

1 Assessment of the cardiovascular adverse effects of drug-drug interactions through
2 a combined analysis of spontaneous reports and predicted drug-target interactions

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Adverse drug effects (ADEs) are one of the leading causes of death in developed countries and
15 are the main reason for drug recalls from the market, whereas the ADEs that are associated with
16 action on the cardiovascular system are the most dangerous and widespread. The treatment of
17 human diseases often requires the intake of several drugs, which can lead to undesirable drug-
18 drug interactions (DDIs), thus causing an increase in the frequency and severity of ADEs. An
19 evaluation of DDI-induced ADEs is a nontrivial task and requires numerous experimental and
20 clinical studies. Therefore, we developed a computational approach to assess the cardiovascular
21 ADEs of DDIs.

22 This approach is based on the combined analysis of spontaneous reports (SRs) and predicted
23 drug-target interactions to estimate the five cardiovascular ADEs that are induced by DDIs,
24 namely, myocardial infarction, ischemic stroke, ventricular tachycardia, cardiac failure, and
25 arterial hypertension.

26 We applied a method based on least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) logistic
27 regression to SRs for the identification of interacting pairs of drugs causing corresponding
28 ADEs, as well as noninteracting pairs of drugs. As a result, five datasets containing, on average,
29 3100 ADE-causing and non-ADE-causing drug pairs were created. The obtained data, along with
30 information on the interaction of drugs with 1553 human targets predicted by PASS Targets
31 software, were used to create five classification models using the Random Forest method. The
32 average area under the ROC curve of the obtained models, sensitivity, specificity and balanced
33 accuracy were 0.838, 0.764, 0.754 and 0.759, respectively.
34 The predicted drug targets were also used to hypothesize the potential mechanisms of DDI-
35 induced ventricular tachycardia for the top-scoring drug pairs.
36 The created five classification models can be used for the identification of drug combinations
37 that are potentially the most or least dangerous for the cardiovascular system.

38

39 **Author summary**

40 Assessment of adverse drug effects as well as the influence of drug-drug interactions on their
41 manifestation is a nontrivial task that requires numerous experimental and clinical studies. We
42 developed a computational approach for the prediction of adverse effects that are induced by
43 drug-drug interactions, which are based on a combined analysis of spontaneous reports and
44 predicted drug-target interactions. Importantly, the approach requires only structural formulas to
45 predict adverse effects, and, therefore, may be applied for new, insufficiently studied drugs. We
46 applied the approach to predict five of the most important cardiovascular adverse effects,
47 because they are the most dangerous and widespread. These effects are myocardial infarction,
48 ischemic stroke, ventricular tachycardia, arterial hypertension and cardiac failure. The accuracies
49 of predictive models were relatively high, in the range of 73-81%; therefore, we performed a
50 prediction of the five cardiovascular adverse effects for the large number of drug pairs and
51 revealed the combinations that are the most dangerous for the cardiovascular system. We

52 consider that the developed approach can be used for the identification of pairwise drug
53 combinations that are potentially the most or least dangerous for the cardiovascular system.

54

55 **Introduction**

56 Adverse drug effects (ADEs) are one of the top 10 causes of death in developed countries,
57 are one of the main reasons for stopping the development of new drug-candidates and are the
58 main reason for drug recalls from the market [1, 2]. Cardiovascular effects are some of the most
59 serious ADEs that may lead to hospitalization or death, and, at the same time, are widespread
60 [1]. The ADE profile of a particular drug-candidate is usually investigated during standard
61 preclinical animal tests and clinical trials according to the GLP and GCP requirements. However,
62 many rare, but serious, ADEs cannot be revealed by these studies, because of interspecies
63 differences, the limited number of patients or animals and the duration of studies; thus,
64 additional *in vitro* and *in silico* methods for the detection of serious ADEs are currently being
65 developed [3-8]. These methods are based on the determination of the relationships between
66 several chemical and biological features of drugs and their ADEs. Among these features are
67 molecular descriptors, known and predicted drug targets, gene expression changes induced by
68 drugs, phenotypic features such as perturbed pathways, or known ADEs. The relationships
69 between these features and ADEs are usually established using various machine learning
70 methods and network-based approaches. It is accepted that the interaction with human proteins is
71 the most common cause of ADEs; therefore, known and predicted human targets are the most
72 common type of drug features that are used in corresponding studies. Many of the developed
73 methods require knowledge of only the structural formula of a drug-candidate to predict its
74 potential ADEs; therefore, they can be used at the earliest stages of drug development, which
75 may sufficiently increase their effectiveness [3, 4, 8].

76 In real clinical practice, the treatment of human diseases often requires the administration of
77 several drugs, which can lead to drug-drug interactions (DDIs), thus causing an increase in the

78 frequency and severity of ADEs [9]. An evaluation of the effect of DDIs on the manifestation of
79 ADEs is a nontrivial task and requires numerous preclinical and clinical studies. To solve this
80 problem various computational approaches for the prediction of DDIs were developed [10-22].
81 Most of these approaches are based on the calculation of similarities between the profiles of
82 various chemical and biological features of two drugs. These similarities can be calculated based
83 on molecular fingerprints, drug targets, their amino acid sequences, pathways and Gene
84 Ontology (<http://www.geneontology.org/>) annotations, the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical
85 (ATC) Classification terms (https://www.whocc.no/atc_ddd_index/), as well as known ADEs of
86 individual drugs [10, 12, 13, 15-17, 18, 20, 22]. The Tanimoto coefficient is the most common
87 similarity that is measure in these studies; however, more complicated measures can be used,
88 e.g., several approaches were developed to calculate the proximity of the protein targets of two
89 drugs in a protein-protein interaction network [12, 17]. Similarity measures based on the profiles
90 of different features can be integrated into single interaction scores that allow drug pairs to be
91 ranked according to their potential ability to interact with each other. To estimate the parameters
92 of such integration and validation of obtained results, information about known DDIs was used.
93 Such data can be obtained from various public databases, including DrugBank
94 (<https://www.drugbank.ca/>) and Drugs.com (<https://www.drugs.com/>). For example, Cheng F.
95 with colleagues [13] used several machine learning methods with drug phenotypic, therapeutic,
96 chemical and genomic similarities used as features to predict DDIs. The classifiers were trained
97 on the set of known DDIs from the DrugBank database and the same number of randomly
98 chosen drug pairs as the negative examples. The best result with the area under the ROC-curve
99 (AUC) 0.67 was achieved using a support vector machine with a Gaussian radial basis function
100 kernel. In addition to approaches that are based on similarities, some other methods were
101 developed [14, 19]. Zakharov A.V. with colleagues [19] used separate training sets of pairwise
102 drug combinations for each of four isoforms of cytochromes P450, which are examples of known
103 DDIs. The corresponding information was obtained from the literature. Drug pairs were

104 represented as mixtures of compounds in ratio 1:1, and several types of molecular descriptors
105 were generated for them. The prediction models were generated by using the radial basis
106 function self-consistent regression and a Random Forest. The balanced accuracies that were
107 obtained from the cross-validation procedure varied from 0.72 to 0.79, depending on the dataset
108 [19]. Luo H., with colleagues, used the sums and differences of the docking scores for 611
109 human proteins to describe 6328 drug pairs, which represented known DDIs from the DrugBank
110 database, and the same number of drug pairs was randomly chosen as a negative example. A
111 predictive model was created based on l2-regularized logistic regressions to obtain their values.
112 The obtained accuracy, sensitivity and specificity that were calculated based on the 10-fold
113 cross-validation procedure were 0.804, 0.847 and 0.772, respectively [14].

