



## Review article

## Human saliva as a diagnostic material



Sylvia Chojnowska<sup>a,\*</sup>, Tomasz Baran<sup>b</sup>, Iwona Wilińska<sup>c</sup>, Paulina Sienicka<sup>d</sup>,  
Iwona Cabaj-Wiater<sup>e</sup>, Małgorzata Knaś<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Faculty of Health Sciences, Łomża State University of Applied Sciences, Łomża, Poland

<sup>b</sup> NZOZ Dental Clinic, Garwolin, Poland

<sup>c</sup> NZOZ Stomatologia Dr Knaś inc., Białystok, Poland

<sup>d</sup> Jędrzej Śniadecki Province Hospital, Białystok, Poland

<sup>e</sup> MEDI-system, Warszawa, Poland

## ARTICLE INFO

## Article history:

Received 10 July 2017

Accepted 9 November 2017

Available online 14 November 2017

## Key words:

Saliva

Diagnostics

Glycomarkers

Mucins

Lysosomal exoglycosidases

## ABSTRACT

Today blood biochemical laboratory tests are essential elements to the diagnosis and monitoring of the treatment of diseases. However, many researchers have suggested saliva as an preferable diagnostic material. The collection of saliva is simple, painless, cheap and safe, both for patients and medical staff. An additional advantage of saliva is the fact that it may be retrieved several times a day, which makes repeat analysis much easier. Furthermore, saliva has very high durability. Although 94–99% of salivary content is water, saliva also contains numerous cellular elements and many organic and inorganic substances, including most biological markers present in the blood and urine that may be used in the early detection and monitoring of many dental and general diseases.

© 2017 Medical University of Białystok. Published by Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

## Contents

1. Introduction .....	185
2. Saliva .....	186
3. Salivary glands .....	186
3.1. The parotid gland .....	186
3.2. The submandibular tubular-alveolar gland .....	187
4. Methods of the salivary collection .....	187
5. Biologically important salivary components .....	187
6. Saliva as a diagnostic material .....	189
Conflict of interests .....	189
Financial disclosure .....	189
Acknowledgment .....	189
References .....	189

## 1. Introduction

Biochemical laboratory tests are an essential part of human disease diagnosis and monitoring. For biochemical analysis various biological fluids or tissues are collected, however, blood is still the most commonly used diagnostic material. Unfortunately, blood

collection is an invasive procedure that may involve some risk to the health of medical staff and patients (e.g. HIV, HBV) as well as a very large discomfort for many groups of patients. Therefore, many researchers have recommended saliva as the ideal non-invasive diagnostic material. Human saliva may be used in the early diagnosis and monitoring of many systemic diseases (e.g. cancer, infectious or cardiovascular disorders) [1], in the pharmacokinetic studies, in therapeutic drug monitoring [2,3]. Using saliva as a diagnostic material is possible, because a number of major inorganic and organic substances (e.g. proteins, carbohydrates

\* Corresponding author at: Medical Institute, Łomża State University of Applied Sciences, Akademicka Street 14, 18-400 Łomża, Poland.

E-mail address: [schojnowska@pwsip.edu.pl](mailto:schojnowska@pwsip.edu.pl) (S. Chojnowska).

and lipids) as well as drugs and their metabolites are secreted into saliva. In addition, salivary collection is painless, easy, inexpensive, and completely safe for patients and health professionals [4–7]. Therefore, the analysis of the concentrations of various salivary components is becoming increasingly important in the laboratory medicine for diagnosis and monitoring of many oral [2,5] and systemic disorders [8–11].

## 2. Saliva

Saliva – a fluid excreted by the large and small salivary glands, is one of the most important factors affecting the homeostasis of the oral cavity. Salivary composition and secretion depends on the gland from which saliva is secreted, as well as a patient's age, gender and type of stimulating factor [11–13]. Human saliva is composed mainly of water (94–99%), however an important fraction of saliva is made up of proteins (especially glycoproteins) and lipids. Saliva is also rich in carbohydrates, salts and contains non-protein nitrogen (urea, uric acid, amino acids and creatinine) [14]. Besides the excretions of salivary glands, saliva includes gingival fluid, serum components, bacteria and bacterial metabolites, exfoliated epithelial cells and leukocytes. Adults secrete about 0.5–1 liters of saliva daily of which 80% is due to food intake. The secretion of saliva is controlled by the autonomic nervous system (Fig. 1). Quantitative and qualitative changes of saliva are also caused by a variety of oral and systemic diseases, for example: Alzheimer's disease [15], diabetes [13], cystic fibrosis [16,17] and oncological diseases (especially head and neck tumors) [6,8].

A major role of saliva is to create a protective environment for teeth and oral mucosa against a variety of harmful mechanical, biological and chemical stimuli. In addition, saliva takes part in the initial phase of food digestion and participates in the perception of taste. Saliva exhibits antibacterial, antifungal and antiviral properties that are conditioned by the presence of salivary immunoglobulins as well as innate immunity proteins, such as lactoferrin [18] and lysozyme [19]. Waszkiewicz et al. [18,19] reported a decrease in salivary lactoferrin [18] and lysozyme [19] output in chronically intoxicated alcohol-dependent patients, in comparison to social drinkers. Decrease in salivary lactoferrin and lysozyme output in chronically intoxicated alcohol-dependent persons, reflects the inhibition of synthesis and an increase in lactoferrin and lysozyme catabolism, caused by harmful action of ethyl alcohol and its toxic metabolites e.g. acetic aldehyde. Decrease in output of salivary immunoproteins induces

deterioration of the paradontium of chronically intoxicated alcohol-dependent persons, in comparison to social drinkers [18,19]. Protection of the paradontium from harmful agents, next to immunoglobulins include enzymatic (e.g. peroxidase, catalase) and non-enzymatic antioxidant activity created by e.g. uric acid, polyphenols, ascorbic acid, reduced glutathione or albumin, protecting oral cavity against free radicals and other environmentally derived oxidative stress-induced agents [20]. Reduction of antioxidant activity can lead to the onset of inflammation in the oral cavity [21–25].

## 3. Salivary glands

Saliva is produced and secreted by the large salivary (parotid, submandibular and sublingual) as well as 800–1000 minor salivary glands located throughout the oral mucosa (Fig. 1) [4,26]. Cells of the salivary glands produce mucinous or serous human saliva. We may distinguish purely serous salivary glands (e.g. parotid or von Ebner's glands), purely mucous salivary glands (i.e. the glands located on the palate and base of tongue) and mixed (tubulo-alveolar) salivary glands. The mixed salivary glands include: the submandibular, sublingual, labial, buccal and molar salivary glands [27,28].

