

Dopamine pathway and Parkinson's risk variants are associated with levodopa-induced dyskinesia

Yuri L. Sosero, MD,^{1,2}, Sara Bandres-Ciga, PhD,³, Bart Ferwerda, PhD,⁴, Maria T. P. Tocino, MSc,^{5,6}, Diaz R. Belloso, MD,^{5,6}, Pilar Gómez-Garre, PhD,^{5,6}, Johann Faouzi, PhD,^{7,8}, Pille Taba, MD,⁹, Lukas Pavelka, MD,^{10,11}, Tainà M. Marques, PhD,¹⁰, Clarissa P. C. Gomes, PhD,¹², Alexey Kolodkin, PhD,¹⁰, Patrick May, PhD,^{10,11}, Lukasz M Milanowski, MD, PhD,^{13,14}, Zbigniew K. Wszolek, MD,¹⁴, Ryan J. Uitti, MD,¹⁴, Peter Heutink, PhD,¹⁵, Jacobus J. van Hilten, MD, PhD,¹⁶, David K. Simon, MD, PhD,¹⁷, Shirley Eberly, MSc,¹⁸, Ignacio Alvarez, MSc,¹⁹, Lynne Krohn, PhD,^{1,2}, Eric Yu, MSc,^{1,2}, Kathryn Freeman, BSc,^{1,2}, Uladzislau Rudakou, MSc,^{1,2}, Jennifer A. Ruskey, MSc,^{2,20}, Farnaz Asayesh, MSc,^{2,20}, Manuel Menéndez-González, MD,^{21,22,23}, Pau Pastor, MD, PhD,^{19,24}, Owen A. Ross, PhD,¹⁴, Rejko Krüger, MD,^{10,11,12}, on behalf of the NCER-PD Consortium, Jean-Christophe Corvol, MD, PhD,⁸, Sulev Koks, MD, PhD,^{25,26}, Pablo Mir, MD, PhD,^{5,6,27}, Rob M.A. De Bie, MD, PhD,²⁸, Hirotaka Iwaki, MD, PhD,^{3,29,30}, Ziv Gan-Or, MD, PhD,^{1,2,20}, on behalf of the International Parkinson's Disease Genomic Consortium

Affiliations

1. Department of Human Genetics, McGill University, Montréal, QC, Canada.
2. The Neuro (Montreal Neurological Institute-Hospital), McGill University, Montréal, QC, Canada.
3. Center for Alzheimer's and Related Dementias (CARD), National Institute on Aging and National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, National Institutes on Health, Bethesda, MD, USA
4. Department of Clinical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Amsterdam UMC, University of Amsterdam, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, The Netherlands
5. Unidad de Trastornos del Movimiento, Servicio de Neurología y Neurofisiología Clínica, Instituto de Biomedicina de Sevilla, Hospital Universitario Virgen del Rocío/CSIC/Universidad de Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain.
6. Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red sobre Enfermedades Neurodegenerativas (CIBERNED), Madrid, Spain
7. Sorbonne Université, Paris Brain Institute – ICM, Inserm, CNRS, Assistance Publique Hôpitaux de Paris, Department of Neurology, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Paris, France
8. CREST, ENSAI, Campus de Ker-Lann, 51 Rue Blaise Pascal – BP 37203 35172 Bruz Cedex, France
9. Department of Neurology and Neurosurgery, Institute of Clinical Medicine, University of Tartu, Tartu 50406, Estonia
10. Transversal Translational Medicine, Luxembourg Institute of Health (LIH), Strassen, Luxembourg
11. Centre Hospitalier de Luxembourg (CHL), Strassen, Luxembourg
12. Translational Neuroscience, Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine (LCSB), University of Luxembourg, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg
13. Department of Neurology Faculty of Health Science, Medical University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland
14. Department of Neurology, Mayo Clinic Florida, Jacksonville, Florida, USA
15. German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE)
16. Department of Neurology, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden

NOTE: This preprint reports new research that has not been certified by peer review and should not be used to guide clinical practice.

17. Department of Neurology, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center and Harvard Medical School
18. Department of Biostatistics and Computational Biology at the University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry
19. Department of Neurology, Hospital Universitari Mutua de Terrassa, Barcelona, Spain
20. Department of Neurology and Neurosurgery, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada
21. Facultad de Medicina y Ciencias de la Salud, Universidad de Oviedo, Calle Julián Clavería s/n, 33006 Oviedo, Spain
22. Department of Neurology, Hospital Universitario Central de Asturias, Avenida Roma s/n, 33011 Oviedo, Spain
23. Instituto de Investigación Sanitaria del Principado de Asturias, Avenida Roma s/n, 33011 Oviedo, Spain
24. Unit of Neurodegenerative Diseases, Department of Neurology, University Hospital Germans Trias i Pujol and The Germans Trias i Pujol Research Institute (IGTP) Badalona, Barcelona, Spain
25. Centre for Molecular Medicine and Innovative Therapeutics, Murdoch University, Murdoch, Australia
26. Perron Institute for Neurological and Translational Science, Nedlands, Australia
27. Departamento de Medicina, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain.
28. Department of Neurology and Clinical Neurophysiology, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam Neuroscience, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands
29. Laboratory of Neurogenetics, National Institute on Aging, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA
30. Data Tecnica International, Washington, District of Columbia, USA

Corresponding author:

Ziv Gan-Or

Montreal Neurological Institute,

McGill University

1033 Pine Avenue, West,

Ludmer Pavilion, room 312,

Montréal, QC, H3A 1A1

Phone: +1-514-398-5845,

E-mail: ziv.gan-or@mcgill.ca

Keywords: levodopa-induced dyskinesia, Parkinson's disease, dopamine, *GBA1*, *LRRK2*

Word count: 2904

Running title: Genetics of risk and time of dyskinesia

Funding sources

This work was financially supported by the Michael J. Fox Foundation, Parkinson's Society Canada, the Canadian Consortium on Neurodegeneration in Aging (CCNA), and the Canada First Research Excellence Fund (CFREF), awarded to McGill University for the Healthy Brains for Healthy Lives (HBHL) program.

Disclosures

Financial Disclosures and Conflict of Interest

ZGO has received consulting fees from Lysosomal Therapeutics Inc., Idorsia, Prevail Therapeutics, Denali, Ono Therapeutics, Neuron23, Handl Therapeutics, UBC, Bial Biotech Inc., Bial, Deerfield, Guidepoint, Lighthouse and VanquaBio. None of these companies were involved in any parts of preparing, drafting and publishing this study. ZKW is partially supported by the NIH/NIA and NIH/NINDS (1U19AG063911, FAIN: U19AG063911), Mayo Clinic Center for Regenerative Medicine, the gifts from the Donald G. and Jodi P. Heeringa Family, the Haworth Family Professorship in Neurodegenerative Diseases fund, and The Albertson Parkinson's Research Foundation. He serves as PI or Co-PI on Biohaven Pharmaceuticals, Inc. (BHV4157-206) and Vigil Neuroscience, Inc. (VGL101-01.002, VGL101-01.201, PET tracer development protocol, Cfths1r biomarker and repository project, and ultra-high field MRI in the diagnosis and management of CSF1R-related adult-onset leukoencephalopathy with axonal spheroids and pigmented glia) projects/grants. He serves as Co-PI of the Mayo Clinic APDA Center for Advanced Research and as an external advisory board member for the Vigil Neuroscience, Inc., and as a consultant on neurodegenerative medical research for Eli Lilly & Company.

Financial Disclosures for the previous 12 months:

The authors declare that there are no additional disclosures to report.

Abstract

Background: Levodopa-induced dyskinesia (LID) is a common adverse effect of levodopa, one of the main therapeutics used to treat the motor symptoms of Parkinson's disease (PD). Previous evidence suggests a connection between LID and a disruption of the dopaminergic system as well as genes implicated in PD, including *GBAI* and *LRRK2*.

Objectives: To investigate the effects of genetic variants on risk and time to LID.

Methods: We performed a genome-wide association study (GWAS) and analyses focused on *GBAI* and *LRRK2* variants. We also calculated polygenic risk scores including risk variants for PD and variants in genes involved in the dopaminergic transmission pathway. To test the influence of genetics on LID risk we used logistic regression, and to examine its impact on time to LID we performed Cox regression including 1,612 PD patients with and 3,175 without LID.

Results: We found that *GBAI* variants were associated with LID risk (OR=1.65, 95% CI=1.21-2.26, $p=0.0017$) and *LRRK2* variants with reduced time to LID onset (HR=1.42, 95% CI=1.09-1.84, $p=0.0098$). The fourth quartile of the PD PRS was associated with increased LID risk (OR_{fourth_quartile}=1.27, 95% CI=1.03-1.56, $p=0.0210$). The third and fourth dopamine pathway PRS quartiles were associated with a reduced time to development of LID (HR_{third_quartile}=1.38, 95% CI=1.07-1.79, $p=0.0128$; HR_{fourth_quartile}=1.38, 95% CI=1.06-1.78, $p=0.0147$).

Conclusions: This study suggests that variants implicated in PD and in the dopaminergic transmission pathway play a role in the risk/time to develop LID. Further studies will be necessary to examine how these findings can inform clinical care.

