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30 **Causes of chronic heart failure in patients with diabetes**

31 Chronic heart failure (CHF) is a complex syndrome in which impaired emptying or filling of the
32 heart results in a clinical picture of fatigue, breathless and fluid retention. CHF is a common,
33 preventable and treatable complication of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). Diabetes mellitus is
34 highly prevalent amongst patients with CHF, around three to four-fold times higher than in the
35 general population[1, 2]. T2DM is not only a risk factor for the development of CHF, but impaired
36 glucose tolerance might be a consequence of the systemic perturbations of the CHF
37 syndrome[3]. T2DM is an independent risk factor for progressive heart failure and
38 cardiovascular death[3-6] and patients with T2DM have higher New York Heart Association
39 (NYHA) class and symptom burden compared to non-diabetic patients with similar ejection
40 fractions[7].

41

42 The most common comorbidities leading to CHF in patients with T2DM are coronary artery
43 disease (CAD) and hypertension. Whilst multivessel CAD is a major cause of CHF in patients
44 with diabetes and a strong adverse predictor of survival[4], the adverse effect of T2DM on
45 outcomes in CHF patients is of a similar magnitude in patients with and without CAD[6]. This
46 suggests an additional direct effect on the myocardium, a 'diabetic cardiomyopathy'. Although
47 several mechanisms have been proposed, and impaired cardiac glucose metabolism is a strong
48 candidate, the underlying pathogenesis is only partially understood and there is no accepted
49 clinical definition[6, 8, 9]. Overall, the pathophysiology of heart failure and diabetes overlap,
50 both are associated with insulin resistance, impaired glucose metabolism and the metabolic
51 syndrome[10, 11].

52

53 Heart failure is classified based upon the presence of reduced left ventricular function as heart
54 failure with preserved (HFpEF) or reduced ejection fraction (HFrEF). In both descriptions,
55 reduced cardiac output and a fall in blood pressure are sensed by baroreceptors and renal
56 afferent arterioles. These in turn trigger the activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone
57 system (RAAS), secretion of anti-diuretic hormone, vasoconstriction, the activation of the
58 sympathetic nervous system and release of epinephrine and norepinephrine. It is these
59 physiological adaptations that result in the clinical syndrome of heart failure. RAAS activation

60 leads to aldosterone and antidiuretic hormone secretion, promoting sodium and water retention.
61 This augments preload resulting in pulmonary congestion and fluid overload. Vasoconstriction
62 maintains blood pressure to achieve organ perfusion at the expense of excessive afterload
63 which exacerbates pump failure. Sympathetic stimulation increases heart rate and contractility,
64 initially improving ejection fraction but ultimately increasing the heart's metabolic requirements
65 and predisposing to dysrhythmia and sudden cardiac death. On the other hand, natriuretic
66 peptide secretion promotes beneficial structural remodeling, natriuresis, diuresis and reduces
67 sympathetic tone (Figure 1).

68
69 Contemporary therapies aim to limit these physiological adaptations, reduce symptoms and
70 improve survival. Diuretics provide symptomatic relief from fluid retention. Angiotensin
71 converting enzyme inhibitors, angiotensin II receptor blockers and mineralocorticoid receptor
72 antagonists inhibit the RAAS. Neprilysin inhibitors reduce the degradation of natriuretic
73 peptides to promote structural remodeling, vasodilation and natriuresis. Beta-adrenoreceptor
74 antagonists (beta-blockers) counteract sympathetic activation, reduce heart rate and
75 contractility and, largely by their effect on sympathetic activation and reverse remodeling reduce
76 the risks of dysrhythmia and sudden cardiac death. In those with persistent left ventricular
77 dysfunction and conduction delay, cardiac resynchronization therapy (CRT) improves
78 symptoms and survival, and in selected patients implantable cardiac defibrillators can reduce
79 death due to arrhythmia.