Large and medium size salivary glands have a lobular structure. The majority of human salivary glands are constructed with segments generating secretion (one layer of cuboid secreting cells wrapped with dense net of blood vessels) and tubes secreting saliva into the oral cavity. Individual salivary glands differ mainly in the structure of secretory segments and the type of produced saliva. Small salivary glands may be histologically distinguished from large and medium size salivary glands, as they are devoid of lobular structure and connective tissue capsule [27–30].

### 3.1. The parotid gland

The parotid gland is the largest (15–30 g), usually single (occasionally, there is an additional parotid gland) salivary alveolar gland, with a typical serous nature, located on the lateral side of the oral cavity [29] (Fig. 1). The parotid gland is found located in the vicinity of the submandibular salivary gland, separated by the bands of connective tissue. The parotid gland is surrounded by a capsule of connective tissue, divided by numerous septa connected with capsule and variable amounts of fat tissue. The salivary duct located at the frontal edge of the parotid gland perforates buccal

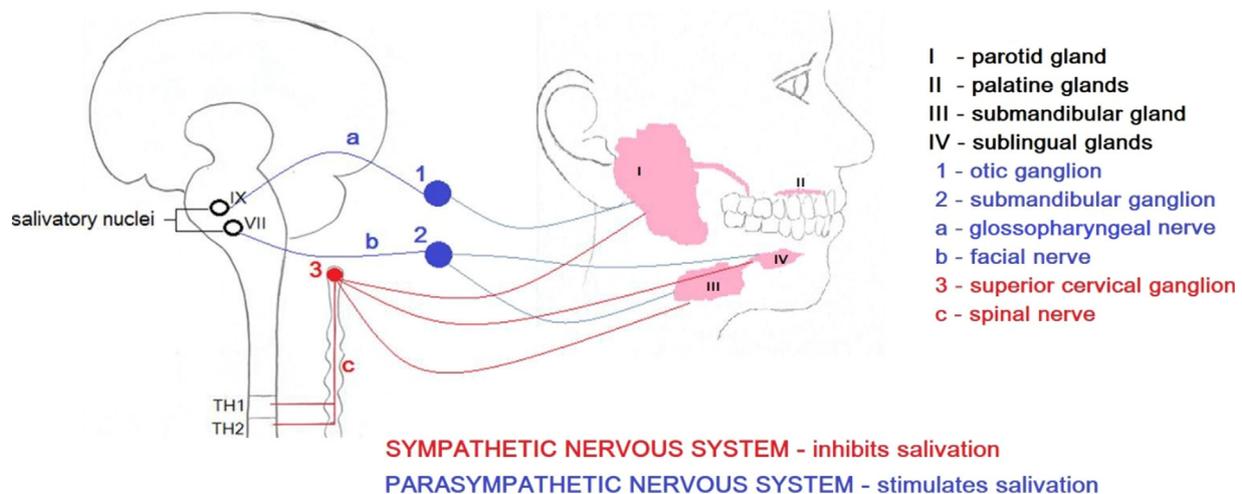


Fig. 1. Salivary glands and their vegetative innervation.

muscle and leads to the vestibule of the oral cavity at the region of the second cheek tooth. The parotid gland is parasympathetically innervated by the glossopharyngeal and sympathetically by spinal nerve (Fig. 1) [21,29].

### 3.2. The submandibular tubular-alveolar gland

The submandibular tubular-alveolar gland is located in the bottom corner of the submandibular triangle and is much smaller (7–16 g) than the parotid gland (Fig. 1). The submandibular gland has a harder consistency than the parotid gland and a mixed (serous-mucous) secretion. The submandibular salivary gland consists of pure alveolar, alveolar with serous tubules of a crescent shape and mixed salivary glands (however, majority of the submandibular gland releases serous saliva). The submandibular gland is parasympathetically innervated by the facial nerve and sympathetically by spinal nerve (Fig. 1) [30].

Sublingual glands are the smallest salivary glands (3–5 g) (Fig. 1), located at the bottom of the oral cavity, covered by mucous membrane. Sublingual glands consist of 5–20 small, separate glands. Sublingual glands represent mixed salivary glands, with structure similar to the submandibular gland, they secrete mostly mucus [29,30].

## 4. Methods of the salivary collection

The simplest method of collection of human saliva is sampling passively naturally flowing saliva from mouth to glass or plastic containers. Saliva may be also collected by aspiration or drainage of the outlet of the output ducts of the particular large salivary gland. The absorption method of the human salivary collection depends on mastication of the absorptive, usually cotton swabs. The absorption method is not recommended, as it carries a risk of permanent absorption of some substances by cotton swabs [4,31]. Although, methods of salivary collection may have significant influence on the precision and determination of biomarkers, up to now, there is no established uniform criteria for the collection of human saliva.

Human saliva is predominantly collected by spitting, where the patient spits out saliva from the bottom of the oral cavity into a glass or plastic calibrated container [32]. During the collection of saliva, a calibrated container (e.g. centrifugal tube) should be immersed in ice-bath to prevent degradation of biologically important salivary analytes [6]. To minimise the influence of circadian rhythms on the results of salivary biochemical determinations, saliva should be collected between 8 and 10 AM [7]. Patients should not eat or drink any beverages (with exception of the pure water) as well as not perform any hygienic procedures inside the oral cavity (e.g. teeth brushing) for at least two hours before salivary collection. Because of the influence of many drugs on salivary secretion, patients should not take drugs at least 8 h before salivary collection [12]. Saliva should be collected in a separate room, from a sitting, relaxed patient with their head slightly bent down, with minimal movement of the face and lips, after 5 min of adaptation to the environment [32,33]. Salivary excretion may be stimulated by dropping citric acid solution at the edge of tongue [32,33].