Introduction

Levodopa is one of the most commonly administered therapies for Parkinson's disease (PD), particularly to treat motor symptoms.¹ However, as the disease progresses and patients are exposed to long-term levodopa therapy, a significant proportion develops levodopa-induced dyskinesia (LID), a debilitating side effect characterized by involuntary, uncontrolled, and often choreiform movements.² LID is estimated to affect around 40-50% of PD patients within 4-6 years of initiating levodopa therapy,^{3,4} however, a subset of them manifests LID also within the first year of the therapy,⁵ demonstrating the broad variability of LID risk and onset. The most widely accepted pathophysiologic hypothesis suggests that LID development is connected with a pulsatile stimulation of the dopamine receptors in the nucleus striatum.⁶ This phenomenon occurs due to the progressive dopaminergic loss in PD, resulting in impaired presynaptic storage capacity of dopamine, and is exacerbated by elevated doses of levodopa.⁶⁻⁸ Other pathways have also been implicated in LID development, including the glutamatergic, serotonergic and noradrenergic neural circuits.^{7,8}

Multiple environmental risk factors affecting LID have been identified, including levodopa dosage and duration of the therapy, use of dopamine agonists, PD age at onset (AAO), disease duration and severity, female sex and lower body mass index (BMI).⁹⁻¹³ Most of the suggested genetic risk factors for LID are related to the dopamine pathway, including genes encoding the dopamine receptors, especially *DRD2* and *DRD3*,¹⁴⁻¹⁶ the dopamine transporter *SLC6A3*,^{17,18} or enzymes that metabolize dopamine and are targeted by PD therapeutics,^{19,20} catechol-O-methyltransferase (*COMT*)²¹⁻²³ and monoamine oxidases A and B (*MAOA*, *MAOB*).²²⁻²⁴ Interestingly, variants in *GBA1* and *LRRK2*, among the most frequent genetic risk factors for PD,^{25,26} have also been identified as potential risk factors for LID.²⁷⁻³² Carriers of *GBA1* and *LRRK2* variants show distinctive clinical presentations in PD, with *GBA1* variants being associated with a more rapidly progressive PD with earlier onset,³³ and *LRRK2* variants with an overall more benign disease course, but with also more frequent postural instability and gait difficulty as well as slightly earlier AAO

compared to sporadic PD.³⁴ Other variants reported in LID include those in *BDNF*, involved in neural plasticity,^{35,36} *GRIN2A*, encoding a glutamatergic receptor,³⁷ and *ADORA2A*, encoding the adenosine A2a receptor gene.³⁸ However, the association between LID and most of the above-mentioned putative genetic risk factors is still controversial, with most findings reported deriving from candidate genes studies that failed to be confirmed in replication studies.³⁹⁻⁴⁴

Here, we aimed to systematically evaluate how genetics affect the risk and rate of progression to LID including a total of 4,787 PD patients from multiple centers. For this purpose, we performed genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and downstream analyses focused on specific genes previously implicated in LID. In addition, we tested the effect produced by cumulative genetic risk on the occurrence and rate of progression to LID, including risk variants previously associated with PD and variants in genes involved in the dopaminergic transmission pathway.

Methods

Population

The study population included a total of 4,787 PD patients, of which 1,612 with and 3,175 without LID (Table 1). PD was diagnosed by movement disorder specialists according to the UK Brain Bank or International Parkinson Disease and Movement Disorders Society criteria.⁴⁵ LID diagnosis was made based on the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) part IV and direct clinical evaluation. The participants were of European ancestry and their clinical and genetic data were collected from 15 different cohorts (Table 1), 12 of which were from the International Parkinson's Disease Genomics Consortium (IPDGC) and 3 from the Accelerating Medicines Partnership Parkinson's Disease (AMP-PD, <https://amp-pd.org/>). The latter includes the Parkinson's Disease Biomarkers Program (PDBP), Parkinson's Progression Markers Initiative (PPMI) and Harvard Biomarker Study (HBS) cohorts. The cohorts were included in the different analyses depending on data availability. The cohorts included in each analysis are specified in Supplementary Table 1.

Genetic analyses

Excluding the AMP-PD cohorts, with whole genome sequencing (WGS) data, the other centers (Table 1) were genotyped using the OmniExpress, NeuroX,⁴⁶ NeuroChip⁴⁷ or MegaChip GWAS array according to the manufacturer's instructions (Illumina Inc.). Quality control was performed following standard pipelines (detailed in <https://github.com/neurogenetics/GWAS-pipeline>) using Plink 1.9.⁴⁸ In brief, we filtered out heterozygosity outliers using an F-statistic cut-off of <-0.15 or >0.15 . Individuals with a variant call rate $<95\%$ and sex mismatch were excluded. Variants missing in $>5\%$ of the participants, with disparate missingness between cases and controls ($p<1E-04$), or significantly deviating from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in controls ($p<1E-04$) were also removed. We used GCTA to check for relatedness closer than first cousins between participants ($PIHAT>0.125$). We performed imputation using the Michigan imputation server (<https://imputationserver.sph.umich.edu/index.html#>) with the Haplotype Reference Consortium reference panel r1.1 2016 under default settings. Ancestry outliers were detected using HapMap3 principal component analysis (PCA) data in R version 4.0.1.

After imputation, we selected variants with $r^2>0.8$ and a minor allele frequency (MAF) >0.05 , while retaining common risk variants in the *GBA1* (p.N370S, p.E326K and p.T369M) and *LRRK2* (p.G2019S, p.M1646T and p.R1441G/C) regions, to perform specific analyses on these variants (detailed below). These genes were specifically selected given their importance in PD etiology^{25, 26} and recent clinical trials⁴⁹ as well as their previously suggested association with LID.²⁷⁻³² The carrier status of *GBA1/LRRK2* risk variants in individuals with and without LID is detailed in Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table 3. Carriers of variants in the same gene were combined, so that the carrier status for *GBA1* and *LRRK2* refers to any aforementioned *GBA1* and *LRRK2* variants, respectively. To examine the association between the *GBA1* and *LRRK2* risk variant carrier status and LID occurrence we performed logistic regression, and to evaluate the association between the carrier

status and time to LID onset we performed Cox regression using the R package “survival” (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/survival/>). The time to LID variable included in the Cox regression was defined as the period between the start of levodopa therapy and LID onset, as previously done.⁵⁰ When LID did not manifest, this parameter was right-censored at the last follow-up. We adjusted the analyses by multiple covariates including principal components (PCs), PD AAO, sex, levodopa dosage, levodopa equivalent daily dose (LEDD),^{51, 52} dopamine agonist use, BMI, Hoehn and Yahr score (HY) and, exclusively for logistic regression, disease duration. For logistic regression analyses, we included the cumulative levodopa dosage and LEDD starting from the baseline (i.e., levodopa initiation) to the last time point (i.e., LID onset or last follow-up when LID was not present). In Cox regression, to avoid collinearity with the time to LID onset dependent variable, we replaced cumulative doses with doses at the last time point. All the covariates were selected using an Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)-based stepwise regression approach, which evaluated the model goodness of fit and selected the most appropriate covariates to include in the model. We performed the analyses separately in each cohort and then meta-analyzed the results using the R package “metafor” (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/metafor/index.html>). Since variants in these genes have been previously associated with LID, we used a significance threshold of $\alpha=0.05$.

Similar to the analyses on specific genes, to investigate the overall impact of genetics on LID risk and time to onset we also performed GWAS with, respectively, logistic and Cox regression adjusted for the above-specified covariates. Cox regression was performed using the SurvivalGWAS_SV software (<https://www.liverpool.ac.uk/population-health/research/groups/statistical-genetics/survival-gwas-sv/>).⁵³ We conducted the analyses in each cohort separately, and then meta-analyzed the results using the METAL software (https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/METAL_Documentation) with a fixed effects model weighted by β coefficients and the inverse of the standard errors.

PD risk variant-based polygenic risk score

To assess the impact on LID of the cumulative genetic risk for PD we calculated polygenic risk score (PRS) for each PD patient including the 90 variants associated with PD in the most recent GWAS meta-analysis in Europeans.⁵⁴ PRS calculation was performed based on the weighted allele dose as implemented in PRSice2 using default clumping (<https://choishingwan.github.io/PRSice/>).⁵⁵ To investigate the association between the PRS and LID risk we performed logistic regression, while to evaluate the association between PRS and progression to LID we performed Cox regression. The analyses were adjusted for PCs, PD AAO, sex, HY and levodopa dosage, cumulative in logistic regression and at the last time point in Cox regression. These analyses were repeated using PRS as a continuous variable and then as a discrete variable by dividing the PRS into quartiles. For the analysis using PRS quartiles, we separately compared the association of individual membership to the second, third and fourth quartiles vs the first quartile with LID risk/progression.

