

1 **Male and Female sexual dysfunction in diabetic subjects: focus on new hypoglycemic drugs**

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27 **Abstract**

28 The association between diabetes mellitus (and its micro- and macro-vascular
29 complications) and erectile dysfunction is widely known and the presence of hypogonadism may
30 further complicate sexual dysfunction and quality of life, given the association between
31 hypogonadism and reduced libido, ejaculatory disorders, and depressive symptoms. However, the
32 recent introduction of novel antidiabetic agents with a wide range of mechanism of action may
33 have a significant impact both on male and female sexuality directly (by inducing side effects as
34 urinary tract infections) and indirectly (improving metabolic status and reducing diabetes
35 complications behind sexual dysfunctions). To date only few papers are reporting the sexual
36 effects of these treatments and, often, these are not comparable in their results. Conversely, female
37 sexual dysfunctions are somehow under-investigated. Data on prevalence is heterogeneous and
38 specific pathogenic mechanisms, as well as the burden of psychological factors, are still heatedly
39 debated.

40 The aim of this narrative review is to summarize current knowledge and stressing out the
41 need to diagnose male and female sexual dysfunctions also in light of the impact of treatments
42 with novel antidiabetic agents. This would highlight the still unmet needs for sexual care in a
43 diabetes care setting and could represent an incentive for future discussions, as well as a required
44 theoretical starting point for studies on this subject.

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47 **Keywords:** Diabetes Mellitus; Sexual dysfunctions; Erectile Function; Female Sexual
48 Dysfunctions; Antidiabetic agents

49

50 **1.0 Introduction**

51 Diabetes mellitus (DM) represents one of the leading causes of mortality worldwide, with an
52 estimated related death of at least 1.3 million in 2013 [1]. A prevalence of 382 million people with
53 DM worldwide has been reported in the same year. Current projections suggest that this number
54 will reach 592 million by the year 2035 [2,3]. The association between DM and erectile
55 dysfunction and a decrease in libido, or loss of a sex drive both in male and female is widely known
56 and the presence of hypogonadism may further complicate sexual dysfunction and quality of life,
57 given the association between hypogonadism and reduced libido, ejaculatory disorders, and
58 depressive symptoms.

59 Type 2 DM (T2DM) represents the most common form of DM, showing the highest
60 prevalence increase, due to its association with obesity [4-6]. Intensive glucose control provided a
61 significant reduction in the incidence of cardiovascular (CV) events and mortality or total mortality
62 in patients with advanced T2DM, thus suggesting that glucose lowering is not enough [7-10].

63 Several new classes of drugs for T2DM treatment have recently been introduced in the
64 clinical practice. Among them, the sodium-glucose type 2 co-transporter inhibitors (SGLT2i)
65 represents the last category of oral hypoglycemic agents. Their anti-diabetic effect is based on the
66 inhibition of glucose reabsorption in the proximal renal tubule, thus determining an increase in
67 urinary excretion of glucose and a reduction of its circulating levels [11]. Both the American
68 Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD)
69 recommended the use of SGLT2i as second-line drugs after failure of first-line regimes or in
70 metformin intolerant patients [12]. These drugs seems very promising as phase III studies have
71 shown a high degree of tolerance and a higher efficacy on glucose control compared to
72 sulfonylurea or dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitors (DPP4i) [13]. However, the most interesting
73 data concerns the effects of cardiovascular (CV) protection. Accordingly, well-designed controlled
74 trials on wide sample cohorts demonstrated the efficacy of empagliflozin, canagliflozin and
75 dapagliflozin in reducing the incidence of major CV events (MACE), total and CV mortality and

76 the incidence of hospitalizations for heart failure (HF) [14-16]. Conversely, DPP4i have been
77 shown a neutral effect on CV outcomes, whereas CV protection has been also documented with
78 the use of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1RA) [17].

79 Sexual dysfunctions represent a wide spectrum of disorders such as erectile dysfunction
80 (ED), premature or delayed ejaculation, anejaculation or retro-ejaculation in men, genital arousal
81 disorder in women and hypoactive sexual desire or anorgasmia in both. Despite their prevalence
82 is not negligible in the diabetic population, sexual disorders remain often underdiagnosed and
83 undertreated [18-19]. The presence of hypogonadism, which diabetic patients are exposed to, may
84 further complicate sexual dysfunctions and quality of life in men, due to its association with
85 reduced libido, ejaculatory disorders, and depressive symptoms [20]. In addition, much evidence
86 suggests that ED can represent an early marker of forthcoming CV diseases (CVD), particularly
87 in the diabetic population [21] and, thus, the research of ED in DM patients would be relevant for
88 CVD prevention. Importantly, limited attention has been paid by available guidelines on diagnosis
89 and management of sexual disorders in diabetic patients so far (Diabetes Care. 2018
90 Sep;41(9):2045-2047). Also, the recent introduction of novel hypoglycemic agents, with a wide
91 range of mechanisms of action, may result in a significant impact on both male and female
92 sexuality either directly, by inducing side effects such as urinary tract infections, or indirectly, by
93 improving metabolic status and reducing diabetes complications and CV risk, behind sexual
94 dysfunctions.