114 Despite the significant progress in predicting DDIs, all of these methods allow for
115 estimating only the fact of interaction, but not the resulting ADEs, whereas such information is
116 important to assess the clinical significance of DDIs. The main problem is the absence of known
117 data for most of the DDI-induced ADEs. The major source of data on ADEs of individual drugs
118 is drug labels [23]; however, they usually contain very few data on ADEs that are induced by
119 DDIs. Nevertheless, the corresponding information can be obtained through the analysis of
120 spontaneous reports (SRs) which are received by regulatory agencies from healthcare
121 professionals and patients. Each SR contains information about all drugs that are prescribed to a
122 patient, as well as information about developed ADEs. An analysis of large sets of SRs allows
123 for relationships between certain ADEs and individual drugs [24-29], or drug combinations [30-
124 35], to be revealed. The datasets of individual drugs with information about ADEs obtained by
125 an analysis of SRs were earlier successfully used for the creation of predictive models that are
126 based on structure-activity relationships [27, 29]. The corresponding information on ADEs that
127 is induced by pairwise drug combinations may also potentially be used for this purpose.

128 We developed a computational approach for the assessment of cardiovascular ADEs of
129 DDIs. The approach is based on a combined analysis of SRs and predicted drug-target

130 interactions (DTIs) and allows for the prediction of five cardiovascular ADEs of DDIs:
131 myocardial infarction, ischemic stroke, ventricular tachycardia, arterial hypertension and cardiac
132 failure, with balanced accuracies from 0.73 to 0.81. Unlike most of the other methods, our
133 approach requires only structural formulas to predict cardiovascular adverse effects for any pair
134 of drugs, and, therefore, may be applied for new, drug-like compounds that have not yet been
135 studied. The developed approach can be used for the identification of pairwise drug
136 combinations that are potentially the most or least dangerous for the cardiovascular system.

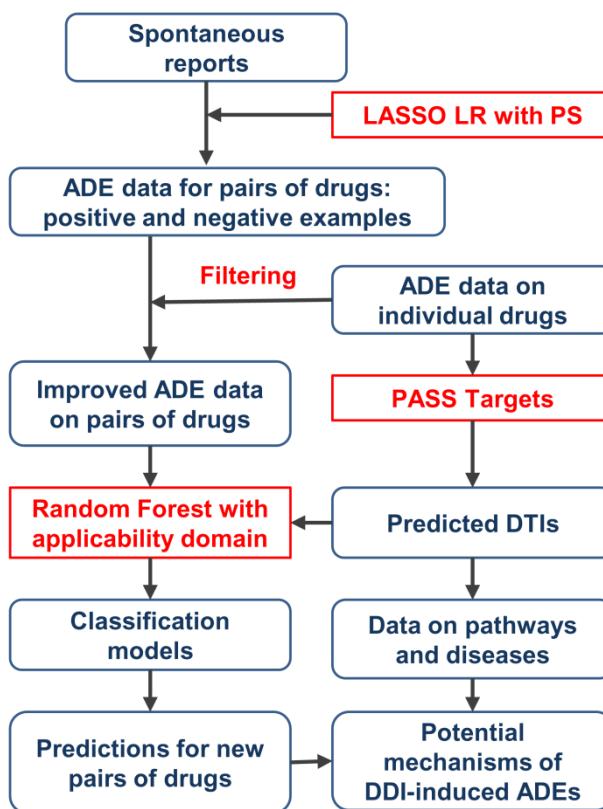
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138 **Results and discussion**

139 **General description of the approach**

140 We developed a new computational approach for the assessment of cardiovascular ADEs of
141 DDIs through a combined analysis of SRs and predicted DTIs (Fig 1).

142 The approach is based on two main steps: creation of datasets on cardiovascular DDI-
143 induced ADEs containing drug pairs that cause or do not cause ADEs, and the creation of
144 classification models for each dataset based on predicted drug targets as descriptors. The creation
145 of datasets is based on the analysis of SRs from the standardized version of publicly available
146 parts of the FDA database [36]. The analysis was performed using least absolute shrinkage and
147 selection operator (LASSO) logistic regression with the addition of propensity scores as
148 independent variables [35] (see Materials and Methods for details), which allows for the
149 identification of drug pairs that cause or do not cause cardiovascular ADEs – positive and
150 negative examples. Each “positive” drug pair represents a synergistic or additive effect of DDI
151 on the development of ADEs. This method takes into account the confounding effects of other
152 drugs and risk factors on the manifestation of ADEs and, thus, allows for datasets with lower
153 numbers of false positives to be obtained. To further improve the quality of datasets, information
154 about the ADEs of individual drugs [37] was used to filter out potentially false positive and false
155 negative examples (see Materials and Methods).



156

157 **Fig 1. The scheme of a developed computational approach for the assessment of**
158 **cardiovascular ADEs of DDIs.** LASSO LR – least absolute shrinkage and selection operator
159 (LASSO) logistic regression, PS – propensity scores (see Material and Methods).

160

161 At the second step of the approach, a PASS Targets software [38] was used to predict
162 interactions of individual drugs that were from obtained datasets with 1553 human protein
163 targets. The sums and absolute values of the differences in the probability estimates of
164 interaction with targets were used as descriptors for drug pairs. The classification models were
165 built using Random Forest along with a method that allows for the applicability domain to be
166 determined. The accuracy of prediction is estimated using a 5-fold cross-validation procedure
167 (see Materials and Methods). To demonstrate the practical benefit of the obtained models,
168 predictions of ADEs for a large amount of drug pairs were performed. The analysis of the
169 biological role of predicted protein targets for the top predicted drug pairs that potentially cause
170 ADEs allows for proposing the potential mechanisms of corresponding DDIs.

171 **Creation of datasets**

172 At the first step of the proposed approach, we created five datasets of drug pairs that cause
173 and do not cause five cardiovascular ADEs through the analysis of SRs (see Materials and
174 Methods), namely, ventricular tachycardia, myocardial infarction, ischemic stroke, arterial
175 hypertension and cardiac failure (see Table S1). Each positive drug pair represents an example of
176 a synergistic or additive DDI that causes a corresponding ADE. The datasets contain, on average,
177 more than 3100 drug pairs belonging to 335 individual drugs and 166 ATC terms of the fourth
178 level (Table 1).