Dopamine pathway polygenic risk score

To assess the impact of genes involved in the dopaminergic transmission pathway we also constructed a pathway polygenic risk score, or polygenic effect score (PES)⁵⁶ using the PRSet feature of PRSice2 (https://choishingwan.github.io/PRSice/prset_detail/). Genes involved in this pathway were obtained from Explore the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB, version 2023.1), a collection of annotated gene sets for use with Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) software (<https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/>). These genes included *CDK5*, *FLOT1*, *PARK7*, *CHRNA2*, *ADORA2A*, *CRH*, *CRHBP*, *DRD1*, *DRD2*, *DRD3*, *DRD4*, *DRD5*, *TOR1A*, *RASD2*, *PNKD*, *GDNF*, *ARRB2*, *PRKN*, *PTGS2*, *RAB3B*, *PINK1*, *SLC6A2*, *SLC6A3*, *SLC6A4*, *SNCA*, *TH*, *CNTNAP4* (detailed at http://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/human/geneset/GOBP_SYNAPTIC_TRANSMISSION_DOPAMINERGIC). To select the variants in each of those genes to include in the analyses we used the LID GWAS meta-

analysis summary statistics, filtering variants with a p-value less than or equal to 0.05. In addition, we performed linkage disequilibrium (LD) clumping using the default $r^2=0.1$ and selecting variants at 250 Kb of distance from the pathway-related genes. A total of 1000 permutations were implemented to generate the empirical p-value corresponding to the optimized PES prediction of the dependent variable in the target cohort. We then calculated individual PES for each target cohort. To avoid potential inflation due to the presence of the target cohort in the meta-analysis summary statistics, each time we calculated the PES for a target cohort we excluded such cohort from the meta-analysis using a leave-one-out approach. To investigate the association between the dopamine pathway PES and LID risk we performed logistic regression, while to evaluate the association between the PES and progression to LID we performed Cox regression, as specified above for the PRS analyses.

Results

GBA1 and LRRK2 variants show significant associations with LID risk and time to LID

Analyses focusing on *GBA1* showed that *GBA1* variants were significantly associated with LID risk (OR=1.65, 95% CI=1.21-2.26, $p=0.0017$, Fig. 1A). No association was found with time to LID (HR=1.25, 95% CI=0.99-1.58, $p=0.0635$, Fig. 1B). In contrast, *LRRK2* variants showed no association with LID risk (OR=1.18, 95% CI=0.84-1.67, $p=0.3484$, Fig. 2A) but were significantly associated with reduced time to development of LID (HR=1.42, 95% CI=1.09-1.84, $p=0.0098$, Fig. 2B)

In the GWAS genomic inflation was evaluated using quantile-quantile plots (Q-Q plots) and the lambda factor, showing no inflation and a slight deflation (lambda logistic regression=0.9709, lambda Cox regression=0.9555, Supplementary Fig. 1-2). GWAS using both logistic and Cox regression showed no significant association with LID risk or time to development of LID, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 4). We further examined whether variants previously associated with LID in the literature^{14-18, 21-24} and from the LIDPD website (<http://LiDpd.eurac.edu/>) showed associations in the current GWAS, but we found no significant results (Supplementary Tables

4-5). A recent GWAS in LID (Martinez et al., 2023, MedRxiv) nominated significant signals in a progression GWAS meta-analysis. However, our study failed to confirm these findings and the reported variants did not reach the nominal significance of 0.05 in our GWAS (Supplementary Table 6).

PD risk variant-based polygenic risk score is associated with increased risk for LID

PRS analyses aggregating PD-associated variants showed that higher values of PRS were associated with a very mild increase in LID risk (OR=1.02, %95 CI=1.002-1.035, $p=0.0298$, Fig. 3B). When dividing the PRS in quartiles, logistic regression showed a significant association between the fourth quartile and LID, with a greater risk compared to the analyses using PRS as a continuous variable (OR_{fourth_quartile}=1.27, 95% CI=1.03-1.56, $p=0.0210$, Fig. 3A, Supplementary Table 7). Cox regression did not show any significant associations between PRS and time to development of LID (Supplementary Fig. 5 A-B, Supplementary Table 8).

Dopaminergic transmission pathway polygenic effect score is associated with a reduced time to development of LID

Analyses on the dopaminergic transmission pathway PES showed that higher values of PES were associated with a reduced time to development of LID (HR=1.10, 95% CI=1.02-1.18, $p=0.0088$, Fig. 4B). In addition, the third and fourth PES quartile were also associated with a reduced time to development of LID with a more elevated effect size compared to the analyses on PES as a continuous variable (HR_{third_quartile}=1.38, 95% CI=1.07-1.79, $p=0.0128$; HR_{fourth_quartile}=1.38, 95% CI=1.06-1.78, $p=0.0147$, Fig. 4A, Supplementary Table 10). Logistic regression did not show any statistically significant associations between dopaminergic transmission PES and LID risk (Supplementary Fig. 6 A-B, Supplementary Table 9).

Discussion

In this study, we confirmed that *GBAI* variants were associated with increased risk for LID and demonstrated that *LRRK2* variants were associated with a reduced time to development of LID. Additionally, we found that PD PRS was associated with mildly increased risk for LID and that the dopaminergic transmission pathway PES is associated with a reduced time to development of LID.

Albeit some studies found contradictory results on the association between the *GBAI* and *LRRK2* variants and LID,³⁹⁻⁴² many others have shown that these variants play a role in LID development,²⁷⁻³² and in this study we also demonstrated that *LRRK2* variants might also affect the time to development of LID. The absence of significant signals in the risk and progression GWAS and, in general, the difficulty finding congruent results between different genetic studies investigating LID, as also reflected by the divergent results between the recent LID progression GWAS (Martinez et al., 2023, MedRxiv) and our study, may be due to the stronger contribution in LID development of environmental factors, especially pharmacologic- (dosage of dopaminergic drugs, use of amantadine) and disease-related factors.⁹⁻¹³

The significant association between the two PRS analyses suggests that aggregating multiple common variants that might have a scarce effect on LID individually could contribute to uncovering the overall genetic impact on LID. In particular, the association between the PRS including PD risk variants suggests that patients with a stronger genetic risk profile for PD are also more at risk for LID, a factor to consider for patient counselling and potential clinical trials, although the magnitude of the increased risk was small. We also demonstrated that the dopaminergic synaptic transmission pathway PES was associated with an increased rate of LID development, which is in line with previous pathophysiologic hypotheses⁶⁻⁸ and studies suggesting an implication of dopamine pathway genes in the development of LID.^{14-18, 21-24}

Unravelling the etiologic bases of LID is crucial to implement a tailored therapy for PD patients taking levodopa, adapting the therapeutic choices, dosage and management depending on the

individual risk factors of each patient. Over time, it could be beneficial to define a risk profile accounting for the single genetic and environmental factors associated with LID as well as the cumulative genetic risk provided by the PRS. This might be used to stratify patients for LID prevention clinical trials and lead to a more refined and personalized therapeutic approach for each individual. In addition to the benefits of the current symptomatic therapies, uncovering and confirming genetic factors affecting the risk and time to development of LID could also have important implications for targeted therapies. In particular, *GBA1* and *LRRK2* pathways are already candidate targets for newly developing drugs in clinical trials.⁴⁹ A LRRK2 inhibitor, BIIB122/DNL151, reached already experimental phase 3 (<https://www.denalitherapeutics.com>, 2021).⁵⁷ In addition, Ambroxol, a pharmacological chaperone for GCase capable of increasing its enzymatic levels, completed phase 2 and LTI-291, an activator of GCase, reached phase 1B.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ As these drugs would likely be used in conjunction with symptomatic therapies, knowing that these pathways can be targeted to reduce the risk or delay the time of LID development could considerably improve the compliance and quality of life of PD patients taking dopaminergic treatments.

The current study has several limitations. First, the subjects were all of European ancestry and therefore the results in other populations might be different. Despite an overall large sample size, most of the individual cohorts included a limited number of participants, especially those having longitudinal data necessary for Cox regression, this impacted the power of the study and could have contributed to the lack of association in the GWAS. Some studies suggested that LID is affected more by the disease duration than by the therapy duration,⁶¹ on this line PD AAO would represent a better baseline than levodopa initiation for the time to LID onset. However, this parameter was chosen in accordance with what was previously done with LID GWAS⁵⁰ and accounting for the recall bias that PD AAO suffers from, compared to levodopa initiation which represents a report made by the physicians. In addition, understanding the genetic basis of the time to LID from levodopa initiation can be of considerable relevance for patient counselling at the time of treatment administration.

Finally, we also accounted for the disease duration in each of our analyses with appropriate adjustments. Another limitation of this study was that not all the cohorts had the same amount of data available, which limited in part the design of the analytical model.

In conclusion, in the current study we demonstrated that PD risk variants and the dopaminergic transmission PRS are associated with increased risk of LID/time to development of LID. A better understanding of the role of genetics in LID development could reduce the impact of this adverse effect and enhance therapeutic management in PD.

Acknowledgements

We wholeheartedly thank the participants in this study. We would like to thank the research participants and all members of IPDGC for making this work possible. The AMP-PD cohort data used in this study included the Fox Investigation for New Discovery of Biomarkers (BioFIND), the Harvard Biomarker Study (HBS), the Parkinson's Disease Biomarkers Program (PDBP) and the Parkinson's Progression Markers Initiative (PPMI) cohorts. For up-to-date information on the study, visit <https://www.amp-pd.org>. AMP PD – a public-private partnership – is managed by the FNIH and funded by Celgene, GSK, the Michael J. Fox Foundation for Parkinson's Research, the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, Pfizer, Sanofi, and Verily. BioFIND is sponsored by The Michael J. Fox Foundation for Parkinson's Research (MJFF) with support from the National Institute for Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS). The BioFIND Investigators have not participated in reviewing the data analysis or content of the manuscript. For up-to-date information on the study, visit <https://www.michaeljfox.org/news/biofind>. The Harvard Biomarker Study (HBS) is a collaboration of HBS investigators [full list of HBS investigators found at <https://www.bwhparkinsoncenter.org/biobank/>] and funded through philanthropy and NIH and Non-NIH funding sources. The HBS Investigators have not participated in reviewing the data analysis or content of the manuscript. The Parkinson's Disease Biomarker Program (PDBP) consortium is

supported by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS) at the National Institutes of Health. A full list of PDBP investigators can be found at <https://pdbp.ninds.nih.gov/policy>. The PDBP investigators have not participated in reviewing the data analysis or content of the manuscript. PPMI is sponsored by The Michael J. Fox Foundation for Parkinson's Research and supported by a consortium of scientific partners: [list of the full names of all of the PPMI funding partners can be found at <https://www.ppmi-info.org/about-ppmi/who-we-are/study-sponsors>]. The PPMI investigators have not participated in reviewing the data analysis or content of the manuscript. For up-to-date information on the study, visit www.ppmi-info.org. This research was supported in part by the Intramural Research Program of the NIH, National Institute on Aging (NIA), National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services; project number ZO1 AG000535 and ZIA AG000949, as well as the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS, program # ZIANS003154).

