



**GLUCOSE METABOLISM OF GINGIVA – A REVIEW**

**M.M. Dayakar., Mohamed Abdul Haleem\*, Shivanand H and Abdul Waheed**

Department of Periodontology, KVG Dental College and Hospital, Sullia D.K

**ARTICLE INFO**

**Article History:**

Received 7<sup>th</sup> April, 2018

Received in revised form 16<sup>th</sup>

May, 2018 Accepted 3<sup>rd</sup> June, 2018

Published online 28<sup>th</sup> July, 2018

**Key words:**

Glucose, Metabolism, Gingiva, Energy production

**ABSTRACT**

Hundreds of reactions simultaneously take place in a living cell, in a well-organized and integrated manner. The entire spectrum of chemical reactions, occurring in the living system are collectively referred to as metabolism. Carbohydrate metabolism is a fundamental biochemical process that ensures a constant supply of energy to living cells. The most important carbohydrate is glucose, which can be broken down via glycolysis, enter into the Krebs cycle and oxidative phosphorylation to generate ATP. A metabolic pathway constitutes a series of enzymatic reactions to produce specific products. As such, the metabolic pathways occur in specific locations (mitochondria, microsomes etc.) and are controlled by different regulatory signals. Cytoplasmic organelle concentration varies among different epithelial strata. Mitochondria are more numerous in deeper strata and decrease toward the surface of the cell.

Glycogen can accumulate intracellularly when it is not completely degraded by any of the glycolytic pathways. Thus, its concentration in normal gingiva is inversely related to the degree of keratinization and inflammation. The hexose monophosphate-shunt mechanism, the Embden-Meyerhof glycolysis scheme, citric acid cycle, mitochondrial terminal electron transport, and oxidative phosphorylation have been identified in gingiva and their relative activities are given in the above order. Glucose metabolism is impaired in uncontrolled diabetes in human oral mucosa. The neutrophil function may be impaired due to reduced glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PDH) activity. Neutrophils kills bacteria by building an oxidative burst. The respiratory burst requires the formation of NADPH. In neutrophils, pentose phosphate pathway is responsible for the formation of NADPH and ribose-5-phosphate for fatty acid and nucleotide synthesis, respectively.

*Copyright©2018 Mohamed Abdul Haleem et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.*

**INTRODUCTION**

Hundreds of reactions simultaneously take place in a living cell, in a well-organized and integrated manner. The entire spectrum of chemical reactions, occurring in the living system are collectively referred to as metabolism.<sup>[1]</sup>

Carbohydrate metabolism is a fundamental biochemical process that ensures a constant supply of energy to living cells. The most important carbohydrate is glucose, which can be broken down via glycolysis, enter into the Krebs cycle and oxidative phosphorylation to generate ATP.

Further important pathways in carbohydrate metabolism include the pentose phosphate pathway (conversion of hexose sugars into pentoses), glycogenesis (conversion of excess glucose into glycogen, stimulated by insulin), glycogenolysis (conversion of glycogen polymers into glucose, stimulated by glucagon) and gluconeogenesis (de novo glucose synthesis).

A metabolic pathway constitutes a series of enzymatic reactions to produce specific products.<sup>[1]</sup>As such, the metabolic pathways occur in specific locations (mitochondria, microsomes etc.) and are controlled by different regulatory signals. For example, the enzymes of glycolysis pathway are present in the cytosomal fraction of the cell. The end product 'pyruvate' is converted to acetyl CoA by oxidative decarboxylation which continues to enter TCA cycle for further energy production. This reaction is catalyzed by a multienzyme complex, known as pyruvate dehydrogenase complex which is found only in the mitochondria.

