

Lumateperone in the Treatment of Schizophrenia: A Review

Gabrielle T. Robinson, BS¹ and Altaf S. Darvesh, MPharm, PhD^{2,3*}

1. *Basic and Translational Biomedicine Program, College of Graduate Studies, Northeast Ohio Medical University, Rootstown, OH 44272*
2. *Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, College of Pharmacy, Northeast Ohio Medical University, Rootstown, OH 44272*
3. *Department of Psychiatry, College of Medicine, Northeast Ohio Medical University, Rootstown, OH 44272*

* *Corresponding Author*

ABSTRACT

Schizophrenia is a devastating mental illness that afflicts about 1% of the world's population. This illness distorts a person's perception of reality and consists of positive symptoms such as hallucinations and delusions, negative symptoms such as inattention and withdrawal, and cognitive deficits. Antipsychotic drugs are primarily used for the pharmacotherapy of schizophrenia. In this article, we provide a succinct review of a recently approved novel antipsychotic, lumateperone. We present an overview and history of schizophrenia, its symptoms, epidemiology, etiology, and pathophysiology. The classification of antipsychotic agents as first and second-generation based on their receptor affinity is discussed. The review focuses on describing the background, development, receptor pharmacology, mechanism of action, pharmacokinetics, clinical trials, adverse effects, therapeutic uses, and future prospects of lumateperone.

Keywords: antipsychotic, atypical, lumateperone, schizophrenia, 5-HT_{2A} serotonin receptor

INTRODUCTION

Schizophrenia

Schizophrenia, a severe mental disorder of unknown etiology, afflicts about 1% of the global population.¹ In 2019, the World Health Organization reported over 20 million cases of schizophrenia globally.² The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5) currently defines schizophrenia as the presence of two or more of the following symptoms: delusions, hallucinations, disorganized speech, grossly disorganized or catatonic behavior, and diminished emotional expression with the symptoms being present for a significant portion of time during a 1-month period. At least one of these symptoms must be delusions, hallucinations, or disorganized speech.³ Schizophrenia has a history, stemming back as early as the 19th century when the French psychiatrist, Bénédict Augustin Morel, first coined the term 'démence précoce'. This term would later evolve into the term 'dementia precox' by the renowned German psychiatrist Emil Kraepelin. It was in 1908 that the Swiss psychiatrist, Eugen Bleuler,

created the term 'schizophrenia' to replace the term 'dementia precox'.^{4,5}

Schizophrenia symptoms are primarily classified as positive and negative in nature. Positive symptoms, primarily experienced during a psychotic episode, include delusions, hallucinations, and disorganized thoughts, speech, and behavior. Negative symptoms, which are deficits in normal emotional response, are anhedonia (inability to experience pleasure), avolition (inability to initiate and persist in goal directed activities), apathy (lack of interest, enthusiasm, or concern), blunted affect, and social withdrawal. Patients with schizophrenia also show cognitive deficits such as impaired working memory, decreased verbal fluency, and decreased abilities in reasoning and problem solving.^{3,6}

Although the etiology of schizophrenia is unclear, several risk factors have been implicated in the pathogenesis of this chronic debilitating mental illness. Schizophrenia is classified as a neurodevelopmental disorder with no known precise cause. Schizophrenia is thought to develop from complex gene-environment interactions. Environmental risk factors such as

childhood trauma, stress, pregnancy complications, nutritional deficiencies; genetic and hereditary factors and family history; as well as structural abnormalities such as hypofrontality (decreased blood flow in the prefrontal cortex) have all been implicated in the development of schizophrenia.^{7,8}

The pathophysiology of schizophrenia is extremely complex, and there is no single theory that can explain the pathogenesis of this mental illness.⁹

Role of neurotransmitters in schizophrenia

The dopamine dysregulation hypothesis has been fundamental in the development of antipsychotic medications. The hypothesis states that excessive dopaminergic activity in the mesolimbic pathway contributes to positive symptoms such as hallucinations and delusions. Hypodopaminergic activity in the mesocortical pathway may contribute to negative symptoms such as apathy and anhedonia. Besides dopamine, dysfunction in other neurotransmitter systems such as glutamatergic, serotonergic, cholinergic, and GABA-ergic systems have also been implicated in the pathogenesis of schizophrenia.^{10,11}

Neurodevelopmental model of schizophrenia

The neurodevelopmental aspects in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia have been extensively studied using techniques such as imaging and using biomarkers. Risk factors include prenatal infection, inflammation, malnutrition, and stress.