We would like to thank all participants of the Luxembourg Parkinson's Study for their important support of our research. Data used for the Luxemburg cohort in the preparation of this manuscript were obtained from the National Centre of Excellence in Research on Parkinson's Disease (NCER-PD). We acknowledge the joint effort of the NCER-PD Consortium members from the partner institutions Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine, Luxembourg Institute of Health, Centre Hospitalier de Luxembourg, and Laboratoire National de Santé generally contributing to the Luxembourg Parkinson's Study as listed below: Geeta ACHARYA 2, Gloria AGUAYO 2, Myriam ALEXANDRE 2, Muhammad ALI 1, Wim AMMERLANN 2, Giuseppe ARENA 1, Rudi BALLING 1, Michele BASSIS 1, Katy BEAUMONT 2, Regina BECKER 1, Camille BELLORA 2, Guy BERCHEM 3, Daniela BERG 11, Alexandre BISDORFF 5, Ibrahim BOUSSAAD 1, Kathrin BROCKMANN 11, Jessica CALMES 2, Lorieza CASTILLO 2, Gessica CONTESOTTO 2, Nico DIEDERICH 3, Rene DONDELINGER 5, Daniela ESTEVES 2, Guy FAGHERAZZI 2, Jean-Yves FERRAND 2, Manon GANTENBEIN 2, Thomas GASSER 11, Piotr GAWRON 1, Soumyabrata GHOSH 1, Marijus

GIRAITIS 2,3, Enrico GLAAB 1, Elisa GÓMEZ DE LOPE 1, Jérôme GRAAS 2, Mariella GRAZIANO 17, Valentin GROUES 1, Anne GRÜNEWALD 1, Wei GU 1, Gaël HAMMOT 2, Anne-Marie HANFF 2, Linda HANSEN 1,3, Michael HENEKA 1, Estelle HENRY 2, Sylvia HERBRINK 6, Sascha HERZINGER 1, Michael HEYMANN 2, Michele HU 8, Alexander HUNDT 2, Nadine JACOBY 18, Jacek JAROSLAW LEBIODA 1, Yohan JAROZ 1, Sonja JÓNSDÓTTIR 2, Quentin KLOPFENSTEIN 1, Jochen KLUCKEN 1,2,3, Rejko KRÜGER 1,2,3, Pauline LAMBERT 2, Zied LANDOULSI 1, Roseline LENTZ 7, Inga LIEPELT 11, Robert LISZKA 14, Laura LONGHINO 3, Victoria LORENTZ 2, Paula Cristina LUPU 2, Tainá M. MARQUES 1, Clare MACKAY 10, Walter MAETZLER 15, Katrin MARCUS 13, Guilherme MARQUES 2, Patricia MARTINS CONDE 1, Patrick MAY 1, Deborah MCINTYRE 2, Chouaib MADIOUNI 2, Françoise MEISCH 1, Myriam MENSTER 2, Maura MINELLI 2, Michel MITTELBRONN 1,4, Brit MOLLENHAUER 12, Friedrich MÜHLSCHLEGEL 4, Romain NATI 3, Ulf NEHRBASS 2, Sarah NICKELS 1, Beatrice NICOLAI 3, Jean-Paul NICOLAY 19, Fozia NOOR 2, Marek OSTASZEWSKI 1, Clarissa P. C. GOMES 1, Sinhuja PACHCHEK 1, Claire PAULY 1,3, Laure PAULY 1, Lukas PAVELKA 1,3, Magali PERQUIN 2, Rosalina RAMOS LIMA 2, Armin RAUSCHENBERGER 1, Rajesh RAWAL 1, Dheeraj REDDY BOBBILI 1, Kirsten ROOMP 1, Eduardo ROSALES 2, Isabel ROSETY 1, Estelle SANDT 2, Stefano SAPIENZA 1, Venkata SATAGOPAM 1, Margaux SCHMITT 2, Sabine SCHMITZ 1, Reinhard SCHNEIDER 1, Jens SCHWAMBORN 1, Amir SHARIFY 2, Ekaterina SOBOLEVA 1, Kate SOKOLOWSKA 2, Hermann THIEN 2, Elodie THIRY 3, Rebecca TING JIIN LOO 1, Christophe TREFOIS 1, Johanna TROUET 2, Olena TSURKALENKO 2, Michel VAILLANT 2, Mesele VALENTI 2, Gilles VAN CUTSEM 1,3, Carlos VEGA 1, Liliana VILAS BOAS 3, Maharshi VYAS 1, Richard WADE-MARTINS 9, Paul WILMES 1, Evi WOLLSCHIED-LENGELING 1, Gelani ZELIMKHANOV 3

1 Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine, University of Luxembourg, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg

2 Luxembourg Institute of Health, Strassen, Luxembourg

3 Centre Hospitalier de Luxembourg, Strassen, Luxembourg

4 Laboratoire National de Santé, Dudelange, Luxembourg

5 Centre Hospitalier Emile Mayrisch, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg

6 Centre Hospitalier du Nord, Ettelbrück, Luxembourg

7 Parkinson Luxembourg Association, Leudelange, Luxembourg

8 Oxford Parkinson's Disease Centre, Nuffield Department of Clinical Neurosciences, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

9 Oxford Parkinson's Disease Centre, Department of Physiology, Anatomy and Genetics, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

10 Oxford Centre for Human Brain Activity, Wellcome Centre for Integrative Neuroimaging, Department of Psychiatry, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

11 Center of Neurology and Hertie Institute for Clinical Brain Research, Department of Neurodegenerative Diseases, University Hospital Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany

12 Paracelsus-Elena-Klinik, Kassel, Germany

13 Ruhr-University of Bochum, Bochum, Germany

14 Westfalz-Klinikum GmbH, Kaiserslautern, Germany

15 Department of Neurology, University Medical Center Schleswig-Holstein, Kiel, Germany

16 Department of Neurology Philipps, University Marburg, Marburg, Germany

17 Association of Physiotherapists in Parkinson's Disease Europe, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg

18 Private practice, Ettelbruck, Luxembourg

19 Private practice, Luxembourg, Luxembourg

PreCEPT and PostCEPT were funded by NINDS 5U01NS050095-05, Department of Defense Neurotoxin Exposure Treatment Parkinson's Research Program (Grant Number: W23RRYX7022N606), the Michael J Fox Foundation for Parkinson's Research, Parkinson's Disease Foundation, Lundbeck Pharmaceuticals. Cephalon Inc, Lundbeck Inc, John Blume Foundation, Smart Family Foundation, RJG Foundation, Kinetics Foundation, National Parkinson Foundation, Amarin Neuroscience LTD, CHDI Foundation Inc, NIH (NHGRI and NINDS), and Columbia Parkinson's Disease Research Center. ZGO is supported by the Fonds de recherche du Québec - Santé (FRQS) Chercheurs-boursiers award, and is a William Dawson Scholar. YLS is supported by the HBHL Graduate student fellowship. ProPARK is funded by the Alkemade-Keuls Foundation, Stichting Parkinson Fonds, Parkinson Vereniging, and The Netherlands Organization for Health Research and Development; Udall is supported by the NINDS. This work at the Mayo Clinic Florida was supported by: the Haworth Family Professorship in Neurodegenerative Diseases fund, and The Albertson Parkinson's Research Foundation.

Author roles

1. Research project: A. Conception, B. Organization, C. Execution;
2. Cohort generation: A. Cohort recruitment, B. Sample processing, C. Data generation;
3. Statistical Analysis: A. Design, B. Execution, C. Review and Critique;
4. Manuscript Preparation: A. Writing of the first draft, B. Review and Critique

YLS: 1A, 1B, 1C, 3A, 3B, 4A, 4B

SBC: 2C, 4B

BF: 3B, 4B

RMADB: 1A, 4B

MTPT: 2C, 4B

RDB: 2C, 4B

PGG: 2C, 4B

PM: 1A, 4B

JF: 3B, 4B

PT: 2C, 4B

JCC: 1A, 4B

LP: 2C, 4B

TM: 2C, 4B

CG: 2C, 4B

AK: 2C, 4B

PM: 2B, 4B

RK: 1A, 4B

LMM: 2C, 4B

ZKW: 1B, 4B

RJU: 1B, 4B

OR: 1A, 4B

PH: 1B, 4B

JH: 1B, 4B

DKS: 1B, 4B

SE: 1B, 4B

LK: 3C, 4B

EY: 3C, 4B

UR: 2B, 4B

JAR: 2B, 4B

KF: 2B, 4B

FA: 2B, 4B

MM: 2C, 4B

IAF: 2C, 4B

PP: 1C, 4B

SK: 1C, 2C, 4B

HI: 1C, 3A, 3B, 3C, 4B

ZGO: 1A, 1B, 2A, 3A, 3C, 4B

Ethical Compliance Statement

IRB Study Number A11-M60-21A (21-11-023) was reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Offices (REOs). Informed written patient consent was provided in each center before the inclusion of each in the study. We confirm that we have read the Journal's position on issues involved in ethical publication and affirm that this work is consistent with those guidelines

Data availability

The LID GWAS summary statistics are publicly available on GWAS catalog (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/>). All codes used for the analyses are available at <https://github.com/gan-orlab>.

