



REVIEW

The Role of Finerenone in the Management of Diabetic Nephropathy

Stavroula Veneti · Konstantinos Tziomalos

Received: April 16, 2021 / Accepted: May 19, 2021 / Published online: May 29, 2021
© The Author(s) 2021

ABSTRACT

Diabetic nephropathy (DN) is the leading cause of chronic kidney disease. Even though mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists (MRA) induce incremental reductions in urine albumin excretion when added to angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers, this combination is infrequently used because of an increased risk of hyperkalemia. In this context, finerenone, a novel selective MRA that appears to be associated with lower risk for hyperkalemia compared with other MRAs (spironolactone and eplerenone), might represent a useful tool in patients with DN. A recent large randomized trial suggested that finerenone delays the progression of DN and might also reduce cardiovascular morbidity in patients with DN. However, more data are needed to clarify the safety and efficacy of finerenone in this high-risk population.

Keywords: Albuminuria; Diabetic kidney disease; Diabetic nephropathy; Finerenone; Mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists; Type 2 diabetes mellitus

Key Summary Points

Finerenone is a novel, selective mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist.

Finerenone delays the progression of diabetic nephropathy.

Finerenone appears to reduce cardiovascular morbidity in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus.

Finerenone appears to be safer than other mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists.

DIGITAL FEATURES

This article is published with digital features, including a summary slide, to facilitate understanding of the article. To view digital features for this article go to <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14611059>.

S. Veneti · K. Tziomalos (✉)
First Propedeutic Department of Internal Medicine,
Medical School, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki,
AHEPA Hospital, 1 Stilponos Kyriakidi street, 54636
Thessaloniki, Greece
e-mail: ktziomalos@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

Diabetic kidney disease (DKD) constitutes the lion's share of patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD). It is expected that 40–45% of patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus (DM) and 30% of patients with type 2 DM will eventually develop nephropathy [1]. Diabetic nephropathy (DN) is characterized by albuminuria and progressive reduction in glomerular filtration rate (GFR). The major lesions observed in the kidneys of patients with DN are glomerulosclerosis, thickening and hypertrophy of the glomerular basement membrane, hypertrophy of renal cells, expansion of mesangial cells, and tubulointerstitial fibrosis [2]. DKD is a progressive condition characterized by an early stage of hyperfiltration and renal hypertrophy, followed by a stage of incipient nephropathy with microalbuminuria and hypertension [3]. Gradually, patients present overt nephropathy with proteinuria and reduction of GFR and some develop end-stage kidney disease (ESKD) [4]. DKD is a potentially life-threatening disease not only because patients progress to ESKD but also because they have increased risk for cardiovascular events and a greater susceptibility to infections [5]. For this reason, early identification and management of DKD is of outmost importance. The two major established risk factors for DKD are hyperglycemia and hypertension. Moreover, age, ethnicity, family history, and obesity are also associated with increased risk for DN [5].

Multifactorial treatment is essential for preventing DKD and for delaying its progression and its cornerstone is strict glycemic and blood pressure control [6, 7]. Regarding glycemic control, sodium–glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitors are recommended in patients with estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) of at least 30 ml/min/1.73 m² and urinary albumin greater than 300 mg/g creatinine [6, 7]. The agents of choice for the management of hypertension in patients with DKD are angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE-Is) or angiotensin II receptor blockers (ARBs) [6, 7]. More recently, additional blockade of the renin–angiotensin system with

mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists (MRAs) has been shown to reduce albuminuria in short-term studies in patients with DM and micro- or macroalbuminuria treated with ACE-Is or ARBs [6]. Indeed, MR overactivation is a key determinant of DKD progression by increasing intraglomerular pressure and also by non-hemodynamic actions, including direct proinflammatory and profibrotic effects as well as Klotho deficiency [8]. However, combination therapy with MRAs and ACE-Is or ARBs increases the risk of serious adverse effects, especially hyperkalemia, and this represents a major barrier in the use of MRAs. On the other hand, finerenone, a recently developed selective MRA, appears to be both safe in patients with DKD and to exert beneficial effects on kidney function. In the present review, we discuss the role of finerenone in the management of DKD. This article is based on previously conducted studies and does not contain any new studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

SEARCH STRATEGY

The PubMed database was reviewed for papers published until March 2021 using the terms “finerenone”, “diabetes”, and “kidney”. The references of pertinent articles were also hand-searched for relevant papers. Only papers published in English were considered.

CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY OF FINERENONE

The nonsteroidal MRA finerenone, initially called BAY 94-8862, is characterized by a very strong binding potential to the mineralocorticoid receptor [9]. Finerenone is an inverse agonist of the mineralocorticoid receptor whereas the steroidal MRAs spironolactone and eplerenone are partial agonists of this receptor [10]. Even though finerenone is mainly metabolized by CYP3A4 (90%), kidney function and serum albumin levels also affect serum levels of the drug, which is mostly excreted by the kidneys [10, 11]. Absorption is independent of food

intake and the half-life of finerenone, which has no active metabolites, is about 2 h [11, 12]. On the other hand, eplerenone, which also has no active metabolites, has a half-life of 4–6 h, whereas the active metabolites of spironolactone have half-lives of 14–16 h [13, 14]. Importantly, finerenone does not appear to have clinically relevant interactions with substrates of cytochrome P450 [15] and does not require dose modification in patients with mild or moderate hepatic impairment [16]. On the other hand, exposure to finerenone is increased in patients with moderate and severe renal impairment but not in those with mild renal impairment [17].

EFFECTS OF FINERENONE ON KIDNEY FUNCTION: ANIMAL STUDIES

Animal studies have shown that finerenone reduces albuminuria and has a positive impact on endothelial function and arterial elasticity through an increase in nitric oxide bioavailability [18, 19]. It was also reported that finerenone prevents progression of acute kidney injury to chronic kidney disease by exerting anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects [20–22]. Furthermore, finerenone appears to improve glucose tolerance in high-fat diet-fed obese mice [23]. Notably, in rats with deoxycorticosterone acetate/salt-induced renal injury, finerenone was more effective than eplerenone in preventing glomerular, tubular, and vascular damage in the kidneys, in suppressing the renal expression of pro-inflammatory and profibrotic genes, and in reducing proteinuria [24].

EFFECTS OF FINERENONE ON DKD: CLINICAL STUDIES

Accumulating data support a role for finerenone in the management of DKD (Table 1). In an early randomized, double-blind study conducted at 148 sites in 23 countries, 823 patients with type 2 DM and DN who were on ACE-Is or ARBs were randomly assigned to receive finerenone (1.25, 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, 15, or 25 mg/day) or

matching placebo ($n = 94$) for 90 days [25]. Finerenone induced dose-dependent decreases in albuminuria, which were significant at doses of at least 7.5 mg/day [25]. Hyperkalemia leading to discontinuation of treatment was not observed in the placebo and finerenone 10-mg/day groups and occurred in 2.1%, 3.2%, and 1.7% of the finerenone 7.5-, 15-, and 20-mg/day groups, respectively [25]. The incidence of estimated GFR decrease of at least 30% or other adverse events did not differ between the placebo and finerenone groups [25]. In another multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 2b study in 96 Japanese patients with type 2 DM and DN who were treated with ACE-Is or ARBs, finerenone reduced albuminuria more than placebo at day 90 whereas the change in serum potassium levels was similar in the two groups; notably, no patient developed hyperkalemia [26]. More recently, the results of the Finerenone in Reducing Kidney Failure and Disease Progression in Diabetic Kidney Disease (FIDELIO-DKD) trial were reported [27]. This double-blind, multicenter trial was conducted in 48 countries and randomized 5734 patients with type 2 DM and CKD (defined as urinary albumin-to-creatinine ratio (UACR) 30–300 mg/g, eGFR 25–60 ml/min/1.73 m², and a history of diabetic retinopathy or as UACR 300–5000 mg/g and eGFR 25–75 ml/min/1.73 m²) treated with ACE-Is or ARBs at the maximum tolerated dose and with serum potassium level of at most 4.8 mmol/l to receive finerenone 20 mg/day (10 mg/day in patients with eGFR 25–60 ml/min/1.73 m²) or placebo [27]. After a median follow-up of 2.6 years, the incidence of the primary outcome [a composite of kidney failure (defined as initiation of long-term dialysis for at least 90 days, kidney transplantation, or eGFR less than 15 ml/min/1.73 m²), sustained decrease of at least 40% in the eGFR from baseline over a period of at least 4 weeks, or death from renal causes] was 18% lower in the finerenone group [27]. It was estimated that 29 patients had to be treated with finerenone for 3 years to prevent one primary outcome event [27]. Moreover, finerenone was associated with a 31% greater reduction in UACR than placebo [27]. The incidence of the key secondary