Studies have found significant anatomical alternations in several brain structures of high-risk youth. It is hypothesized that abnormal neuronal pruning of neurons, altered communication, and decreased neuronal connectivity, contribute to the development of schizophrenia.^{12,13}

Genetic factors in schizophrenia

The role of genetic contribution and heritability in the development of schizophrenia has been widely studied. First-degree relatives of patients with schizophrenia have a 10% risk of developing the disease. This risk increases to 40% when both parents have schizophrenia. About 40% identical twins of patients with schizophrenia are affected. There is no particular “schizophrenia gene” that has been identified, and research continues in the area. A genetic burden may combine with environmental and social factors to trigger symptoms.¹⁴

Antipsychotics

Antipsychotic medications are classified as typical and atypical agents. Typical antipsychotics, which were introduced earlier, are also known as first generation antipsychotics (FGAs), and atypical agents, introduced later, are known as second generation antipsychotics (SGAs). Both classes of antipsychotics significantly differ in mechanism of action, adverse effect profile, and receptor pharmacology.^{15,16} (Table 1) FGAs, such as chlorpromazine, thioridazine,

Antipsychotics	Adverse effect	Mechanism of action
Typical Antipsychotics (FGAs)		
Chlorpromazine	Akathisia	Antagonism of dopamine D ₂ receptors
Thioridazine	Dystonia	
Fluphenazine	Tardive dyskinesia	
Trifluoperazine	Drug-induced Parkinsonism	
Haloperidol		
Atypical Antipsychotics (SGAs)		
Clozapine	Agranulocytosis, weight gain, diabetes, lipid abnormalities	Antagonism of dopamine D ₂ and serotonin 5-HT _{2A} receptors
Olanzapine	Weight gain, diabetes, lipid abnormalities	
Quetiapine	Sedation	
Risperidone	Movement disorders	
Ziprasidone	Cardiac arrhythmias	

Table 1. Mechanism of action and adverse effects of antipsychotics

and haloperidol, are primarily dopamine D2 receptor antagonists. FGAs block the dopaminergic mesolimbic pathway and are effective in the management of positive symptoms. FGAs produce movement disorders known as extrapyramidal symptoms (EPS), pseudoparkinsonism, or drug-induced Parkinsonism by blocking the dopaminergic nigrostriatal pathway. FGAs produce EPS such as akathisia (motor restlessness), dystonia (abnormal repetitive twisting muscle movements), and tardive dyskinesia (involuntary abnormal facial movements).¹⁷ FGAs also elevate prolactin levels due to inhibition of the dopaminergic tuberoinfundibular pathway which regulates prolactin secretion. Typical antipsychotic-induced hyperprolactinemia is associated with amenorrhea, osteoporosis, and increased risk for developing breast cancer.¹⁸

Clozapine was the first SGA that was developed followed by other SGAs, such as olanzapine and risperidone. The atypicality of SGAs arises from their antagonist properties at the D2 receptor, which improves positive symptoms, as well as the antagonism of serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptor. Blockade of the 5-HT_{2A} receptors in the dopaminergic mesocortical pathways enhances dopamine levels and improves negative symptoms. Thus, SGAs are effective in improving both positive and negative symptoms of schizophrenia. Besides the D2 and 5-HT_{2A} receptors, SGAs also display antagonism at a multitude of other dopaminergic, serotonergic, muscarinic, and histaminergic receptors. SGAs produce several serious adverse effects such as diabetes, obesity, and cardiac disturbances.^{19,20}

In this review, we describe the background, development, receptor pharmacology, mechanism of

action, pharmacokinetics, clinical trials, adverse effects, therapeutic uses, and future prospects of lumateperone.

