

# Glucagon-Like Peptide-1 (GLP-1) Receptor Agonists: Mechanisms, Pharmacology, and Therapeutic Applications in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Obesity Management

<sup>1</sup>Praduman Kumar, <sup>2</sup>Prof. Ankita Khare

<sup>1</sup>*B. Pharm 8th Semester Bansal College of Pharmacy, Bhopal (Madhya Pradesh)*

<sup>2</sup>*Associate Professor, Department of Pharmacology, Bansal College of Pharmacy, Bhopal*

**Abstract—Background:** The global burden of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and obesity has reached epidemic proportions, demanding therapeutic strategies that go beyond simple glycemic control. Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1 RAs) have transformed the metabolic disease treatment landscape over the past two decades by offering simultaneous benefits on blood glucose regulation and body weight reduction.

**Objective:** This review comprehensively evaluates the pharmacology, pharmacokinetics, clinical efficacy, safety profile, and emerging applications of GLP-1 receptor agonists in T2DM and obesity, with special emphasis on their cardiovascular, renal, and hepatic benefits.

**Methods:** A systematic review of published clinical trials, meta-analyses, and pharmacological studies was conducted using PubMed, Scopus, and Google Scholar databases. Major cardiovascular outcome trials including LEADER, SUSTAIN-6, REWIND, and PIONEER-6 were critically analyzed.

**Results:** GLP-1 RAs consistently reduce HbA1c by 0.8–1.5%, promote weight loss of 5–15% of body weight, lower systolic blood pressure, improve lipid profiles, and reduce major adverse cardiovascular events by 12–14% in high-risk populations. Long-acting agents demonstrate superior overall glycemic control and patient compliance, while short-acting agents more effectively attenuate postprandial glucose excursions.

**Conclusion:** GLP-1 receptor agonists represent a paradigm shift in the management of T2DM and obesity, with benefits extending well beyond glycemic control. Despite limitations including cost and injectable route of administration, their comprehensive metabolic and cardioprotective effects make them indispensable in modern pharmacotherapy.

***Index Terms***—GLP-1 receptor agonists; type 2 diabetes mellitus; obesity; semaglutide; liraglutide; cardiovascular outcomes; incretin therapy; weight management; HbA1c reduction; pharmacokinetics

## I. INTRODUCTION

Metabolic disorders such as type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and obesity rank among the most pressing public health challenges of the twenty-first century. According to the International Diabetes Federation, over 537 million adults were living with diabetes globally in 2021, a figure projected to rise to 783 million by 2045. Obesity, defined as a body mass index (BMI) exceeding 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, now affects more than 650 million adults worldwide and is recognized as a major driver of insulin resistance, T2DM, cardiovascular disease, and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.

Managing these intertwined conditions has historically required multiple drug classes targeting distinct pathophysiological pathways, often leading to polypharmacy, adverse effects such as weight gain and hypoglycemia, and suboptimal patient adherence. The introduction of incretin-based therapies in the mid-2000s marked a turning point in this therapeutic landscape. Among them, glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1 RAs) have risen to prominence as agents capable of simultaneously addressing hyperglycemia, excess body weight, and a constellation of cardiometabolic risk factors.

GLP-1 is a 30-amino-acid incretin hormone secreted by L-cells in the distal small intestine and colon in response to nutrient ingestion. Its physiological actions include glucose-dependent stimulation of pancreatic insulin secretion, suppression of glucagon release, deceleration of gastric emptying, and activation of satiety signals in the hypothalamus. However, native GLP-1 is rapidly degraded by the enzyme dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) within minutes of secretion, precluding its therapeutic use in unmodified form. Pharmaceutical development has successfully produced structurally modified analogs that resist DPP-4 degradation, thereby extending their half-lives from hours to days and enabling once-daily or once-weekly dosing.

The first GLP-1 RA approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), exenatide, became available in 2005. Since then, the class has expanded to include liraglutide, dulaglutide, semaglutide (subcutaneous and oral formulations), lixisenatide, albiglutide, and tirzepatide—the latter representing a novel dual glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide (GIP) and GLP-1 receptor co-agonist. These agents collectively carry indications ranging from T2DM management to obesity treatment and cardiovascular risk reduction.

Beyond their established metabolic roles, an expanding body of evidence points to pleiotropic benefits of GLP-1 RAs in conditions including hypertension, dyslipidemia, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), chronic kidney disease, neurodegenerative disorders, and polycystic

ovary syndrome. This review synthesizes current evidence on the pharmacology, clinical efficacy, safety, and emerging therapeutic frontiers of GLP-1 receptor agonists, aiming to serve as a comprehensive reference for clinicians, researchers, and pharmacists.

## II. PHARMACOLOGY AND MECHANISM OF ACTION

### 2.1 Physiology of Endogenous GLP-1

GLP-1 is derived from the proglucagon gene through posttranslational processing. In intestinal L-cells, the proglucagon peptide is cleaved to yield GLP-1(7-36) amide and GLP-1(7-37), both of which are biologically active. Nutrient sensing—particularly fat, carbohydrate, and protein ingestion—triggers GLP-1 secretion within minutes of meal initiation. Basal plasma GLP-1 concentrations are typically in the low picomolar range but rise threefold to fourfold postprandially in healthy individuals. In patients with T2DM, this postprandial GLP-1 response is blunted, contributing to inadequate insulin secretion and postprandial hyperglycemia.