Table 1 Major randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled studies evaluating the effects of finerenone on diabetic kidney disease

References	Number of patients	Follow-up	Efficacy	Safety
[25]	823	90 days	Finerenone induced dose-dependent decreases in albuminuria (significant at doses ≥ 7.5 mg/day)	Incidence of hyperkalemia leading to discontinuation of treatment in the finerenone 7.5-, 10-, 15-, and 20-mg/day and placebo groups: 2.1%, 0.0%, 3.2%, and 1.7%, respectively
[26]	96	90 days	Finerenone reduced albuminuria more than placebo	Similar changes in serum potassium levels in the finerenone and placebo groups No patient developed hyperkalemia
[27]	5734	2.6 years	The incidence of the primary outcome (kidney failure), sustained decrease $\geq 40\%$ in the eGFR, or death from renal causes) was 18% lower in the finerenone group The incidence of the key secondary outcome (death from cardiovascular causes, nonfatal myocardial infarction, nonfatal stroke, or hospitalization for heart failure) was 14% lower in the finerenone group Finerenone reduced albuminuria by 31% more than placebo	Incidence of hyperkalemia leading to treatment discontinuation in the finerenone and placebo groups: 2.3% and 0.9%, respectively Incidence of serum potassium levels > 5.5 mmol/l in the finerenone and placebo groups: 21.7% and 9.8%, respectively

outcome (a composite of death from cardiovascular causes, nonfatal myocardial infarction, nonfatal stroke, or hospitalization for heart failure) was also 14% lower in patients treated with finerenone [27]. The reduction in cardiovascular events was similar in patients with established cardiovascular disease (CVD) and in those without CVD [28]. Finerenone reduced blood pressure by 2.1/0.9 mmHg more than placebo whereas body weight and HbA_{1c} did not differ between the two groups [27]. On the other hand, the incidence of hyperkalemia leading to treatment discontinuation was higher in patients treated with finerenone 20 mg/day (10 mg/day in patients with eGFR 25–60 ml/min/1.73 m²) (2.3% vs. 0.9% in the

placebo group) and the incidence of serum potassium levels greater than 5.5 mmol/l was also higher in the former (21.7% vs. 9.8% in the placebo group) [27]. To prevent hyperkalemia, patients with serum potassium level of 4.8 mmol/l or below were excluded from the study, patients with eGFR 25–60 ml/min/1.73 m² received a lower dose of finerenone (10 mg compared with 20 mg in patients with eGFR 61–75 ml/min/1.73 m²), and serum potassium levels were frequently monitored [27]. Notably, in a recent meta-analysis, the combination therapy of finerenone plus ACE-Is or ARBs was not associated with hyperkalemia whereas spironolactone and eplerenone increased the risk for hyperkalemia by 4.58 and

2.81 times, respectively, when combined with ACE-Is or ARBs [29]. The ongoing Finerenone in Reducing CV Mortality and Morbidity in Diabetic Kidney Disease (FIGARO-DKD) trial will evaluate the effects of finerenone on cardiovascular and renal events in 7437 patients with type 2 DM and less advanced CKD [30].

EFFECTS OF FINERENONE IN HEART FAILURE

In addition to its beneficial effects on renal function, finerenone also appears to exert cardioprotective actions. In animal models, finerenone was shown to prevent myocardial fibrosis and remodeling by attenuating the expression of connective tissue growth factor and transforming growth factor- β [31] and also to improve myocardial diastolic dysfunction [32, 33]. Importantly, finerenone reduced cardiac hypertrophy and brain natriuretic peptide (BNP) levels more than eplerenone did; moreover, finerenone improved systolic and diastolic left ventricular function whereas eplerenone had no effect [24]. In addition, in a mouse model of cardiac fibrosis induced by short-term isoproterenol injection, cardiac fibrosis and macrophage invasion were blocked by finerenone, whereas eplerenone had no effect [34]. Clinical studies also reported promising results. In a randomized study in 392 patients with heart failure and reduced ejection fraction and mild to moderate CKD, finerenone reduced BNP levels as much as spironolactone but was associated with smaller increase in serum potassium concentration and lower incidence of hyperkalemia than the latter [35]. In another randomized study in 1066 patients with worsening heart failure and reduced ejection fraction and CKD and/or DM, finerenone was similarly effective with eplerenone in reducing BNP levels and was associated with comparable rates of hyperkalemia with the latter [36].

