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Exploring the underlying mechanisms of drug-induced impulse control disorders: a pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic study

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1	Exploring the underlying mechanisms of drug-induced impulse
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36 Abstract

Introduction: Impulse control disorders (e.g., pathological gambling, hypersexuality) may develop as adverse reactions to drugs. Pathogenetic hypotheses have mainly focused on D3receptor agonism, and switching to alternatives with different pharmacologic mechanisms represents a common management strategy. Nonetheless, treatment failure is common and gaining pathophysiological insights is needed.

42 **Aim:** We aimed to identify targets potentially contributing to pathologic impulsivity.

- 43 **Method:** We performed a pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic study on dopamine agonists 44 and antipsychotics using the Food and Drug Administration Adverse Event Reporting System 45 (January 2004-December 2021). We estimated disproportionate reporting using the Bayesian 46 information component. Using online public databases (IUPHAR, ChEMBL, PDSP, 47 DrugBank), we calculated drug occupancies. To identify the targets potentially contributing to 48 impulsivity, we fitted univariate regression models interpolating information components and 49 occupancies within dopamine agonists and antipsychotics. Sensitivity analyses were performed 50 to check for the robustness of the results.
- **Results:** Among 19,887 reports of impulsivity, 5,898 recorded an antipsychotic, and 3,100 a dopamine agonist. The more robust signals concerned aripiprazole (N=3,091; median information component [95% confidence interval] = 4.51[4.45-4.55]) and brexpiprazole (229; 4.00[3.78-4.16]) for antipsychotics, pergolide (105; 5.82[5.50-6.06]) and pramipexole (2009; 5.43[5.36-5.48]) for dopamine agonists. Robust, significant positive associations between drug occupancy and impulsivity reporting were found for D3 within dopamine agonists (beta=1.52; p-value=0.047) and 5-HT1a within antipsychotics (1.92, 0.029).
- 58 **Conclusion:** Our results supported the role of D3-receptor agonism in inducing impulsivity in 59 dopamine receptor agonists and identified a potential role of 5-HT1a receptor agonism in 60 antipsychotics. Investigating these receptors may drive towards a better management of drug-61 induced impulsivity.
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63 **Keywords:** Disruptive, Impulse Control, and Conduct Disorders; Dopamine Agonists; Drug-

- 64 Related Side Effects and Adverse Reactions; Impulsive Behavior; Psychopharmacology
- 65

66 1. Introduction

Impulse control disorders (ICDs) are both idiopathic and drug-induced behavioral addictions¹ (e.g., pathological gambling, hypersexuality, compulsive shopping). Even if they manifest as willing acts aimed at gratification, in the beginning, they commonly turn into compulsions when left untreated², with juridical, psychosocial, and economic consequences. For example, due to pathological gambling, patients may steal money to persist in their addiction, lose their work, declare bankruptcy, divorce, and commit suicide. Despite their seriousness, no pharmacological option has still been approved to treat ICDs.

74 Drug-induced ICDs may develop with dopamine agonists used in Parkinson's disease, 75 prolactinoma, and restless leg syndrome³, but also with dopamine partial agonists used in schizophrenia and mood disorders^{4,5}. Recently, a nationwide registry-based study in Sweden 76 77 found a significantly higher frequency of gambling disorders in patients using dopamine 78 agonists compared to patients using other dopaminergic drugs (OR [95% CI] = 3.2 [1.4–7.6], 79 $p=0.008)^6$, and a pharmacovigilance study on the WHO spontaneous reporting system 80 investigated the association between dopaminergic agents and the reporting of ICDs⁷. These 81 drug classes have access to the brain to deliver their therapeutic action and partly overlap in 82 their pharmacodynamic profile, particularly on catecholaminergic pathways, which may 83 therefore be involved in ICDs development.