GLP-1 exerts its effects by binding to the GLP-1 receptor (GLP-1R), a class B G protein-coupled receptor widely expressed on pancreatic beta-cells, alpha-cells, the gastrointestinal tract, heart, kidneys, lungs, and various regions of the central nervous system. Receptor activation stimulates adenylyl cyclase, elevating intracellular cyclic AMP (cAMP) levels and activating protein kinase A (PKA) and the exchange protein directly activated by cAMP (EPAC2), which together enhance glucose-stimulated insulin secretion, inhibit beta-cell apoptosis, and promote beta-cell proliferation.

### 2.2 Mechanisms of Action of GLP-1 Receptor Agonists

#### 2.2.1 Pancreatic Effects

The primary pancreatic action of GLP-1 RAs is the glucose-dependent augmentation of insulin secretion from beta-cells. This glucose-dependency is a critical safety advantage: insulin release occurs only when blood glucose is elevated, substantially minimizing hypoglycemia risk compared to insulin secretagogues that act regardless of prevailing glycemia. Simultaneously, GLP-1 RAs suppress glucagon secretion from pancreatic alpha-cells, reducing hepatic glucose output and thereby lowering fasting and postprandial glucose concentrations. Preclinical studies also indicate that sustained GLP-1R activation may preserve beta-cell mass by inhibiting apoptosis and stimulating neogenesis, potentially slowing the natural decline in beta-cell function that characterizes T2DM progression.

#### 2.2.2 Gastrointestinal Effects

GLP-1 RAs decelerate gastric emptying, which attenuates the rate of glucose absorption from the gut and blunts postprandial glycemic excursions. This effect is particularly pronounced with short-acting agents such as exenatide and lixisenatide. The delay in gastric emptying also contributes to early satiety and reduced caloric intake. At the intestinal level, GLP-1 RAs modulate lipoprotein

metabolism, specifically reducing chylomicron output and intestinal lipid absorption by activating GLP-1Rs on enteroendocrine cells and through central neural mechanisms.

### 2.2.3 Central Nervous System Effects

GLP-1 receptors are abundantly expressed in the hypothalamus, brainstem (nucleus tractus solitarius), and mesolimbic reward circuits. When GLP-1 RAs cross the blood-brain barrier or act peripherally via vagal afferents, they activate these central receptors to promote satiety, reduce food intake, and lower body weight. Research has also demonstrated that GLP-1R signaling in the mesoaccumbens dopaminergic pathway influences reward-based learning related to food, suggesting that these agents may modify eating behavior at a motivational level—not merely by suppressing hunger. Liraglutide has been shown to restore impaired associative learning in obese individuals, highlighting a potential role in the neurobehavioral aspects of obesity.

### 2.2.4 Cardiovascular and Renal Effects

Beyond metabolic actions, GLP-1 RAs exert direct cardiovascular effects. They improve endothelial function, reduce oxidative stress, attenuate inflammation in vascular walls, and slow atherosclerotic plaque progression. The renal benefits are mediated partly through natriuresis via partial inhibition of the Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchanger 3 (NHE3) in the proximal tubule, reduction of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) activity, and anti-inflammatory effects on the diseased kidney. These actions translate into modest reductions in blood pressure and albuminuria, with potential to slow chronic kidney disease progression.

## III. PHARMACOKINETICS

### 3.1 Overview

GLP-1 receptor agonists are peptide-based drugs that cannot be administered orally in conventional formulations because proteolytic enzymes in the gastrointestinal tract would rapidly degrade them. Structural modifications—including amino acid substitutions, fatty acid conjugation, and fusion to carrier proteins—have been employed to extend half-lives and enable diverse delivery routes. Understanding the pharmacokinetic profile of each agent is essential for optimal prescribing, dose adjustment in organ impairment, and management of potential drug interactions.

### 3.2 Absorption

Most GLP-1 RAs are administered via subcutaneous injection. Following injection into the abdomen, thigh, or upper arm, absorption into systemic circulation is slow and sustained. The site of injection, local blood flow, and formulation characteristics influence the rate of absorption. Short-acting agents such as exenatide achieve peak plasma concentrations ( $T_{ma}^x$ ) within 2–4 hours, while long-acting agents such as once-weekly semaglutide reach  $T_{ma}^x$  at 24–72 hours after injection.

Oral semaglutide represents a major innovation in the class. It is co-formulated with sodium N-[8-(2-hydroxybenzoyl)amino]caprylate (SNAC), an absorption enhancer that facilitates transcellular uptake of semaglutide in the gastric mucosa, bypassing intestinal proteolysis. Despite a bioavailability of approximately 1%, the absorbed fraction is sufficient for therapeutic activity. Because absorption depends on gastric contact, oral semaglutide must be taken on an empty stomach with plain water and without food or other medications for at least 30 minutes.

### 3.3 Distribution

GLP-1 RAs exhibit a relatively low volume of distribution, reflecting their high degree of plasma protein binding. Long-acting agents—particularly liraglutide and semaglutide—are extensively bound to albumin, which protects them from proteolytic degradation and glomerular filtration, thereby prolonging their half-lives. Distribution to target tissues includes the pancreas (beta- and alpha-cells), gastrointestinal tract, hypothalamus, and renal tubular cells. The central nervous system penetration of GLP-1 RAs remains an active research topic, with evidence suggesting that peripheral GLP-1R activation on vagal afferents may be as important as direct CNS penetration for appetite regulation.

