



To obtain CE credit, click [here](#).

Key Concepts

Diabetes & Kidney Disease Overview

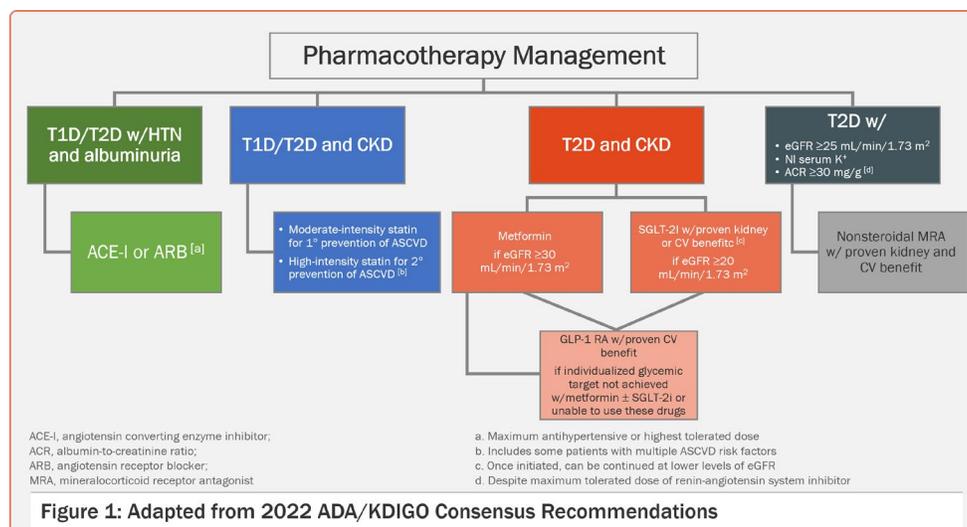
Diabetes is a chronic metabolic disorder that is the seventh leading cause of death in the United States of America.¹ Diabetes is expected to rise by 51% in the next 20 years and is linked to a host of complications that can negatively impact patients.² One of the most burdensome complications is kidney disease, which affects 40% of patients with diabetes.³ Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is an abnormality in structure (persistent albuminuria) and/or function (reduced estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) less than 60 mL/min/1.73m²) for at least 3 months.

Diabetic Kidney Disease’s Burden

From the years 2010 to 2030, the number of people with end-stage kidney disease requiring renal replacement therapy is projected to double.⁴ This is of major concern because a declining eGFR is associated with a multifold increase in all-cause mortality and cardiovascular events,⁵ including heart failure, myocardial infarction, and stroke, compared to patients without chronic kidney disease.⁶ The burden of CKD, particularly in those with diabetes, is a key reason why timely and routine screening, appropriate staging, and treatment, are crucial to optimize patient care and prevent cardiorenal disease.⁷

Diabetic Kidney Disease Standard of Care

Over the last 20 years, robust evidence and experience have provided a variety of pharmacotherapeutic options to treat patients with CKD. Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE-I), angiotensin II receptor blockers (ARBs), and mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists, all of which block the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone-system (RAAS), and more recently the sodium glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitors (SGLT-2i) and nonsteroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists (ns-MRA), have been proven to slow kidney disease progression and reduce kidney events.⁷ In addition to these therapies, the 2022 American Diabetes Association (ADA) and Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) consensus recommendations also highlight a potential fourth pillar – glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1 RAs).⁷ (Figure 1)