84 The ventral striatum and dopamine have a pivotal role in the gratification pathway, physiologically involved in craving fitness-improving behaviors and avoiding fitness-85 86 disruptive ones. In the ventral striatum, the tonic release of dopamine results in the binding of 87 D2, a Gi-protein coupled receptor inhibiting the indirect pathway and facilitating daily behaviors^{8,9}. When an appetitive stimulus preluding to gratification synchronizes the release of 88 89 dopamine by presynaptic neurons, resulting in a phasic burst of dopamine, high dose dopamine 90 also binds D1, a Gs-protein coupled receptor activating the direct way and promoting totalizing 91 gratification-driven behaviors^{10,11}.

Dopamine agonists, administered to compensate for the hypodopaminergic status in the degenerated dorsal striatum and to relieve motor symptoms in Parkinson's disease, may also cause a hyperdopaminergic status in the healthy ventral striatum and induce the dysfunctional drive characteristic of ICDs¹². In particular, the D3 receptor, similar to D2 but localized in the ventral striatum, is a preferential target of dopamine agonists¹³. Coherently, it is a common practice, when ICDs develop, to reduce the dose or switch from high to low D3-affinity dopamine agonists. Nonetheless, these strategies have proven a limited efficacy: in a

longitudinal study, only 50% of the patients improved after one year¹⁴. Furthermore, these 99 100 hypotheses do not exhaustively explain experimental data. In impulsive rats, the D2 and D3 101 receptors are reduced¹⁵, and a dopamine receptor antagonist can have opposite effects when injected into different portions of the ventral striatum¹⁶. In ICD patients with Parkinson's 102 103 disease, a gratification-preluding stimulus activates the ventral striatum increasing the release of endogenous dopamine^{17,18} and D3 receptors are reduced in the ventral striatum^{19,20}. The 104 105 hypothesis that ICDs develop due to the administration of exogenous dopamine agonists is not 106 entirely coherent with these findings, which instead suggested an indirect increase of dopamine 107 release in the ventral striatum.

Given the high failure rate of common practices for ICDs management¹⁴, together with the high risk of losing control over Parkinson's symptoms and the possibility of a withdrawal syndrome²¹, physicians might prefer not to switch to alternative therapies despite ICDs lifeimpacting sequelae.

112 In fact, many other neurotransmitters and neuroanatomical structures are involved in addictions²²⁻²⁵ and are targeted by dopamine agonists. Among this richness of molecular 113 114 targets, there is plausibly the key to better management of drug-related ICDs. Integrating 115 pharmacovigilance and pharmacodynamic data may help in the search for the pathogenetic mechanisms of drug-induced conditions^{26–40}. Therefore, we aim to generate novel hypotheses 116 117 on the underlying mechanistic basis of drug-induced ICDs. A more comprehensive 118 understanding of the role of other molecular targets would drive a more successful drug 119 switching in case of ICDs onset and may support the development and repurposing of 120 pharmacological treatments for ICDs.

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122 2. Methods

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2.1 Pharmacovigilance Data

We extracted pharmacovigilance data from the FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS), a spontaneous reporting system collecting worldwide reports of suspect adverse drug reactions. We downloaded quarterly data from January 2004 to December 2021 (<u>https://fis.fda.gov/extensions/FPD-QDE-FAERS/FPD-QDE-FAERS.html</u>), merged and cleaned them accordingly to previous works^{41,42}.

We selected *a priori* the drugs of interest based on the Anatomic Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification, identifying two populations of interest: a) reports recording the use of 131 dopamine agonists, included in the ATC categories N04BC (dopamine agonists for Parkinson's Disease) and G02CB (prolactin inhibitors); b) reports recording the use of antipsychotics, 132 133 included in the ATC category N05A. We identified ICD events in the reaction fields by 134 adapting a query from a previous work, including pathological gambling, hypersexuality, 135 paraphilic disorders, compulsive shopping, hyperphagia, pathological gaming, pyromania, kleptomania, hoarding disorder, excessive exercise, overwork, poriomania, body-focused 136 137 repetitive behaviors, and stereotypy⁴³ (see Supplementary Material – Table S1). This query is implemented in the Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities (MedDRA), used to code 138 139 both suspect reactions and reasons for use in the FAERS.

We compared ICD and non-ICD reports within antipsychotics and dopamine agonists, separately, to better characterize ICDs. We used the chi-square test for categorical variables and the Kruskal-Wallis test for continuous ones, correcting the p-values for multiple testing with Holm-Bonferroni. We considered statistically significant p-values lower than 0.05 after the correction.