## 5. Biologically important salivary components

Saliva derived from parotid glands (26% of total salivary volume) contains amylase and other digestive enzymes. Saliva derived from submandibular glands (69% of total salivary volume) contains glycoproteins [4,26]. The most important constituents of saliva are glycoproteins [34] including mucins [35] and non-mucinous proteins [36]. Macromolecular glycoproteins (mucins)

make up about 26% of salivary proteins. Salivary mucins play a significant role in the homeostasis of the oral cavity by creating an acquired membrane, covering the soft and hard tissues lining the oral cavity. Mucinous saliva lubricates the oral cavity walls and food during mastication. It forms mouthfuls and plays an important role in word articulation during speaking [6,8]. Human saliva contains: oligomeric mucin (MG1) with molecular mass above 1 MDa and monomeric mucin (MG2) with molecular mass of 200–250 kDa. Monomers of MG1 and MG2 contain heavily O-glycosylated tandem repeats located at the central domain of the molecule. MG1 monomers are oligomerised by disulfide bonds located at sparsely glycosylated N- and C- ends of their polypeptide chains (Fig. 2). Human MG1 are synthesized by the mucous cells and MG2 by the serous cells of the salivary glands [35]. Oligomeric structure of MG1 creates salivary viscosity and faster deposition of dental plaque impeding teeth cleaning. MG1 dominates in the saliva of patients with intensive caries. Monomeric MG2 predominates in caries resistant persons. MG2 responsible for bacterial agglutination, has antiviral and antifungal properties [37–41].

Oligosaccharide chains of salivary mucins are built by individual sugar molecules linked to each other O-glycosidically. The majority of oligosaccharide chains of human salivary mucins are O-glycosidically attached to polypeptide core [35] (Fig. 2). Glycoconjugates and their structures are important in physiology and pathology of oral cavity, however their applications in diagnostics of human diseases are minute. It is worth of note that glycosylation changes of salivary glycans may be used for monitoring alcoholic abstinence [22]. O-glycosidic linkages of glycoconjugates (glycoproteins, proteoglycan and glycolipids) are hydrolysed by lysosomal exoglycosidases [43]. Exoglycosidases hydrolyse:  $\beta$ -anomerically linked N-acetyl-D-hexosamines (N-acetyl- $\beta$ -hexosaminidase- HEX, NAG),  $\beta$ -anomerically linked galactose ( $\beta$ -galactosidase (GAL),  $\alpha$ - or  $\beta$ -anomerically linked mannoses, ( $\alpha$ - or  $\beta$  mannosidase –MAN),  $\alpha$ - anomerically linked fucose ( $\alpha$ -fucosidase – FUC) and  $\beta$ -anomerically linked glucuronic acid in glycosaminoglycans ( $\beta$ -glucuronidase – GLU) [44–48]. Reduced activity of lysosomal exoglycosidases in saliva of healthy persons increases in dysfunction of salivary glands during many systemic diseases such as inflammation and cancer [49,50].

Most active of the lysosomal exoglycosidases, is N-acetyl- $\beta$ -hexosaminidase (HEX, NAG) that hydrolyses N-acetylglucosamine and N-acetylgalactosamine from non-reducing end of glycoconjugates (glycoproteins, glycolipids and glycosaminoglycans) oligosaccharide chains [51]. HEX hydrolyses  $\beta$ -glycosidic linkages of hexosamines in natural and artificial substrates (e.g. derivatives of N-acetylglucosamine and 4-nitrophenol or 4-methyl-umbelliferone). Derivatives of 4-nitrophenole of hexosamines and other sugars are suitable for colorimetric and 4-methylumbelliferone derivatives are suitable for fluorescent determination of HEX and other exoglycosidases [52,53]. HEX may be electrophoretically separated on isoenzymes: B, I1, I2, P, A, S, C. HEX isoenzymes A and S are thermolabile; isoenzymes B and P are thermostable [54]. In tissues HEX isoenzymes A and B have the highest activity, however their relative activities are different depending on the tissue. Thermolabile HEX A is inactivated by incubation at 50°C in pH 5.0 for 3 h. Differences in heat stability were used for colorimetric determination of HEX A and HEX B [55,56]. Remaining lysosomal exoglycosidases (FUC, MAN, GAL, GLU) demonstrate lower specific activity than HEX, both in tissues and body fluids.

HEX is a sensitive marker for stomatological [40,57] and general diseases [58–60]. A significant increase in the specific activity of HEX and its isoenzyme A was reported in the saliva of smoking and non-smoking alcoholics, probably as a result of the oral cavity inflammatory states [22,61,62]. Smoking alcoholics had higher HEX A specific activity in comparison to social drinkers [58,63].