95 The specific impact of these novel hypoglycemic agents on sexuality has been poorly
96 investigated. Therefore, the aim of this narrative review is to summarize the available evidence
97 linking DM and sexual dysfunction, and particularly focusing on the impact of new hypoglycemic
98 treatments.

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100 **2.0 Impact of DM on male sexual function**

101 *2.1 Erectile dysfunction*

102 The prevalence of ED among subjects with DM is quite variable and is tightly related to DM
103 duration, degree of obesity, and micro- and macro-vascular complications [22-23]. Another factor
104 tightly associated with T2DM is hypogonadism [20]. In patients with T2DM, low testosterone (T)
105 may further complicate sexual dysfunction and quality of life, due to its association with reduced
106 libido, ejaculatory disorders, and depressive symptoms [see below; 20,23]. Similarly, genito-
107 urinary infection, quite common in the diabetic population, can further complicate the clinical
108 setting [23; see below]. Fedele et al. [22] carried out the largest study on this topic, including 9869
109 male diabetic patients (age range, 20-69 years), randomly selected from 178 diabetes centers in
110 Italy. The prevalence of ED among those with type 1 DM (T1DM) was 26% versus 37% among
111 those with T2DM; however, the difference was reduced when age was considered in a multivariate
112 model [22]. More recently, Corona et al., [23] investigated the prevalence of ED in a large series
113 of men with recently (< 2 years) diagnosed with DM. Among 499 subjects enrolled from 27 Italian
114 diabetes centers, the authors reported mild ED in 19.4%, mild-to-moderate in 15.4%, moderate in
115 10.4%, and severe in 21.6% of patients [23]. Finally, a meta-analysis including 145 studies and
116 88577 men (mean age: 55.8 ± 7.9 years), showed an overall ED prevalence of 52.5% (95% CI,
117 48.8 to 56.2), after adjusting for publication bias, being 37.5% in T1DM and 66.3% in T2DM [19].
118 In other terms, the same study documented that DM was associated with 3.5-fold increased risk of
119 ED when compared to healthy controls. In addition, as expected, the authors reported that the
120 concomitant prevalence of hypertension increased the risk.

121 Fewer studies have investigated the incidence of ED in DM. Fedele et al., [24] prospectively
122 evaluated a subgroup of 1010 subjects without ED on enrolment up to 2.8 years on average,
123 showing an incidence of ED of 68 cases/1000 subjects per year. Similar results were published
124 around the same time by the Massachusetts Male Aging Study (51 cases/1000 subjects per year)
125 [25]. De Berardis et al. [26], in another Italian study enrolling 670 men with T2DM followed every

126 6 months for up to 3 years, reported a higher incidence (166.3 per 1000 person-years). Conversely,
127 a lower incidence (25/1000 person-years) was reported by Klein et al. [27] in a 10-year cumulative
128 US study in 264 T1DM men who were less than 30 years of age at diagnosis of diabetes.

129 Despite this evidence, the presence of ED in diabetic men is still poorly evaluated in routine
130 clinical practice. Accordingly, a Danish study reported that only 33% of men with T2DM reported
131 that their general practitioner had brought up sexuality in the consultation [28]. Similar results
132 were more recently reported by Bjerggaard et al. [29], who showed that about 50% of sexually
133 inactive men with T2DM declared that their sexual life did not meet their sexual needs. Since ED
134 represents an early marker of forthcoming CVD particularly in the diabetic population [21],
135 recognizing this symptom might motivate diabetic men to improve their metabolic control and
136 treatment adherence.

137 *2.2 Hypogonadism*

138 Male hypogonadism is estimated to affect between 20% and 64% of men with T2DM, depending
139 on the population characteristics [30-31]. Longitudinal data have clearly demonstrated a
140 bidirectional relationship linking hypogonadism and T2DM. Meta-analysis of the available data
141 showed that subjects who developed T2DM at follow up had lower total T level at baseline (-
142 1.65[-3.01; -0.29] nmol/L), when compared to controls [32]. In addition, the analysis of data from
143 1306 men included in the database of the Health Management Center in Taiwan, showed that DM
144 and prediabetes condition significantly increased the risk of hypogonadism (total T<10.4 nM) at
145 follow up [33].