Using a 2*2 contingency table, we calculated the Bayesian Information Component (IC) as a measure of disproportionate reporting of ICDs with a specific drug, against all other reports in the FAERS. A significant disproportion was defined as 95%CI lower bound of the IC higher than 0. IC allows to correct for small numbers of cases⁴⁴. Nonetheless, we set a precautionary threshold of ≥ 10 cases to perform disproportionality analysis.

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2.2 Pharmacodynamic Data

We extracted pharmacodynamic data using multiple databases publicly available online. To globally consider both pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic characteristics of the drugs investigated, we chose as main parameter the receptor occupancy: the percentage of binding sites of a molecular target forming a bond with the drug. Calculation of the occupancy was based on the following:

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$$f_{occ} = f([C_r]) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{K_i}{|C_r|}}$$

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$$160 \quad [C_r] = \frac{1000 \times F_u \times C_{max}}{M_r}$$

161

[formula 2]

[formula 1]

In order to estimate maximum concentrations in the blood (Cmax), we used therapeutic ranges 162 163 from the Consensus Guidelines for Therapeutic Drug Monitoring in 164 Neuropsychopharmacology⁴⁵. We then retrieved molecular weights (M_r) from the International Union of 165 basic and clinical PHARmacology (IUPHAR) 166 (https://www.guidetopharmacology.org) and fractions unbound (F_u) from DrugBank⁴⁶ to calculate the free-drug serum concentration (Cr, i.e., the concentration available for binding 167 168 receptors). To calculate the occupancy on each receptor for all the drugs of interest on the basis 169 of free-drug concentrations, we also needed receptor affinity measures (Ki). Because there are 170 inconsistencies between different databases concerning Homo sapiens Ki values, we 171 systematically extracted them according to an *a priori* hierarchical search: first in the IUPHAR, 172 in case of missing data in the European Bioinformatics Institute-ChEMBL⁴⁷, and only at last 173 in the Psychoactive Drug Screening Program (PDSP, at 174 https://pdsp.unc.edu/databases/kidb.php)⁴⁸. When multiple Ki values were reported in a 175 database, we calculated their geometrical mean. We did not restrict to a priori defined 176 receptors.

For a more informative visualization and the implementation of sensitivity analyses, we
retrieved drug activities (full agonist, partial agonist, antagonist, inverse agonist, not specified)
from DrugBank and, when not available, from IUPHAR.

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2.3 Pharmacovigilance-Pharmacodynamic Models

182 We developed linear regression models for antipsychotics and dopamine agonists, separately, to account for a plausible indication bias (i.e., despite the evidence of ICD occurrence in 183 184 Parkinson's disease, ICD symptoms are generally related to psychiatric conditions⁴⁹). For each 185 molecular target, we reported the occupancy on the x-axis and the IC on the y-axis. We fitted a univariate linear regression model to each plot if at least 3 specific drug-related occupancies 186 187 were available. Multivariate models considering multiple receptors were not performed 188 because the different drugs have different targets and missing data would invalidate the model. 189 We considered as plausible mechanisms those receptors with a p-value of the b coefficient 190 lower than 0.05. We did not apply any correction for multiple testing because of the hypothesis-191 generating nature of our study: missing a true association would have a higher cost than 192 including a spurious one. We plotted the regression line together with the 95% Confidence 193 Interval (CI) and the original points corresponding to the drugs under study (color-coded to 194 show different activities: full agonist, partial agonist, antagonist, inverse agonist).

Because many assumptions must be made in our models, we also implemented 4 sensitivity analyses to assess the robustness of the results, i.e., to check whether the model went in the same direction and was still significant across the analyses.