CONCLUSIONS

Finerenone appears to delay the progression of DKD and might also reduce the risk of

cardiovascular events in this high-risk population. Even though finerenone increases the incidence of hyperkalemia, it appears to be safer than other MRAs. However, close follow-up is required in patients treated with a combination of finerenone and ACE-Is or ARBs. The results of the ongoing FIGARO-DKD trial will provide additional insight into the role of finerenone in the management of DKD.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Funding. No funding or sponsorship was received for this study or publication of this article.

Authorship. All named authors meet the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE) criteria for authorship for this article, take responsibility for the integrity of the work as a whole, and have given their approval for this version to be published.

Authors' Contributions. SV drafted the manuscript. KT critically revised the draft.

Disclosures. Stavroula Veneti and Konstantinos Tziomalos have nothing to disclose.

Compliance with Ethics Guidelines. This article is based on previously conducted studies and does not contain any new studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

Open Access. This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included

in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>.

REFERENCES

1. Oltean S, Coward R, Collino M, Baelde H. Diabetic nephropathy: novel molecular mechanisms and therapeutic avenues. *Biomed Res Int*. 2017;2017:3146524.
2. Arora MK, Singh UK. Molecular mechanisms in the pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy: an update. *Vasc Pharmacol*. 2013;58:259–71.
3. Tonneijck L, Muskiet MHA, Smits MM, et al. Glomerular hyperfiltration in diabetes: mechanisms, clinical significance, and treatment. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2017;28:1023–39.
4. Marshall SM. Natural history and clinical characteristics of CKD in type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Adv Chronic Kidney Dis*. 2014;21:267–72.
5. Alicic RZ, Rooney MT, Tuttle KR. Diabetic kidney disease: challenges, progress, and possibilities. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2017;12:2032–45.
6. Rossing P, Persson F, Frimodt-Møller M. Prognosis and treatment of diabetic nephropathy: recent advances and perspectives. *Nephrol Ther*. 2018;14:31–7.
7. American Diabetes Association. 11. Microvascular complications and foot care: standards of medical care in diabetes—2021. *Diabetes Care*. 2021;44(Suppl 1):S151–67.
8. Barrera-Chimal J, Jaisser F. Pathophysiologic mechanisms in diabetic kidney disease: a focus on current and future therapeutic targets. *Diabetes Obes Metab*. 2020;22:16–31.
9. Rico-Mesa JS, White A, Ahmadian-Tehrani A, Anderson AS. Mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists: a comprehensive review of finerenone. *Curr Cardiol Rep*. 2020;22:140.
10. Agarwal R, Kolkhof P, Bakris G, et al. Steroidal and non-steroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists in cardiorenal medicine. *Eur Heart J*. 2021;42:152–61.
11. Gerisch M, Heinig R, Engelen A, et al. Biotransformation of finerenone, a novel nonsteroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist, in dogs, rats, and humans, in vivo and in vitro. *Drug Metab Dispos*. 2018;46:1546–55.
12. Lentini S, Heinig R, Kimmeskamp-Kirschbaum N, Wensing G. Pharmacokinetics, safety and tolerability of the novel, selective mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist finerenone - results from first-in-man and relative bioavailability studies. *Fundam Clin Pharmacol*. 2016;30:172–84.
13. Cook CS, Berry LM, Bible RH, Hribar JD, Hajdu E, Liu NW. Pharmacokinetics and metabolism of [¹⁴C]epplerenone after oral administration to humans. *Drug Metab Dispos*. 2003;31:1448–55.
14. Gardiner P, Schrode K, Quinlan D, et al. Spironolactone metabolism: steady-state serum levels of the sulfur-containing metabolites. *J Clin Pharmacol*. 1989;29:342–7.
15. Heinig R, Gerisch M, Bairlein M, Nagelschmitz J, Loewen S. Results from drug–drug interaction studies in vitro and in vivo investigating the effect of finerenone on the pharmacokinetics of comediations. *Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet*. 2020;45:433–44.
16. Heinig R, Lambelet M, Nagelschmitz J, Alatrach A. Pharmacokinetics of the novel nonsteroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist finerenone (BAY 94-8862) in individuals with mild or moderate hepatic impairment. *Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet*. 2019;44:619–28.
17. Heinig R, Kimmeskamp-Kirschbaum N, Halabi A, Lentini S. Pharmacokinetics of the novel nonsteroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist finerenone (BAY 94-8862) in individuals with renal impairment. *Clin Pharmacol Drug Dev*. 2016;5:488–501.
18. Gil-Ortega M, Vega-Martín E, Martín-Ramos M, et al. Finerenone reduces intrinsic arterial stiffness in Munich Wistar frömter rats, a genetic model of chronic kidney disease. *Am J Nephrol*. 2020;51:294–303.
19. González-Blázquez R, Somoza B, Gil-Ortega M, et al. Finerenone attenuates endothelial dysfunction and albuminuria in a chronic kidney disease model by a reduction in oxidative stress. *Front Pharmacol*. 2018;9:1131.
20. Barrera-Chimal J, Estrela GR, Lechner SM, et al. The myeloid mineralocorticoid receptor controls inflammatory and fibrotic responses after renal injury via macrophage interleukin-4 receptor signaling. *Kidney Int*. 2018;93:1344–55.