### 3.4 Metabolism and Elimination

Unlike most small-molecule drugs, GLP-1 RAs are not substrates of hepatic cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes. Instead, they are metabolized by ubiquitous proteolytic enzymes throughout the body, which cleave the peptide chain into smaller fragments and ultimately into individual amino acids that enter normal metabolic pathways. This metabolic route confers two important clinical advantages: there is no clinically significant hepatic first-pass metabolism, and there are no pharmacokinetic drug-drug interactions mediated by CYP enzymes.

Elimination pathways differ by agent. Exenatide, a relatively small peptide, is primarily eliminated by renal filtration and tubular degradation, making it unsuitable for patients with severe renal impairment (eGFR < 30 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>). In contrast, larger molecules such as liraglutide and semaglutide rely predominantly on systemic proteolytic degradation followed by biliary and renal excretion of metabolites, with minimal dependence on glomerular filtration. Consequently, these agents do not require dose adjustment in mild-to-moderate renal impairment.

Table 1. Comparative Pharmacokinetic Profiles of Major GLP-1 Receptor Agonists

Agent	Route	Tmax	Half-life (t <sub>1/2</sub> )	Dosing Frequency	Renal Adjustment
Exenatide	SC injection	2–4 h	2–4 h	Twice daily	Avoid if eGFR <30
Lixisenatide	SC injection	1–3 h	~3 h	Once daily	Caution <30 mL/min

Agent	Route	Tmax	Half-life (t <sub>1/2</sub> )	Dosing Frequency	Renal Adjustment
Liraglutide	SC injection	8–12 h	~13 h	Once daily	Not required
Dulaglutide	SC injection	48 h	~5 days	Once weekly	Not required
Semaglutide (SC)	SC injection	24–72 h	~7 days	Once weekly	Not required
Semaglutide (oral)	Oral	1 h	~7 days	Once daily (oral)	Not required
Tirzepatide	SC injection	8–72 h	~5 days	Once weekly	Not required

#### IV. THERAPEUTIC ROLE IN TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS

##### 4.1 Pathophysiological Rationale

Type 2 diabetes mellitus is a multifactorial disorder driven by progressive insulin resistance in peripheral tissues, compensatory hyperinsulinemia, eventual beta-cell exhaustion, and relative or absolute insulin deficiency. Postprandial hyperglycemia, fasting hyperglycemia, and elevated HbA1c all contribute to the micro- and macrovascular complications that define the long-term morbidity of the disease. Traditional antidiabetic agents address subsets of these defects but often bring undesirable consequences such as weight gain with insulin and sulfonylureas, gastrointestinal intolerance with metformin, or limited efficacy as monotherapy. GLP-1 RAs uniquely address multiple pathophysiological nodes simultaneously.

##### 4.2 Glycemic Efficacy

In randomized controlled trials and real-world studies, GLP-1 RAs consistently lower HbA1c by approximately 0.8% to 1.5% from baseline, an effect comparable to or exceeding that of dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) inhibitors and achieving glycemic reductions that approach those of basal insulin without the associated weight gain. The magnitude of HbA1c reduction correlates with baseline HbA1c (patients with higher baseline values experiencing greater absolute reductions), the duration of therapy, and the choice between short-acting and long-acting agents.

Short-acting agents, by virtue of their pronounced gastric-emptying inhibition, are more effective at suppressing postprandial glucose surges, making them particularly valuable when elevated postprandial glucose is the primary driver of poor glycemic control. Long-acting agents provide more uniform 24-hour GLP-1R coverage and therefore exert stronger effects on fasting blood glucose through sustained glucagon suppression and enhanced fasting insulin secretion.

#### 4.3 Position in Treatment Guidelines

Contemporary diabetes management guidelines from the American Diabetes Association (ADA), the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD), and the Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) have elevated GLP-1 RAs to second-line and in many cases preferred second-line status after metformin. For patients with established atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD), heart failure, or chronic kidney disease, guidelines now recommend GLP-1 RAs (or SGLT2 inhibitors) as the preferred add-on agents regardless of HbA1c, reflecting the primacy of organ protection over pure glycemic targets. In obese patients with T2DM, GLP-1 RAs are recommended specifically because of their weight-lowering properties.

Table 2. Comparative Efficacy and Safety of GLP-1 RAs vs. Other Antidiabetic Drug Classes

Parameter	GLP-1 RAs	Insulin	Sulfonylureas	Metformin
Hypoglycemia Risk	Low (glucose-dependent)	High	Moderate–High	Low
Weight Effect	Loss (5–15%)	Gain	Gain	Neutral/Mild Loss
HbA1c Reduction	0.8–1.5%	Variable (high)	0.6–1.2%	0.8–1.2%
Cardiovascular Benefit	Proven (MACE ↓12–14%)	Neutral	Neutral/Harmful	Neutral
Renal Benefit	Moderate	Neutral	Limited	Neutral
BP Effect	Modest reduction	Neutral	Neutral	Neutral
Lipid Effect	Improved (LDL↓, HDL↑)	Neutral	Neutral	LDL↓ mild
Route	SC injection/Oral	SC/IV injection	Oral	Oral
Cost	High	Moderate–High	Low	Very Low

#### 4.4 Combination Therapy Strategies

GLP-1 RAs are most commonly added to metformin when glycemic targets are unmet on first-line therapy. The combination of GLP-1 RAs with SGLT2 inhibitors is particularly compelling because the two classes operate via complementary and non-overlapping mechanisms: GLP-1 RAs primarily reduce HbA1c through pancreatic and gastrointestinal actions while promoting weight loss, whereas SGLT2 inhibitors lower glucose through urinary excretion while providing

additional heart failure and renal protection. Clinical trials of their combination demonstrate additive reductions in HbA1c, weight, and blood pressure.