- a) Receptor occupancy is considered the best way to approximate drug-receptor activity.
 However, given the multiple data required for the calculation, the risk of missing data
 is high. Therefore, we used pKi values, instead of occupancy, to decrease the proportion
 of missing data.
- b) Drugs may have different actions on the receptor and may therefore be classified, at
 least, as agonist, antagonist, partial agonist, and inverse agonist agents. Thus, an agonist
 and an antagonist with the same affinity may have opposite effects. To take this into
 account, we reversed the sign of receptor occupancy for antagonist and inverse agonist
 drugs. Drugs for which we were not able to retrieve the activity were excluded from
 these models.
- c) Because linear regression models are very sensitive to outliers, we assessed the
 robustness of the relationship by excluding outliers from the sensitivity analysis b).
- d) Finally, following the hypothesis of shared receptors in the development of drug induced ICDs, we repeated the sensitivity analysis b) considering antipsychotic and
 anti-Parkinson's agents together. We estimated a mixed-effects regression model with
 a random intercept for drug class to account for potential differences between
 antipsychotic and anti-Parkinson's classes.
- The sensitivity analyses a), b), and c) were performed separately by drug class. Each emerging relationship was defined as highly robust if supported (significant and same direction after correcting for activity) by all the sensitivity analyses, as robust if supported by at least two over four sensitivity analyses, and as non-robust if supported by less than two sensitivity analyses.
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- 221
- 222 2.4 Statistical tools

All data-preprocessing, statistical analyses and visual representations were obtained using R
version 4.1.2 (2021-11-01).

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3. Results

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3.1 Pharmacovigilance Data

228 First, we needed to obtain the measures of disproportionate reporting. We cleaned the 229 FAERS and retrieved 19,887 ICD reports (0.17%), with pathological gambling and 230 hypersexuality being the most reported ICD conditions in both antipsychotics and dopamine 231 agonists (see Figure S1). Antipsychotics were reported in 5,898 (29.66%) ICD reports, with 232 the three MedDRA preferred terms most reported as reasons for use being bipolar disorder 233 (1324, 30.98%), major depression (1133, 26.51%), and schizophrenia (939, 21.97%). 234 Dopamine agonists were reported in 3,100 (15.59%) ICD reports, with the main reasons for 235 use being Parkinson's disorder (1550, 59.75%), restless leg syndrome (880, 33.92%), and 236 prolactin-producing pituitary tumor (49, 1.89%). Other drugs reported as primary suspects in 237 ICD reports were antidepressants (1942, 9.77%), antiepileptics (1325, 6.66%), and 238 psychostimulants (1213, 6.10%).

239 Within the two populations (i.e., dopamine agonist reports and antipsychotic reports, see 240 Supplementary Material – Table S2-S3), ICD reports were characterized by a significantly 241 higher proportion of men (50.58% vs 47.56% in antipsychotics; 59.90% vs 39.46% in 242 dopamine agonists) and younger age (median[Q1-Q3] = 42 [29-55] years vs 50 [34-64] in 243 antipsychotics; 56 [48-65] vs 66 [55-75] in dopamine agonists). Lower proportions of deaths 244 (2.05% vs 12.20% in antipsychotics; 2.42% vs 7.62% in dopamine agonists) and higher of 245 disability (9.60% vs 1.95%; 4.42% vs 2.26%) were also reported. The onset of ICDs was earlier 246 for antipsychotics (median[Q1-Q3] = 31 [1-366] days, on 1,871 available time to onset data) 247 than for dopamine agonists (214 [24-731] days, on 662 available time to onset data). 248 Dopamine-agonist related ICDs, compared to antipsychotic-related ICDs, also had higher 249 contribution by men (59.90% vs 50.58%) and older people (56 [48-65] vs 42 [29-55] years 250 old). Finally, the 254 ICD cases recording the use of both dopamine agonists and antipsychotics 251 (Table S4) shared the characteristics of ICDs occurring with dopamine agonists (men 60.00%, 252 age 56 [45-67], but were more similar to ICDs occurring with antipsychotics in the lawyer 253 contribution (15.29%) and the reported disability rate (8.27%), and the reported hospitalization 254 rate (42.13%) was substantially higher than when developing ICDs with dopamine agonists 255 (16.84%) or antipsychotics (32.50%).