80

81 **The role of medical therapy**

82 Studies linking diabetes with adverse outcomes, and its influence on therapy in CHF often
83 predate what would now be considered as contemporary therapy. The now more widespread
84 prescription of beta-blockers and uptake of CRT have contributed to the significant
85 improvements in outcomes over recent years[12]. The incidence of sudden cardiac death has
86 diminished over time, but still persists as a major contributor to adverse outcomes, especially
87 in patients with diabetes. In our prospective cohort of 1091 patients, diabetes was associated
88 with higher rates progressive CHF, all-cause and cardiovascular deaths[6] and in clinical trials,
89 although pharmacotherapy and device therapy were effective for both patients with and without

90 diabetes they remain at higher risk. Most recently, we have demonstrated that patients with
91 diabetes mellitus are in fact more likely to benefit from contemporary heart failure strategies. In
92 a non-randomised prospective cohort of 1797 patients, we described that higher doses of ACE-
93 inhibitor and beta-blocker improved outcomes for all patients but that dose escalation has the
94 greatest effect on mortality in patients with diabetes mellitus, particularly those with the most
95 severely impaired left ventricular function. This observation provides support for the direct role
96 of higher doses of beta-blockers in order to achieve the best outcomes in patients with both
97 CHF and diabetes mellitus[13].

98

99 That beta-blockers seem to have additional benefits for diabetic patients may be due to several
100 mechanisms. Firstly, beta-blockade is negatively inotropic and chronotropic, thus reducing
101 cardiac metabolic demands. This might be of particular benefit in the context of CAD, which is
102 highly prevalent in diabetic patients. Secondly, beta-blockers provide prophylaxis against
103 dysrhythmia and sudden cardiac death, which are more common in people with both diabetes
104 mellitus and heart failure[6]. Thirdly, beta-blockers promote structural remodeling of the
105 myocardium. We have shown in a prospective study of 628 patients receiving contemporary
106 heart failure therapy, that patients with diabetes experienced more adverse structural and
107 functional remodeling such that halting of this more rapid progressive change might be even
108 more important in that group[14]. Fourthly, inhibition of the RAAS is not only a crucial treatment
109 for heart failure, but a powerful tool in order to halt the progression of diabetic nephropathy.
110 Finally, beta-blockers suppress sympathetic activation, countering the increased basal
111 sympathetic neural outflow in diabetes mellitus[10].

112

113 Historically there has been reluctance to prescribe beta-blockers to those on insulin or
114 sulfonylureas, due to a perceived risk of masking symptoms of hypoglycaemia or prolonging
115 these episodes. However, in clinical trials the rates of hypoglycaemia were similar between
116 groups, and these theoretical risks were far outweighed by the benefits[15].

117

118 **The role of revascularisation**

119 The role of coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) is well established for patients with multi-
120 vessel CAD with and without diabetes. Clinical trials have shown a mortality benefit following
121 CABG or percutaneous intervention (PCI) for those with multi-vessel CAD, however those with
122 CHF have often been under-represented. The FREEDOM trial demonstrated that in patients
123 with diabetes, CABG resulted in improved mortality and fewer cardiac events than PCI, but only
124 3% of these patients had HFrEF[16]. The STITCHES trial showed that CABG was beneficial
125 compared to medical management for patients with HFrEF, but was underpowered to detect
126 whether patients with diabetes derived any additional benefit compared to non-diabetic
127 patients[17]. However, in a large observational study with propensity matching, patients with
128 diabetes and HFrEF treated with CABG had a lower rate of cardiovascular events and death
129 compared to those with multi-vessel CAD treated with PCI[18].

130

131 **Take home message**

132 CHF patients with diabetes die sooner, have worse symptoms and are more frequently
133 hospitalised. Contemporary heart failure therapies seem to confer additional benefit in those
134 with diabetes. Despite this, there is often a reluctance to prescribe doses achieved in clinical
135 trials, particularly when prescribed by non-cardiologists[19]. That incremental improvements in
136 mortality reduction and hospitalization are observed with increasing doses should provide
137 patients and healthcare professionals confidence in providing these life-saving medications.

138

139

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144

145 **Disclosure**

146 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this manuscript.

147

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203

204

205 **Figure legends**

206 Figure 1

207 Mechanistic framework for diabetes related exacerbation of the heart failure phenotype.