146 The specific mechanisms underlining the association between insulin insensitivity, T2DM and
147 androgen deficiency are not completely understood. Either central or peripheral mechanisms have
148 been considered [30-31]. Increased body fat represents, most probably, the major player, and the
149 first pathogenic step, in impairing the hypothalamic-pituitary activity. Longitudinal data from

150 European Male Aging Study, including more than 2000 community-dwelling men, with a median
151 follow up time of 4.3 years, have documented that obesity at baseline, and weight gain during the
152 follow up, were the best predictors of the development of secondary hypogonadism [34]. In
153 addition, lean men, as well as those who lost weight, were more prone to recover from secondary
154 hypogonadism [34]. Animal data are in line with these observations. In a rabbit model of
155 metabolic syndrome (MetS) and hypogonadotropic hypogonadism - obtained by feeding animals
156 with a high fat diet for 12 weeks – it was demonstrated that metabolic derangements are able to
157 induce a hypothalamic inflammation, leading to GnRH secretion impairment, totally restored by
158 physical activity and weigh loss [35]. Different peripheral mechanisms have also been advocated.
159 Other animal models have suggested that hypogonadism can induce insulin resistance in skeletal
160 muscle, via androgen receptor (AR)-dependent mechanisms, involving a decreased peroxisome
161 proliferator-activated receptor γ co-activator α , which in turn promotes mitochondrial biogenesis
162 and skeletal muscle oxidative fibers [36]. In line with these data, Kelly et al., [37] showed that
163 testicular feminized mice (Tfm), which are characterized by very low T level and impaired AR,
164 displayed significantly reduced GLUT 4 and glycolitic enzymes in muscle.

165 Androgens can profoundly affect all steps of male sexual response cycle [38-40]. Accordingly, in
166 hypogonadal men, T replacement therapy can improve all aspects of male sexual function,
167 although its role in more complicated form of arteriogenic ED, such as in DM, is less evident and
168 revised elsewhere [38-40]. Similarly, several non-controlled observational data have documented
169 that TRT can improve metabolic control in T2DM. However, data from randomized controlled
170 trials (RCTs) are more conflicting and revised elsewhere [41].

171 *2.3 Effects of new anti-diabetic drugs on male sexuality and hypogonadism*

172 The knowledge of the effects of the new anti-diabetic drugs including DPP4i, SGLT2i, and
173 GLP1RA on male sexual and gonadal function is so far limited. Indeed, only few studies reported

174 the effect of these therapies on T levels and sexual function. In addition, the available data were
175 collected in different subset of diabetic patients and thus not comparable in their results.

176 Indirect evidence, mainly derived from studies performed in animal models, suggests that DPP4i
177 might improve erectile function in T2DM patients, based on their potential effect to promote
178 vascular repair and endothelial function. In a mouse model of hind limb ischemia, DPP4i markedly
179 increased the release and mobilization of circulating endothelial progenitor cells from bone
180 marrow, through an eNOS-related pathway [42]. In addition, DPP4i might indirectly improve
181 endothelial function, through pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide (PACAP), a
182 peptide isolated from the hypothalamus, which may enhance gonadotropin release, and,
183 subsequently, sex steroids level, and may exert vasorelaxant effects mediated by VEGF [43].
184 Finally, DPP4i have been shown to slow down atherogenesis [44].

185 Limited positive outcomes are also available for SGLT2i. In animal model of T2DM-associated
186 erectile dysfunction, an experimental study demonstrated that short-term chronic treatment with
187 empagliflozin, significantly improved erectile performance in response to electrical stimulation of
188 the cavernous nerve, by increasing the nitrgenic relaxation of erectile tissue [45]. Few experimental
189 and clinical studies provided encouraging results on the potential effectiveness of GLP1RA in
190 improving sexual symptoms in T2DM patients, probably mediated by the positive effects on
191 gonadal function, visceral adiposity, and T levels. One study in an aging mouse model
192 demonstrated that treatment with exenatide increased testis weight and volume, as well as T levels
193 [46]. Similarly, a recent 12-week interventional study in obese T2DM patients demonstrated that
194 short-term combined treatment with exenatide and metformin significantly increased total T levels
195 and sexual function, being more effective than glimepiride-metformin combination [47]. As
196 expected, a more pronounced effect was reached in patients who had a greater weight loss, and
197 correlation analysis clearly showed that changes in waist circumference alone explained about
198 20% of the variance in T levels, therefore indicating mediation by the metabolic effects [47]. In

