

Sex Hormone Binding Globulin (SHBG) - A Potential Biomarker for Insulin Resistance, Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver and Hepatic Lipogenesis

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Abstract

The liver produces and secretes sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG), which binds to sex steroids and controls their bioavailability in the bloodstream. Recent research indicates that, insulin resistance, liver fat content, hepatic lipogenesis is a significant predictor of circulating SHBG. In this review we discuss the role of SHBG as a potential biomarker that may lead to new diagnostic and therapeutic methods.

INTRODUCTION

Sex Hormone-Binding Globulin (SHBG) was discovered and isolated for the first time in 1965 by Mercier-Bodard and colleagues in France¹. In biological fluids, SHBG is mainly synthesized in the liver². SHBG mRNA is also expressed in other tissues including testis³, prostate⁴ hypothalamus⁵, ovary⁶, placenta⁷, endometrium breast⁸, and cardiac myocytes⁹ SHBG exists as a homo-dimer with 373 amino acid residues. It consists of G-like (LG) domain in tandem repeats at the N-terminal end which consists of antiparallel β -sheets on top of each other¹⁰. The transport and distribution of steroids is significantly impacted by their binding to SHBG¹¹. In plasma, hydrophobic sex hormones link to hydrophobic sites on the proteins that bind the lipophilic cellular membrane to the hydrophilic aqueous extracellular fluid. SHBG has a strong preference for testosterone and a weak preference for estradiol. Dihydrotestosterone (DHT) > testosterone > androstenediol > estradiol > estrone is the order of the major sex steroids' relative binding affinities for SHBG¹². Only 1-2% of the testosterone in circulation is free (unbound) and active; 65% of it is bound to SHBG, and the remaining portion is bound to albumin¹³. As a result, the concentrations of SHBG have a significant impact on the levels of free active testosterone in plasma. Consequently, women with low SHBG may have normal total testosterone levels but higher amounts of free and bioavailable testosterone¹⁴. Cross-sectional studies suggest that SHBG levels significantly increase from birth through early childhood and subsequently fall at puberty, more so in males than in girls, likely as a result of androgens, which are known to inhibit SHBG levels^{15, 16}. Since the liver is primarily responsible for secreting SHBG into the bloodstream, a greater understanding of how SHBG is expressed in the liver may lead to new diagnostic and therapeutic methods.

Monosaccharides (glucose or fructose), insulin, and androgens negatively influence the production of SHBG, according to a study employing a human hepatoma cell line (HepG2)¹⁷. The two most effective transcriptional factors (TF) involved in the control of SHBG expression are HNF-4 and PPAR. Numerous studies therefore showed that an increase in de novo lipogenesis caused HNF-4 levels to fall and PPAR levels to rise, which in turn reduced the generation of SHBG¹⁸. Studies demonstrated that thyroid, estrogenic, and phytoestrogen hormones stimulate SHBG production by up-regulating HNF-4 α expression^{19, 20}. SHBG serves as a hormone or signal transduction factor, in addition to serving as a protein that binds to other sex hormones like as testosterone, estradiol, and others. The PI3K/AKT pathway, which is involved in the onset of both local and systemic insulin resistance, may be down-regulated by SHBG, according to in vitro studies using cellular models of human insulin resistance that showed decreased expression of SHBG protein and mRNA levels, along with decreased levels of IRS-1, IRS-2, PI3Kp85 α , GLUT-3, and GLUT-4 mRNA and protein levels²¹. Overexpression of SHBG protects against high fat diet (HFD) induced obesity and insulin resistance, as demonstrated by lower glucose profiles during glucose tolerance tests and insulin tolerance tests, according to an in vivo animal investigation utilising

SHBG transgenic mice compared with wild type mice²². According to the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation (SWAN), women with fatty livers also had a negative relationship between SHBG and insulin. In addition, greater liver fat and lower SHBG were linked to increased metabolic risk in midlife²³.

SHBG and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)

Non-alcoholic fatty liver is characterized by an increase in hepatic triglyceride content with or without inflammation²⁵. NAFLD is associated with clinical states such as obesity, insulin resistance, and T2DM^{26, 27}. Lipogenesis is one of the factors that drive fat accumulation in the liver but apart from that evidence supports a central role of SHBG in the development of NAFLD. Most recently by using the model of human SHBG transgenic mouse has shown that SHBG modulates hepatic lipogenesis and how the reduction of SHBG expression is associated with NAFLD development through an increase in hepatic lipogenesis²⁸. This data showed that there are normal SHBG levels in a healthy liver that determine lipogenic rate by regulating PPAR γ through ERK1/2 MAPK pathway²⁸. This lipogenesis determines and maintains the SHBG level by regulating HNF4- α and PPAR γ transcription factor. During the development of NAFLD, elevated cytokines and both genetic and nutritional factors reduce SHBG levels that decrease the signalling through the ERK1/2 MAPK pathway, increasing PPAR γ lipogenesis. The increase in lipogenesis reduces the level of SHBG by downregulating HNF4- α resulting in a process of fat accumulation and decrease SHBG production.

Hepatic Denovo lipogenesis and SHBG

The increased hepatic lipogenesis in insulin resistant states inhibits the expression of HNF-4 α , thus down-regulating SHBG gene transcription and SHBG production. Increased Denovo lipogenesis induced by elevated concentration of monosaccharide's decreases the production of HNF4- α , a key transcriptional factor that regulates the production of SHBG. Thus data suggest that HNF4- α is an important transcriptional factor that activates SHBG production whereas PPAR γ is an inhibitor of SHBG expression²⁹. Therefore SHBG is highly indicative of denovolipogenesis. A study employing liver samples from non-diabetic obese patients with NAFLD showed that triglycerides accumulate in the liver and that insulin resistance (measured by the homeostasis model assessment, HOMA-IR) was inversely associated to SHBG.

Metabolic syndrome is associated with adipocyte insulin resistance that induces lipid deposition resulting in lipotoxicity. Non esterified fatty acids released during lipolysis inhibit HNF4- α with the decreased concentration of SHBG production. In addition, tumor necrosis factor (TNF), an inflammatory cytokine generated from adipose tissue, can affect hepatic insulin signalling and encourage the formation of intrahepatic triglycerides, which inhibits the expression of HNF-4 α through activating nuclear factor-Kb²⁹.

Conclusion

Our understanding of the regulation of SHBG and its clinical consequences has undergone a transformation as a result of the unique discoveries from fundamental research and clinical pilot trials. A decrease in the SHBG levels is observed in association with Inflammation, T2D, hepatic lipogenesis, NAFLD. Future studies are required to understand the underlying molecular mechanisms behind this association and to investigate the possible therapeutic effects of SHBG.

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