LUMATEPERONE

Lumateperone was developed by Intra-Cellular Therapies, New York, NY, primarily for the treatment of schizophrenia with potential use in other neuropsychiatric disorders such as major depressive disorders and bipolar disorder. Lumateperone was called ITI-007 during its development phase, both pre-clinical studies, and clinical trials. Based on the clinical data, the FDA approved lumateperone for the treatment of schizophrenia in adults in December 2019. Lumateperone, branded as Caplyta®, was available in February 2020 and is administered in capsule form at a daily dose of 42 mg.^{21,22,23,24}

Structure

Lumateperone, similar to haloperidol, is derived from a butyrophenone core (Figure 1A, 1B, 1C). The IUPAC name for lumateperone is 1-(4-fluorophenyl)-4-(4-methyl-1,4,12-triazatetracyclo[7.6.1.0⁵,16.0¹⁰,15]hexadeca-5,7,9(16)-trien-12-yl)butan-1-one, and it has a molecular formula of C₂₄H₂₈FN₃O and a molecular weight of 393.5. Lumateperone is formulated as a tosylate salt to provide stability to the medication. Lumateperone tosylate has an IUPAC name 1-(4-fluorophenyl)-4-[(10R,15S)-4-methyl-1,4,12-triazatetracyclo[7.6.1.0⁵,16.0¹⁰,15]hexadeca-5,7,9(16)-trien-12-yl]butan-1-one;4-methylbenzenesulfonic acid; its molecular formula is C₃₁H₃₆FN₃O₄S and a molecular weight of 565.7.^{24,25,26}

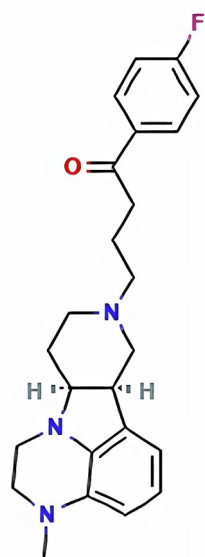


Figure 1A. Structure of lumateperone tosylate⁴³

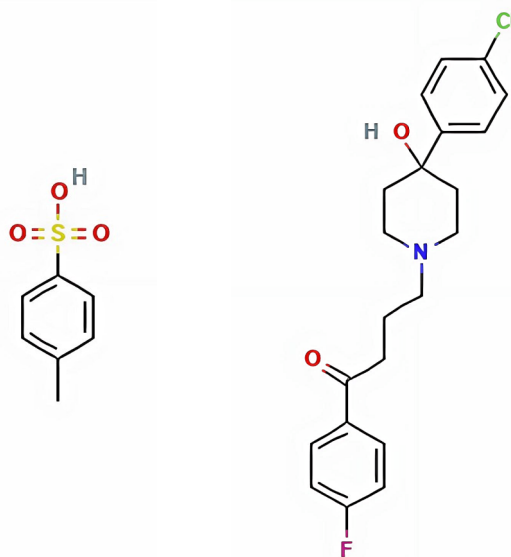


Figure 1B. Structure of haloperidol⁴⁴

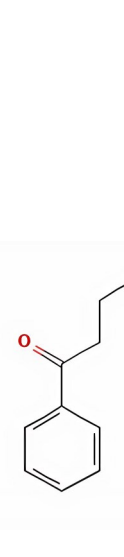


Figure 1C. Structure of butyrophenone⁴⁵

Figure 1. Comparison of the structures of lumateperone and haloperidol with their butyrophenone core