199 line with these data, liraglutide was shown to improve either levels or sexual function in patients
200 with obesity-associated hypogonadism, poor responders to lifestyle modifications [48], and to
201 potentiate the effects of TRT and metformin on erectile dysfunction, in T2DM obese patients with
202 hypogonadism [49]. (See Table 1)

203 **3.0 Impact of DM on female sexual function**

204 *3.1 Female sexual dysfunctions*

205 Sexual dysfunction (SD) is an under-investigated complication of diabetes not only in male but
206 also in female patients. The prevalence of Female Sexual Dysfunctions (FSD) in T1DM ranges
207 from 18% to 71%, whereas in T2DM there is a more heterogeneous prevalence, ranging from 12%
208 to 88% [18]. The pathophysiological correlates of FSD in metabolic disorders, like diabetes, are
209 far from being elucidated. Nevertheless, as opposed to the male counterpart [50-51], in diabetic
210 female population, SD seems to be more strongly related to psychological factors and depressed
211 mood than to metabolic alterations *per se*. In particular, hyperglycemia and neurovascular
212 alterations, as well as psychological disorders or recurrent genital infections, common in female
213 diabetic patients, could have detrimental effects on sexual function [52].

214 All the domains of sexual cycle in women including desire, arousal, lubrication, orgasm and
215 satisfaction were reported to be affected in both T1DM and T2DM patients. However, a recent
216 systemic review suggests a greater impact of DM on desire than on the other sexual domains [53].
217 Genital arousal and lubrication are neuro-vascular events that represent an interplay between
218 smooth muscle relaxation and contraction, similar to what happens for male. Accordingly, similar
219 to what observed for ED, genital arousal disorder in diabetic women might be related to
220 neurovascular alterations due to chronic hyperglycemia and vascular impairment in genital
221 districts with altered genital response to sexual stimuli [54]. Based on the concept that sexual
222 satisfaction in women is more dependent on psychological and relationship factors than to

223 biological ones, a previous study failed to demonstrate that reduced sexual satisfaction at baseline
224 could predict the onset of major cardiovascular events in women (55). As reported for men, also
225 hormonal milieu can affect sexuality in women with DM. Available data are mainly derived from
226 animal models. Insulin and insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) can regulate the activities of
227 aromatase and 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase, which are involved in steroid synthesis [56].
228 Some experimental data also suggest that insulin can contribute in maintaining estrogen receptor
229 expression at the hypothalamus level, having a role in lordosis and solicitation behavior in female
230 rats [57]. In addition, peripherally, both insulin and other growth factors stimulate the proliferation
231 of mouse vaginal epithelial cells in culture and, in the vagina, estrogens seem to stimulate the
232 production of IGF and IGF binding proteins [58-59].

233 Sexual pain, is another important issue related to women sexuality. Unexplained vulvodynia has
234 been proposed as an unrecognized sign of diabetic neuropathic syndrome [60]. In a recent
235 consensus [61], however, DM was not considered among the potential pathogenic mechanisms
236 causing/worsening unexplained vulvodynia, suggesting that more studies are needed to better
237 clarify this point.

238 *3.2 Effects of new anti-diabetic drugs on female sexuality*

239 Previous evidence demonstrated that weigh loss plays an important influence on the improvement
240 of sexual function in T2DM women [62]. In fact, body image and body weight concerns have a
241 negative impact in sexual functioning of DM patients [63]. Hence, physicians should consider the
242 impact of losing weight in the choice of the most appropriate glucose-lowering therapies in female
243 patients complying of sexual dysfunction.

244 As reported above, several drugs are available for T2DM treatment and some of them have a good
245 impact on body weight like GLP-1RA and the most recent SGLT2i. Similar to what reported in

246 men, it could be expected that the use of these drugs will have a positive effect on losing weight,
247 resulting in better sexual outcomes. However, no studies have evaluated this point so far.

248

249 **4.0 DM genitourinary tract infections**

250 Another complication in DM is the possibility to contract common infections, compared with
251 patients without diabetes [64]. Urinary tract infections (UTI) and mucosal candidiasis are quite
252 common and frequently more severe in people with diabetes than in the general population. Several
253 studies have documented an association between the degree of glycemic control and the incidence
254 or severity of infectious complications but the relationship between DM, hyperglycemia, immune
255 function and infections is complex and many issues remain unresolved [65]. In this section, a
256 summary of the impact of the most common UTI observed in DM population and their relationship
257 with male and female sexual function will be analyzed. In addition, the possible contribution of
258 SGLT2i on UTI will be also addressed

259 *4.1 Epidemiological data*

260 The prevalence of *asymptomatic bacteriuria* (ASB) has been reported to range between 8 and 26%
261 in patients with DM [66], without a clear association with metabolic control. Furthermore, meta-
262 analytic data estimated the risk for ASB to be three times more common in diabetic patients
263 compared to the controls (12.2% vs. 4.5%) [66]. The same study showed a higher risk in men
264 compare to women [66].