In patients with advanced T2DM requiring insulin, GLP-1 RAs can be added to basal insulin regimens to further lower HbA1c, reduce postprandial glucose, attenuate insulin-induced weight gain, and reduce the total daily insulin dose required—without meaningfully increasing hypoglycemia risk. Fixed-ratio combination products (e.g., insulin degludec/liraglutide [iDegLira] and insulin glargine/lixisenatide [iGlarLixi]) simplify regimens and improve adherence.

## V. THERAPEUTIC ROLE IN OBESITY MANAGEMENT

### 5.1 Obesity as a Chronic Disease

Obesity is now recognized as a chronic, relapsing neurobehavioral disease rather than simply a consequence of volitional overeating. Dysregulation of central and peripheral satiety and hunger signals—including leptin resistance, impaired GLP-1 secretion, and overactive dopaminergic reward pathways—create a biological environment that strongly defends elevated body weight and resists weight loss efforts. This reframing has shifted obesity management toward pharmacological and surgical interventions that directly target the underlying biology.

### 5.2 Weight Loss Efficacy

GLP-1 RAs are currently among the most effective pharmacological agents for weight reduction. In clinical trials of liraglutide 3 mg daily (approved as Saxenda for obesity), patients without diabetes lost an average of 5–8% of baseline body weight over 56 weeks, compared to 1–2% with placebo. More dramatic results have been obtained with once-weekly semaglutide 2.4 mg (Wegovy), which produced a mean weight loss of approximately 15% over 68 weeks in the pivotal STEP trials—a magnitude approaching that achieved with bariatric surgery. Tirzepatide, the dual GIP/GLP-1 receptor agonist, achieved weight losses of up to 22.5% in the SURMOUNT-1 trial, further raising expectations for pharmacotherapy.

The mechanisms underlying this weight loss are multifactorial: appetite suppression via hypothalamic GLP-1R activation, prolonged gastric emptying that extends postprandial satiety, modulation of dopaminergic reward circuits that reduce the hedonic drive to eat, and possibly a modest increase in energy expenditure. Weight loss with GLP-1 RAs is progressive, continues for months to years with ongoing therapy, and is accompanied by preferential loss of visceral adipose tissue—the metabolically active fat depot most strongly associated with cardiometabolic risk.

### 5.3 Metabolic Benefits Associated with Weight Loss

The clinical consequences of GLP-1 RA-mediated weight loss extend far beyond aesthetics. Even modest reductions of 5–7% of body weight meaningfully improve insulin sensitivity, lower blood pressure, improve the lipid profile, and reduce systemic inflammation. Greater weight losses of

10–15% can induce remission of T2DM in some patients, normalize blood pressure, reverse obstructive sleep apnea, and substantially reduce the risk of progression from prediabetes to diabetes. The STEP-1 trial demonstrated that nearly 70% of participants treated with semaglutide 2.4 mg achieved weight loss of 10% or more, a threshold associated with significant cardiometabolic benefits.

#### 5.4 Indications and Patient Selection

Regulatory agencies and clinical guidelines recommend GLP-1 RAs for obesity management in adults with a BMI of 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> or higher, or in those with BMI of 27 kg/m<sup>2</sup> or higher who have at least one weight-related comorbidity such as T2DM, hypertension, dyslipidemia, or obstructive sleep apnea. As with all chronic disease management, pharmacotherapy is most effective when combined with lifestyle interventions encompassing caloric restriction and increased physical activity. The two approaches are synergistic: behavioral changes enhance initial weight loss, while GLP-1 RA therapy helps maintain it by counteracting the compensatory increase in appetite that accompanies weight loss.

## VI. CARDIOVASCULAR BENEFITS: EVIDENCE FROM MAJOR TRIALS

### 6.1 Background and Regulatory Context

Following the 2008 FDA guidance mandating cardiovascular outcome trials (CVOTs) for all new antidiabetic agents, extensive evidence has accumulated on the cardiovascular effects of GLP-1 RAs. These large, rigorously designed trials—enrolling thousands of patients with T2DM at high cardiovascular risk—have provided robust data on a composite endpoint of major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE) comprising cardiovascular death, non-fatal myocardial infarction, and non-fatal stroke.

### 6.2 Summary of Key Cardiovascular Outcome Trials

The LEADER trial (Liraglutide Effect and Action in Diabetes: Evaluation of Cardiovascular Outcome Results) enrolled 9,340 patients with T2DM and high cardiovascular risk and followed them for a median of 3.8 years. Liraglutide reduced the primary composite MACE endpoint by 13% compared to placebo, with statistically significant reductions in cardiovascular mortality (hazard ratio 0.78) and all-cause mortality (HR 0.85). The SUSTAIN-6 trial demonstrated that once-weekly subcutaneous semaglutide reduced MACE by 26% versus placebo in 3,297 patients, driven primarily by a reduction in non-fatal stroke. The PIONEER-6 trial replicated these findings for oral semaglutide, showing a 21% reduction in MACE in patients followed for a median of 15.9 months.

The REWIND trial (Researching Cardiovascular Events with a Weekly Incretin in Diabetes), which uniquely enrolled patients with a relatively lower baseline cardiovascular risk profile (median HbA1c 7.2%, 31% without prior cardiovascular events), demonstrated that dulaglutide

reduced MACE by 12% over a median follow-up of 5.4 years, suggesting that cardiovascular benefits extend to patients beyond those with established disease. Meta-analyses of the GLP-1 RA CVOTs confirm an overall 12–14% reduction in MACE, with reductions in cardiovascular death (13%), non-fatal stroke (16%), and non-fatal myocardial infarction (9%).