Pharmacology

Lumateperone is an atypical antipsychotic, and similar to other SGAs, has antagonist properties at both the D2 and 5-HT_{2A} receptors. Lumateperone has high binding affinity for the 5-HT_{2A} receptors and displays moderate binding affinity for the D1 and D2 receptors. It has low binding affinity for adrenergic α_1 and histaminergic H₁ receptors.^{27,28,29} Lumateperone has a 60-fold higher affinity for the 5-HT_{2A} receptor compared to the D2 receptor.^{28,29,30,31} The high 5-HT_{2A} / D2 binding ratio, a characteristic of SGAs, contributes to improvement of negative symptoms.³² It acts as a presynaptic partial agonist and a postsynaptic antagonist at the D2 receptor. This pharmacological effect of decreased presynaptic release of dopamine and postsynaptic D2 receptor blockade significantly dampens dopaminergic signaling and thus improves positive symptoms.²⁸ Lack of binding to muscarinic and histaminergic receptors results in fewer adverse effects associated with muscarinic and histaminergic antagonism in several other antipsychotics.²⁷ Lumateperone causes increased phosphorylation of the N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor GluN2B subunit which results in indirect glutamatergic activation.²⁷ Lumateperone inhibits the serotonin reuptake transporter (SERT) which may produce antidepressant effects and also contribute to improvement of negative symptoms.²⁵

Comparison of receptor binding affinity of lumateperone with other antipsychotics

The receptor binding of lumateperone is compared with two other SGAs, risperidone³³ and olanzapine³⁴, and a FGA, haloperidol,³⁵ in Table 2. For drug-receptor binding, the smaller the inhibitory constant (K_i), the greater the binding affinity and the smaller amount of medication needed in order to inhibit the activity of that receptor. Lumateperone has robust binding to the 5-HT_{2A} receptor, which is comparable to both the SGAs listed in Table 2. Lumateperone shows moderate binding at the D2 receptor similar to

olanzapine. This accounts for decreased EPS in lumateperone and olanzapine therapy. Risperidone can cause significant EPS due to strong binding at the D2 receptor comparable to haloperidol. Lumateperone's antidepressant potential is due to its binding at SERT, which is not present in the other antipsychotic agents. In summary, Lumateperone's therapeutic efficacy and safety are due to its robust binding at the 5-HT_{2A} receptor, moderate binding at the D2 receptor, inhibition of SERT, and lack of muscarinic and histaminergic binding. Lumateperone does not cause movement disorders observed with FGAs. Lumateperone does not produce serious adverse effects produced by SGAs such as agranulocytosis, weight gain, diabetes, lipid abnormalities, and cardiac arrhythmias. Lumateperone also is effective in management of both positive and negative symptoms and also improves cognition.^{36,37}

Safety

Lumateperone displays a favorable safety profile due to its receptor binding profile.³⁶ In clinical trials, it was well tolerated and did not display the adverse motor effects nor the metabolic, endocrine, and cardiovascular effects typically associated with other FGAs and SGAs.^{38,39} Some common adverse effects of lumateperone are headache, dizziness, sedation, fatigue, nausea, constipation, and vomiting. Lumateperone was not clinically studied in patients older than 65 years old and is not recommended for the treatment of dementia-related psychosis.^{25,26,38,39}

Pharmacokinetics

Lumateperone is rapidly absorbed after oral absorption, and displays high lipophilicity, which increases its passage through the blood brain barrier. Peak plasma concentration is achieved in 1-2 hours and steady state concentration is achieved in about 5 days. Lumateperone has a bioavailability of about 4% and is 97.4% protein bound. About 58% of lumateperone is excreted in urine as water soluble glucuronide metabolites. Less than 1% of unmetabolized drug is

Drug	Receptors						
	D ₁	D ₂	5HT _{2A}	SERT	α_1	α_2	H ₁
Lumateperone	41 nM	32nM	0.54 nM	62 nM	<100 nM	N/A	>1000 nM
Risperidone	N/A	3.13 nM	0.16 nM	>1000 nM	0.8 nM	7.54 nM	2.23 nM
Olanzapine	11 nM	31 nM	4 nM	>1000 nM	19 nM	N/A	7.0 nM
Haloperidol	83 nM	nM	N/A	N/A	N/A	3 nM	N/A