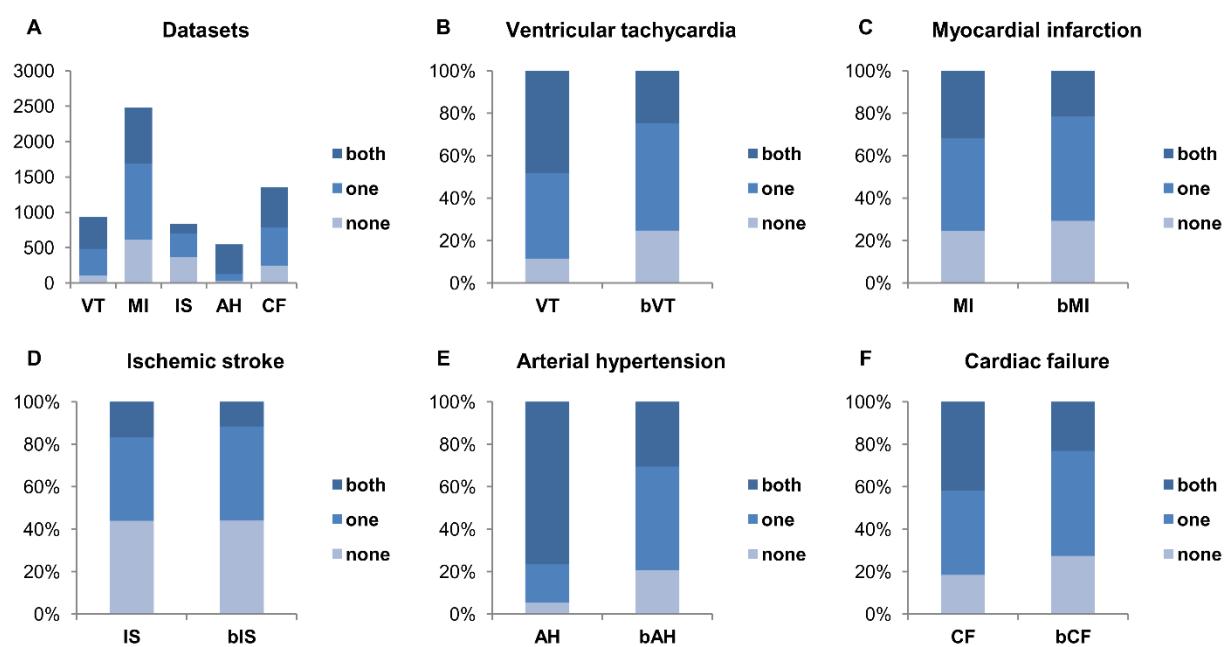
179 **Table 1. Characteristics of created datasets on DDI-induced ADEs.**

	Positive pairs	Negative pairs	Number of drugs	Number of ATC classes
Ventricular tachycardia	933	2912	376	181
Myocardial infarction	2479	1279	352	168
Ischemic stroke	838	2101	331	169
Arterial hypertension	549	1029	273	146
Cardiac failure	1350	2108	343	166

180

181 We performed the following analysis to estimate whether the obtained datasets contain
182 information reflecting DDI-induced ADEs or datasets containing information that is similar to
183 random. One may suggest that the obtained datasets contain more positive drug pairs where both
184 drugs cause the ADE when administered separately (both-ADE-causing pair) than expected by
185 chance. Indeed, the induction of ADE by DDI is more probable when both drugs may cause a
186 particular ADE. Similarly, one may suggest that the obtained datasets contain more positive drug
187 pairs, where only one of the two drugs causes the ADE (one-ADE-causing pair), compared to the
188 positive drug pairs, where neither of the two drugs cause ADE (none-ADE-causing pair), than
189 expected by chance. We compared percentages of both-, one- and none-ADE-causing drug pairs
190 among the positive pairs of datasets to the corresponding percentages for background datasets
191 (Fig 2). The background datasets contained all pairwise drug combinations where information
192 about corresponding ADEs of individual drugs was available, and both drugs were
193 simultaneously mentioned in at least 100 SRs. The obtained result indicates that the positive drug

194 pairs from our datasets were significantly enriched with both- and one-ADE-causing pairs
195 compared to the background.



197 **Fig 2. Percentages of both-, one- and none-ADE-causing drug pairs among positive pairs of**
198 **obtained and background datasets.** VT – ventricular tachycardia, MI – myocardial infarction,
199 IS – ischemic stroke, AH – arterial hypertension, CF – cardiac failure; VT, MI, IS, AH, and CF
200 are positive drug pairs from the created datasets; bVT, bMI, bIS, bAH, and bCF are drug pairs
201 from background datasets.

202

203 The statistical significance of enrichment was estimated using the chi-squared test. Enrichments
204 for all five ADEs were statistically significant with the highest p-value 0.000035 for ST dataset.

205 As a result, the created datasets are relevant, representative and can be used for further
206 analysis.

207 **Prediction of DDI-induced cardiovascular ADEs based on drug-target interactions**

208 We used Random Forest to create classification models and the local (Tree) approach to
209 determine their applicability domain [39]. The models were created based on sums and absolute
210 values of differences of probability estimates of interaction with 1553 human protein targets that
211 had been calculated for individual drugs by PASS Targets software [38]. The accuracy estimates

212 were obtained by a 5-fold cross-validation procedure with use of the “compound out” approach
213 [40] (see Materials and Methods for details). The obtained average values of AUC, sensitivity,
214 specificity and balanced accuracy were 0.838, 0.764, 0.754 and 0.759, respectively, whereas
215 95.7% of the drug pairs were in the applicability domain of the models (Table 2).

216

217 **Table 2. Prediction accuracy for five cardiovascular DDI-induced ADEs based on 5-fold**
218 **cross-validation procedure.**

	AUC	Sensitivity	Specificity	Balanced accuracy	In applicability domain
Ventricular tachycardia	0.807	0.743	0.718	0.731	96.1%
Myocardial infarction	0.856	0.794	0.763	0.778	95.3%
Ischemic stroke	0.808	0.734	0.724	0.729	95.6%
Arterial hypertension	0.892	0.789	0.832	0.810	95.5%
Cardiac failure	0.824	0.761	0.734	0.747	96.1%

219

220 The obtained relatively high accuracies allow for the application of the created models to solve
221 practical tasks, e.g., to perform a search of new pairwise combinations of drugs that potentially
222 interact and cause cardiovascular ADEs.

223 **Prediction of DDI-induced ADEs for the new drug pairs**

224 The created datasets contain from hundreds to thousands of drug pairs that cause
225 cardiovascular ADEs depending on the effect; however, the number of possible pairwise drug
226 combinations is much higher. To investigate the practical benefit of the created classification
227 models, we performed a prediction of the DDIs-induced ADEs for all of the possible drug pairs
228 that were generated from individual drugs with known data on five cardiovascular ADEs [37].

229 Five large datasets were generated with more than 230000 drug pairs on average, and 190000
230 pairs (84%) of them were in the applicability domain of the models (see Table 3). Surprisingly,
231 nearly half of the drug pairs in the datasets were predicted to cause corresponding DDI-induced
232 ADEs. The average number of positive drug pairs in the training sets (see Table 1) is almost
233 approximately 40%. Moreover, according to the datasets of individual drugs with information on
234 five cardiovascular ADEs taken from our previous work [37], nearly 40% of the single drugs
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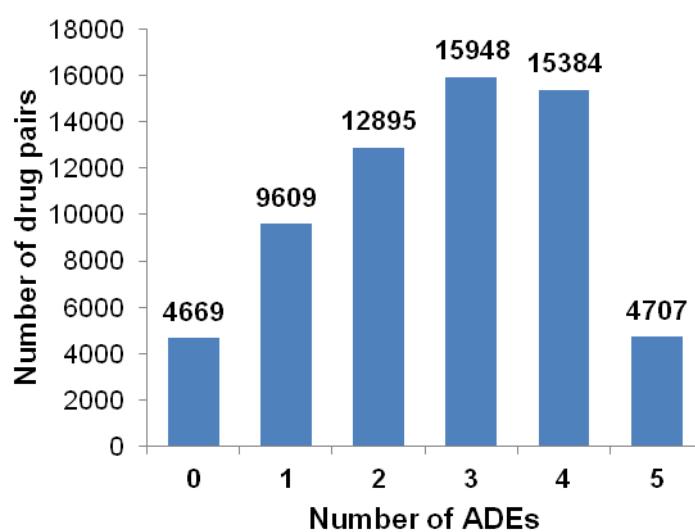
235 also cause ADE. This is not much less than the percentages of predicted ADE-causing drug pairs
236 (Table 3).