265 UTI are one the most common infections in diabetes patients, with a reported incidence of 12.2
266 per 100 person-years for diabetic women, compared to 6.7 for non-diabetic women (RR 1.8;
267 95%CI 1.2-2.7) [67]. The risk was tightly related to diabetes duration and was lower in men
268 compared to women [67].

269 Patients with poorly controlled DM, are more prone to develop *genital mycotic infections*. *Candida*
270 *albicans* is the most common pathogen causing balanitis and it is also the dominant cause of
271 vulvovaginal candidiasis in women with diabetes [68].

272 *Male Accessory Gland Inflammations/Infections (MAGI)* represents another group of conditions
273 frequently associated with DM. Condorelli et al. [69] reported an increased frequency of MAGI
274 (about 43%) among patients with T2DM, suggesting that MAGI may represent a possible
275 undiagnosed complication of the diabetic population. In addition, La Vignera et al., [70] further
276 reported peculiar ultrasound characteristics (lack of reduction of interparietal thickness after
277 ejaculation and alteration of the relationship between glandular fund and body) of the seminal
278 vesicles in DM patients, particularly among those with diabetic autonomic neuropathy, suggestive
279 of functional atony [71]

280 *4.2 Impact on male and female sexual function*

281 Whereas acute and symptomatic UTI, as well as recurrent genital mycotic infections, have an
282 obvious detrimental negative effect on male and female sexual function, the role of ASB and
283 chronic abacterial MAGI is more conflicting. However, it has been suggested that recurrent
284 infections can contribute to the development of low urinary tract symptoms (LUTS), in turn
285 showing an independent association with ED [72-73]. Similarly, an increasing body of evidence
286 supports an association between Lower Urinary Tract Dysfunction (LUTD) and FSD [74]. In
287 particular, the presence of urinary incontinence (UI) (tightly associated with DM) and UTI doubles
288 the risk for reduced libido compared to non-incontinent women, ~~and~~ increasing vaginal dryness
289 and dyspareunia [74]. In greater detail, women with detrusor overactivity and associated UI had
290 the greatest degree of sexual dysfunction. While pure urgency UI is a risk factor for decreased
291 lubrication and increased coital pain, mixed UI ~~is~~ was associated with less sexual satisfaction [75].

292 *4.3 Impact of SGLT2i on male and female genitourinary tract infections*

293 Clinical trials have shown that SGLT2i are generally well tolerated. However, due to their
294 mechanism of action, they are associated with an increased risk for genital mycotic infections, or
295 serious adverse events, such as serious UTI. The increased risk of genital mycotic infections is
296 likely to be related to the presence of urinary glucose, although no definitive dose relationship
297 between incidence of infection and SGLT2 inhibitor treatment has been established to date. Genital
298 mycotic infections associated with SGLT2i occurred more commonly in females and patients with
299 a history of such infections [76-78]. Post-marketing reports have led to a warning from the Food
300 and Drug Administration (FDA) about the possibility of severe urinary tract infection and
301 pyelonephritis in patients treated with SGLT2i [79]. Health care professionals have been advised
302 to evaluate patients for signs and symptoms of UTIs and GI and treat such infections promptly, if
303 indicated.

304 **5.0 Conclusions**

305 Sexual dysfunctions are frequently observed in men and women with DM. ED should be routinely
306 investigated in all men, since it is an early marker of forthcoming CVD. In addition, either in men
307 or women sexual dysfunction can severely impair quality of life, resulting in worse metabolic
308 control and poor therapeutic compliance. An early identification of the problems, and an adequate
309 discussion, can lead to a virtuous cycle, allowing lifestyle modifications and better glycometabolic
310 control. While the use of one of the most widely prescribed drugs to treat T2DM, metformin, is
311 known to have a beneficial effect on male and female reproductive function, other drugs commonly
312 used in more complicated forms, such as insulin and sulfonylureas, may have a negative effect on
313 weight and thus on gonadal and sexual function. On the contrary, the novel classes of drugs with
314 a positive (GLP1RA and SGLT2i) or neutral (DPP4i) effect on weight could be an interesting way
315 to improve the gonadal and sexual function in diabetic subjects complaining of sexual dysfunction.

316

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