N/A- no significant binding / binding data not available

Table 2. Comparison of inhibitory constant (K_i) of lumateperone with other antipsychotics

excreted in the urine and 29% is excreted in the feces.^{38,39}

Lumateperone is a substrate for the enzymes Cytochrome P450 3A4 (CYP3A4) and Uridine 5'-diphospho-glucuronosyltransferase (UGT), and thus there is potential for drug-drug, drug-food, and drug-herb interactions. Lumateperone should not be taken with CYP3A4 inducers such as the anticonvulsant, carbamazepine, and the herbal supplement, St. John's wort, as they would reduce the plasma concentrations of the drug. Lumateperone is also contraindicated with CYP3A4 inhibitors, such as the antidepressant, fluvoxamine, and grapefruit juice, as they would lead to an increase in plasma levels of the drug and increase the chances for toxicity. Drugs known to be UGT inhibitors such as the anticonvulsant, valproic acid, should not be used with lumateperone.^{38,39}

Clinical Trials

Lumateperone was clinical evaluated to study its therapeutic effectiveness and potential adverse effects. Two clinical trials were conducted to determine the efficacy and safety of lumateperone are discussed in this section.

NCT01499563

This clinical trial was a phase II multicenter study that compared placebo and risperidone (4 mg), as positive control, with two doses of ITI-007 (lumateperone tosylate) (60 mg and 120 mg) which are equivalent to 42 mg and 84 mg of lumateperone being used to determine effects of ITI-007 on psychosis. The study was conducted from December 2011 to November 2013. The study was conducted in a randomized double-blind manner in a 1:1:1:1 fashion. A total of 355 acutely psychotic patients were enrolled into the study.

Inclusion Criteria:

- “Patient's age is 18-55
- Patient has current diagnosis of schizophrenia and is experiencing an acute exacerbation of psychosis
- Patient has a history of at least three months exposure to one or more antipsychotic therapy(ies) and a prior response to antipsychotic therapy within the previous five years”⁴⁰

Exclusion Criteria:

- “Any female patient who is pregnant or breast-feeding
- Any patient presenting with concurrent dementia, delirium, mental retardation, epilepsy, drug-induced psychosis, or history of significant brain trauma
- Any patient presenting with schizoaffective disorder, bipolar disorder, acute mania, or major

depression with psychotic features

- Any patient considered to be an imminent danger to themselves or others
- Any patient with hematological, renal, hepatic, endocrinological, neurological, or cardiovascular disease or substance abuse as defined by protocol
- Any patient judged by the investigator to be inappropriate for the study”⁴⁰

The medication and placebo were administered once daily for 28 days. The primary end point was the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (PANSS). There was a significant difference between placebo and ITI-007 (60 mg). Risperidone also showed a significant difference compared to placebo. ITI-007 (120 mg) did not show any statistically significant difference compared to placebo. A subgroup of patients with symptoms of depression were evaluated with the Calgary Depression Scale for Schizophrenia (CDSS). Only ITI-007 (60 mg) showed a significant difference compared with placebo for the depression symptoms.⁴⁰

NCT02282761

This phase III clinical trial compared placebo with two doses of ITI-007 (lumateperone tosylate), 40 and 60 mg, which are equivalent to 28 and 48 mg of lumateperone base. This clinical study was conducted from November 2014 to September 2015. 450 patients with schizophrenia were enrolled in this study in a randomized, double-blind, 1:1:1 fashion.

Inclusion Criteria:

- “Patient's age is 18-60
- Patient has a clinical diagnosis of schizophrenia
- Patient is male or female of any race
- Patient is experiencing an acute exacerbation of psychosis”⁴¹

Exclusion Criteria:

- “Any female patient who is pregnant or breast-feeding
- Any patient unable to provide informed consent
- Any patient judged by the Investigator to be inappropriate for the study.”⁴¹

The patients were administered medication or placebo once daily for a period of 28 days. The primary end point was the PANSS. ITI-007 (60 mg) showed a significant difference compared to placebo for PANSS while the lower dose of 40 mg did not. Both doses of ITI-007 showed significant difference compared to placebo for secondary end points, Clinical Global Impression-Severity of Illness (CGI-S) scores, and the general psychopathology subscale scores.⁴¹

Overall, lumateperone showed efficacy in improving symptoms of schizophrenia as well as depression symptoms and also demonstrated a superior safety profile in both aforementioned clinical trials.