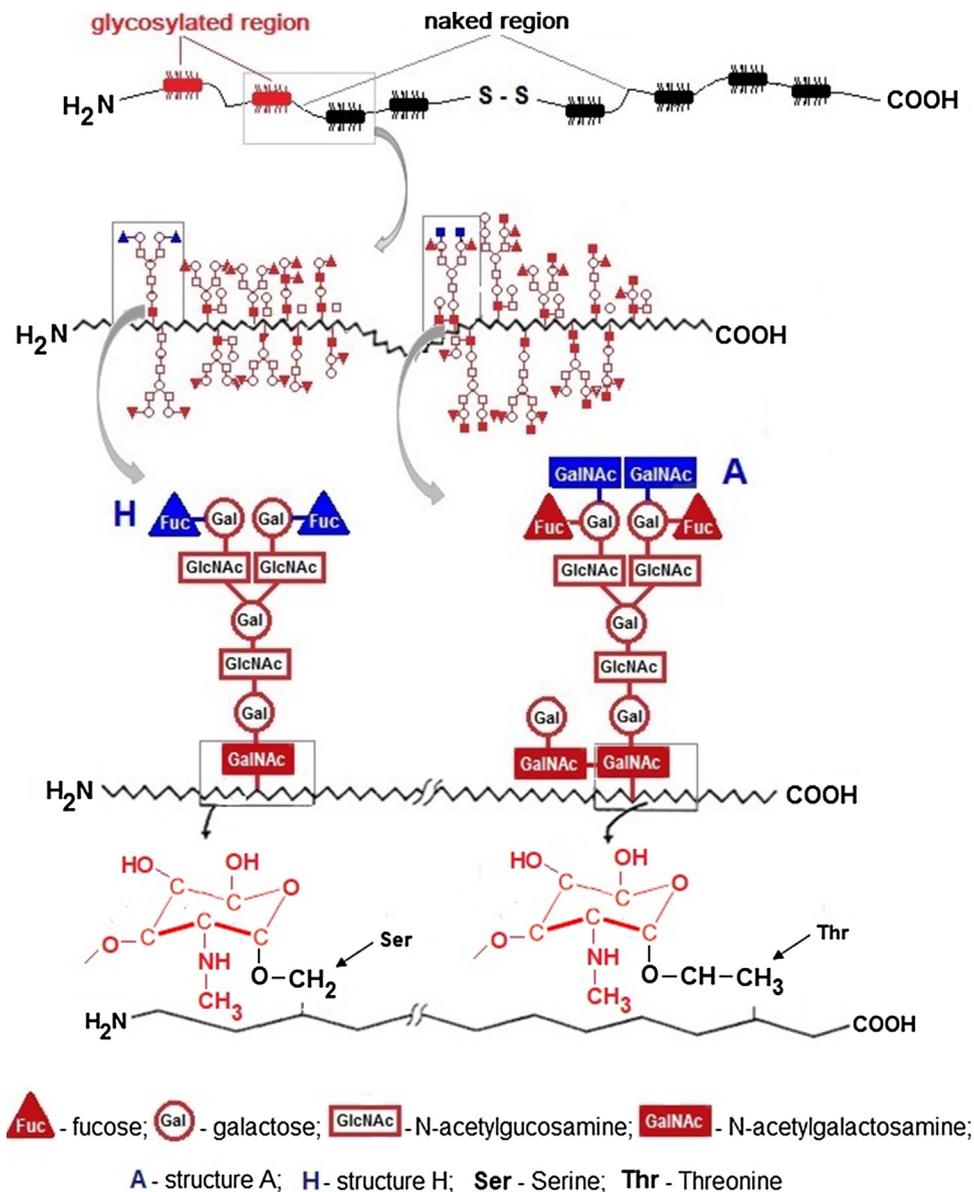


Fig. 2. Scheme of human mucin [42].

Alcohol abuse also increases salivary specific activities of the remaining exoglycosidases (FUC, GAL, GLU and MAN) [59,64].

Persons with alcohol abuse accumulate acetaldehyde and ROS (Reactive Oxygen Species) in oral cavity tissues [65]. Increase of ROS damages DNA, disturbs antioxidative processes that cause oxidative stress. A recognized marker of oxidative stress DNA damage is 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) – a recommended salivary biomarker of paradontal diseases [66,67]. Alcohol abuse leads to non-inflammatory salivary gland edema (sialosis) with accompanying lipid accumulation in salivary gland cells and the decrease in potassium and total protein concentration. As a result of sialosis, degeneration of cells and atrophy of salivary glands was observed with the decrease in saliva production and the decrease in defense ability of oral cavity tissues. As a consequence of sialosis there is an increase in the number of teeth with caries [68,69]. Alcohol related degradation of oral epithelial cells is accompanied by the release of lysosomal enzymes to saliva. Increase of concentration of epithelial cells lysosomal exoglycosidases disturb the balance between degradation and synthesis of glycoconjugates

in tissues [70], aggravating pathology of the oral cavity. Enzymes released into saliva may be a useful source of biomarkers reflecting the status of salivary glands, not only in caries, but also in the course of arthritis [60] and neoplasma [71]. Pleomorphic adenoma (PA) is the most frequently occurring neoplasm of human salivary glands. PA is a benign neoplasm with tendency to malignancy and HEX and its isoenzymes of resected PA tissue may be valuable markers to evaluation tendency of PA to malignancy [72].

Increase of salivary exoglycosidases specific activity was observed in insulin dependent (Type 1) [73] and independent (Type 2) [74] diabetes mellitus, and gestational diabetes [75]. Diabetic increase in specific activity of the salivary exoglycosidases is a marker of increased degradation of glycoconjugates (glycoproteins, glycolipids and proteoglycans) of salivary glands and tissues of the oral cavity [73–75] that may suggest application of special stomatological prophylactic procedures to diabetic patients. It was found that smoking diabetics had higher specific exoglycosidase activity than non-smoking diabetics, as smoking

detriment saliva that additionally aggravated oral complications of diabetes [76].

Chronic inflammation of soft tissues of oral cavity is accompanied by accumulation of inflammatory cells (neutrophils, lymphocytes and macrophages) that take part in degradation of oral soft tissues. Inflammatory and dystrophic changes in endothelial cells of the oral cavity increase specific activity of lysosomal proteases and exoglycosidases. Increase of glycoconjugates catabolism reflected by increase in specific activity of salivary exoglycosidases, may explain the susceptibility of oral mucosal cells to bacterial, fungal and viral infections, which were found in patients with HIV [77,78].

## 6. Saliva as a diagnostic material

Saliva contains many disease markers which reflect the state of health of not only the salivary glands and oral cavity, but also the whole body. Saliva contains numerous cells (exfoliated epithelial cells, leucocytes, bacteria), many organic (peptides, proteins and among them enzymes) as well as inorganic substances (cations of calcium, magnesium, sodium, potassium; phosphate and carbonate anions). Saliva contains the majority of blood disease markers (antibodies, interleukins, neoplasma markers) that may be applied in the detection of early pathological changes in humans (e.g viral infections, autoimmune diseases, cancers) [1,6,8,11,79]. Saliva may significantly facilitate biochemical and toxicological diagnostics in children and adults along with easy, non-invasive and convenient sample collection. Saliva constitutes an excellent alternative for blood, especially in patients with blood clotting disorders [80]. Saliva can be considered to be the best research material for scientific investigations on humans from the ethical point of view. Saliva is a very convenient diagnostic biological fluid, because it does not coagulate, is stable for diagnostic purpose for 24 h in room temperature and for a week at 4 °C [2]. Human saliva may be collected more often than other biological fluids, several times a day, facilitating repeat analysis during monitoring therapy. Saliva is a better diagnostic screening material than blood, as many people suffer from anxiety during blood collection. The fact that collection of saliva is better tolerated than collection of blood may result in less resistance to visit a diagnostic biochemical laboratory, earlier diagnostics and a decrease in expenditure of the budget for health.

A review of literature suggests that human saliva has been successfully employed in diagnostic of many systemic diseases such as:

- cancers e.g. ovaries [81], lung [82], breast [83], pancreas [84]
- autoimmune diseases as: Sjögren's syndrome, celiac disease [85,86], Hashimoto thyroiditis [87].
- infectious diseases: HIV and viral hepatitis [11], malaria [88], dengue virus [80],
- endocrinological diseases: diabetes 1 and 2 types as well as Cushing's syndrome [89,90],
- diseases of gastrointestinal tract, e.g. gastroesophageal reflux [91].