237 **Table 3. Numbers of drug pairs with predicted ADEs.**

	Number of pairs	Number of pairs with ADE	Pairs with ADE, %	In applicability domain, %
Ventricular tachycardia	232480	157393	52.8	84.9
Myocardial infarction	195933	101063	51.6	83.3
Ischemic stroke	189275	98006	51.8	84.5
Arterial hypertension	161873	57457	35.5	86.2
Cardiac failure	192326	108064	56.2	82.8

238

239 The high percentages of known and predicted ADE-causing drug pairs may be explained by the
240 fact that most of them, such as individual drugs, may cause ADEs only in a small percentage of
241 patients. Therefore, the clinical significance of DDI in relation to the cardiovascular system may
242 be estimated based on only the number of predicted ADEs. We chose 63212 drug pairs that are
243 in all five of the large datasets and are in the applicability domain of all five models and found
244 that only 4707 drug pairs (7.4%) potentially cause all five cardiovascular ADEs (Fig 3). The
245 potentially most dangerous drug combinations are listed in Table S2.

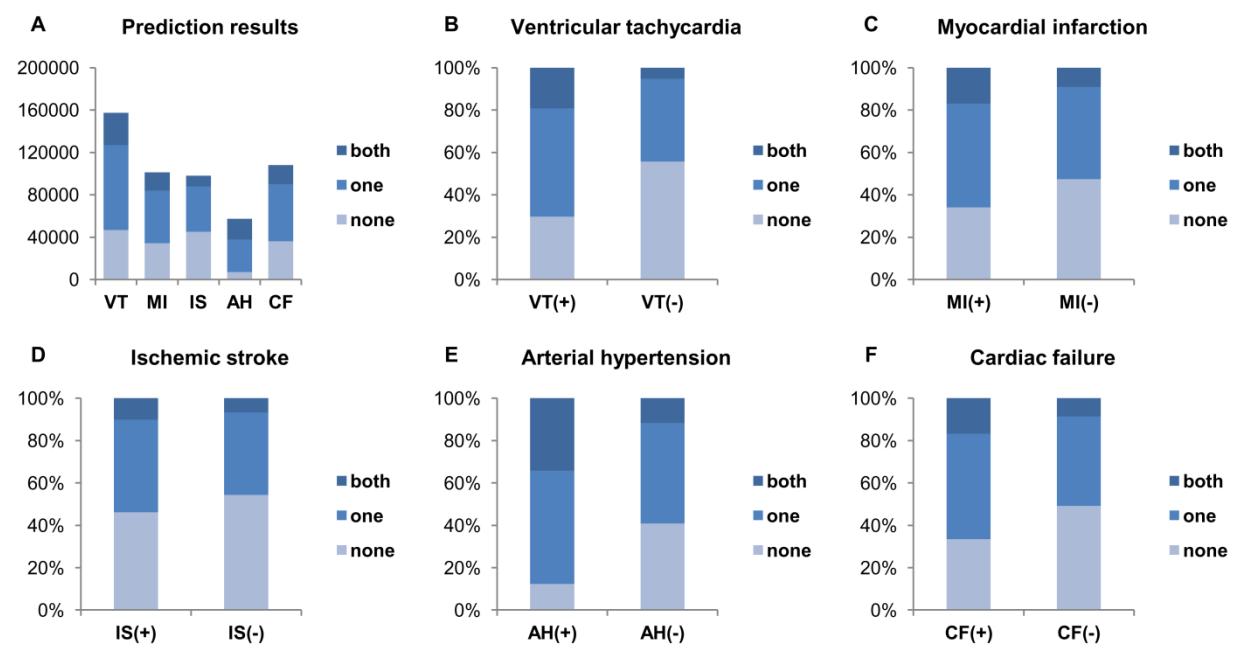


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247 **Fig 3. Number of cardiovascular ADEs predicted for a large dataset of drug pairs.** Zero
248 (“0”) means that none of five ADEs were predicted for the pairwise drug combination.

249

250 To estimate the relevance of the predicted ADEs, we performed an analysis of the
251 distribution of both-, one- and none-ADE-causing drug pairs among combinations that were
252 predicted to be positives and negatives in relation to the corresponding ADEs (Fig 4).



253
254 **Fig 4. Percentages of both-, one- and none-ADE-causing drug pairs among predicted**
255 **positive and negative pairs of large datasets.** VT(+), MI(+), IS(+), AH(+), and CF(+) are
256 predicted to be positive drug pairs for ventricular tachycardia, myocardial infarction, ischemic
257 stroke, arterial hypertension and cardiac failure; VT(-), MI(-), IS(-), AH(-), and CF(-) are
258 predicted to be negative drug pairs for the same ADEs.

259
260 The observed distribution is similar to that shown in Fig 2. We found that drug pairs that
261 potentially cause ADE contain higher percentages of both- and one-ADE-causing pairs
262 compared to the drug pairs that potentially do not cause ADE. It means that, generally, the
263 prediction results are relevant.

264 The DrugBank database contains some data on known DDIs that lead to ventricular
265 tachycardia (or prolongation of the QT interval on an electrocardiogram) and arterial
266 hypertension. We selected corresponding drug pairs that intersect with the large created datasets
267 and are in the applicability domain of classification models (Table 4).

268 **Table 4. Prediction accuracy on positive drug pairs from the DrugBank for ventricular**
269 **tachycardia and arterial hypertension.**

	N of drug pairs	AUC
Ventricular tachycardia	3264	0.746
Arterial hypertension	112	0.774

270

271 We compared the predicted probability estimates of these pairs with all other pairs in large
272 datasets. The observed AUC values indicate that the positive pairs from DrugBank are usually
273 the top ranking among all pairs in the datasets (Table 4).

274 The results of these analyses and the results of 5-fold cross-validation (the average area
275 under the ROC curve, sensitivity, specificity and balanced accuracy were 0.838, 0.764, 0.754
276 and 0.759, respectively; see Table 2) indicate that the accuracy of the prediction of DDI-induced
277 cardiovascular ADEs is relatively high and that the created models can be applied in the search
278 for new pairwise combinations of drugs that are the most or the least dangerous for the
279 cardiovascular system. Because DTIs are needed for the creation of models that were predicted
280 by PASS Targets software based on structures of drugs, the developed models can be used for
281 any drug-like compounds, including those for which only structural formulas are known. For
282 example, they can be used to predict DDI-induced ADEs for drug candidates on the stage of
283 clinical trials.

284 **Assessment of the potential mechanisms of DDI-induced ADEs**

285 Since DDI-induced ADEs are effectively estimated by using data on predicted DTIs, the
286 corresponding information on drug targets may also be used to reveal the potential mechanisms
287 of cardiovascular ADEs and to influence DDIs in their manifestation.