Significant and non-significant results of the disproportionality analysis (information
 component, IC) were reported in Supplementary Material – Table S5-S6 and in Supplementary
 Material section B. On 66 antipsychotics, 33 with ≥10 cases, we obtained 32 statistical signals,

the strongest (i.e., signals with the highest lower extremity of the 95%CI of the IC) being aripiprazole (N = 3,091; median IC [95%CI] = 4.51[4.45-4.55]), brexpiprazole (N = 229; 4.00[3.78-4.16]), and cariprazine (N = 49; 3.02[2.54-3.36]). On 12 dopamine agonists, 9 with ≥ 10 cases, we obtained 9 statistical signals, the strongest being pergolide (N = 105; 5.82[5.50-6.06]), pramipexole (N = 2009; 5.43[5.36-5.48]), and piribedil (N = 48; 5.01[4.53-5.36]).

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3.2 Pharmacodynamic Data

266 Using pharmacokinetic public online databases, due to missing therapeutic range data, we obtained free-drug serum concentration for 19/32 antipsychotics and 5/9 dopamine agonists 267 268 disproportionally reported with ICDs. We then integrated K_i receptor affinity measures to 269 calculate the occupancies. Twenty receptors had at least 3 available antipsychotics-related 270 occupancies (5-hydroxytryptamine receptor 5-HT, types 1a/2a/2b/2c/6/7; dopamine receptor 271 D, types 1/2/3/4/5; histamine receptor H, types 1/2; adrenergic receptor A, type 2c; serotonin 272 transporter SERT; muscarinic receptor M, types 1/2/3/4/5) and 7 receptors had at least 3 273 available dopamine agonists-related occupancies (5-HT, types 1a/2a; D types 1/2/3/4/5). Single 274 parameters are available in the Supplementary Material – Table S5-S6.

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3.3 Pharmacovigilance-Pharmacodynamic Models

277 To identify the relationship between each drug receptor occupancy and its ICD 278 disproportionate reporting, we performed univariate linear regression models (see 279 Supplementary Material – Table S7) and four sensitivity analyses (see Supplementary Material 280 - Table S8). In the main analysis, we found two significant positive associations between 281 occupancy and reporting of ICDs (median IC): 5-HT1a-receptor agonism showed a highly 282 robust positive association with the reporting of ICDs within antipsychotics ($\beta = 1.924$, p = 283 0.029, $R^2 = 0.307$); D3-receptor agonism showed a robust positive association with the 284 reporting of ICDs within dopamine agonists ($\beta = 1.516$, p = 0.047, $R^2 = 0.707$) (see Figure 1). 285 Within antipsychotics, we also observed negative associations with antagonism on three receptors: D1-receptor antagonism ($\beta = -2.511$, p = 0.014, R² = 0.603) and M3-receptor 286 287 antagonism ($\beta = -2.129$, p = 0.025, R² = 0.997) showed to be robust hypotheses at the sensitivity analyses; M4-receptor antagonism ($\beta = -1.951$, p = 0.029, R² = 0.914) showed to be non-robust. 288 289

4. Discussion

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4.1 Pathogenetic hypotheses for drug-induced ICDs

Pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic studies are a novel pharmacoepidemiologic 292 293 approach to investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying adverse drug reactions, 294 especially in those therapeutic areas involving active substances that vary greatly in characteristics and targets³³. For example, they were recently applied to investigate the 295 296 antipsychotic-induced hyponatremia³⁴, pathogenesis of pneumonia²⁷, diabetes³⁵. 297 Parkinsonism³⁷. Our pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic analysis is the first study aimed at 298 evaluating the association between ICDs and the pharmacodynamic profile of anti-Parkinson 299 and antipsychotic dopaminergic agents.

300 From the main analyses, two key findings emerged, including novel mechanistic 301 hypotheses: 1) D3 receptor occupancy and agonism in dopamine agonists, and 5-HT1a receptor 302 occupancy and agonism in antipsychotics were significantly associated with a higher reporting 303 of ICDs; 2) D1, M3, M4 receptor occupancy and antagonism in antipsychotics were 304 significantly associated with a lower reporting of ICDs (see Figure 2). Activity on the 5-HT1a 305 receptor showed the highest robustness, being confirmed in all four disproportionality analyses. 306 The other receptors were supported by at least two disproportionality analyses, apart from M4, 307 which found no further support. Other receptors emerged only from the sensitivity analyses 308 and may therefore constitute less robust hypotheses.