### 6.3 Mechanisms of Cardiovascular Protection

The cardiovascular benefits of GLP-1 RAs likely reflect a combination of direct cardiac and vascular effects and indirect benefits mediated through improvements in metabolic risk factors. Direct effects include enhanced myocardial glucose uptake, reduced myocardial oxidative stress, improved endothelial function, anti-atherosclerotic actions, and natriuresis. Indirect benefits include reductions in body weight (decreasing cardiac preload and afterload), improvements in blood pressure and lipid profiles, and anti-inflammatory effects. Whether metabolic or direct vascular mechanisms predominate remains an active research question.

Importantly, meta-analyses have suggested that cardiovascular benefits are more pronounced in patients with preexisting atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease than in those with only risk factors, implying that the drugs may exert their greatest protective effects in the highest-risk populations.

## VII. EMERGING AND EXPANDED THERAPEUTIC APPLICATIONS

### 7.1 GLP-1 RAs and Hypertension

Hypertension is a near-universal comorbidity in patients with T2DM, driven by mechanisms including sodium retention from SGLT2 upregulation during hyperglycemia, insulin resistance-mediated renal sodium reabsorption, and intrarenal RAAS activation. GLP-1 RAs reduce blood pressure through multiple complementary mechanisms: increased natriuresis via NHE3 inhibition in the proximal tubule, RAAS suppression, vasodilation mediated by nitric oxide, and indirect effects from weight loss.

Clinically, GLP-1 RAs consistently lower systolic blood pressure by 2–6 mmHg, with smaller effects on diastolic pressure. The SURMOUNT-1 trial substudy demonstrated that tirzepatide reduced 24-hour ambulatory systolic blood pressure by 7.4 to 10.6 mmHg depending on dose. A transient and modest increase in heart rate (2–5 beats per minute) has been observed with GLP-1 RAs and is thought to reflect sympathetic nervous system activation, though this has not translated into adverse cardiovascular outcomes in long-term trials.

### 7.2 GLP-1 RAs and Dyslipidemia

Dyslipidemia in T2DM is characterized by elevated triglycerides, reduced HDL cholesterol, and a preponderance of small, dense LDL particles. GLP-1 RAs favorably modify this pattern by reducing hepatic very-low-density lipoprotein triglyceride synthesis, decreasing intestinal chylomicron output, modulating reverse cholesterol transport, and reducing hepatocyte de novo

lipogenesis. Clinical data demonstrate reductions of approximately 10–15% in triglycerides, 5–10% in LDL cholesterol, and modest increases in HDL cholesterol. These lipid-modifying effects contribute to the overall cardiovascular risk reduction observed in CVOTs.

### 7.3 GLP-1 RAs and Non-Alcoholic Steatohepatitis (NASH)

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and its inflammatory subtype NASH have become the most common chronic liver diseases globally, with a prevalence of 55–70% in patients with T2DM. Currently, no pharmacological agent is approved specifically for NASH, making the liver benefits of GLP-1 RAs particularly relevant. GLP-1 RAs reduce hepatic lipid accumulation by decreasing fat delivery to the liver, reducing hepatic de novo lipogenesis, and improving insulin sensitivity.

In clinical trials, liraglutide improved liver enzymes and histological markers of steatohepatitis in patients with T2DM and elevated alanine aminotransferase. The LEAN trial demonstrated that liraglutide induced NASH resolution in 39% of participants versus 9% with placebo in a biopsy-confirmed cohort. Semaglutide 0.4 mg daily produced NASH resolution in 59% of participants in a phase 2 trial by Newsome et al., though fibrosis regression did not reach statistical significance. These findings have generated significant interest in GLP-1 RAs as potential disease-modifying agents for NASH pending phase 3 confirmation.

### 7.4 Renal Protective Effects

GLP-1 RAs reduce albuminuria and may slow the progression of diabetic nephropathy through a combination of hemodynamic (reduced glomerular pressure, natriuresis) and metabolic (improved glycemic control, weight loss) effects, as well as direct anti-inflammatory and antioxidant actions in tubular cells. Meta-analyses of CVOTs report a 17% reduction in a broad composite kidney outcome, driven predominantly by a reduction in new-onset or worsening macroalbuminuria. Kidney protection is an emerging indication for GLP-1 RAs, though they are not yet approved specifically for this purpose.

### 7.5 Neurological and Cognitive Applications

Emerging research has explored the neuroprotective potential of GLP-1 RAs, motivated by the known association between T2DM and accelerated cognitive decline and dementia. GLP-1 receptors are expressed in dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra and hippocampal neurons, areas implicated in Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease, respectively. Animal studies have demonstrated that GLP-1 RAs reduce amyloid-beta accumulation, tau hyperphosphorylation, and neuroinflammation. Preliminary human trials of liraglutide and semaglutide in Parkinson's disease have shown encouraging but inconclusive results; larger definitive trials are ongoing. The connection between insulin resistance, impaired cerebral glucose metabolism, and neurodegeneration provides a plausible mechanistic rationale for these observations.