Currently saliva is used in toxicological diagnostics e.g. detection of drug dependence and alcohol abuse [18,59,61,64,70], neurology, psychiatry [92–94] and forensic medicine (DNA) [95]. The concentrations of drugs in saliva correlate with the concentrations of drug in the blood [96–100]. Saliva can also be used as a diagnostic material in the analysis of the environmental exposure to fluorides [101].

In conclusion, it is felt that saliva is recommended as an excellent material for biochemical, toxicological and immunological diagnostics of the oral cavity and systemic diseases.

## Conflict of interests

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

## Financial disclosure

The authors have no funding to disclose.

## Acknowledgment

We are indebted to Dr. Tony Merry of Oxfordshire for improving the style of the manuscript.

## References

- [1] Nunes LA, Mussavira S, Bindhu OS. Clinical and diagnostic utility of saliva as a non-invasive diagnostic fluid: a systematic review. *Biochem Med* 2015;25(2):177–92, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.11613/BM.2015.018>.
- [2] Kaufman E, Lamster IB. The diagnostic applications of saliva – a review. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* 2002;13:197–212, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/154411130201300209>.
- [3] Rees TD. Drugs and oral disorders. *Periodontol* 2000 1998;18:21–36.
- [4] Amando F, Lobo MJ, Dominiques P. Salivary peptidomics. *Expert Rev Proteomic* 2010;7(5):709–21, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1586/epr.10.48>.
- [5] Ganowicz E. Salivary diagnostics – Diseases of the oral cavity. *Dent Med Prob* 2011;48(3):421–30.
- [6] Kochurova EV, Kozlov SV. The diagnostic possibilities of saliva. *Klin Lab Diagn* 2014;1:13–5.
- [7] Marti-Alamo S, Mancheno-Franch A, Marzal-Gamarra C, Carlos-Fauel L. Saliva as a diagnostic fluid. Literature review. *J Clin Exp Dent* 2012;4(4):237–43, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4317/jced.50865>.
- [8] AlKawas SA, Rahim ZH, Ferguson DB. Potential uses of human salivary protein and peptide analysis in the diagnostic of disease. *Arch Oral Biol* 2012;57(1):1–9, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.archoralbio.2011.06.013>.
- [9] Klichowska-Palonna M, Bachanek T. Possible use of saliva in the diagnostics and treatment – review of the literature. *Przegląd Lekarski* 2011;68(2):114–7.
- [10] Kolesov SA, Korkotashvili LV. The proteome of saliva and its diagnostic possibilities. *Klin Lab Diagn* 2015;60(5):54–8.
- [11] Wong DT. Saliva – the body's mirror. *Dimensions Dent Hyg* 2006;4:14–7.
- [12] Navazesh M, Christensen C, Brightman V. Clinical criteria for the diagnosis of salivary gland hypofunction. *J Dent Res* 1992;71(1):1363–9, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00220345920710070301>.
- [13] Lee YH, Wong DT. Saliva: an emerging biofluid for early detection of diseases. *Am J Dent* 2009;22:241–8.
- [14] 8th ed. Sonnenwirth AC, Jared L, editors. *Gradwohl's Clinical Laboratory Methods and Diagnosis*, Vol. 1. St. Louis, Toronto, London: C.V. Mosby Company; 1980. p. 505–10.
- [15] Bermejo-Pareja F, Antequera D, Vargas T, Molina JA, Carro E. Saliva levels of Abeta1–42 as potential biomarker of Alzheimer's disease: a pilot study. *BMC Neurol* 2010;10:108–10.
- [16] Minarowska A, Minarowski Ł, Karwowska A, Sands D, Dąbrowska E. The activity of cathepsin D in saliva of cystic fibrosis patients. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 2007;45(3):165–8.
- [17] Minarowski Ł, Sands D, Minarowska A, Karwowska A, Sulewska A, Gacko M, et al. Thiocyanate concentration in saliva of cystic fibrosis patients. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 2008;46(2):245–6, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/v10042-008-0037-0>.
- [18] Waszkiewicz N, Zalewska-Szajda B, Zalewska A, Waszkiewicz M, Szajda SD, Repka B, et al. Decrease in salivary lactoferrin output in chronically intoxicated alcohol – dependent patients. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 2012;50(2):248–54.
- [19] Waszkiewicz N, Zalewska-Szajda B, Zalewska A, Waszkiewicz M, Szajda SD, Repka B, et al. Salivary lysozyme in smoking alcohol dependent persons. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 2012;50(4):609–12, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.5603/17840>.
- [20] Kamodyová N, Tóthová L, Celec P. Salivary markers of oxidative stress and antioxidant status: influence of external factors. *Dis Markers* 2013;34(5):313–21, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.3233/DMA-130975>.
- [21] Kadoya Y, Yamashina S. Salivary gland morphogenesis and basement membranes. *Anat Sci Int* 2005;80(2):71–9, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1447-073x.2005.00102.x>.
- [22] Kratz EM, Waszkiewicz N, Kałuża A, Szajda SD, Zalewska-Szajda B, Szulc A, et al. Glycosylation changes in the salivary glycoproteins of alcohol-dependent patients: a pilot study. *Alcohol Alcohol* 2014;49(1):23–30, doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/alcalc/agt152>.