Hexose monophosphate pathway or HMP shunt is also called pentose phosphate pathway, phosphogluconate pathway or direct oxidative pathway is an alternative pathway to glycolysis and TCA cycle for the oxidation of glucose. The enzymes of HMP shunt are located in cytosol.<sup>[2]</sup>

Cellular contents within a cell keeps changing according to its degree and stage of keratinization. A complete keratinization process leads to the production of an orthokeratinized superficial horny layer similar to that of the skin, with no nuclei in the stratum corneum and a well-defined stratum

**\*Corresponding author: Mohamed Abdul Haleem**  
Department of Periodontology, KVG Dental College and Hospital, Sullia D.K

granulosum. Only some areas of the outer gingival epithelium are orthokeratinized; the other gingival areas are covered by parakeratinized or nonkeratinized epithelium, considered to be at intermediate stage of keratinization.<sup>[3]</sup>

Cytoplasmic organelle concentration varies among different epithelial strata. Mitochondria are more numerous in deeper strata and decrease toward the surface of the cell, accordingly; the histochemical demonstration of succinic dehydrogenase, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, cytochrome oxidase, and other mitochondrial enzymes reveals a more active tricarboxylic cycle in basal and parabasal cells, in which the proximity of the blood supply facilitates energy production through aerobic glycolysis. Conversely, enzymes of the pentose shunt (an alternative pathway of glycolysis), such as glucose-6-phosphatase increase their activity toward the surface. This pathway produces a larger amount of intermediate products for the production of ribonucleic acid (RNA), which in turn can be used for the synthesis of keratinization proteins. This histochemical pattern is in accordance with the increased volume and the amount of tonofilaments observed in cells reaching the surface; the intensity of the activity is proportional to the degree of differentiation.<sup>[4,5,6,7]</sup>

Glycogen can accumulate intracellularly when it is not completely degraded by any of the glycolytic pathways. Thus, its concentration in normal gingiva is inversely related to the degree of keratinization<sup>[8,9]</sup> and inflammation.<sup>[10,11,12]</sup>

Heavy deposits of glycogen are present in the keratinized marginal epithelium of inflamed human gingival tissue but not in the adjacent nonkeratinized crevicular epithelium that lines the gingival pocket. In normal gingivae the marginal epithelium was keratinized and free from glycogen deposits. In the inflamed gingivae, where leucocytic infiltration of only the connective tissue occurred, glycogen deposits are seen in the superficial cells of the marginal epithelium where the ribonucleic acid (R.N.A.) content was low, irrespective of the state of keratinization of the epithelium. Glycogen was not deposited in those portions of the marginal or crevicular epithelium where leucocytic infiltration extended from the connective tissue into the epithelium; R.N.A. content was low in these areas.<sup>[13]</sup>

The nonoccurrence of deposits of glycogen in the inflamed nonkeratinized crevicular epithelium may be explained by infiltration of this tissue by leucocytes and other elements; leucocytes possess both amylase and nuclease. It is known that some intercellular substance are lost during gingival inflammation, so that enzymes could more readily diffuse into the epithelium either from the gingival pocket or from the inflamed subepithelial zone and also glucose could more readily diffuse out of the epithelium.<sup>[13]</sup>

It is suggested, therefore, that the reason for glycogen deposition in inflamed gingiva is the presence of excess glucose (from gluconeogenesis) that diffuses into the epithelium. The glycogen that is deposited is apparently from glucose in excess of that which might be needed for keratinization and other syntheses and appears to be a mechanism for disposal of unwanted glucose.<sup>[13]</sup>

The hexose monophosphate-shunt mechanism, the Embden-Meyerhof glycolysis scheme, citric acid cycle, mitochondrial terminal electron transport and oxidative phosphorylation have

been identified in gingiva and their relative activities are given in the above order.<sup>[14]</sup>

Schrader *et al.* (1957) using manometric techniques studied aerobic glycolysis in human gingiva. He reported that addition of glucose as substrate did not alter the rate of endogenous respiration. The value of oxygen uptake of normal gingiva was found to be 1.77, as compared with 4.50, 2.69, and 3.19 observed respectively in slight, moderate and severe gingival inflammations. Respiratory quotient values observed for normal and slightly inflamed tissue were about 1.0, as compared to 1.67 and 2.45 observed in moderately and severely inflamed tissues. These data were considered to reflect a shift towards aerobic glycolysis as the degree of inflammation increased. Thus, he concluded that endogenous oxygen utilization by gingiva increases during mild to moderate inflammatory changes but declines as the inflammatory changes become more severe. There is also a concomitant decrease in the utilization of a variety of metabolic substrates as the severity of inflammation of the gingival tissue increases. The increase in oxygen utilization in mild to moderate inflammation of gingiva may be in part due to the higher content of polymorphonuclear leukocytes in such tissue.<sup>[15]</sup>