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4.2 The potential contribution by D3-receptor agonism

As anticipated, the association between D3-receptor agonism and the development of dopamine agonists-related ICDs has already been established and impacts clinical practice¹³, even if per se it cannot fully explain accruing evidence. D3 is a receptor of the D2-subfamily, involved in facilitating movements and behaviors through the inhibition of the indirect pathway, but with a preferential location in the ventral striatum⁵⁰. The association we found between D3-receptor agonism and ICD development or precipitation is, therefore, coherent with accrued evidence and has already been implemented in the clinics.

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4.3 The potential protective role of D1-receptor antagonism

For the first time, we put forward a potential protective role of D1-receptor antagonism,
which is biologically plausible. The D1 receptor is a widely expressed Gs-protein coupled

receptor, particularly localized in the prefrontal area and ventral striatum^{10,51}. Since dopamine
 activity on D1, activating the direct pathway, physiologically promotes totalizing reward driven behaviors, D1-receptor antagonism plausibly suppresses craving and protects against
 ICDs.

326 Coherently, in patients with Parkinson, Positron Emission Tomography (PET) 327 approaches have indicated decreased D2R binding and relatively unchanged D1R binding in 328 the ventral striatum in those affected by ICD compared with patients without ICDs⁵². 329 Furthermore, Erga et al. identified an increased risk of ICDs in patients with gene 330 polymorphisms in the 5' untranslated region (UTR) of the DRD1 gene, which encodes the dopamine receptor D1⁵¹. Other polymorphisms in DRD1 have been linked to ICDs, 331 332 neuropsychiatric disease, problem gambling, addiction, and cognitive functioning in non-PD populations^{53,54}. 333

Even if previously underestimated, the potential involvement of D1 in the precipitation of ICDs and the potential protective role of D1-receptor antagonism are thus biologically plausible and need to be further investigated.

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4.4 The potential contribution by 5-HT1a-receptor agonism

The role of 5-HT1a, whose association with ICDs reporting was consistent in all the analyses performed within antipsychotics and in the mixed-effects model, has been neglected so far. Serotonin has an important role in modulating reward-driven behaviors, but the mechanism is still unclear⁵⁵. Among theories so far developed, the core idea ascribes an inhibitory role on ventrotegmental dopamine neurons, avoiding that the pursuit of negligible rewards precludes the acquirement of greater rewards. In particular, they would activate ventrotegmental GABAergic interneurons through 5-HT2c, a Gq-protein coupled receptor⁵⁶.

346 5-HT1a is a G_i-protein coupled autoreceptor localized in the dorsal raphe that, when 347 activated, inhibits the serotonergic projections to the ventrotegmental area. Therefore, it may 348 potentially contribute to the development of ICDs by inhibiting the serotonergic pathway 349 usually involved in impulse control, resulting in an increased motivational drive. Indeed, its agonism, particularly at low doses, was observed to induce-reward-driven behaviors⁵⁷; 5-350 HT1a-receptor agonism has been found to induce impulsivity in mice^{58,59} and rats^{60–62}; 5-HT1a-351 352 receptor antagonism reduces impulsivity in rats⁶³; 5-HT1A gene polymorphisms bring susceptibility in humans^{64,65}. 353

Therefore, we believe that our hypothesis including 5-HT1a-receptor agonism as one of the main pathogenetic mechanisms of iatrogenic ICDs is promising and deserves to be further investigated.