References

1. Armstrong MJ, Okun MS. Diagnosis and Treatment of Parkinson Disease: A Review. *Jama* 2020;323(6):548-560.
2. Thanvi B, Lo N, Robinson T. Levodopa-induced dyskinesia in Parkinson's disease: clinical features, pathogenesis, prevention and treatment. *Postgrad Med J* 2007;83(980):384-388.
3. Turcano P, Mielke MM, Bower JH, et al. Levodopa-induced dyskinesia in Parkinson disease: A population-based cohort study. *Neurology* 2018;91(24):e2238-e2243.
4. Sweet RD, McDowell FH. Five years' treatment of Parkinson's disease with levodopa. Therapeutic results and survival of 100 patients. *Ann Intern Med* 1975;83(4):456-463.
5. Impact of deprenyl and tocopherol treatment on Parkinson's disease in DATATOP patients requiring levodopa. Parkinson Study Group. *Ann Neurol* 1996;39(1):37-45.
6. Espay AJ, Morgante F, Merola A, et al. Levodopa-induced dyskinesia in Parkinson disease: Current and evolving concepts. *Ann Neurol* 2018;84(6):797-811.
7. Kwon DK, Kwatra M, Wang J, Ko HS. Levodopa-Induced Dyskinesia in Parkinson's Disease: Pathogenesis and Emerging Treatment Strategies. *Cells* 2022;11(23).
8. Yang K, Zhao X, Wang C, Zeng C, Luo Y, Sun T. Circuit Mechanisms of L-DOPA-Induced Dyskinesia (LID). *Front Neurosci* 2021;15:614412.
9. Fahn S. Parkinson disease, the effect of levodopa, and the ELLDOPA trial. Earlier vs Later L-DOPA. *Arch Neurol* 1999;56(5):529-535.
10. Zappia M, Annesi G, Nicoletti G, et al. Sex differences in clinical and genetic determinants of levodopa peak-dose dyskinesias in Parkinson disease: an exploratory study. *Arch Neurol* 2005;62(4):601-605.
11. Stocchi F, Olanow CW. Continuous dopaminergic stimulation in early and advanced Parkinson's disease. *Neurology* 2004;62(1 Suppl 1):S56-63.
12. Gilgun-Sherki Y, Djaldetti R, Melamed E, Offen D. Polymorphism in candidate genes: implications for the risk and treatment of idiopathic Parkinson's disease. *Pharmacogenomics J* 2004;4(5):291-306.
13. Tran TN, Vo TNN, Frei K, Truong DD. Levodopa-induced dyskinesia: clinical features, incidence, and risk factors. *J Neural Transm (Vienna)* 2018;125(8):1109-1117.
14. Rieck M, Schumacher-Schuh AF, Altmann V, et al. DRD2 haplotype is associated with dyskinesia induced by levodopa therapy in Parkinson's disease patients. *Pharmacogenomics* 2012;13(15):1701-1710.
15. Lee JY, Cho J, Lee EK, Park SS, Jeon BS. Differential genetic susceptibility in diphasic and peak-dose dyskinesias in Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord* 2011;26(1):73-79.
16. Comi C, Ferrari M, Marino F, et al. Polymorphisms of Dopamine Receptor Genes and Risk of L-Dopa-Induced Dyskinesia in Parkinson's Disease. *Int J Mol Sci* 2017;18(2).
17. Kaiser R, Hofer A, Grapengiesser A, et al. L -dopa-induced adverse effects in PD and dopamine transporter gene polymorphism. *Neurology* 2003;60(11):1750-1755.
18. Kaplan N, Vituri A, Korczyn AD, et al. Sequence variants in SLC6A3, DRD2, and BDNF genes and time to levodopa-induced dyskinesias in Parkinson's disease. *J Mol Neurosci* 2014;53(2):183-188.
19. Tan YY, Jenner P, Chen SD. Monoamine Oxidase-B Inhibitors for the Treatment of Parkinson's Disease: Past, Present, and Future. *J Parkinsons Dis* 2022;12(2):477-493.
20. Rivest J, Barclay CL, Suchowersky O. COMT inhibitors in Parkinson's disease. *Can J Neurol Sci* 1999;26 Suppl 2:S34-38.
21. de Lau LM, Verbaan D, Marinus J, Heutink P, van Hilten JJ. Catechol-O-methyltransferase Val158Met and the risk of dyskinesias in Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord* 2012;27(1):132-135.
22. Cheshire P, Bertram K, Ling H, et al. Influence of single nucleotide polymorphisms in COMT, MAO-A and BDNF genes on dyskinesias and levodopa use in Parkinson's disease. *Neurodegener Dis* 2014;13(1):24-28.
23. Hao H, Shao M, An J, et al. Association of Catechol-O-Methyltransferase and monoamine oxidase B gene polymorphisms with motor complications in parkinson's disease in a Chinese population. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord* 2014;20(10):1041-1045.

24. Białecka M, Drożdżik M, Kłodowska-Duda G, et al. The effect of monoamine oxidase B (MAOB) and catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT) polymorphisms on levodopa therapy in patients with sporadic Parkinson's disease. *Acta Neurol Scand* 2004;110(4):260-266.
25. Gan-Or Z, Amshalom I, Kilarski LL, et al. Differential effects of severe vs mild GBA mutations on Parkinson disease. *Neurology* 2015;84(9):880-887.
26. Ross OA, Soto-Ortolaza AI, Heckman MG, et al. Association of LRRK2 exonic variants with susceptibility to Parkinson's disease: a case-control study. *Lancet Neurol* 2011;10(10):898-908.
27. Olszewska DA, McCarthy A, Soto-Beasley AI, et al. Association Between Glucocerebrosidase Mutations and Parkinson's Disease in Ireland. *Front Neurol* 2020;11:527.
28. Jesús S, Huertas I, Bernal-Bernal I, et al. GBA Variants Influence Motor and Non-Motor Features of Parkinson's Disease. *PLoS One* 2016;11(12):e0167749.
29. Lesage S, Anheim M, Condroyer C, et al. Large-scale screening of the Gaucher's disease-related glucocerebrosidase gene in Europeans with Parkinson's disease. *Hum Mol Genet* 2011;20(1):202-210.
30. Bouhouche A, Tibar H, Ben El Haj R, et al. LRRK2 G2019S Mutation: Prevalence and Clinical Features in Moroccans with Parkinson's Disease. *Parkinsons Dis* 2017;2017:2412486.
31. Gao C, Pang H, Luo XG, Ren Y, Shang H, He ZY. LRRK2 G2385R variant carriers of female Parkinson's disease are more susceptible to motor fluctuation. *J Neurol* 2013;260(11):2884-2889.
32. Shu L, Zhang Y, Pan H, et al. Clinical Heterogeneity Among LRRK2 Variants in Parkinson's Disease: A Meta-Analysis. *Front Aging Neurosci* 2018;10:283.
33. Menozzi E, Schapira AHV. Exploring the Genotype-Phenotype Correlation in GBA-Parkinson Disease: Clinical Aspects, Biomarkers, and Potential Modifiers. *Front Neurol* 2021;12:694764.
34. Sosero YL, Gan-Or Z. LRRK2 and Parkinson's disease: from genetics to targeted therapy. *Ann Clin Transl Neurol* 2023.
35. Foltynie T, Cheeran B, Williams-Gray CH, et al. BDNF val66met influences time to onset of levodopa induced dyskinesia in Parkinson's disease. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2009;80(2):141-144.
36. Kusters CDJ, Paul KC, Guella I, et al. Dopamine receptors and BDNF-haplotypes predict dyskinesia in Parkinson's disease. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord* 2018;47:39-44.
37. Ivanova SA, Loonen AJ, Pechlivanoglou P, et al. NMDA receptor genotypes associated with the vulnerability to develop dyskinesia. *Transl Psychiatry* 2012;2(1):e67.
38. Rieck M, Schumacher-Schuh AF, Callegari-Jacques SM, et al. Is there a role for ADORA2A polymorphisms in levodopa-induced dyskinesia in Parkinson's disease patients? *Pharmacogenomics* 2015;16(6):573-582.
39. Oeda T, Umemura A, Mori Y, et al. Impact of glucocerebrosidase mutations on motor and nonmotor complications in Parkinson's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* 2015;36(12):3306-3313.
40. Tirozzi A, Modugno N, Palomba NP, et al. Analysis of Genetic and Non-genetic Predictors of Levodopa Induced Dyskinesia in Parkinson's Disease. *Front Pharmacol* 2021;12:640603.
41. Healy DG, Falchi M, O'Sullivan SS, et al. Phenotype, genotype, and worldwide genetic penetrance of LRRK2-associated Parkinson's disease: a case-control study. *Lancet Neurol* 2008;7(7):583-590.
42. Yahalom G, Kaplan N, Vituri A, et al. Dyskinesias in patients with Parkinson's disease: effect of the leucine-rich repeat kinase 2 (LRRK2) G2019S mutation. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord* 2012;18(9):1039-1041.
43. Paus S, Gadow F, Knapp M, Klein C, Klockgether T, Wüllner U. Motor complications in patients from the German Competence Network on Parkinson's disease and the DRD3 Ser9Gly polymorphism. *Mov Disord* 2009;24(7):1080-1084.
44. Greenbaum L, Goldwurm S, Zozulinsky P, et al. Do tardive dyskinesia and L-dopa induced dyskinesia share common genetic risk factors? An exploratory study. *J Mol Neurosci* 2013;51(2):380-388.
45. Hughes AJ, Daniel SE, Kilford L, Lees AJ. Accuracy of clinical diagnosis of idiopathic Parkinson's disease: a clinico-pathological study of 100 cases. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 1992;55(3):181-184.
46. Nalls MA, Bras J, Hernandez DG, et al. NeuroX, a fast and efficient genotyping platform for investigation of neurodegenerative diseases. *Neurobiol Aging* 2015;36(3):1605.e1607-1612.