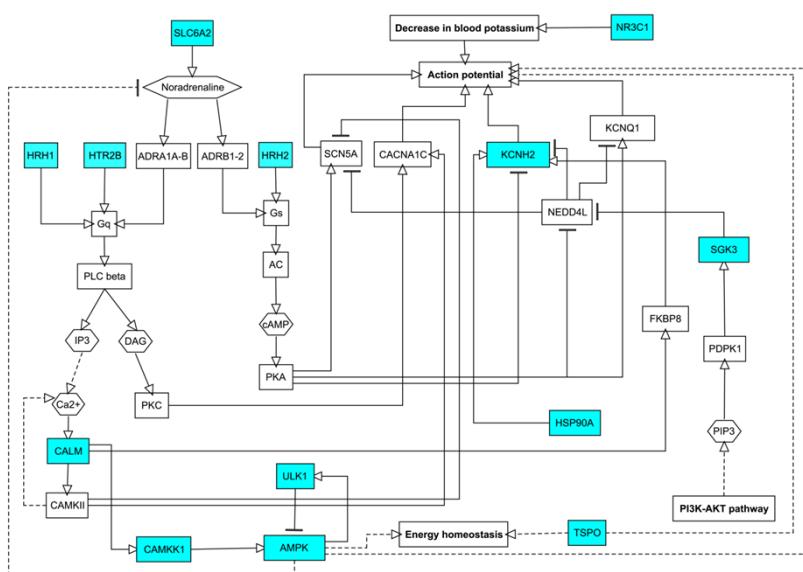
288 We performed a corresponding analysis for the top 5 none-VT-causing drug pairs from the
289 large dataset with the highest probability scores for ventricular tachycardia (VT) (Table 5). The
290 drugs from these pairs cannot cause ventricular tachycardia when administered separately;
291 however, the drugs possibly cause VT when they are administered together.

292 **Table 5. Potential mechanisms of DDI-induced ventricular tachycardia (VT) for the top 5**
293 **scored none-VT-causing drug pairs.** The bold and underlined gene names mean known,
294 experimentally confirmed drug targets from DrugBank and ChEMBL databases. Symbols ↑ and
295 ↓ mean up- and down-regulation of the protein function by the drug.

Drug pairs	Common cytochromes P450	Known and predicted drug targets associated with ventricular tachycardia
Dapsone-Emtricitabine	–	Dapsone: SGK3. Emtricitabine: PRKAA2, ULK1
Cortisone Acetate-Dapsone	<u>CYP3A4</u>	Cortisone Acetate: <u>NR3C1</u> ↑. Dapsone: SGK3
Eszopiclone-Chlorphenamine	<u>CYP3A4</u>	Eszopiclone: <u>TSPO</u> ↑, CAMKK1, ULK1. Chlorphenamine: <u>HRH1</u> ↓, <u>SLC6A2</u> ↓, <u>HTR2B</u> , HRH2, KCNH2, CALM
Dapsone-Dolutegravir	<u>CYP3A4</u>	Dapsone: SGK3
Voriconazole-Dapsone	<u>CYP3A4</u> , <u>CYP3A5</u> , <u>CYP3A7</u> , <u>CYP2C9</u> , <u>CYP2C19</u>	Voriconazole: HSP90AA1. Dapsone: SGK3

296

297 We found that the DDIs for these drug pairs may occur at both levels of pharmacokinetics and
298 pharmacodynamics. First, the drugs from four of five pairs are metabolized by the same
299 cytochromes P450. Second, corresponding drugs potentially interact with protein targets to
300 influence the action potential of cardiac cells. These targets, either known or predicted, are
301 shown in Table 5. It is important that only chlorphenamine was predicted to interact with the
302 HERG (KCNH2) potassium channel, which is a well-known protein that is associated with
303 ventricular tachycardia [5]. However, this and other drugs from selected pairs that are known to
304 or are predicted to interact with human proteins form compact fragments of the regulatory
305 network (Fig 5) and indirectly change the action potential. Such changes may form a basis for
306 the induction of ventricular tachycardia in predisposed patients.



308 **Fig 5. Influence of known and predicted protein targets of the top 5 scored none-VT-**
309 **causing drug pairs on the action potential in the heart.** VT - ventricular tachycardia. Cyan
310 nodes represent known and predicted protein targets of drugs from selected pairs, and white
311 nodes represent intermediate proteins in the regulatory network. Solid edges represent direct
312 interactions, and dashed edges represent indirect interactions. The figure was created based on
313 data from KEGG pathways (<https://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html>) and from
314 corresponding information in the literature.

316 Materials and Methods

317 Assessment of DDI-induced ADEs through the analysis of SRs

318 In our study, we used the AEOLUS database [36] as a source of SRs. AEOLUS is a curated
319 version of publicly available parts of the FDA database of SRs
320 (<https://www.fda.gov/Drugs/GuidanceComplianceRegulatoryInformation/Surveillance/Adverse>
321 DrugEffects/default.htm), where the names of ADEs, drugs and indications are standardized. We
322 selected only those SRs that contain description of drugs, ADEs and drug indications, because all
323 of these types of data are required for further analysis. A total of 4028051 SRs were selected.
324 The ADEs and indications in the database were described by the preferred terms (PTs) of the

325 MedDRA dictionary (<https://www.meddra.org/>). Since some PTs may describe pathologies that
326 are related to the same or similar ADEs, we selected the main PTs, which exactly match the
327 investigated ADEs and support PTs, which are conditions that are similar to or are indirectly
328 related to ADEs. The main and supporting PTs for five investigated cardiovascular ADEs are
329 presented in Table 6.

330

331 **Table 6. Main and supporting PTs for five investigated cardiovascular ADEs.**

Main PTs	Supporting PTs
Torsade de Pointes Ventricular Tachycardia	Electrocardiogram QT Prolonged Electrocardiogram QT Corrected Interval Prolonged Ventricular Arrhythmia
Acute Myocardial Infarction Acute Coronary Syndrome Myocardial Infarction	Angina Pectoris Angina Unstable Arteriosclerosis Coronary Artery Arterospasm Coronary Coronary Artery Disease Coronary Artery Occlusion Coronary Artery Stenosis Coronary Artery Thrombosis Myocardial Ischemia
Hypertension Hypertensive Crisis	Blood Pressure Increased Blood Pressure Systolic Increased Blood Pressure Diastolic Increased
Cerebrovascular Accident Cerebral Infarction Ischemic Stroke	Cerebral Ischemia Transient Ischemic Attack
Cardiac Failure Acute Cardiac Failure Congestive Cardiac Failure Cardiogenic Shock Cardiopulmonary Failure Left Ventricular Failure Right Ventricular Failure	–

332

333 At the next step, we selected those drugs in the AEOLUS database that have annotations on
334 five investigated cardiovascular ADEs: ventricular tachycardia, myocardial infarction, ischemic
335 stroke, arterial hypertension and cardiac failure. The data on drugs that caused and did not cause

336 five ADEs was obtained from our previous study [37]. The following numbers of drugs were
337 selected: 496 drugs for ventricular tachycardia, 460 drugs for myocardial infarction, 447 drugs
338 for ischemic stroke, 398 drugs for arterial hypertension, and 467 drugs for cardiac failure. The
339 data on the five ADEs of these individual drugs are represented in Table S3.

340 We selected drug pairs that were formed by these drugs with at least 100 SRs wherein both
341 drugs are mentioned. For each pair of drugs and each PT from Table 6, we performed an analysis
342 which is based on three steps. At the first step, we found which of the drug pairs are associated
343 with selected PTs. At the second step we used LASSO logistical regression [35] to estimate the
344 potential synergistic and additive DDIs that are associated with the drug pairs that were selected
345 in step 1. At this step, noninteracting drug pairs were also determined. At the third step, we
346 integrated the obtained data on different PTs into single ADEs to create datasets with positive
347 and negative examples of DDI-induced ADEs (see Table 1).