- [23] Turner RJ, Sugiya H. Understanding salivary fluid and protein secretion. *Oral Dis* 2002;8(1):3–11.
- [24] Waszkiewicz N, Zalewska A, Szajda SD, Szulc A, Kępka A, Minarowska A, et al. The effect of chronic alcohol intoxication and smoking on the activity of oral peroxidase. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 2012;50(3):450–5. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.5603/19756.
- [25] Krawczyk D, Sikorska-Jaroszyńska MH, Mielnik-Błaszczak M, Pasternak K, Kapeć E, Sztanke M. Dental caries and total antioxidant status of unstimulated mixed whole saliva in patients aged 16–23 years. *Adv Med Sci* 2012;57(1):163–8. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/v10039-012-0015-9.
- [26] Chiappin S, Antonelli G, Gatti R, De Palo EF. Saliva specimen: a new laboratory tool for diagnostic and basic investigation. *Clin Chim Acta* 2007;383(1–2):30–40. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cca.2007.04.011.
- [27] Eliasson L, Carlén A. An update on minor salivary gland secretions. *Eur J Oral Sci* 2010;118(5):435–42. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0722.2010.00766.x.
- [28] Sonesson M, Eliasson L, Matsson L. Minor salivary gland secretion in children and adults. *Arch Oral Biol* 2003;48(7):535–9.
- [29] Amano O, Mizobe K, Bando Y, Sakiyama K. Anatomy and histology of rodent and human major salivary glands: overview of the Japan Salivary Gland Society-Sponsored Workshop. *Acta Histochem Cytochem* 2012;45(5):241–50. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1267/ahc.12013.
- [30] Kontis TC, Johns ME. Anatomy and physiology of the salivary glands. In: Bailey BJ, editor. *Head & Neck Surgery-Otolaryngology*. 3rd edn. Philadelphia: Lippincott; 2001. p. 429–36.
- [31] Nunes LA, Macedo DV. Saliva as a diagnostic fluid in sports medicine: potential and limitations. *Br J Pathol Lab Med* 2013;9(4):247–55. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S1676-24422013000400003.
- [32] Knaś M, Zalewska A, Waszkiewicz N, Szulimowska J, Dziecioł J, Sierakowski S, et al. Salivary: flow and proteins of the innate and adaptive immunity in the limited and diffused systemic sclerosis. *J Oral Pathol Med* 2014;43(7):521–9.
- [33] Zalewska A, Knaś M, Gińdzieńska-Sieśkiewicz E, Waszkiewicz N, Klimiuk A, Litwin K, et al. Salivary antioxidants in patients with systemic sclerosis. *J Oral Pathol Med* 2014;43(1):61–8. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/jop.12084.
- [34] Zalewska A, Borzym M, Marcinkiewicz M, Zwierz K. Glikoproteiny śliny ludzkiej (Glycoproteins of human saliva). *Magazyn Stomatologiczny* 1999;10:28–35.
- [35] Zalewska A, Zwierz K, Żółkowski K, Gindziński A. Structure and biosynthesis of human salivary mucins. *Acta Biochim Pol* 2000;47(4):1067–79.
- [36] Zalewska A, Pietruska MD, Knaś M, Zwierz K. Niemucynowe białka śliny o wysokim stopniu homologii łańcucha polipeptydowego (Non mucinous salivary proteins with high homology of polypeptide chain). *Postępy Higieny i Medycyny Doświadczalnej* 2001;55:733–54.
- [37] Ahn SJ, Kho HS, Lee SW, Nahm DS. Roles of salivary proteins in the adherence of oral Streptococci to various orthodontic brackets. *J Dent Res* 2002;81(6):411–5. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/154405910208100611.
- [38] Peacocke J, Lotz Z, de Beer C, Roux P, Mall AS. The role of crude saliva and purified salivary mucins in the inhibition of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus type 1. *Virology* 2012;28(9):177. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1743-422X-9-177.
- [39] Piłudu M, Rayment SA, Liu B, Oppenheim FG, Troxler RF, Hand AR. Electron microscopic immunogold localization of salivary mucins MG1 and MG2 in human submandibular and sublingual glands. *J Histochem Cytochem* 2003;51(1):69–79. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002215540305100109.
- [40] Skurska A, Pietruska M, Bednarczyk A, Knaś M, Pietruski J, Paniczko A, et al. Assessment of salivary exoglycosidases levels in patients with aggressive periodontitis after treatment with Aprotinin. *Ann Acad Med Stetin* 2007;53(3):137–41. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/v10039-009-0027-2.
- [41] Van't Hof W, Veerman EC, Nieuw Amerongen AV, Ligtenberg AJ. Antimicrobial defense system in saliva. *Monogr Oral Sci* 2014;24:40–51.
- [42] Gindziński A, Zwierz K. a biochemical and medical problem. *Postępy Biochemii* 1991;37(3–4):146–52.
- [43] Chojnowska S, Kępka A, Szajda SD, Waszkiewicz N, Zwierz K. Diagnostic application of lysosomal exoglycosidases. In: Sharma Pooja Dhiman, editor. *Lysosomes – Associated Diseases and Methods to Study Their Function*. Croatia: INTECH; 2017. p. 149–64.
- [44] Zsager G, Michalski JC, Montreuil J. Lysosomal catabolic pathway of N-glycosylprotein glycans. *Biochimie* 1998;70:1505–10.
- [45] Minarowska A, Minarowski L, Karwowska A, Milewska AJ, Gacko M. Role of cathepsin A and cathepsin C in the regulation of glycosidase activity. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol* 2012;50(1):20–4. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/18692.
- [46] Chojnowska S, Minarowska A, Knaś M, Niemcunowicz-Janica A, Kołodziejczyk P, Zalewska-Szajda B, et al. Lysosomal exoglycosidases in nasal polyps. *Polish Otolaryngol* 2013;67(4):192–7. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.otpol.2013.05.004.
- [47] Chojnowska S, Minarowska A, Waszkiewicz N, Kępka A, Zalewska-Szajda B, Gościak E, et al. The activity of N-acetyl-β-D-hexosaminidase A and B and β-glucuronidase in nasal polyps and hypertrophic nasal concha. *Polish Otolaryngol* 2014;68(1):20–4. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.otpol.2013.06.005.
- [48] Zsager M, Minarowska A, Knaś M, Krajewska K, Niemcunowicz-Janica A, Marciniak J, et al. N-acetyl-β-hexosaminidase in chronic tonsillitis and tonsillar hypertrophy. *Polish Otolaryngol* 2013;67(4):204–8. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.otpol.2013.05.003.