47. Blauwendraat C, Faghri F, Pihlstrom L, et al. NeuroChip, an updated version of the NeuroX genotyping platform to rapidly screen for variants associated with neurological diseases. *Neurobiol Aging* 2017;57:247.e249-247.e213.
 48. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, et al. PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am J Hum Genet* 2007;81(3):559-575.
 49. Cavallieri F, Cury RG, Guimarães T, et al. Recent Advances in the Treatment of Genetic Forms of Parkinson's Disease: Hype or Hope? *Cells* 2023;12(5).
 50. Iwaki H, Blauwendraat C, Leonard HL, et al. Genetic risk of Parkinson disease and progression:: An analysis of 13 longitudinal cohorts. *Neurol Genet* 2019;5(4):e348.
 51. Julien C, Hache G, Dulac M, et al. The clinical meaning of levodopa equivalent daily dose in Parkinson's disease. *Fundam Clin Pharmacol* 2021;35(3):620-630.
 52. Tomlinson CL, Stowe R, Patel S, Rick C, Gray R, Clarke CE. Systematic review of levodopa dose equivalency reporting in Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord* 2010;25(15):2649-2653.
 53. Syed H, Jorgensen AL, Morris AP. SurvivalGWAS_SV: software for the analysis of genome-wide association studies of imputed genotypes with "time-to-event" outcomes. *BMC Bioinformatics* 2017;18(1):265.
 54. Nalls MA, Blauwendraat C, Vallerga CL, et al. Identification of novel risk loci, causal insights, and heritable risk for Parkinson's disease: a meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies. *Lancet Neurol* 2019;18(12):1091-1102.
 55. Choi SW, O'Reilly PF. PRSice-2: Polygenic Risk Score software for biobank-scale data. *Gigascience* 2019;8(7).
 56. Bandres-Ciga S, Saez-Atienzar S, Kim JJ, et al. Large-scale pathway specific polygenic risk and transcriptomic community network analysis identifies novel functional pathways in Parkinson disease. *Acta Neuropathol* 2020;140(3):341-358.
 57. Jennings D, Huntwork-Rodriguez S, Henry AG, et al. Preclinical and clinical evaluation of the LRRK2 inhibitor DNL201 for Parkinson's disease. *Sci Transl Med* 2022;14(648):eabj2658.
 58. den Heijer JM, Kruithof AC, Moerland M, et al. A Phase 1B Trial in GBA1-Associated Parkinson's Disease of BIA-28-6156, a Glucocerebrosidase Activator. *Mov Disord* 2023;38(7):1197-1208.
 59. Silveira CRA, MacKinley J, Coleman K, et al. Ambroxol as a novel disease-modifying treatment for Parkinson's disease dementia: protocol for a single-centre, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *BMC Neurol* 2019;19(1):20.
 60. Mullin S, Smith L, Lee K, et al. Ambroxol for the Treatment of Patients With Parkinson Disease With and Without Glucocerebrosidase Gene Mutations: A Nonrandomized, Noncontrolled Trial. *JAMA Neurol* 2020;77(4):427-434.
 61. Katzenschlager R, Head J, Schrag A, Ben-Shlomo Y, Evans A, Lees AJ. Fourteen-year final report of the randomized PDRG-UK trial comparing three initial treatments in PD. *Neurology* 2008;71(7):474-480.
- Martinez-Carrasco A, Real R, Lawton M, et al. Genetic meta-analysis of levodopa induced dyskinesia in Parkinson's disease, 2023, MedRxiv

Fig. 1 A-B – Association between *GBA1* variants and LID

The meta-analysis forest plot shows the coefficient (black squares) and 95% confidence interval (bars) of the analyses in each single cohort. The size of the square is proportional to the weight the cohort had on the overall meta-analysis, based on their single standard error. The black diamond at the bottom represents the overall coefficient and confidence interval. **A.** Logistic regression between *GBA1* variants and LID risk; **B.** Cox regression between *GBA1* variants and time to development of LID.

FE: fixed effect model; AMP-PD: Accelerating Medicines Partnership Parkinson's disease, including the New Discovery of Biomarkers (BioFIND), the Harvard Biomarker Study (HBS) and the Parkinson's Disease Biomarkers Program (PDBP) cohorts; Barcelona: Hospital Universitari Mutua de Terrassa, Spain; CORIELL: NINDS Exploratory Trials in PD Long-Term Study 1 (NET-PD LS1), Coriell Institute for Medical Research, USA; DIGPD: Drug Interaction With Genes in Parkinson's Disease, France; LEAP: Levodopa in Early Parkinson's Disease, Netherlands; Luxemburg: Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine; Mayo: Mayo Clinic, USA; McGill: McGill University, Canada; Oviedo: Central University Hospital of Asturias, Spain; PreCEPT: Parkinson Research Examination of CEP-1347 Trial; SCOPA: Scales for Outcomes in Parkinson's disease; Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla; Tartu: University of Tartu

Fig. 2 A-B - Association between *LRRK2* variants and LID

A. Logistic regression between *LRRK2* variants and LID risk; **B.** Cox regression between *LRRK2* variants and time to development of LID.

Fig- 3 A-B - Logistic regression between PRS aggregating PD risk variants and LID risk

A. The plot shows the association between each PRS quartile and LID risk compared with the first quartile, meta-analyzing the results across the cohorts. The Y axis represents the PRS quartile, the X axis the odds ratio (red dot) and 95% confidence interval (red bar). The presence of an asterisk indicates

a significant association ($p < 0.05$). **B.** The forest plot shows the association between PRS as a continuous variable and LID risk.

CI: confidence interval.

Fig. 4 A-B - Cox regression between the dopaminergic transmission pathway PES and time to development of LID

A. The plot shows the association between each PES quartile and time to development of LID compared with the first quartile, meta-analyzing the results across the cohorts. The Y axis represents the PRS quartile, the X axis the hazard ratio (red dot) and 95% confidence interval (red bar). **B.** The forest plot shows the association between PES as a continuous variable and time to development of LID.

Supplementary Fig. 1 - Q-Q plot of LID risk GWAS using logistic regression

The Q-Q plot illustrates the negative log-adjusted p-values from the GWAS logistic regression for LID risk sorted into ascending order against the expected quantiles if the null hypothesis is true for all tests.

Supplementary Fig. 2 - Q-Q plot of time to development of LID GWAS using Cox regression

The Q-Q plot illustrates the negative log-adjusted p-values from the GWAS Cox regression for time to LID sorted into ascending order against the expected quantiles if the null hypothesis is true for all tests.

Supplementary Fig. 3 - Manhattan plot of LID risk GWAS

Manhattan plot showing the results of the GWAS meta-analysis, comparing PD patients with and without LID. The Y axis represents the negative logarithm of the p-value, the X axis represents the chromosomal position of the variants and each dot on the figure represents a variant. The red line represents the genome-wide Bonferroni-corrected statistical significance threshold (5×10^{-8}), while the blue line is the false-discovery rate-corrected significance threshold (1×10^{-5}).

Supplementary Fig. 4 - Manhattan plot of time to development of LID GWAS

Manhattan plot showing the results of the GWAS meta-analysis investigating the time to development of LID. The Y axis represents the negative logarithm of the p-value, the X axis represents the chromosomal position of the variants and each dot on the figure represents a variant. The red line represents the genome-wide Bonferroni-corrected statistical significance threshold (5×10^{-8}), whereas the blue line is the false-discovery rate-corrected significance threshold (1×10^{-5}).

Supplementary Fig. 5 A-B - Cox regression between PRS aggregating PD risk variants and time to development of to LID

A. The plot shows the association between each PRS quartile and time to development of LID compared with the first quartile, meta-analyzing the results across the cohorts. The Y axis represents the PRS quartile, the X axis the hazard ratio (red dot) and 95% confidence interval (red bar). The presence of an asterisk indicates a significant association ($p < 0.05$). **B.** The forest plot shows the association between PRS as a continuous variable and time to development of LID.

CI: confidence interval.