21. Lattenist L, Lechner SM, Messaoudi S, et al. Nonsteroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist finerenone protects against acute kidney injury-mediated chronic kidney disease: role of oxidative stress. *Hypertension*. 2017;69:870–8.
22. Barrera-Chimal J, André-Grégoire G, Cat AND, et al. Benefit of mineralocorticoid receptor antagonism in AKI: role of vascular smooth muscle Rac1. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2017;28:1216–26.
23. Marzolla V, Feraco A, Gorini S, et al. The novel nonsteroidal MR antagonist finerenone improves metabolic parameters in high-fat diet-fed mice and activates brown adipose tissue via AMPK-ATGL pathway. *FASEB J*. 2020;34:12450–65.
24. Kolkhof P, Delbeck M, Kretschmer A, et al. Finerenone, a novel selective nonsteroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist protects from rat cardiorenal injury. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol*. 2014;64:69–78.
25. Bakris GL, Agarwal R, Chan JC, et al. Effect of finerenone on albuminuria in patients with diabetic nephropathy a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA*. 2015;314:884–94.
26. Katayama S, Yamada D, Nakayama M, et al. A randomized controlled study of finerenone versus placebo in Japanese patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus and diabetic nephropathy. *J Diabetes Complicat*. 2017;31:758–65.
27. Bakris GL, Agarwal R, Anker SD, et al. Effect of finerenone on chronic kidney disease outcomes in type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;383:2219–29.
28. Filippatos G, Anker SD, Agarwal R, et al. Finerenone and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with chronic kidney disease and type 2 diabetes. *Circulation*. 2021;143:540–52.
29. Zuo C, Xu G. Efficacy and safety of mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists with ACEI/ARB treatment for diabetic nephropathy: a meta-analysis. *Int J Clin Pract*. 2019;73:e13413.
30. Ruilope LM, Agarwal R, Anker SD, et al. Design and baseline characteristics of the finerenone in reducing cardiovascular mortality and morbidity in diabetic kidney disease trial. *Am J Nephrol*. 2019;50:345–56.
31. Lavall D, Jacobs N, Mahfoud F, Kolkhof P, Böhm M, Laufs U. The non-steroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist finerenone prevents cardiac fibrotic remodeling. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2019;168:173–83.
32. Bonnard B, Pieronne-Deperrois M, Djerada Z, et al. Mineralocorticoid receptor antagonism improves diastolic dysfunction in chronic kidney disease in mice. *J Mol Cell Cardiol*. 2018;121:124–33.
33. Lachaux M, Barrera-Chimal J, Nicol L, et al. Short- and long-term administration of the non-steroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist finerenone opposes metabolic syndrome-related cardio-renal dysfunction. *Diabetes Obes Metab*. 2018;20:2399–407.
34. Grune J, Beyhoff N, Smeir E, et al. Selective mineralocorticoid receptor cofactor modulation as molecular basis for finerenone’s antifibrotic activity. *Hypertension*. 2018;71:599–608.
35. Pitt B, Kober L, Ponikowski P, et al. Safety and tolerability of the novel non-steroidal mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist BAY 94-8862 in patients with chronic heart failure and mild or moderate chronic kidney disease: a randomized, double-blind trial. *Eur Heart J*. 2013;34:2453–63.
36. Filippatos G, Anker SD, Böhm M, et al. A randomized controlled study of finerenone vs. eplerenone in patients with worsening chronic heart failure and diabetes mellitus and/or chronic kidney disease. *Eur Heart J*. 2016;37:2105–14.