## VIII. SAFETY PROFILE AND ADVERSE EFFECTS

### 8.1 Gastrointestinal Effects

Gastrointestinal adverse effects are the most commonly reported with GLP-1 RAs and represent the primary reason for treatment discontinuation. Nausea occurs in 20–30% of patients, vomiting in 10–15%, and diarrhea in 10–20%, with these symptoms being most pronounced during the dose escalation phase and generally subsiding within 4–8 weeks of reaching the maintenance dose. The gastric emptying inhibition and central satiety signaling actions of GLP-1 RAs are directly responsible for these effects. Gradual dose escalation protocols—starting at the lowest available dose and increasing at 4-week intervals—significantly mitigate gastrointestinal tolerability issues. Dietary advice to consume small, frequent, low-fat meals and avoid trigger foods also reduces symptom burden.

### 8.2 Risk of Pancreatitis

Acute pancreatitis is a rare but potentially serious adverse effect associated with GLP-1 RA use. The biological basis for this association remains debated: GLP-1 receptors are expressed on pancreatic acinar cells, and sustained receptor stimulation may theoretically promote ductal hypertension or acinar cell proliferation. However, comprehensive analysis of CVOT data has not demonstrated a statistically significant increase in pancreatitis incidence with GLP-1 RAs compared to placebo. The FDA requires warnings about pancreatitis risk in the prescribing information for all GLP-1 RAs. Clinicians should advise patients to report severe, persistent abdominal pain, and GLP-1 RAs should be avoided in individuals with a personal or family history of pancreatitis.

### 8.3 Thyroid C-Cell Tumor Risk

Animal studies involving rodents exposed to GLP-1 RAs at suprapharmacological doses demonstrated an increased incidence of thyroid C-cell tumors (medullary thyroid carcinoma, MTC). The mechanism involves direct stimulation of GLP-1 receptors on C-cells, leading to calcitonin release and C-cell hyperplasia. However, rodents express GLP-1 receptors on thyroid C-cells at substantially higher densities than humans, and epidemiological evidence has not confirmed an elevated MTC risk in humans treated with GLP-1 RAs. Nonetheless, all GLP-1 RAs carry a black box warning contraindicating their use in patients with personal or family history of MTC or Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia syndrome type 2 (MEN2). Baseline and periodic calcitonin monitoring is not universally recommended but may be considered in higher-risk patients.

### 8.4 Other Adverse Effects

Gallbladder disease, including cholelithiasis and cholecystitis, occurs at a modestly elevated rate with GLP-1 RAs, likely because rapid weight loss increases biliary cholesterol saturation and reduces gallbladder motility. Injection site reactions (pain, erythema, nodularity) are generally mild and resolve spontaneously. A mild increase in resting heart rate has been consistently

observed but does not appear to translate into adverse cardiovascular outcomes. Hypersensitivity reactions, including angioedema and urticaria, are rare. Acute kidney injury secondary to GLP-1 RA-related dehydration from gastrointestinal fluid losses has been reported and underscores the need to monitor renal function and maintain adequate hydration, particularly during the initiation phase.

Table 3. Adverse Effect Profile of GLP-1 Receptor Agonists

Adverse Effect	Frequency	Severity	Management
Nausea	Very common (20–30%)	Mild–Moderate	Dose titration; small meals
Vomiting	Common (10–15%)	Mild–Moderate	Dose titration; hydration
Diarrhea	Common (10–20%)	Mild	Dietary modification
Constipation	Uncommon (5–10%)	Mild	Hydration; fiber intake
Injection site reaction	Common	Mild	Rotation of injection sites
Hypoglycemia (monotherapy)	Rare (<5%)	Mild	Usually not required
Acute pancreatitis	Rare (<1%)	Potentially serious	Discontinue; seek care
Gallbladder disease	Uncommon	Moderate	Monitor; surgical if needed
Tachycardia	Common (mild)	Mild	Monitor; usually resolves
Thyroid C-cell tumor	Unknown (animal data)	Theoretical	Contraindicated in MEN2/MTC
Acute kidney injury	Rare	Serious	Hydration; monitor renal function

## IX. LIMITATIONS OF GLP-1 RECEPTOR AGONIST THERAPY

### 9.1 Cost and Accessibility

The most significant practical barrier to GLP-1 RA therapy is cost. Monthly costs for branded GLP-1 RA formulations in high-income countries can range from US\$800 to US\$1,500 without insurance coverage, and considerably higher in markets where public insurance does not subsidize these agents. In low- and middle-income countries—which collectively bear the greatest burden of T2DM and obesity—GLP-1 RAs are often entirely unavailable or accessible only to a small

affluent minority. The disparity between the clinical potential of these agents and their real-world accessibility represents an urgent equity challenge for global diabetes care.

### 9.2 Route of Administration

With the exception of oral semaglutide, all currently approved GLP-1 RAs require subcutaneous injection, which is a barrier for needle-phobic patients, those with limited dexterity or visual impairment, and those without reliable access to proper disposal facilities. Oral semaglutide, while representing a genuine advance, has specific and cumbersome administration requirements that reduce its practical appeal: it must be taken fasting with 120 mL of plain water, and the patient must not eat or take other medications for at least 30 minutes. Multiple oral formulations are under development that may overcome these limitations.

### 9.3 Weight Regain After Discontinuation

A critical limitation of GLP-1 RA therapy—particularly for obesity management—is that its effects are not durable after discontinuation. Clinical trials have demonstrated that patients who stop GLP-1 RAs regain the majority of lost weight within 12 months, and glycemic parameters also deteriorate. This reinforces the conceptualization of obesity and T2DM as chronic conditions requiring long-term, potentially lifelong pharmacotherapy analogous to antihypertensive or lipid-lowering treatment. The psychological and financial implications of indefinite therapy must be openly discussed with patients during treatment initiation.