- [49] Albandar JM, Kingman A, Lamster IB. Crevicular fluid level of beta-glucuronidase in relations to clinical periodontal parameters and putative periodontal pathogens in early-onset periodontitis. *J Clin Periodontol* 1998;25(8):630–9.
- [50] Lamster IB, Holmes LG, Gross KB, Oshrain RL, Cohen DW, Rose LF, et al. The relationship of beta-glucuronidase activity in crevicular fluid to clinical parameters of periodontal disease. Findings from a multicenter study. *J Clin Periodontol* 1994;21(2):118–27.
- [51] Zwierz K, Zalewska A, Zoch-Zwierz W. Isoenzymes of N-acetyl-beta-hexosaminidase. *Acta Biochim Pol* 1999;46(3):739–51.
- [52] Chojnowska S, Zalewska A, Knaś M, Waszkiewicz N, Waszkiel D, Kossakowska A, et al. Determination of lysosomal exoglycosidases in human saliva. *Acta Biochim Pol* 2014;61(1):85–90.
- [53] Marciniak J, Zalewska A, Popko J, Zwierz K. Optimization of an enzymatic method for the determination of lysosomal N-acetyl-β-D-hexosaminidase and β-glucuronidase in synovial fluid. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 2006;44(8):933–7. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/CCLM.2006.177.
- [54] Zwierz K, Gindziński A, Ostrowska L, Stankiewicz-Choroszuca B. Metabolism of glycoconjugates in human gastric mucosa. *Acta Med Hung* 1989;46(4):275–88.
- [55] Mahuran DJ. Characterisation of human placental beta-hexosaminidase 12. Proteolytic processing intermediates of hexosaminidase A. *J Biol Chem* 1990;265(12):6794–9.
- [56] Stirling JL. Separation and characterisation of N-acetyl-β-hexosaminidases A and P from maternal serum. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1972;271(1):154–62.
- [57] Knaś M, Zalewska A, Skurska A, Bernaczyk A, Paniczko A, Dolińska E, et al. Assessment of influence of ozonotherapy on the saliva activity of chosen exoglycosidases in patients with chronic and aggressive periodontitis. *J Stomatol* 2012;65(6):825–35. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.5604/00114553.1016750.
- [58] Quinn MO, Miller VE, Dal Nogare AR. Increased salivary exoglycosidase activity during critical illness. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1994;150(1):179–83. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1164/ajrccm.150.1.8025747.
- [59] Waszkiewicz N, Chojnowska S, Zalewska A, Zwierz K, Szulc A, Szajda SD. Salivary exoglycosidases as markers of alcohol dependence. *Alcohol Alcohol* 2014;49(4):409–16. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/alcalc/agu005.
- [60] Zalewska A, Szulimowska J, Waszkiewicz N, Waszkiel D, Zwierz K, Knaś M. Salivary exoglycosidases in the detection of early onset of salivary gland involvement in rheumatoid arthritis. *Postępy Higieny i Medycyny Doświadczalnej* 2013;67:1182–8.
- [61] Waszkiewicz N, Chojnowska S, Zalewska A, Zwierz K, Szulc A, Szajda SD. Salivary hexosaminidase in smoking alcoholics with bad periodontal and dental states. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2013;129(102):33–40. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2012.09.008.
- [62] Waszkiewicz N, Zalewska-Szajda B, Chojnowska S, Gościak E, Szulc A, Zwierz K. Beta-hexosaminidase in the saliva as a marker of alcohol dependence. *Pol Merkuriusz Lek* 2013;34(200):83.
- [63] Waszkiewicz N, Zalewska-Szajda B, Chojnowska S, Szajda SD, Zalewska A, Konarzewska B, et al. The salivary β-HEX A% index as an excellent marker of periodontitis in smoking alcohol-dependent persons. *Dis Markers* 2013;35(5):457–63. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2013/575074.
- [64] Waszkiewicz N, Szajda SD, Jankowska A, Waszkiewicz M, Kępka A, Konarzewska B, et al. Catabolism of salivary glycoconjugates in acute ethanol intoxication. *Med Sci Monit* 2009;15(8):R413–7.
- [65] Lachenmeier DW, Sohnius EM. The role of acetaldehyde outside ethanol metabolism in the carcinogenicity of alcoholic beverages: evidence from a large chemical survey. *Food Chem Toxicol* 2008;46(6):2903–11. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2008.05.034.
- [66] Sawamoto Y, Sugano N, Tanaka H, Ito K. Detection of periodontopathic bacteria and an oxidative stress marker in saliva from periodontitis patients. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 2005;20(4):216–20. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-302X.2005.00215.x.
- [67] Sugano N, Yokoyama K, Oshikawa M, Kumagai K, Takane M, Tanaka H, et al. Detection of Streptococcus anginosus and 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine in saliva. *J Oral Sci* 2003;45(4):181–4.
- [68] Surtel A, Klepac R, Wysokińska-Miszczuk J. Alcohol dependence syndrome – symptoms in the oral cavity. *Postępy Higieny i Medycyny Doświadczalnej* 2014;68:828–33.
- [69] Waszkiewicz N, Zalewska A, Szulc A, Kępka A, Konarzewska B, Zalewska-Szajda B, et al. The influence of alcohol on the oral cavity, salivary glands and saliva. *Pol Merkuriusz Lek* 2011;30(175):69–74.
- [70] Waszkiewicz N, Szajda SD, Zalewska A, Szulc A, Kępka A, Minarowska A, et al. Alcohol abuse and glycoconjugate metabolism. *Folia Cytochem Cytobiol* 2012;50(1):1–11. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/18690.
- [71] Bieć M, Minarowski L, Wozniak Ł, Chojnowska S, Knaś M, Szajda SD, et al. The activity of selected glycosidases in salivary gland tumors. *Folia Cytochem Cytobiol* 2010;48(3):471–4. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/v10042-010-0080-5.
- [72] Borzym-Kluczyk M, Olszewska E, Radziejewska I, Lewszuk A, Zwierz K. Isoenzymes of N-acetyl-β-hexosaminidase in human pleomorphic adenoma and healthy salivary glands: a preliminary study. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 2008;46(1):131–6. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/CCLM.2008.018.
- [73] Zalewska-Szajda B, Szajda SD, Waszkiewicz N, Chojnowska S, Gościak E, Lebkowska U, et al. Activity of N-acetyl-β-D-hexosaminidase in the saliva of children with type 1 diabetes. *Postępy Higieny i Medycyny Doświadczalnej* 2013;67:996–9. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.5604/17322693.1067686.