Simpson (1974), he concluded that Embden-Meyerhof glycolysis in rat gingiva was slightly greater than that observed for the pentose-phosphate shunt in rat and canine gingiva. Also, rat gingival conversion of pyruvate to lactate was greater than pyruvate oxidation through pyruvate oxidase.<sup>[16]</sup> Hexokinase and 6-phosphofructokinase activities were reported to be particularly low in rabbit gingiva (Suzuki *et al.* 1982). This suggests that the above enzymes may play a vital or rate limiting role in modulating glycolysis in oral mucosa.<sup>[17]</sup>

Bergquist and Nuki (1973) studied hexokinase and fructoaldolase activities in the various epithelial layers of attached gingiva of rhesus monkeys. Hexokinase activities were similar at the surface, granular and spinous layers; and lower activities were detected in basal and connective tissue layers. Fructoaldolase activities were similar in granular and basal layers, and progressively declined from the granular layer toward superficial layers. Lower levels of activity were found in the connective tissue.<sup>[18]</sup>

Nicolau *et al.* (1977) reported that human attached gingiva has significantly greater phosphofructokinase, Hexokinase and pyruvate kinase activities.<sup>[19]</sup>

There are significant differences in oxidative metabolism between inflamed and non-inflamed gingival tissues. The decline in O<sub>2</sub> utilization and oxidative metabolism in severely inflamed gingival tissue may be the result of tissue injury and destruction brought about by chronic polymorphonuclear leukocytes and other white cell populations.<sup>[20,21,22,23]</sup>

Lactic dehydrogenase activity was found to be relatively high in human, guinea-pig and rat gingiva suggesting that gingiva has a high glycolytic potential (Eichel & Shahrík - 1964).<sup>[24]</sup> Charreau *et al.* (1966) reported that there was no significant difference in LDH activity between gingiva removed from the incisor and the molar regions.<sup>[25]</sup> Honjo *et al.* (1965) and Charreau *et al.* (1966) found liver LDH to be 2 and 4 times more active, respectively than gingival LDH.<sup>[26]</sup> The enzyme was also found to be twice as active in pathological human

gingiva as incontrol gingiva (Takiguchi *et al.* 1966).<sup>[27]</sup> Alvarez *et al.* (1972) found that LDH activity was 73% higher in hyperorthokeratinized and hyperparakeratinized epithelia of leukoplakia than in normal gingiva of humans.<sup>[28]</sup>

In human periodontitis Takiguchi-1966 found that the levels of isoenzymes 1, 2 and 5 were similar to those observed under normal conditions. However, twofold increases in LDH-3 and LDH-4 levels were observed in the pathological tissue. The presence of a relatively active LDH in gingiva also suggests that lactate might be degraded via the Krebs cycle in gingival metabolism.<sup>[29]</sup>

The distribution of glucose-6 phosphate dehydrogenase and of succinic dehydrogenase in various epithelial cell layers, and in connective tissue were evaluated in human and rabbit gingiva by Itoiz *et al.* (1972). In attached and marginal gingiva, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase activity increased progressively from the basal cell layer to the superficial layer. This enzymatic activity remained stable in all strata of oral mucosal epithelium and crevicular epithelium but declined towards the surface of the epithelial attachment. In contrast, succinic dehydrogenase activity progressively declined from the basal cell layer towards the surface. These data suggested to both Simpson (1970) and Itoiz *et al.* (1972) that the pentose-phosphate shunt may be associated with gingival keratinization, as originally proposed by Eichel and Shahrik (1964).<sup>[30]</sup>