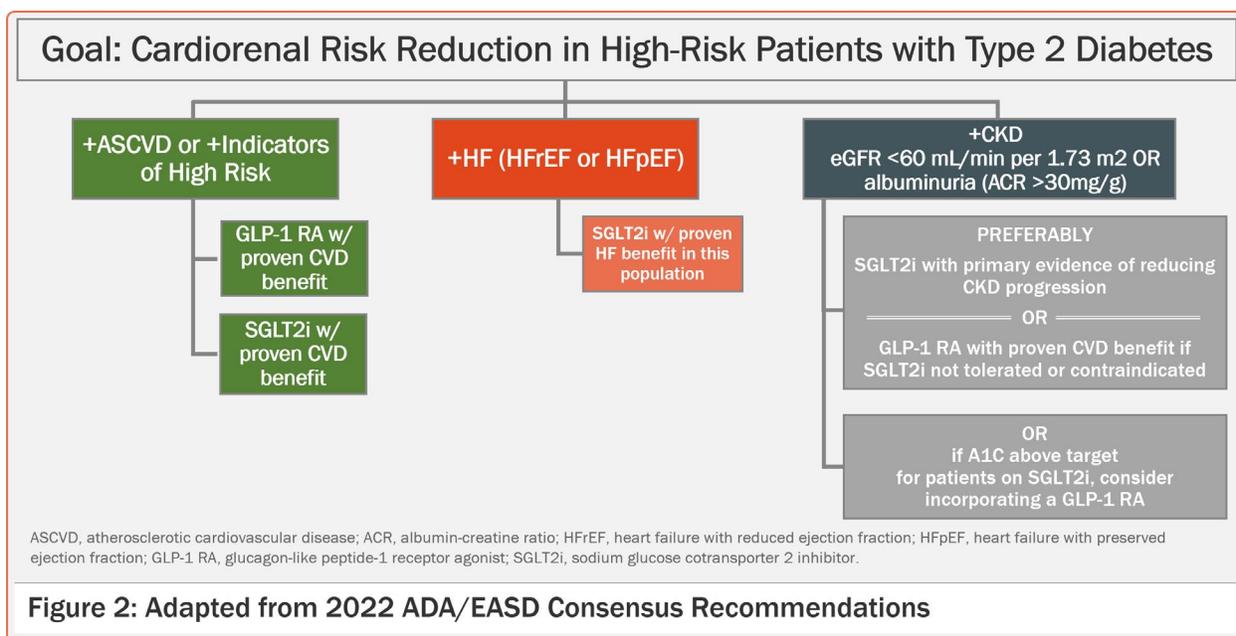




To obtain CE credit, click [here](#).

Glucagon-Like Peptide-1 Receptor Agonists

GLP-1 RAs are highly efficacious agents for glucose-lowering and weight reduction, however, there are many variances in glycemic and nonglycemic effects within the class. The pharmacokinetics and structure of short-acting GLP-1 RAs (exenatide twice-daily and lixisenatide) give rise to the differences in effects compared to long-acting GLP-1 RAs (dulaglutide, exenatide once-weekly, liraglutide, semaglutide). Short-acting GLP-1 RAs have a more prominent effect on gastric emptying and postprandial glucose-lowering, and long-acting GLP-1 RAs on lowering the fasting plasma glucose level, hemoglobin A1C level, and body weight. Per ADA/KDIGO, the use of specific long-acting GLP-1 RAs (dulaglutide, liraglutide, injectable semaglutide) is strongly supported in patients with type 2 diabetes and CKD or atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, due to their primary cardiovascular and secondary kidney benefits, including patients with stage 3b-stage 5 CKD.⁷ Similar to the ADA/KDIGO recommendations, the 2022 ADA/EASD Consensus Report features a GLP-1 RA with proven cardiovascular benefit as an alternative/adjunct to SGLT-2i in patients with diabetes and CKD (Figure 2).⁸ However, clinicians should be able to manage safety issues (eg, gastrointestinal adverse events) and avoid prescribing in patients with contraindications (eg, medullary thyroid cancer, multiple endocrine neoplasia, or family history).



Multidisciplinary Management

Collaboration and teamwork among physicians, advanced practice providers, pharmacists, and others is recommended by both the 2022 ADA/EASD and 2022 ADA/KDIGO consensus reports to provide the holistic care needed for patients with diabetes and CKD. Collaborative care is beneficial to patients, the care team, and health systems, by increasing efficient use of resources, improving health outcomes, and enhancing patient and team member satisfaction.

This activity is supported by an independent educational grant from Novo Nordisk Inc.



To obtain CE credit, click [here](#).

References:

1. American Diabetes Association. Economic costs of diabetes in the US in 2017. *Diabetes Care*. 2018;41(5):917–928. doi:10.2337/dci18-0007
2. Saeedi P, et al. Global and regional diabetes prevalence estimates for 2019 and projections for 2030 and 2045: Results from the International Diabetes Federation Diabetes Atlas, 9th edition. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2019;157:107843. doi:10.1016/j.diabres.2019.107843
3. Hussain S, et al. Diabetic kidney disease: An overview of prevalence, risk factors, and biomarkers. *Clin Epidemiol Glob Health*. 2021;9:2-6. doi:10.1016/j.cegh.2020.05.016
4. Liyanage T, et al. Worldwide access to treatment for end-stage kidney disease: a systematic review. *Lancet*. 2015;385(9981):1975-1982. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61601-9
5. Go AS, et al. Chronic kidney disease and the risks of death, cardiovascular events, and hospitalization. *N Engl J Med*. 2004;351(13):1296-1305. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa041031. Erratum in: *N Engl J Med*. 2008;18(4):4. PMID: 15385656.
6. House AA. Management of heart failure in advancing CKD: Core curriculum 2018. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2018;72(2):284-295. doi:10.1053/j.ajkd.2017.12.006
7. de Boer IH, et al. Diabetes Management in Chronic Kidney Disease: A Consensus Report by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). *Diabetes Care*. 2022;45(12):3075-3090. doi:10.2337/dci22-0027
8. Davies MJ, et al. Management of Hyperglycemia in Type 2 Diabetes, 2022. A Consensus Report by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). *Diabetes Care*. 2022;45(11):2753-2786. doi:10.2337/dci22-0034