CONCLUSION

Schizophrenia is an extremely complex and debilitating mental illness with poorly elucidated pathophysiology. The pharmacotherapy of schizophrenia is beset with serious and life-threatening adverse effects such as movement disorders, agranulocytosis, weight gain, diabetes, and cardiac arrhythmias. Thus, there exists a critical need for the development of newer antipsychotic agents with an improved therapeutic and safety profile. The receptor pharmacology of antipsychotic agents is well characterized and is linked to their therapeutic and adverse effects. This knowledge is advantageous in the development of newer antipsychotics

Lumateperone is one of the newly developed atypical antipsychotics in recent years. It has significantly higher binding affinity to the 5-HT_{2A} receptor and moderate binding at the D₂ receptor. It has a good safety profile and has been shown to be devoid of any significant motor, metabolic, endocrine, and cardiovascular adverse effects. It has been shown to be effective in the management of schizophrenia symptoms. Lumateperone's ability to inhibit SERT contributes to its ability to manage negative and depression symptoms. Lumateperone was approved by the FDA for the treatment of bipolar depression in December 2021.⁴² Since the drug has been on the market for less than three years, there are no studies evaluating any possible long-term effects of lumateperone.

REFERENCES

- Javitt DC. Balancing therapeutic safety and efficacy to improve clinical and economic outcomes in schizophrenia: a clinical overview. *Am J Manag Care*. 2014;20(8 Suppl):S160-S165.
- World Health Organization. Schizophrenia Fact Sheet. Available at <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/schizophrenia>. Updated 2022. Accessed April 26, 2022.
- American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 5th ed. (DSM-5). Washington, DC.; 2013.
- Adityanjee A, Aderibigbe YA, Theodoridis D, Vieweg VR. Dementia praecox to schizophrenia: the first 100 years. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci*. 1999;53(4):437-448. doi:10.1046/j.1440-1819.1999.00584.x
- Yuhas D. Throughout History, Defining Schizophrenia Has Remained a Challenge [Timeline]. *Scientific American Mind and Brain*. <https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/throughout-history-defining-schizophrenia-has-remained-challenge/>. Published March 1, 2013. Accessed April 27, 2022
- Andreasen NC, Nopoulos P, Schultz S, et al. Positive and negative symptoms of schizophrenia: past, present, and future. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl*. 1994;384:51-59. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0447.1994.tb05891.x.
- Khan ZU, Montanez-Martin E, Muly EC. Schizophrenia: causes and treatments. *Curr Pharm Des*. 2013;19(36):6451-6461. doi:10.2174/1381612811319360006
- Stilo SA, Murray RM. Non-Genetic Factors in Schizophrenia. *Curr Psychiatry Rep*. 2019;21(10):100. doi:10.1007/s11920-019-1091-3
- Owen MJ, Sawa A, Mortensen PB. Schizophrenia. *Lancet*. 2016;388(10039):86-97. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)01121-6
- McCutcheon RA, Abi-Darghan A, Howes OD. Schizophrenia, Dopamine and the Striatum: From Biology to Symptoms. *Trends Neurosci*. 2019;42(3):205-220. doi:10.1016/j.tins.2018.12.004
- Grace AA. Dysregulation of the dopamine system in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia and depression. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2016;17(8):524-532. doi:10.1038/nrn.2016.57
- Price AJ, Jaffe AE, Weinberger DR. Cortical cellular diversity and development in schizophrenia. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2021;26(1):203-217. doi:10.1038/s41380-020-0775-8
- Upthegrove R, Khandaker GM. Cytokines, Oxidative Stress and Cellular Markers of Inflammation in Schizophrenia. *Curr Top Behav Neurosci*. 2020;44:49-66. doi:10.1007/7854_2018_88
- Giegling I, Hosak L, Mössner R, et al. Genetics of schizophrenia: a consensus paper of the WFSBP task force on genetics. *World J Biol Psychiatry*. 2017;18(7):492-505. doi:10.1080/15622975.2016.1268715
- Meltzer HY. Update on typical and atypical antipsychotic drugs. *Annu Rev Med*. 2013;64:393-406. doi:10.1146/annurev-med-050911-161504