### 9.4 Contraindications and Unsuitable Populations

GLP-1 RAs are contraindicated in patients with personal or family history of MTC or MEN2, in those with a history of severe acute pancreatitis, and in pregnancy and breastfeeding. They are not effective in type 1 diabetes mellitus because their mechanism depends on residual endogenous insulin secretion from functioning beta-cells. Patients with active gastroparesis experience worsening of gastric stasis and are generally considered poor candidates. Severe gastrointestinal disorders may similarly preclude use. Careful patient selection using these criteria is essential to ensure the benefit-risk balance is favorable.

## X. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 10.1 Summary of Clinical Efficacy

The accumulated evidence from hundreds of clinical trials, meta-analyses, and real-world studies establishes GLP-1 receptor agonists as among the most multifunctional and beneficial drug classes in the modern pharmacopeia. Their comprehensive efficacy profile—encompassing glycemic control, weight reduction, blood pressure lowering, lipid modulation, and cardiovascular risk reduction—is unmatched by any single competing drug class.

Table 4. Summary of Key Clinical Outcomes with GLP-1 Receptor Agonist Therapy

Parameter	Observed Change	Clinical Significance
HbA1c reduction	0.8–1.5% decrease	Substantial glycemic improvement
Fasting blood glucose	~25% reduction	Reduced glucotoxicity
Postprandial glucose	~27% reduction	Cardiovascular risk benefit
Body weight	5–15% reduction	Improves insulin resistance
Systolic blood pressure	2–10 mmHg reduction	Reduced hypertensive burden
LDL cholesterol	5–15% reduction	Atherosclerosis protection
HDL cholesterol	5–20% increase	Cardioprotective
Triglycerides	10–25% reduction	Reduces metabolic syndrome risk
MACE (high CVD risk)	12–14% relative risk reduction	Mortality and event prevention
Albuminuria	~30% reduction	Renal protection signal
NASH resolution	40–60% (phase 2 data)	Potential hepatic disease-modifying effect

### 10.2 Comparative Position Among Drug Classes

When compared across the key dimensions of glycemic efficacy, weight effect, cardiovascular protection, renal benefit, and safety, GLP-1 RAs occupy a uniquely favorable position. They rival insulin in HbA1c-lowering potency while inducing weight loss rather than weight gain. They outperform sulfonylureas in durability, hypoglycemia risk, and long-term cardiovascular safety. They complement SGLT2 inhibitors through mechanistically distinct and potentially additive effects, making combination of the two classes a compelling strategy for high-risk patients. DPP-4 inhibitors, which act by preventing endogenous GLP-1 degradation, are cardiovascularly neutral and produce only modest weight effects, ranking below GLP-1 RAs on most clinically relevant parameters.

### 10.3 Long-Acting vs. Short-Acting Agents: Clinical Differentiation

The choice between short-acting (exenatide BID, lixisenatide OD) and long-acting (liraglutide OD, dulaglutide QW, semaglutide QW) agents should be individualized based on patient priorities. Short-acting agents, by profoundly inhibiting gastric emptying, are superior for postprandial

glucose control and may be preferred in patients whose primary glycemic challenge is postprandial hyperglycemia. Long-acting agents deliver more uniform GLP-1R stimulation throughout the day, producing greater overall HbA1c reduction, superior weight loss, and higher patient adherence due to less frequent dosing. For most patients, long-acting once-weekly formulations represent the current standard of care.

#### 10.4 Future Directions

The therapeutic horizon for GLP-1 RAs is expanding rapidly. Tirzepatide's dual GIP/GLP-1 agonism has already demonstrated superior glycemic and weight outcomes compared to selective GLP-1 RAs, setting a new benchmark. Triple agonists targeting GLP-1, GIP, and glucagon receptors simultaneously (retatrutide) are in advanced clinical trials with early data suggesting weight losses exceeding 20–24%. Non-peptide oral GLP-1 receptor agonists that do not require special administration conditions are in development. CNS-targeted formulations that maximize appetite suppression with minimal gastrointestinal side effects represent another avenue of innovation. Additionally, ongoing trials are expected to define more precisely the roles of GLP-1 RAs in NASH, chronic kidney disease, heart failure with preserved ejection fraction, Parkinson's disease, and non-diabetic obesity.

## XI. CONCLUSION

Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists have fundamentally transformed the therapeutic landscape for type 2 diabetes mellitus and obesity over the past two decades. By exploiting the natural incretin physiology of GLP-1 through structurally enhanced analogs, these agents achieve durable glycemic control, clinically meaningful weight reduction, and a broad constellation of cardiometabolic benefits that no previous drug class could offer simultaneously.

The evidence base supporting GLP-1 RA therapy is extensive and of high methodological quality, derived from large-scale randomized controlled trials enrolling tens of thousands of patients. Their glucose-dependent mechanism of action provides an inherent safety advantage with respect to hypoglycemia, and their organ-protective effects—cardiovascular, renal, and hepatic—extend their value well beyond glycemic management. Modern clinical guidelines rightly reflect this comprehensive benefit profile by recommending GLP-1 RAs as preferred agents in high-risk patients regardless of baseline HbA1c.

Challenges remain, most critically related to high drug costs and limited access in lower-resource settings, the injectable route of most formulations, and the requirement for continuous therapy to maintain benefits. Addressing these barriers—through biosimilar development, policy-level access improvements, and innovation in delivery platforms—will be essential to realize the full public health potential of this drug class.