While both the pentose-phosphate shunt and the Embden-Meyerhof pathways for glucose metabolism are present in gingiva, their relative contributions remain somewhat problematical. Both Schrader *et al.* (1959) and Simpson (1970) felt that the major pathway is via the pentose-phosphate pathway. However, a later report by Simpson (1974) reversed this interpretation in favor of the Embden-Meyerhof scheme.<sup>[14]</sup>

Vitamin deficiencies (vitamin C, CoQ10 Ubiquinone) depress oxidative metabolism and electron transport mechanisms in human and animal gingiva.<sup>[31,32,33]</sup>

Glucose metabolism is impaired in uncontrolled diabetes in human oral mucosa. The neutrophil function may be impaired due to reduced glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PDH) activity. This is a rate-limiting enzyme in the pentose phosphate pathway. The neutrophils, macrophages, and lymphocytes isolated from diabetic rats have demonstrated a considerably decreased G6PDH activity.<sup>[34,35]</sup> Thus, in diabetics, pentose phosphate pathway is downregulated, which is required for the normal functioning of neutrophils. So, it has been proposed that decreased neutrophilic G6PDH activity in diabetic patients results in the impaired phagocytotic activity of neutrophils, impaired superoxide production and their reduced bactericidal activity.<sup>[36,37]</sup>

Neutrophils kill bacteria by building an oxidative burst. The respiratory burst requires the formation of NADPH. In neutrophils, pentose phosphate pathway is responsible for the formation of NADPH and ribose-5-phosphate for fatty acid and nucleotide synthesis, respectively.<sup>[38]</sup> NADPH is important for NADPH oxidase and glutathione activity in neutrophils.<sup>[39,40]</sup> In diabetic patients, NADPH production is decreased, which leads eventually to compromised neutrophil function. The lowering of blood glucose levels by insulin treatment has been reported to have a significant correlation

with the improvement of phagocytosis capacity by neutrophils.<sup>[41,42]</sup>

It is suggested that quantitative studies of interrelationships between glucose metabolism and periodontal associational studies should be further studied in depth and that they will further increase our understanding of gingival and other periodontal tissues in health and disease.

## Reference

1. U.Satyanarayana, U.Chakrapani. Introduction to metabolism. Text book of biochemistry, 3rd edition. Kolkata: Arunabha Sen Books and Allied (P) Ltd; 2012. p.241.
2. U.Satyanarayana, U.Chakrapani. Metabolism of carbohydrate. Text book of biochemistry, 3rd edition. Kolkata: Arunabha Sen Books and Allied (P) Ltd; 2012. p.244.
3. Cabrini R, Cabrini R, Carranza JF. Histologic study of keratinization of the gingival epithelium and epithelial adhesion. *Revista odontologica*. 1953 May;41(5):212-8. [PUBMED]
4. DiFranco CF, Toto PD, Rowden G, Gargiulo AW, Keene Jr JJ, Connelly E. Identification of Langerhans cells in human gingival epithelium. *Journal of periodontology*. 1985 Jan;56(1):48-54. [PUBMED]
5. Engel MB. Water-soluble mucoproteins of the gingiva. *Journal of dental research*. 1953 Dec;32(6):779-84. [PUBMED]
6. Itoiz ME, Carranza Jr FA, Gimenez IB, Cabrini RL. Microspectrophotometric analysis of succinic dehydrogenase and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase in human oral epithelium. *Journal of periodontal research*. 1972 Feb;7(1):14-20. [PUBMED]
7. Felton JH, Person P, Stahl SS. Biochemical and histochemical studies of aerobic oxidative metabolism of oral tissues. II. Enzymatic dissection of gingival and tongue epithelia from connective tissues. *Journal of dental research*. 1965 Mar;44(2):392-401. [PUBMED]
8. Dewar MR. Observations on the composition and metabolism of normal and inflamed gingivae. *Journal of Periodontology*. 1955 Jan;26(1):29-39.
9. Trott JR. An investigation into the glycogen content of the gingivae. *Dent. Practit*. 1957 Apr;7:238-41.
10. Turesky S, Glickman I, Litwin T. A histochemical evaluation of normal and inflamed human gingivae. *Journal of dental research*. 1951 Dec;30(6):792-8. [PUBMED]
11. Schultz-Haut SD, From S. Dynamics of periodontal tissues. I. The epithelium. *Odont. Tidskr*. 1961;69:431.
12. Weinmann JP, Meyer J. Types of Keratinization in the Human Gingiva I. *Journal of Investigative Dermatology*. 1959 Feb 1;32(2):87-93. [PUBMED]
13. Dewar MR. Glycogen Deposits in Gingival Tissue. *Science*. 1954 Aug 6;120(3110):230-.
14. Fine AS, Person P. Biochemistry of gingival oxidative metabolism: a review. *Journal of Oral Pathology & Medicine*. 1984 Jun;13(3):191-212.
15. Schrader HK, Schrader R. Oxygen uptake by normal and inflamed gingiva and saliva. *Helv. odont. acta*. 1957 Apr;1:13-6. [PUBMED]
16. Simpson JW. Pathways for glucose metabolism in the rat gingiva: I. Patterns of enzymes of glucose