Supplementary Fig. 6 A-B - Logistic regression between the dopaminergic transmission pathway PES and LID risk

A. The plot shows the association between each PES quartile and LID risk compared with the first quartile, meta-analyzing the results across the cohorts. The Y axis represents the PES quartile, the X axis the odds ratio (red dot) and 95% confidence interval (red bar). The presence of an asterisk indicates a significant association ($p < 0.05$). **B.** The forest plot shows the association between PES as a continuous variable and LID risk.

CI: confidence interval.

Table 1 - Demographic characteristics of PD patients in the individual cohorts

AMP-PD: Accelerating Medicines Partnership Parkinson's disease, including the Parkinson's Disease Biomarkers Program (PDBP), Parkinson's Progression Markers Initiative (PPMI) and Harvard Biomarker Study (HBS) cohorts; Barcelona: Hospital Universitari Mutua de Terrassa, Spain; CORIELL: NINDS Exploratory Trials in PD Long-Term Study 1 (NET-PD LS1), Coriell Institute for Medical Research, USA; DIGPD: Drug Interaction With Genes in Parkinson's Disease, France; LEAP: Levodopa in Early Parkinson's Disease, Netherlands; Luxemburg: Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine; Mayo Clinic Florida: Mayo Clinic Florida, USA; McGill: McGill University, Canada; Oviedo: Central University Hospital of Asturias, Spain; PreCEPT: Parkinson Research Examination of CEP-1347 Trial; SCOPA: Scales for Outcomes in Parkinson's disease; Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla; Tartu: University of Tartu; LID-, n: individuals without levodopa-induced dyskinesia; LID+, n: individuals with levodopa-induced dyskinesia; Age (SD): mean age (standard deviation); %Mal: percentage of males; Tot: total number of individuals per cohort.

Supplementary Table 1 - Cohorts included in the single analyses

Table showing the cohorts included in the single logistic and Cox regression analyses, including GWAS, analyses focused on *GBA1/LRRK2* variants and association analyses between PRS and LID. GWAS: genome-wide association study; *GBA1*: analyses focused on *GBA1* variants; *LRRK2*: analyses focused on *LRRK2* variants; PRS: polygenic risk score analyses; logistic: logistic regression; Cox: Cox regression.

Supplementary Table 2 - Carriers of *GBA1* variants across different cohorts

Carrier status for *GBA1* variants p.N370S, p.E326K and p.T369M. *GBA1* carriers LID-, N/tot: carriers of *GBA1* variants without LID out of all patients without LID; *GBA1* carriers LID+, N/tot: carriers of *GBA1* variants with LID out of all the patients with LID; *GBA1* carriers LID-, %: percentage of

carriers of GBA1 variants without LID; GBA1 carriers LID+ , %: percentage of carriers of GBA1 variants with LID

Supplementary Table 3 - Carriers of *LRRK2* variants across different cohorts

Carrier status for LRRK2 variants p.G2019S, p.M1646T and p.R1441G/C. LRRK2 carriers LID- , N/tot: carriers of LRRK2 variants without LID out of all patients without LID; LRRK2 carriers LID+ , N/tot: carriers of LRRK2 variants with LID out of all patients with LID; LRRK2 carriers LID- , %: percentage of carriers of LRRK2 variants without LID; LRRK2 carriers LID+ , %: percentage of carriers of LRRK2 variants with LID

Supplementary Table 4 - Logistic regression between variants previously associated with LID and LID risk

Summary statistics from the LID risk GWAS of variants previously associated with LID. Coordinates: chromosome:base pair; rs ID: variant rs number; gene: nearest gene; OR: odds ratio; StdErr: standard error.

Supplementary Table 5 - Cox regression between variants previously associated with LID and time to development of LID

Summary statistics from the time to development of LID GWAS of variants previously associated with LID. Coordinates: chromosome:base pair; rs ID: variant rs number; gene: nearest gene; HR: hazard ratio; StdErr: standard error.

Supplementary Table 6 - Logistic and Cox regression results for variants recently associated with time to development of LID

Summary statistics of the LID risk and time to development of LID GWAS for the variants previously nominated in the most recent LID survival GWAS (Martinez et al., 2023, MedRxiv).

OR: odds ratio; HR: hazard ratio; SE standard error.

Supplementary Table 7 – Logistic regression between PRS quartiles aggregating PD risk variants and LID risk

Logistic regression results for the association between PD risk variant-based PRS divided into quartiles and LID risk.

Quartile: quartile compared with the first quartile; OR: odds ratio; LB: lower bound of 95% confidence interval; UB: upper bound of 95% confidence interval; p: p-value; sig: the asterisk indicates the results are significant.

Supplementary Table 8 – Cox regression between PRS quartiles aggregating PD risk variants and time to development of LID

Cox regression results for the association between PD risk variant-based PRS divided into quartiles and time to development of LID.

Quartile: quartile compared with the first quartile; HR: hazard ratio; LB: lower bound of 95% confidence interval; UB: upper bound of 95% confidence interval; p: p-value; sig: the asterisk indicates the results are significant.

Supplementary Table 9 – Logistic regression between dopaminergic transmission pathway PES quartiles and LID risk

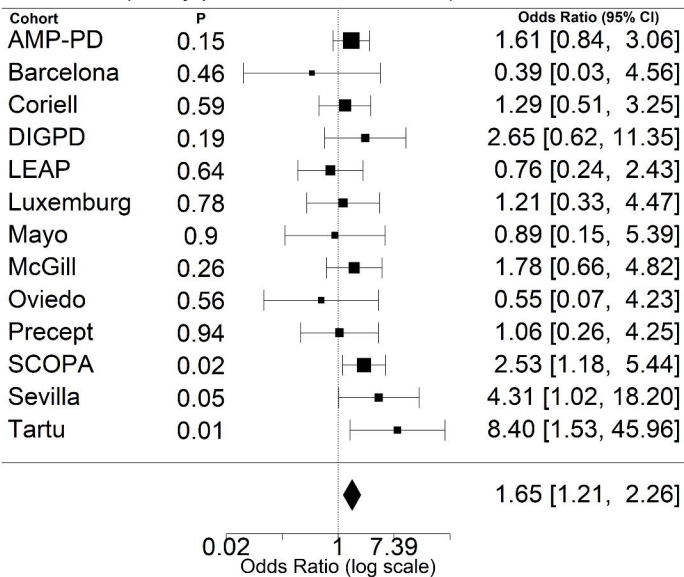
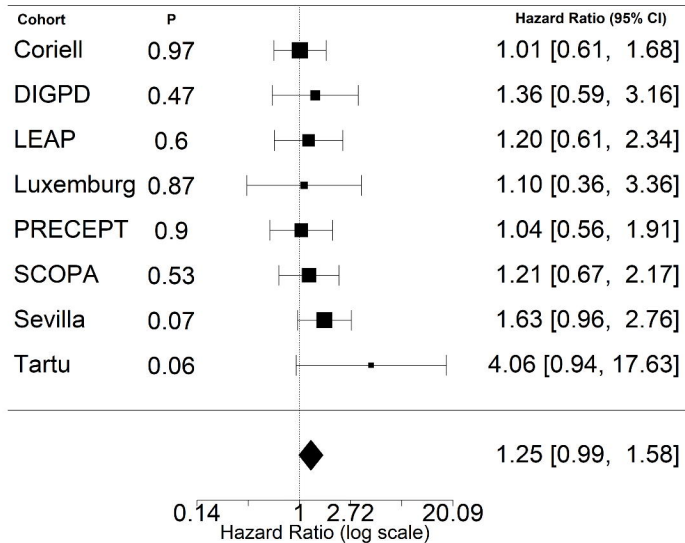
Logistic regression results for the association between dopaminergic transmission pathway PES divided into quartiles and LID risk.

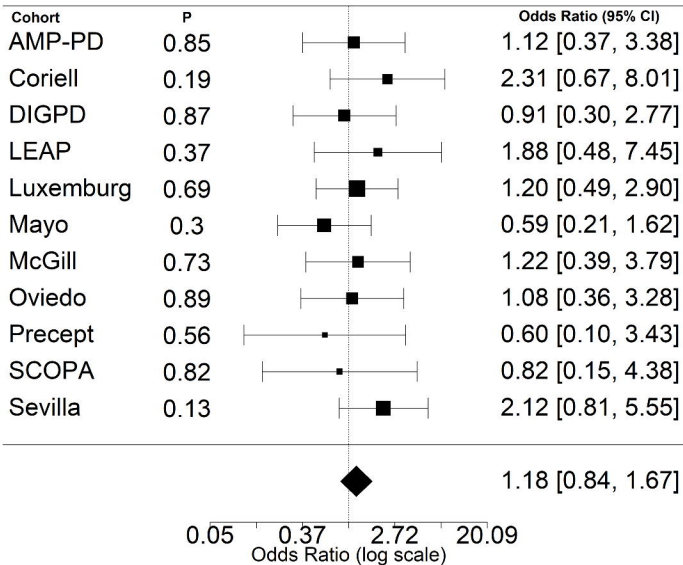
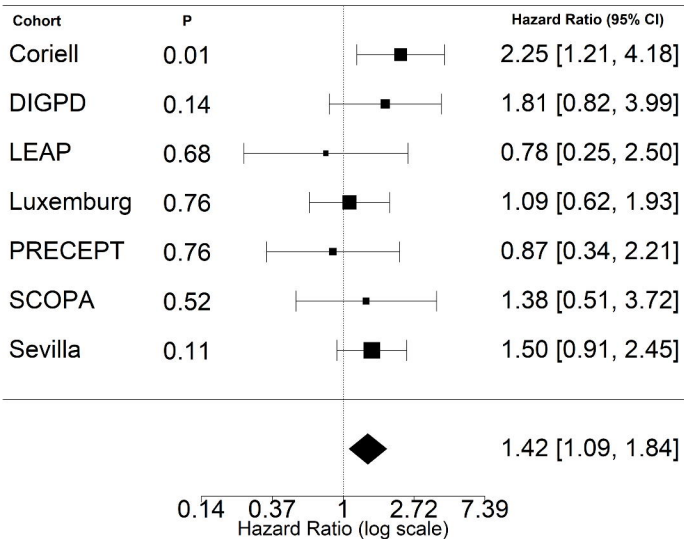
Quartile: quartile compared with the first quartile; OR: odds ratio; LB: lower bound of 95% confidence interval; UB: upper bound of 95% confidence interval; p: p-value; sig: the asterisk indicates the results are significant.