- [74] Zalewska A, Knaś M, Niczyporuk M, Razak HH, Waszkiewicz N, Przystupa AW, et al. Salivary lysosomal exoglycosidases profiles in patients with insulin-dependent and noninsulin-dependent Diabetes Mellitus. *Adv Clin Exp Med* 2013;22(5):659–66.
- [75] Zalewska A, Knaś M, Gumieźny G, Niczyporuk M, Waszkiel D, Przystupa AW, et al. Salivary exoglycosidases in gestational diabetes. *Postępy Higieny i Medycyny Doświadczalnej* 2013;67:315–20.
- [76] Knaś M, Karaszewska K, Szajda SD, Zarzycki W, Dudzik D, Zwierz K. Saliva of patients with Type 1 diabetes: effect of smoking on activity of lysosomal exoglycosidases. *Oral Dis* 2006;12(3):278–82, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1601-0825.2005.01190.x.
- [77] Waszkiel D, Zalewska A, Knaś M, Choromańska M, Klimiuk A. Activity of lysosomal exoglycosidases in saliva of patients with HIV infection. *Adv Med Sci* 2006;51(1):230–2.
- [78] Knaś M, Choromańska M, Karaszewska K, Dudzik D, Waszkiel D, Borzym-Kluczyk M, et al. Activity of lysosomal exoglycosidases in saliva of patients with HIV infection. *Adv Med Sci* 2007;52:186–90.
- [79] Malamud D, Rodriguez-Chaves IR. Saliva as a diagnostic fluid. *Dent Clin North Am* 2011;55(1):159–78, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cden.2010.08.004.
- [80] Poloni TR, Oliveira AS, Alfonso HL, Galvão LR, Amarilla AA, Poloni DF, et al. Detection of dengue virus in saliva and urine by real time RT-PCR. *Virology* 2010;7:22–9, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1743-422X-7-22.
- [81] Lee YH, Kim JH, Zhou H. Salivary transcriptomic biomarkers for detection of ovarian cancer: for serous papillary adenocarcinoma. *J Mol Med* 2012;90(4):427–34, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00109-011-0829-0.
- [82] Xiao H, Zhang L, Zhou H, Lee JM, Garon EB, Wong DT. Proteomic analysis of human saliva from lung cancer patients using two-dimensional difference gel electrophoresis and mass spectrometry. *Mol Cell Proteomics* 2012;11(2), doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/mcp.M111.012112 M111.012112.
- [83] Zhang L, Xiao H, Karlan S, Zhou H, Gross J, Elashoff D, et al. Discovery and preclinical validation of salivary transcriptomic and proteomic biomarkers for the non-invasive detection of breast cancer. *PLoS One* 2010;5(12):e15573, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0015573.
- [84] Zhang L, Farrell JJ, Zhou H, Elashoff D, Akin D, Park NK, et al. Salivary transcriptomic biomarkers for detection of resectable pancreatic cancer. *Gastroenterology* 2010;138(3):949–57, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2009.11.010.
- [85] Hu S, Wang J, Meijer J, Jeong S, Xie Y, Yu T, et al. Salivary proteomic and genomic biomarkers for primary Sjögren's syndrome. *Arthritis Rheumatol* 2007;56(11):3588–600, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/art.22954.
- [86] Jonsson R, Vogelsang P, Volchenkov R, Espinosa A, Wahren-Herlenius M, Appel S. The complexity of Sjögren's syndrome: novel aspects on pathogenesis. *Immunol Lett* 2011;141(1):1–9, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.iml.2011.06.007.
- [87] Rao NL, Shetty S, Upadhyaya K, Prasad RM, Lobo EC, Kedilaya HP, et al. Salivary C-reactive protein in human Hashimoto's thyroiditis and subacute thyroiditis. *Int J Inflamm* 2010;14:514659, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.4061/2010/514659.
- [88] Buppan P, Putaporntip C, Pattanawong U, Seethamchai S, Jongwutives S. Comparative detection of *Plasmodium vivax* and *Plasmodium falciparum* DNA in saliva and urine samples from symptomatic malaria patients in a low endemic area. *Malar J* 2010;9:72–6, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1475-2875-9-72.
- [89] Reznick AZ, Shehadeh N, Shafir Y, Nagler RM. Free radicals related effects and antioxidants in saliva and serum of adolescents with type 1 diabetes mellitus. *Arch Oral Biol* 2006;51(8):640–8, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.archoralbio.2006.02.004.
- [90] Sakihara S, Kageyama K, Oki Y, Doi M, Iwasaki Y, Takayasu S, et al. Evaluation of plasma, salivary, and urinary cortisol levels for diagnosis of Cushing's syndrome. *Endocr J* 2010;57(4):331–7.
- [91] Bouchoucha M, Callais F, Renard P, Ekindjian OG, Cugnenc PH, Barbier JP. Relationship between acid neutralization capacity of saliva and gastroesophageal reflux. *Arch Physiol Biochem* 1997;105(1):19–26, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1076/apab.105.1.19.13152.
- [92] Gazzolo D, Michetti F. Perinatal S100B protein assessment in human unconventional biological fluid: a mini-review and new perspectives. *Cardiovas Psych Neurol* 2010;703563:1–5, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2010/703563.
- [93] Pareja-Bermejo F, Antequera D, Vargas T, Molina JA, Carro E. Saliva levels of Abeta1–42 as potential biomarker of Alzheimer's disease: a pilot study. *BMC Neurol* 2010;10:108–10, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2377-10-108.
- [94] Sletten TL, Vincenzi S, Redman JR, Lockley SW, Rajaratman SM. Timing of sleep and its relationship with the endogenous melatonin rhythm. *Front Neurol* 2010;1:137–45, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fneur.2010.00137.
- [95] Ackermann K, Ballantyne KN, Kayser M. Estimating trace deposition time with circadian biomarkers: a prospective and versatile tool for crime scene reconstruction. *Int J Legal Med* 2010;124(5):387–95, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00414-010-0457-1.
- [96] Cone EJ, Clarke J, Tsanaclis L. Prevalence and disposition of drugs of abuse opioid treatment drugs in oral fluid. *J Anal Toxicol* 2007;31(8):424–33.
- [97] Drummer OH. Drug testing in oral fluid. *Clin Biochem Rev* 2006;27(3):147–59.
- [98] Jenkins AJ, Oyler JM, Cone EJ. Comparison of heroin and cocaine concentrations in saliva with concentrations in blood and plasma. *J Anal Toxicol* 1995;19(6):359–74.
- [99] Langel K, Gjerde H, Favretto D, Lillsunde P, Øiestad EL, Ferrara SD, et al. Comparison of drug concentrations between whole blood and oral fluid. *Drug Test Anal* 2014;6(5):461–71, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/dta.1532.
- [100] Malamud D. Salivary diagnostics: the future is now. *J Am Dent Assoc* 2006;137(3):284–6.
- [101] Dąbrowska E, Letko M, Roszkowska-Jakimiec W, Letko R, Jamiołkowski J. Effect of fluoride preparations on the activity of human salivary cathepsin C. *Ann Acad Med Bialostoc* 2005;50(1):160–5.