16. Chokhawala K, Stevens L. Antipsychotic Medications. In: *StatPearls*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; September 26, 2022.
17. Musco S, Ruckert L, Myers J, et al. Characteristics of Patients Experiencing Extrapyramidal Symptoms or Other Movement Disorders Related to Dopamine Receptor Blocking Agent Therapy. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*. 2019;39(4):336-343. doi:10.1097/JCP.0000000000001061
18. Rajkumar RP. Prolactin and psychopathology in schizophrenia: a literature review and reappraisal. *Schizoph Res Treat*. 2014;2014:1-12. doi:10.1155/2014/175360
19. Aringhieri S, Carli M, Kolachalam S, et al. Molecular targets of atypical antipsychotics: From mechanism of action to clinical differences. *Pharmacol Ther*. 2018;192:20-41. doi:10.1016/j.pharmthera.2018.06.012
20. Kearns B, Copper K, Cantrell A, Thomas C. Schizophrenia Treatment with Second-Generation Antipsychotics: A Multi-Country Comparison of the Costs of Cardiovascular and Metabolic Adverse Events and Weight Gain. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat*. 2021;17:125-137. doi:10.2147/NDT.S282856
21. Intra-Cellular Therapies. FDA approves intra-cellular therapies' novel antipsychotic, CAPLYTA® (lumateperone) for the treatment of schizophrenia in adults. Intracellular Therapies Inc. <https://ir.intracellulartherapies.com/news-releases/news-release-details/fda-approves-intra-cellular-therapies-novel-antipsychotic>. Published Dec 23, 2019. Accessed November 26, 2021.
22. Davis RE, Correll CU. ITI-007 in the treatment of schizophrenia: from novel pharmacology to clinical outcomes. *Expert Rev of Neurother*. 2016;16(6):601-614. doi: 10.1080/14737175.2016.1174577
23. Kane JM, Durgam S, Satlin A, et al. Safety and tolerability of lumateperone for the treatment of schizophrenia: a pooled analysis of late-phase placebo- and active-controlled clinical trials. *Int Clin Psychopharmacol*. 2021;36(5):244-250. doi:10.1097/YIC.0000000000000371
24. Greenwood J, Acharya RB, Marcellus V, Rey JA. Lumateperone: A Novel Antipsychotic for Schizophrenia. *Ann of Pharmacother*. 2021;55(1):98-104. doi:10.1177/1060028020936597
25. Vyas P, Hwang BJ, Brašić JR. An evaluation of lumateperone tosylate for the treatment of schizophrenia. *Expert Opin Pharmacother*. 2020;21(2):139-145. doi:10.1080/14656566.2019.1695778
26. Syed AB, Brasic JR. The role of lumateperone in the treatment of schizophrenia. *Ther Adv Psychopharmacol*. 2021;11:1-14. doi:10.1177/20451253211034019
27. Snyder GL, Vanover KE, Davis RE, et al. A review of the pharmacology and clinical profile of lumateperone for the treatment of schizophrenia. *Adv Pharmacol*. 2021; 90:253-276. doi:10.1016/bs.apha.2020.09.001
28. Vanover KE, Davis RE, Zhou Y, et al. Dopamine D2 receptor occupancy of lumateperone (ITI-007): a Positron Emission Tomography Study in patients with schizophrenia. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2019;44(3):598-605. doi:10.1038/s41386-018-0251-1
29. Edinoff A, Wu N, deBoisblanc C, et al. Lumateperone for the Treatment of Schizophrenia. *Psychopharmacol Bull*. 2020;50(4):32-59.
30. Correll CU, Davis RE, Weingart M, et al. Efficacy and Safety of Lumateperone for Treatment of Schizophrenia. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2020;77(4):349-358. doi:10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2019.4379
31. Meyer JM. Lumateperone for Schizophrenia. *Curr Psychiatry*. 2020;19(2):33-39.
32. Corponi F, Fabbri C, Bitter I, et al. Novel antipsychotics specificity profile: A clinically oriented review of lurasidone, bexiprazole, cariprazine, and lumateperone. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol*. 2019;29(9):971-985. doi:10.1016/j.euroneuro.2019.06.008
33. Fenton C, Scott LJ. Risperidone. *CNS Drugs*. 2005;19(5):429-444. doi: 10.2165/00023210-200519050-00005.
34. Callaghan JT, Bergstrom RF, Ptak LR, Beasley CM. Olanzapine. Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic profile. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 1999;37(3):177-193. doi:10.2165/00003088-199937030-00001
35. Peprah K, Zhu XY, Eyunni SV, et al. Multi-receptor drug design: Haloperidol as a scaffold for the design and synthesis of atypical antipsychotic agents. *Bioorg Med Chem*. 2012;20(3):1291-1297. doi:10.1016/j.bmc.2011.12.019