- metabolism. *Journal of dental research*. 1974 Jul;53(4):938-. [PUBMED]
17. Suzuki K, Fujiwara T, Kuwata F. Enzyme patterns of glycolysis in rabbit gingiva and effects of pH on the patterns. *Journal of dental research*. 1982 Feb;61(2):442-7. [PUBMED]
  18. Bergquist JJ, Nuki K. Hexokinase activity in non-inflamed attached gingiva of rhesus monkeys. *Journal of periodontal research*. 1973 Aug;8(4):215-21. [PUBMED]
  19. Nicolau J, Tamer AN, Bergamaschi O. Activities of hexokinase, phosphofructokinase and pyruvate kinase in the gingival tissue of the rat, hamster, guinea pig and human. *Journal of periodontal research*. 1977 Aug;12(4):279-82. [PUBMED]
  20. Glickman I, Turesky S, Hill R. Determination of oxygen consumption in normal and inflamed human gingiva using the Warburg manometric technic. *Journal of dental research*. 1949 Feb;28(1):83-94. [PUBMED]
  21. Schrader HK, Schrader R. Oxygen uptake by normal and inflamed gingiva and saliva. *Helv. odont. acta*. 1957 Apr;1:13-6.
  22. Manhold JH, Volpe AR. Effect of inflammation in the absence of proliferation on the oxygen consumption of gingival tissue. *Journal of Dental Research*. 1963 Jan;42(1):103-9.
  23. Morgan RE, Wingo WJ. The oxygen consumption of gingival crevicular epithelium. *Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology and Oral Radiology*. 1966 Aug 1;22(2):257-60.
  24. EICHEL B, SHAHRIK HA. Cytochemical aspects of oxidative enzyme metabolism in gingiva. In *Advances in oral biology* 1964 Jan 1 (Vol. 1, pp. 131-174). Elsevier. [PUBMED]
  25. Charreau EH, Kofoed JA, Houssay AB. Oxidoreductases in Periodontal Tissues in the Guinea Pig. *Journal of dental research*. 1967 Jan;46(1):268-70. [PUBMED]
  26. Honjo K, Tsukamoto Y, Nakamura R, Tsunemitsu A, Matsumura T. Lactic dehydrogenase activity in periodontal tissues. *The Journal of periodontology*. 1965 May;36(3):198-201. [PUBMED]
  27. Natsume M, Kanno S, Kikuchi T, Ogata Y, Takiguchi H. Studies on Lactate Dehydrogenase Isoenzymes in Human Gingiva. *The Journal of Nihon University School of Dentistry*. 1966;8(4):186-90. [PUBMED]
  28. Alvares O, Hammar H, Pindborg JJ, Roed-Petersen B. Lactate and malate dehydrogenase activities in normal oral mucosa and in homogeneous leukoplakia. *Acta dermato-venereologica*. 1972;52(6):484-8.
  29. Takiguchi H, Natsume M, Furuyama E. Studies on Lactate Dehydrogenase Isoenzymes in Human Gingiva. *The Journal of Nihon University School of Dentistry*. 1966;8(1):27-32. [PUBMED]
  30. Itoiz ME, Carranza Jr FA, Gimenez IB, Cabrini RL. Microspectrophotometric analysis of succinic dehydrogenase and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase in human oral epithelium. *Journal of periodontal research*. 1972 Feb;7(1):14-20. [PUBMED]
  31. Littarru GP, Nakamura R, Ho L, Folkers K, Kuzell WC. Deficiency of coenzyme Q10 in gingival tissue from patients with periodontal disease. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 1971 Oct 1;68(10):2332-5.