348 **Step 1. Identification of the association between drug pairs and PTs.** A proportional reporting
349 ratio (PRR) was used to determine the drug pairs that are associated with each PT. PRR is
350 calculated as follows:

351

352
$$PRR = \frac{A(B + D)}{B(A + C)} \quad (1)$$

353

354 The value A is a number of the SRs where both the drug pair and PT are mentioned; B is a
355 number of SRs where PT is mentioned, but the drug pair is not mentioned; C is a number of SRs
356 where the drug pair and other PTs are mentioned; and D is a number of SRs where the PT and
357 drug pair are not mentioned.

358 According to previously published criteria [26, 28], we considered a relationship between
359 the drug pair and PT if $PRR \geq 2$, $A \geq 2$ and $\chi^2 \geq 4$. The selected associations were used at
360 the next step of analysis.

361 **Step 2. Identification of synergistic and additive DDIs.** We identified synergistic and additive
362 pairwise DDIs that are associated with each PT by using LASSO logistic regression with
363 propensity scores (PSs). The method is described in detail in the original publication [35].

364 Briefly, PS is a conditional probability of being exposed to a drug that is calculated for each
365 SR. This probability depends on the patient's diseases and, indirectly, on co-administered drugs.
366 The PS indirectly reflects the influence of human diseases and co-administered drugs on the
367 development of ADE, and, thus, allows for the filtering of many false positive drug-ADE
368 associations. We calculated the PSs for each drug-SR pair based on the top 100 co-administered
369 drugs and the top 100 most relevant drug indications. The relevance of co-administered drugs
370 and indications of a drug were measured by a phi correlation coefficient.

371 The final values of the PSs were calculated by using the following logistic regression:

372

$$373 PS = \text{logit}(P(\text{drug} = 1)) = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{100} \beta_i In_i + \sum_{j=1}^{100} \gamma_j Dr_j \quad (2)$$

374

375 In formula (2), the values In_i and Dr_j are the indication and co-administered drug with relevance
376 ranks i and j .

377 Next, we used LASSO logistic regression to estimate the probability of PT for each SR that
378 depends on the presence of two drugs in SR, their possible interaction, and the corresponding
379 PSs as follows:

380

$$381 \text{logit}(P(PT = 1)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 PS_1 + \beta_2 PS_2 + \beta_3 Drug_1 + \beta_4 Drug_2 + \beta_5 Drug_1 * Drug_2 + \lambda |\beta|_1 \quad (3)$$

382

383 In formula (3), PS_1 and PS_2 are PSs for $Drug_1$ and $Drug_2$, $|\beta|_1$ is l_1 norm of coefficients, and λ is a
384 tuning parameter of regularization. Parameter λ was determined through a 3-fold cross-validation

385 procedure. The potential synergistic and additive DDIs that are associated with PTs were
386 determined based on β_3 , β_4 and β_5 coefficients:

387 – *synergistic DDI* for drug pair-PT association was considered if β_5 was more than 0;
388 – *additive DDI* for drug pair-PT association was considered if β_5 equals 0, β_3 and β_4 were more
389 than 0, and drug₁, drug₂ have known links to the corresponding ADE in datasets from our
390 previous study [37].

391 – *absence of DDI* for the drug pair-PT association was considered if either β_3 or β_4 were less or
392 equal to 0, and β_5 was less or equal to 0. Additionally, we considered the absence of DDIs if the
393 corresponding drug pair-PT association was not determined at step 1 (the condition PRR ≥ 2 , A ≥ 2
394 and chi-square ≥ 4 was not true) and the drug pair was mentioned in at least 500 SRs.

395 **Step 3. Integration of data on different PTs.** To create final datasets with the information on
396 DDI-induced ADEs, we integrated data on the PTs as follows:

397 – The drug pair was considered to be “positive” according to the corresponding ADE if it was
398 linked to at least two main PTs, or at least to one main and one supporting PT at step 2 of the
399 analysis.

400 – The drug pair was considered to be “negative” according to the corresponding ADE if it was
401 linked to neither of the PTs that are associated with this ADE. Additionally, we removed from
402 this category those drug pairs in which both drugs are ADE-causing, according to data from our
403 previous study [37], as potentially false negatives.

404 As a result, datasets for the five cardiovascular ADEs were created (see Results and
405 Discussion, Table 1).

406 **Prediction of drug-target interactions**

407 Interactions of individual drugs with human proteins were predicted by the PASS Targets
408 software [38]. PASS (Prediction of Activity Spectra for Substances) [41-43] can be used for the
409 prediction of various types of biological activities and is associated with several hundred success
410 stories of its practical application, with experimental confirmation of the prediction results [43],

411 44]. It uses Multilevel Neighborhoods of Atoms (MNA) descriptors and the Bayesian approach
412 and is available as a desktop program as well as a freely available web service on the Way2Drug
413 platform (<http://www.way2drug.com/PASSOnline/>) [45]. PASS Targets is a special version of
414 PASS that is based on training data from the ChEMBL database (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/chembl/>)
415 and allows for predicting interactions with 1553 human protein targets with an average AUC
416 0.97 and a minimal AUC 0.85 [38]. The full list of human targets is presented in Table S4.

417 PASS provides two estimates of probabilities for each target of a chemical compound: The
418 Pa probability to interact with a target, and the Pi probability to not interact with a target. If a
419 compound has $Pa > Pi$, it can be considered as interacting with the target. The larger the Pa and
420 $Pa - Pi$ values, the greater the probability of obtaining an activity against a target in the
421 experiment. In this study, we used a threshold $Pa > 0.3$ for the estimation of protein targets of
422 drugs from the top 5 scored non-VT-causing drug pairs (see the last section of the Results and
423 Discussion).

424 We used sums and absolute values of differences of $Pa/(Pa+Pi)$ values, calculated by PASS
425 for individual drugs, to obtain corresponding values for pairs of drugs. Thus, each drug pair was
426 described by a vector of 3106 values, which were further used as descriptors for the creation of
427 classification models (see below).

428 **Creation of classification models for DDI-induced cardiovascular ADEs**

429 Classification models for the prediction of five DDI-induced cardiovascular ADEs were
430 created by the r Random Forest method. We used the RandomForest function from
431 “RandomForest” R package (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/randomForest/>) for this
432 purpose. All arguments of this function were set to default.

433 The applicability domain of the obtained models was determined by the local (Tree)
434 approach, which was described earlier [39].

435 The accuracy of created models was determined by a 5-fold cross validation procedure
436 according to the “compound out” approach, wherein each drug pair in the test set must contain at
437 least one drug that is absent in all drug pairs of the training set [40].

438

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441

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584

585 **Supporting information**

586 **S1 Table. Datasets with information of DDI-induced cardiovascular ADEs.**

587 **S2 Table. Drug pairs potentially causing all five cardiovascular ADEs.**

588 **S3 Table. Information about cardiovascular ADEs of individual drugs used in the study.**

589 **S4 Table. The list of human protein targets predicted by PASS Targets software.** Numbers
590 of active compounds in the training set as well as the AUC values that were obtained by leave-
591 one-out cross-validation are given.