36. Orsolini L, De Berardis D, Volpe U. Up-to-date expert opinion on the safety of recently developed antipsychotics. *Expert Opin Drug Safe*. 2020;19(8):981-998. doi: 10.1080/14740338.2020.1795126
37. Calabrese JR, Durgam S, Satlin A, et al. Efficacy and Safety of Lumateperone for Major Depressive Episodes Associated With Bipolar I or Bipolar II Disorder: A Phase 3 Randomized Placebo-Controlled Trial. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2021;178(12):1098-1106. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2021.20091339
38. Intra-Cellular Therapies Inc. Caplyta (lumateperone) capsules for oral use (package insert). New York. <https://www.intracellulartherapies.com/> Accessed January 07, 2023.
39. Blair HA. Lumateperone: First Approval. *Drugs*. 2020;80(4):417-423. doi: 10.1007/s40265-020-01271-6
40. ClinicalTrials.gov. U.S. National Library of Medicine. Study of a Novel Antipsychotic ITI-007 in Schizophrenia. <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/results/NCT01499563>. Updated March 10, 2017. Accessed February 15, 2022.
41. Clinical Trials.gov. U.S. National Library of Medicine. A Trial to Assess the Antipsychotic Efficacy of ITI-007. <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT02282761>. Updated March 10, 2017. Accessed February 16, 2022.
42. Intra-cellular Therapies Inc. Cellular therapies announces U.S. FDA approval of CAPLYTA® (lumateperone) for the treatment of bipolar depression in adults: Intra-Cellular Therapies Inc. <https://ir.intracellulartherapies.com/news-releases/news-release-details/intra-cellular-therapies-announces-us-fda-approval-caplytar>. Published Dec 20, 2021. Accessed February 17, 2022.
43. National Center for Biotechnology Information. PubChem Compound Summary for CID 44241743, Lumateperone Tosylate. <https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/lumateperone-Tosylate>. Accessed October 24, 2022.
44. National Center for Biotechnology Information. PubChem Compound Summary for CID 3559, Haloperidol. <https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/Haloperidol>. Accessed October 24, 2022.
45. National Center for Biotechnology Information. PubChem Compound Summary for CID 10315, Butyrophenone. <https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/Butyrophenone>. Accessed October 24, 2022.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to gratefully acknowledge the valuable insight and opinions provided by Dr. Takhar Kasumov, Dr. Woo Shik Shin, and Dr. Chris Paxos.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

All authors declare no conflicts of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Review Writing: GR

Editing: AD