

It is concluded that certain specific secretory cells of the human, guinea pig, bovine and hamster submandibular glands synthesize and store the oxidative enzyme peroxidase. Judging from experiments on the guinea pig submandibular gland, salivary peroxidase is discharged concomittantly with amylase both in vitro and in vivo. Noradrenaline and adrenaline are potent peroxidase secretagogues and the secretion induced by these two amines seems to be mediated via beta receptors and cyclic AMP. Peroxidase-synthesizing cells are innervated by both parasympathetic and sympathetic nerves.

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