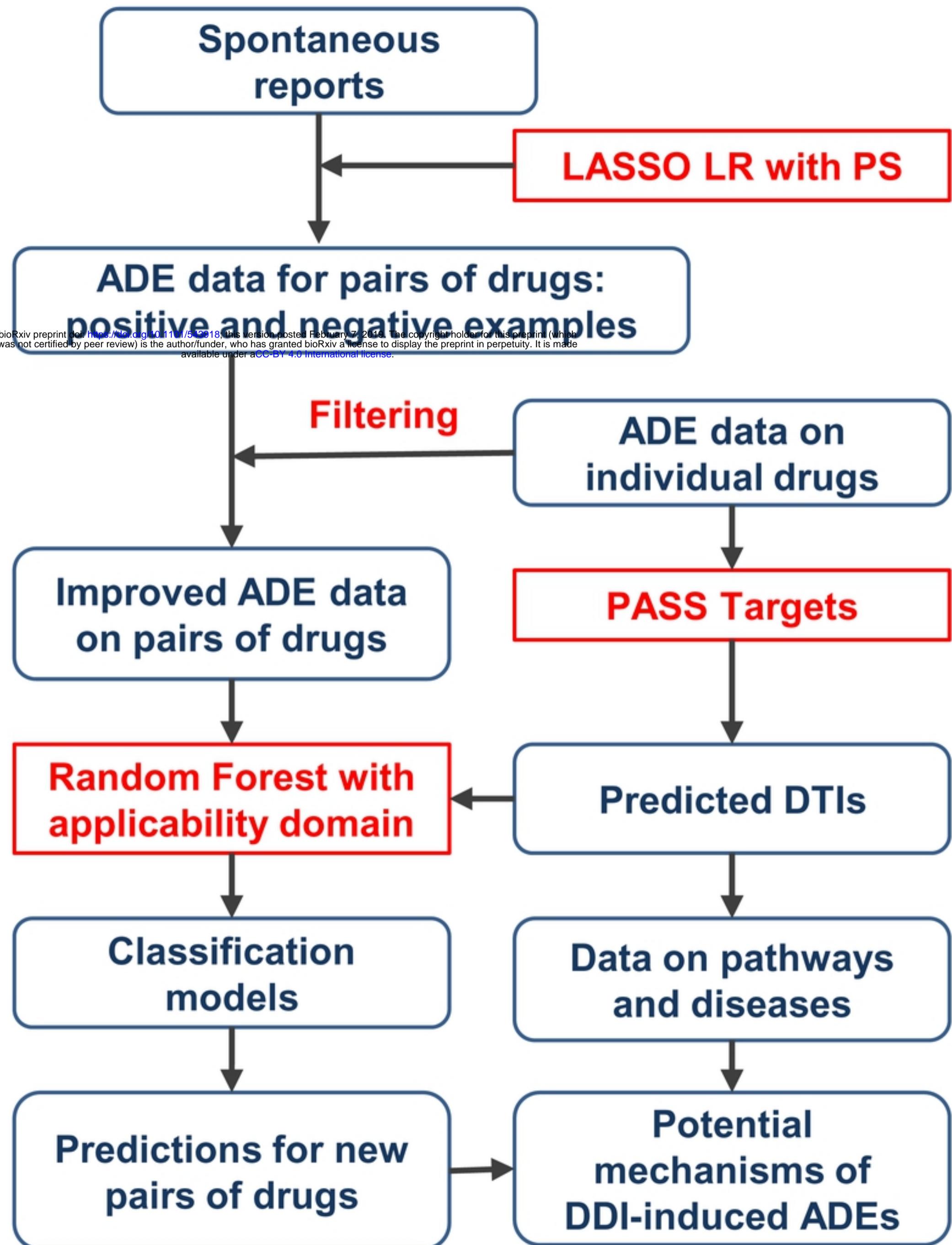


Figure 1

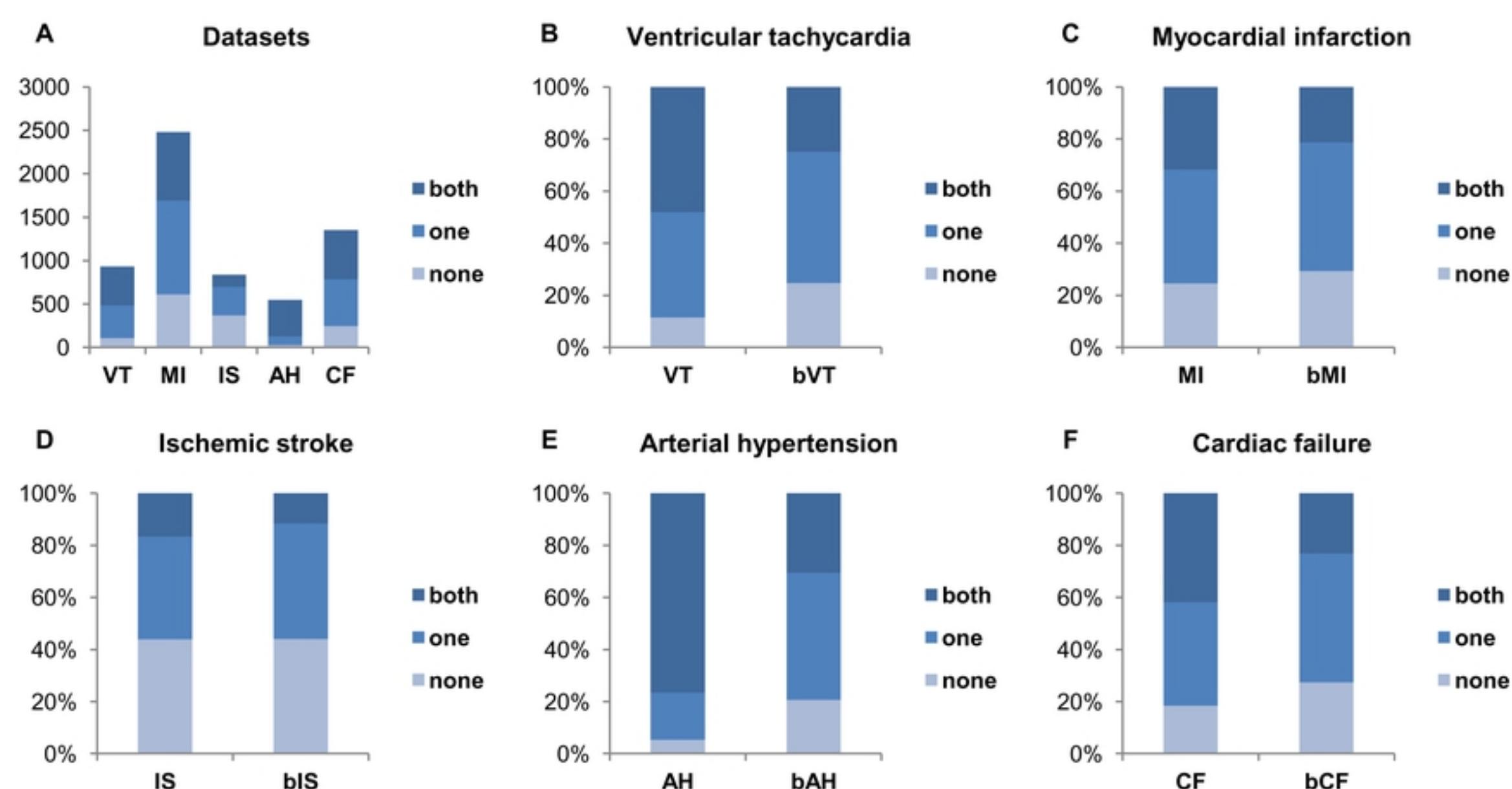


Figure 2