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4.5 The potential protective role of M3 and M4-receptors antagonism

359 Finally, also M3 and M4 receptors have been so far neglected when investigating drug-360 induced ICDs. However, they are important in the aversion-driven blockade of behaviors that 361 oppose reward. Data on aversive stimuli and reward omission (e.g., from the amygdala, lateral 362 habenula, laterodorsal tegmentum, and pedunculopontine nucleus) converge into the 363 rostromedial tegmental nucleus and modulate the activity of GABAergic neurons that inhibit tegmental dopaminergic neurons and behaviors⁶⁶. The laterodorsal and 364 ventral 365 pedunculopontine neurons, in particular, contribute with cholinergic input that, through the 366 post-synaptic muscarinic G_q-protein coupled receptor M3, activates the GABAergic neurons 367 and inhibits behaviors. Acetylcholine also starts negative feedback mediated by the presynaptic muscarinic Gi-protein coupled receptor M4, which reduces acetylcholine release, and 368 369 therefore contrasts the acetylcholine-mediated activation of GABAergic neurons⁶⁷. Therefore, 370 it is biologically plausible that M4 receptor antagonism, impairing this negative feedback, may 371 reduce ventrotegmental neurons activity and protect against ICDs. The protective role of M3-372 receptor antagonism is instead more difficult to explain since, in theory, it should result in 373 lower GABAergic activity and facilitated behaviors. Nonetheless, the M3 receptor subtype is 374 only one activating rostromedial tegmental GABAergic neurons, and its incapacitation does 375 not directly result in the facilitation of reward-driven behaviors. The ability of M3-receptor 376 antagonism to predict ICDs development may indeed be associated with a shared affinity for 377 M3 and M4 receptors, rather than with an effective protective role of M3-receptor antagonism.

Coherently, even if tropicamide, an M4-receptor antagonist, was observed to induce reward-driven behaviors in mice⁶⁷, muscarinic receptor antagonism has shown fewer risktaking behaviors in rats⁶⁸, and mice lacking M4 in cholinergic receptors were unable to learn positive reinforcement⁶⁹. Nonetheless, contrary to the literature, it should be noted that no sensitivity analysis supported the role of M4. It is therefore unclear whether M4-receptor antagonism is a mechanism that should be further investigated in the attempt to understand and manage ICDs.

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386 4.6 Strengths and limitations

Because of the many limitations of pharmacovigilance and the lack of consensus for pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic studies, our study design is only intended to generate hypotheses, and the preliminary results we obtained should not directly influence clinical practice. Nonetheless, we implemented multiple sensitivity analyses to assess the robustness of our results when adopting different strategies.

392 Spontaneous reports are often unverified, duplicated, influenced by reporting biases, and 393 disproportionality measures may go out of scale in the presence of few cases. In particular, 394 spontaneous reporting systems are likely affected by reporting biases, including 395 underreporting. Further, for ICDs, also overreporting is a non-negligible phenomenon: while 396 contributions by patients and their families make spontaneous reporting systems a preferential 397 source of information about stigmatized psychosocial conditions such as ICDs, these reports 398 are usually unverified and may be submitted for personal interests. For example, 22.43% of 399 antipsychotic-related ICD reports were submitted by lawyers and may have been driven by law 400 court reasons rather than by a proper causality assessment. Furthermore, to retrieve cases of 401 interest, we have to rely only on the information provided with the report and a proper 402 assessment following diagnostic criteria cannot be performed. We retrieved the cases based 403 only on the reporting of a behavioral addiction in the event field assuming that an event, to be 404 reported, must have an impact on the life of the patient. For these reasons, disproportionality 405 analyses can only be used to generate hypotheses and cannot provide incidence measures. To 406 partly account for these biases, we pre-processed the FAERS for duplicates removal, used a 407 threshold of 10 cases, and calculated the Bayesian IC, correcting for small numbers⁴⁴, as a 408 measure of disproportionate reporting.Pharmacodynamic databases have the problems of 409 missing data, multiple affinity values (i.e., different in the choice of parameters and 410 competitor), and duplicates. We performed a systematic collection of affinity data, gathering 411 affinities from the most reliable database (IUPHAR if possible, otherwise ChEMBL and 412 PDSP), excluding plausible duplicates, and performing the geometrical mean in case of 413 multiple values.