Looking ahead, the trajectory of incretin-based therapy points toward even greater efficacy through multi-receptor agonism, broader indications spanning neurodegenerative disease and liver fibrosis, and more patient-friendly formulations. GLP-1 receptor agonists are not merely another class of antidiabetic drugs; they represent a paradigm-defining advance in the pharmacological management of metabolic disease, with implications for global health outcomes that are only beginning to be fully appreciated.

## REFERENCES

- [1] de Lemos JA, Linetzky B, le Roux CW, et al. Tirzepatide reduces 24-hour ambulatory blood pressure in adults with BMI  $\geq 27$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>: SURMOUNT-1 ambulatory blood pressure monitoring substudy. *Hypertension*. 2024;81:e41–e43.
- [2] Marso SP, Daniels GH, Brown-Frandsen K, et al. Liraglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in type 2 diabetes (LEADER Trial). *N Engl J Med*. 2016;375:311–322.
- [3] Marso SP, Bain SC, Consoli A, et al. Semaglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes (SUSTAIN-6). *N Engl J Med*. 2016;375:1834–1844.
- [4] Gerstein HC, Colhoun HM, Dagenais GR, et al. Dulaglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in type 2 diabetes (REWIND): a double-blind, randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2019;394:121–130.
- [5] Armstrong MJ, Adams LA, Canbay A, Syn WK. Extrahepatic complications of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Hepatology*. 2014;59:1174–1197.
- [6] Armstrong MJ, Houlihan DD, Rowe IA, et al. Safety and efficacy of liraglutide in patients with type 2 diabetes and elevated liver enzymes: individual patient data meta-analysis of the LEAD program. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*. 2013;37:234–242.
- [7] Malhotra K, Katsanos AH, Lambadiari V, et al. GLP-1 receptor agonists in diabetes for stroke prevention: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Neurol*. 2020;267:2117–2122.
- [8] Wang L, Wang W, Kaelber DC, Xu R, Berger NA. GLP-1 receptor agonists and colorectal cancer risk in drug-naive patients with type 2 diabetes. *JAMA Oncol*. 2024;10:256–258.
- [9] Zhang Z, Manson KF, Schiller D, Levy I. Impaired associative learning with food rewards in obese women. *Curr Biol*. 2014;24:1731–1736.
- [10] Hanssen R, Rigoux L, Kuzmanovic B, et al. Liraglutide restores impaired associative learning in individuals with obesity. *Nat Metab*. 2023;5:1352–1363.
- [11] Husain M, Birkenfeld AL, Donsmark M, et al. Oral semaglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes (PIONEER-6). *N Engl J Med*. 2019;381:841–851.
- [12] Kristensen SL, Rørth R, Jhund PS, et al. Cardiovascular, mortality, and kidney outcomes with GLP-1 receptor agonists in patients with type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis of cardiovascular outcome trials. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol*. 2019;7:776–785.
- [13] Giugliano D, Scappaticcio L, Longo M, et al. GLP-1 receptor agonists and cardiorenal outcomes in type 2 diabetes: an updated meta-analysis of eight CVOTs. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2021;20:189.

- [14] Lincoff AM, Brown-Frandsen K, Colhoun HM, et al. Semaglutide and cardiovascular outcomes in obesity without diabetes (SELECT). *N Engl J Med.* 2023;389:2221–2232.
- [15] Newsome PN, Buchholtz K, Cusi K, et al. A placebo-controlled trial of subcutaneous semaglutide in nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (LEAN). *N Engl J Med.* 2021;384:1113–1124.
- [16] Patel VJ, Joharapurkar AA, Shah GB, Jain MR. Effect of GLP-1 based therapies on diabetic dyslipidemia. *Curr Diabetes Rev.* 2014;10:238–250.
- [17] Wajdlich M, Nowicki M. The impact of GLP-1 receptor agonist liraglutide on blood pressure profile, hydration, natriuresis in diabetic patients with severely impaired kidney function. *Sci Rep.* 2024;14:5002.
- [18] Skov J. Effects of GLP-1 in the kidney. *Rev Endocr Metab Disord.* 2014;15:197–207.
- [19] Forst T, Weber MM, Pfützner A. Cardiovascular benefits of GLP-1-based therapies in patients with diabetes mellitus type 2. *Exp Diabetes Res.* 2012;2012:635472.
- [20] Zhou L, Qu H, Yang L, Shou L. Effects of GLP-1 RAs on pregnancy rate and menstrual cyclicity in women with polycystic ovary syndrome: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *BMC Endocr Disord.* 2023;23:245.
- [21] Younossi ZM, Henry L. Understanding the burden of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Diabetes Spectr.* 2024;37:9–19.
- [22] Chalasani N, Younossi Z, Lavine JE, et al. The diagnosis and management of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease: practice guidance from the AASLD. *Hepatology.* 2018;67:328–357.
- [23] Alexander JT, Staab EM, Wan W, et al. The longer-term benefits and harms of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Gen Intern Med.* 2022;37:415–438.
- [24] Lambadiari V, Pavlidis G, Kousathana F, et al. Effects of 6-month treatment with liraglutide on arterial stiffness and left ventricular myocardial deformation in subjects with newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes. *Cardiovasc Diabetol.* 2018;17:8.
- [25] Crajoinas RO, Oricchio FT, Pessoa TD, et al. Mechanisms mediating the diuretic and natriuretic actions of glucagon-like peptide-1. *Am J Physiol Renal Physiol.* 2011;301:F355–F363.