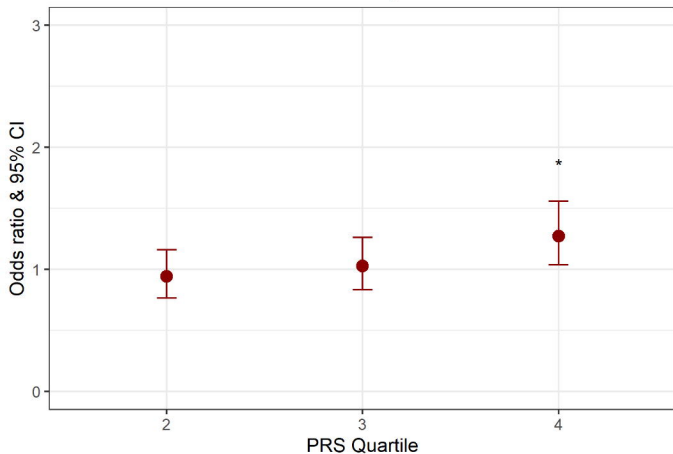
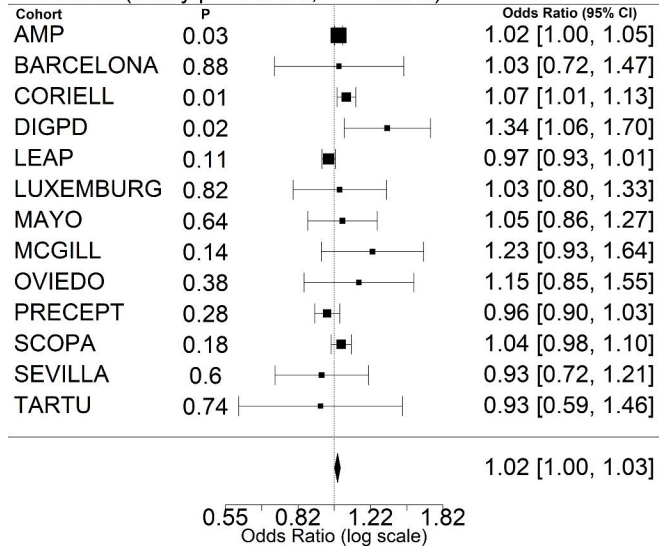
Supplementary Table 10 – Cox regression between dopaminergic transmission pathway PES quartiles and time to development of LID

Cox regression results for the association between dopaminergic transmission pathway PES divided into quartiles and time to development of LID.

Quartile: quartile compared with the first quartile; HR: hazard ratio; LB: lower bound of 95% confidence interval; UB: upper bound of 95% confidence interval; p: p-value; sig: the asterisk indicates the results are significant.

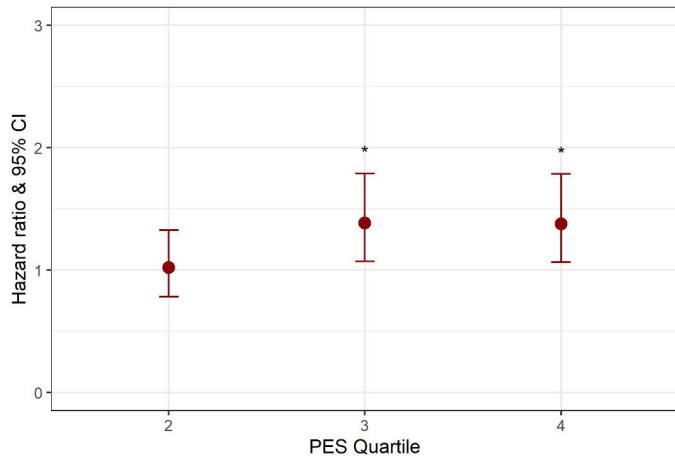
A**GBA1 - LID risk**FE Model (Study $p = 0.00171$; $I^2 = 2.8\%$)**B****GBA1 - time to LID**FE Model (Study $p = 0.06346$; $I^2 = 0.0\%$)

A**LRRK2 - LID risk**FE Model (Study p = 0.34836; I² = 0.0%)**B****LRRK2 - time to LID**FE Model (Study p = 0.00977; I² = 0.0%)

A**Risk for LID in PD by PRS Quartile****B****PRS PD - LID risk**FE Model (Study $p = 0.0298$; $I^2 = 43.9\%$)

A

Progression to LID in PD by PES Quartile



B

PES Dopaminergic transmission: Progression to LID

FE Model (Study $p = 0.0088$; $I^2 = 0.0\%$)

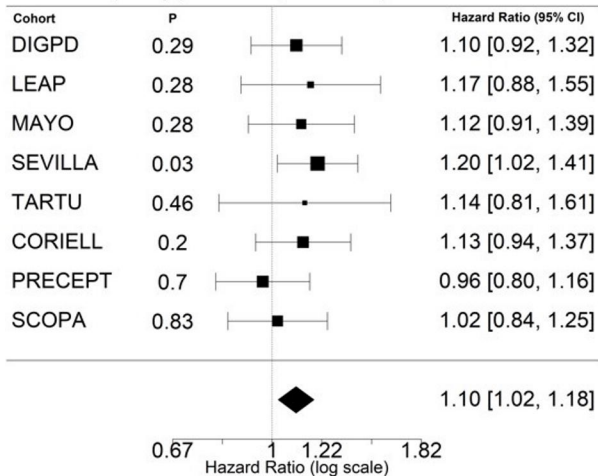


Table 1 - Demographic characteristics of PD patients in the individual cohorts

Center	LID-, n	Age LID- (SD)	%Mal LID-	LID+, n	Age LID+ (SD)	%Mal LID+	Tot
Barcelona	103	73.3 (10.9)	50%	48	72.3 (7.7)	40%	151
CORIELL	221	62.7 (8.9)	67%	117	61.7 (9.6)	59%	338
DIGPD	220	67.5 (9.3)	62%	166	63.9 (10.4)	56%	386
LEAP	336	68.9 (8.8)	75%	75	67.7 (8.5)	50%	411
Luxembourg	330	67.8 (11.4)	66%	140	66.2 (10.0)	66%	470
Mayo Clinic Florida	404	75.8 (9.9)	69%	151	72.0 (10.1)	62%	555
McGill	258	63.2 (16.5)	34%	120	61.3 (15.7)	43%	378
Oviedo-HUCA	80	69.8 (8.9)	51%	110	70.4 (10.5)	55%	190
PDBP – PPMI – HBS (AMP-PD)	580	58.4 (12.4)	66%	87	56.1 (12.2)	53%	667
PreCEPT	181	61.6 (8.6)	68%	137	58.5 (9.7)	66%	318
SCOPA	109	59.1 (10.9)	66%	177	60.0 (10.6)	62%	286
Sevilla	180	69.7 (10.9)	61%	252	66.0 (11.1)	57%	432
Tartu	173	73.0 (8.2)	38%	32	72.0 (8.6)	50%	205
TOTAL	3175	67.0 (10.4)	52%	1612	65.2 (10.4)	54%	4787

AMP-PD: Accelerating Medicines Partnership Parkinson’s disease, including the Parkinson’s Disease Biomarkers Program (PDBP), Parkinson’s Progression Markers Initiative (PPMI) and Harvard Biomarker Study (HBS) cohorts; Barcelona: Hospital Universitari Mutua de Terrassa, Spain; CORIELL: NINDS Exploratory Trials in PD Long-Term Study 1 (NET-PD LS1), Coriell Institute for Medical Research, USA; DIGPD: Drug Interaction With Genes in Parkinson’s Disease, France; LEAP: Levodopa in Early Parkinson’s Disease, Netherlands; Luxembourg: Luxembourg Centre for Systems Biomedicine; Mayo Clinic Florida: Mayo Clinic Florida, USA; McGill: McGill University, Canada; Oviedo: Central University Hospital of Asturias, Spain; PreCEPT: Parkinson Research Examination of CEP-1347 Trial; SCOPA: Scales for Outcomes in Parkinson's disease; Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla; Tartu: University of Tartu; LID-, n: individuals without levodopa-induced dyskinesia; LID+, n: individuals with levodopa-induced dyskinesia; Age (SD): mean age (standard deviation); %Mal: percentage of males; Tot: total number of individuals per cohort.