Because of the limited number of drugs investigated and because of missing pharmacodynamic data, we performed univariate linear regression models. However, in the presence of more complete data, other models might be more appropriate to visualize the relationship between receptor-activity and adverse drug reactions. 418 Other aspects must be kept in mind. The nature of this study is hypotheses-generating, and 419 no clinical application should be considered before preclinical and clinical validation is 420 performed. It is also plausible that no single receptor may alone explain ICDs development, 421 and that ICD management requires considering multiple molecular targets. Many receptors may interact, both with their individual activity and as heterodimers^{70,71}, with different 422 423 receptors being the main responsible in distinct drug classes. Synaptic plasticity, e.g., involving 424 NMDA receptors, may play an important role in habit learning and in the conversion from 425 impulsive to compulsive phenotypes⁷². Finally, not all patients administered with these drugs 426 develop ICDs, and future studies will also need to consider disease factors and patient-related 427 susceptibility.

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4.7 Further Directions

430 Our results are preliminary, and we advocate the use of preclinical and clinical studies to 431 investigate whether and how iatrogenic ICDs arise. In our opinion, to better elucidate these 432 mechanisms, it is necessary to study in vivo effects of 5-HT1a agonists. According with this 433 hypothesis, the use of selective serotonin 5-HT1a receptor biased agonists, still not approved 434 for human use, may be useful to specifically activate intracellular pathways that are only 435 exhibited by dorsal raphe neurons⁷³, therefore acting only on 5-HT1a plausibly involved in disinhibition. Also, the observation of behavioral changes (e.g., pervasive feeding, 436 437 hypersexuality) may be more easily referred to impulse control disorders than the many tasks used to investigate impulsivity in isolation-retained animal models⁷⁴. Furthermore, the 438 439 pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic analysis could be extended to epidemiological data (i.e., 440 interpolating occupancy and incidence). Of note, a similar approach was performed on 441 epidemiological data limited to ICDs induced by dopamine agonists and found a potential role of D3 consistent with our results¹³. It would be useful to repeat this study focusing on 442 443 antipsychotics, possibly assessing personal susceptibility to ICDs before and after drug 444 administration.

445

446 4.8 Conclusion

We combined global pharmacovigilance data with receptor occupancies to identify emerging targets associated with drug-induced ICDs. Our results support the role of D3receptor agonism in inducing ICDs with dopamine receptor agonists used in Parkinson's disease and identified a potential role of 5-HT1a-receptor agonism for antipsychotics. Antagonism at D1, M3 and M4 receptors may be further investigated as potentially protecting from ICDs by antipsychotics. Further preclinical and clinical studies should investigate whether and how these receptors interact in defining the risk of drug-induced ICDs. Clarifying the mechanistic basis of ICDs may drive drug repurposing and development towards a more effective and safer management.

456

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458 Part of the results will be presented at the SIF (Società Italiana di Farmacologia) 2022, to be
459 held in Rome on the 16th-19th of November 2022.
460

- 461 6. Disclosure Statement
- 462 **Conflict of interest**: The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- 463 Data availability: The pharmacovigilance data we used comes from the FDA Adverse Event Reporting
 464 System, and is made publicly available by the FDA as quarterly data downloadable at
 465 <u>https://fis.fda.gov/extensions/FPD-QDE-FAERS/FPD-QDE-FAERS.html</u>. The pharmacokinetic 466 pharmacodynamic data comes from publicly available sources referred to in the text.
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- 469

470 7. Author contributions

MF, VG, VB, MG, CC, ER, EP conceived the project and confronted with methodological issues. MF,
VG, VB, MG wrote the original draft of the manuscript. MF, VG, VB, MG acquired the data. MF, VG
preprocessed the data, carried out the analyses and implemented data visualization. CC, ER, EP
supervised the project. All the authors read, revised, contributed to the interpretation of results, and
approved the final version.

476 8. Figure legends

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Figure 1 Association between activity on D3 and 5-HT1a and reporting of impulse control disorders. Sensitivity analysis b, considering different activities. Linear models were built separately for antipsychotics (above) and dopamine agonists (below). Drugs were color-coded to show their activity. IC (Information Component) 95%CI was shown for each drug.

 Figure 2 Pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic based hypotheses on iatrogenic ICDs' pathogenesis. Created with BioRender.com 484 	481	
	483	Figure 2 Pharmacovigilance-pharmacodynamic based hypotheses on iatrogenic ICDs' pathogenesis. Created with BioRender.com

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