  32. Wilkinson EG, Arnold RM, Folkers K, Hansen I, Kishi H. Bioenergetics in clinical medicine. II. Adjunctive treatment with coenzyme Q in periodontal therapy. *Research communications in chemical pathology and pharmacology*. 1975 Sep;12(1):111-23. [PUBMED]
  33. Wilkinson EG, Arnold RM, Folkers K. Bioenergetics in clinical medicine. VI. adjunctive treatment of periodontal disease with coenzyme Q10. *Research communications in chemical pathology and pharmacology*. 1976 Aug;14(4):715-9. [PUBMED]
  34. Rosa LF, Safi DA, Cury Y, Curi R. The effect of insulin on macrophage metabolism and function. *Cell Biochemistry and Function: Cellular biochemistry and its modulation by active agents or disease*. 1996 Mar;14(1):33-42. [PUBMED]
  35. Otton R, Curi R. Diabetes causes marked changes in lymphocyte metabolism. *Journal of endocrinology*. 2002 Jul 1;174(1):55-61. [PUBMED]
  36. Gray GR, Stamatoyannopoulos G, Naiman SC, Kliman MR, Klebanoff SJ, Austin T, Yoshida A, Robinson GC. Neutrophil dysfunction, chronic granulomatous disease, and non-spherocytic haemolytic anaemia caused by complete deficiency of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase. *The Lancet*. 1973 Sep 8;302(7828):530-4. [PUBMED]
  37. Roos D, van Zwieten R, Wijnen JT, Gómez-Gallego F, de Boer M, Stevens D, Pronk-Admiraal CJ, de Rijk T, van Noorden CJ, Weening RS, Vulliamy TJ. Molecular basis and enzymatic properties of glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase volendam, leading to chronic nonspherocytic anemia, granulocyte dysfunction, and increased susceptibility to infections. *Blood*. 1999 Nov 1;94(9):2955-62. [PUBMED]
  38. Casazza JP, Veech RL. The measurement of xylulose 5-phosphate, ribulose 5-phosphate, and combined sedoheptulose 7-phosphate and ribose 5-phosphate in liver tissue. *Analytical biochemistry*. 1986 Dec 1;159(2):243-8. [PUBMED]
  39. Curi TC, De Melo MP, Palanch AC, Miyasaka CK, Curi R. Percentage of phagocytosis, production of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and NO, and antioxidant enzyme activities of rat neutrophils in culture. *Cell Biochemistry and Function: Cellular biochemistry and its modulation by active agents or disease*. 1998 Mar;16(1):43-9. [PUBMED]
  40. Bellavite P. The superoxide-forming enzymatic system of phagocytes. *Free radical biology and medicine*. 1988 Jan 1;4(4):225-61. [PUBMED]
  41. Jakelić J, Kokić S, Hozo I, Maras J, Fabijanić D. Nonspecific immunity in diabetes: hyperglycemia decreases phagocytic activity of leukocytes in diabetic patients. *Medicinski arhiv*. 1995;49(1-2):9-12. [PUBMED]
  42. Delamaire M, Maugeudre D, Moreno M, Le Goff MC, Allannic H, Genetet B. Impaired leucocyte functions in diabetic patients. *Diabetic Medicine*. 1997 Jan;14(1):29-34. [PUBMED]

\*\*\*\*\*