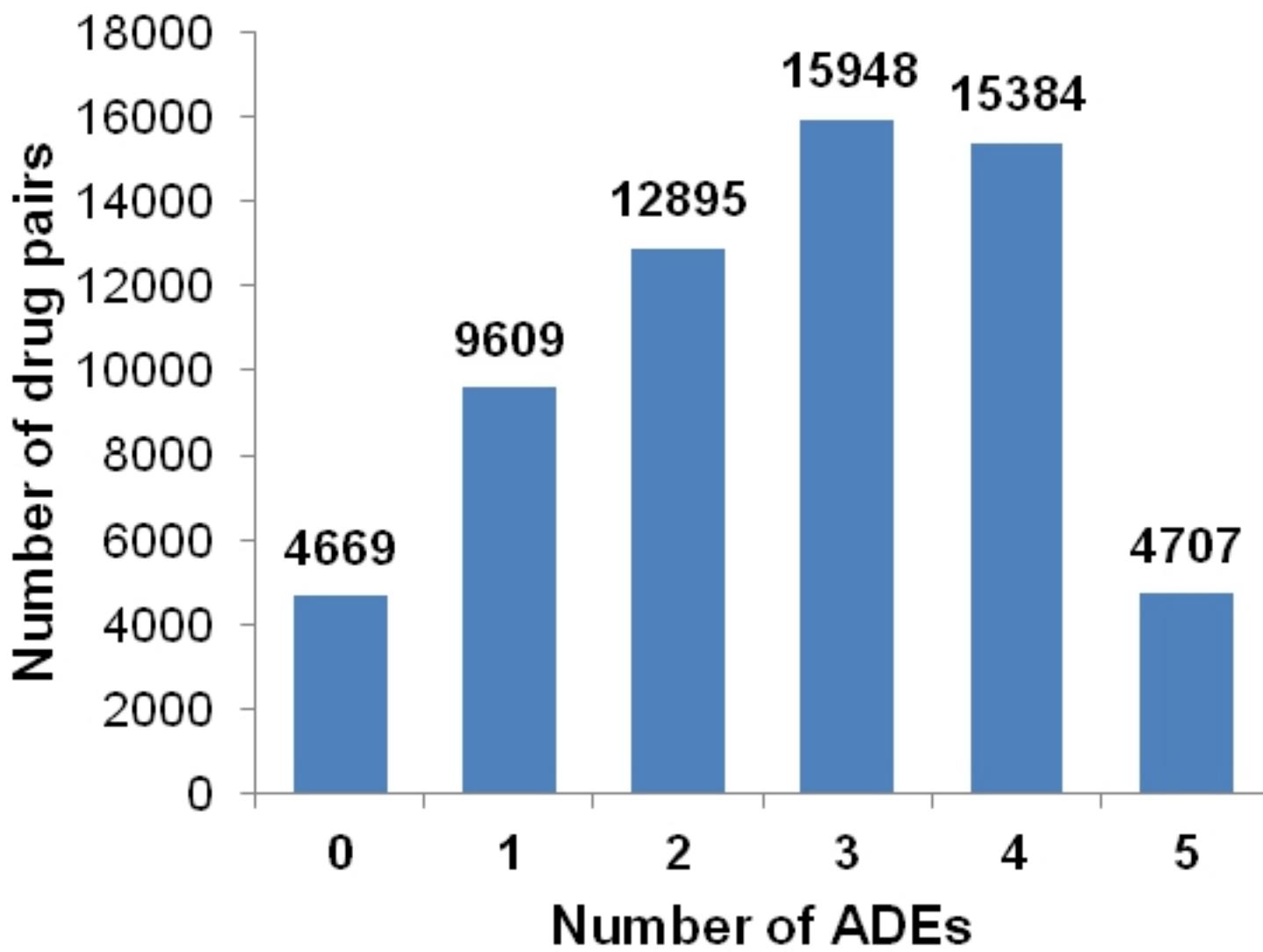


Figure 3

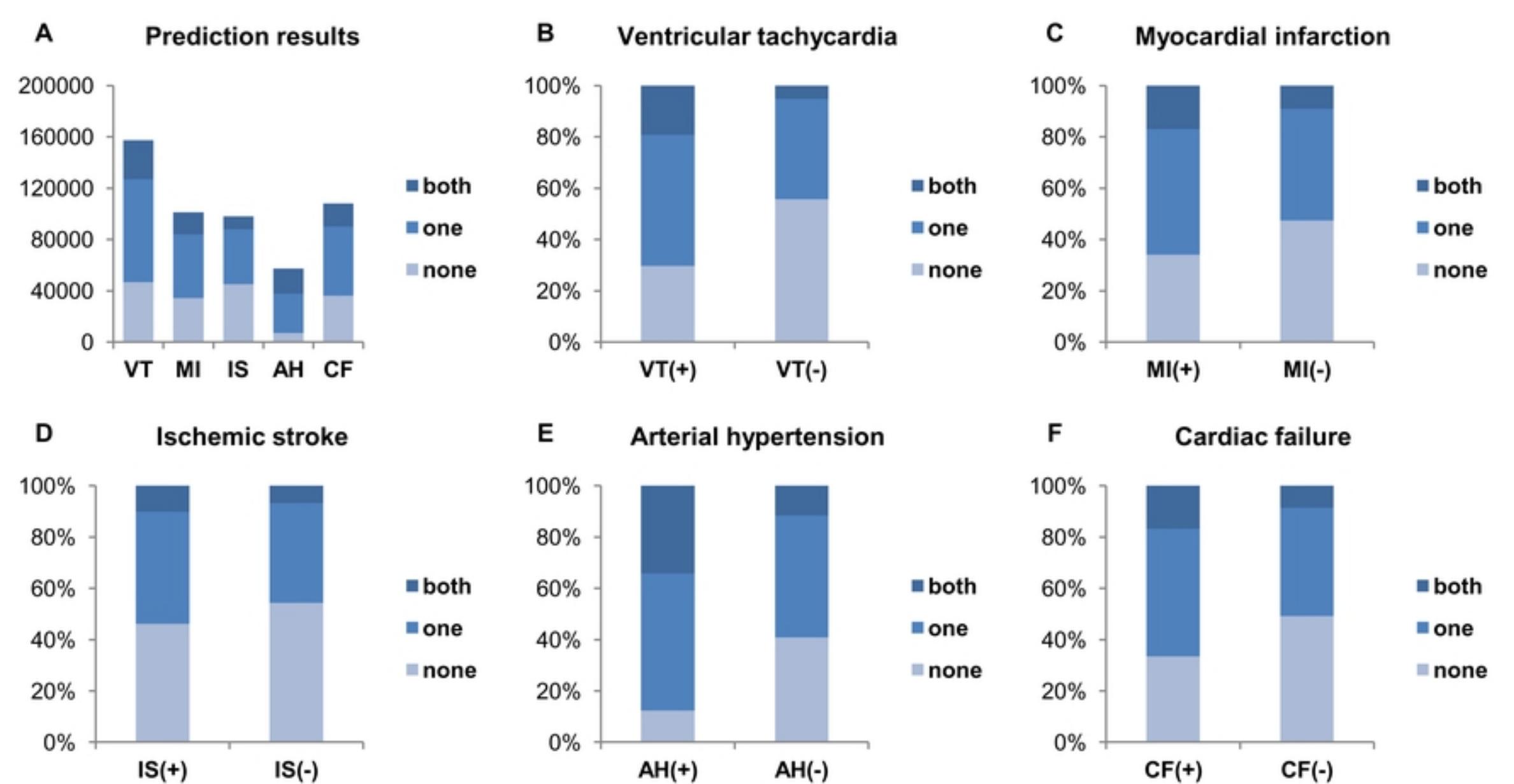


Figure 4

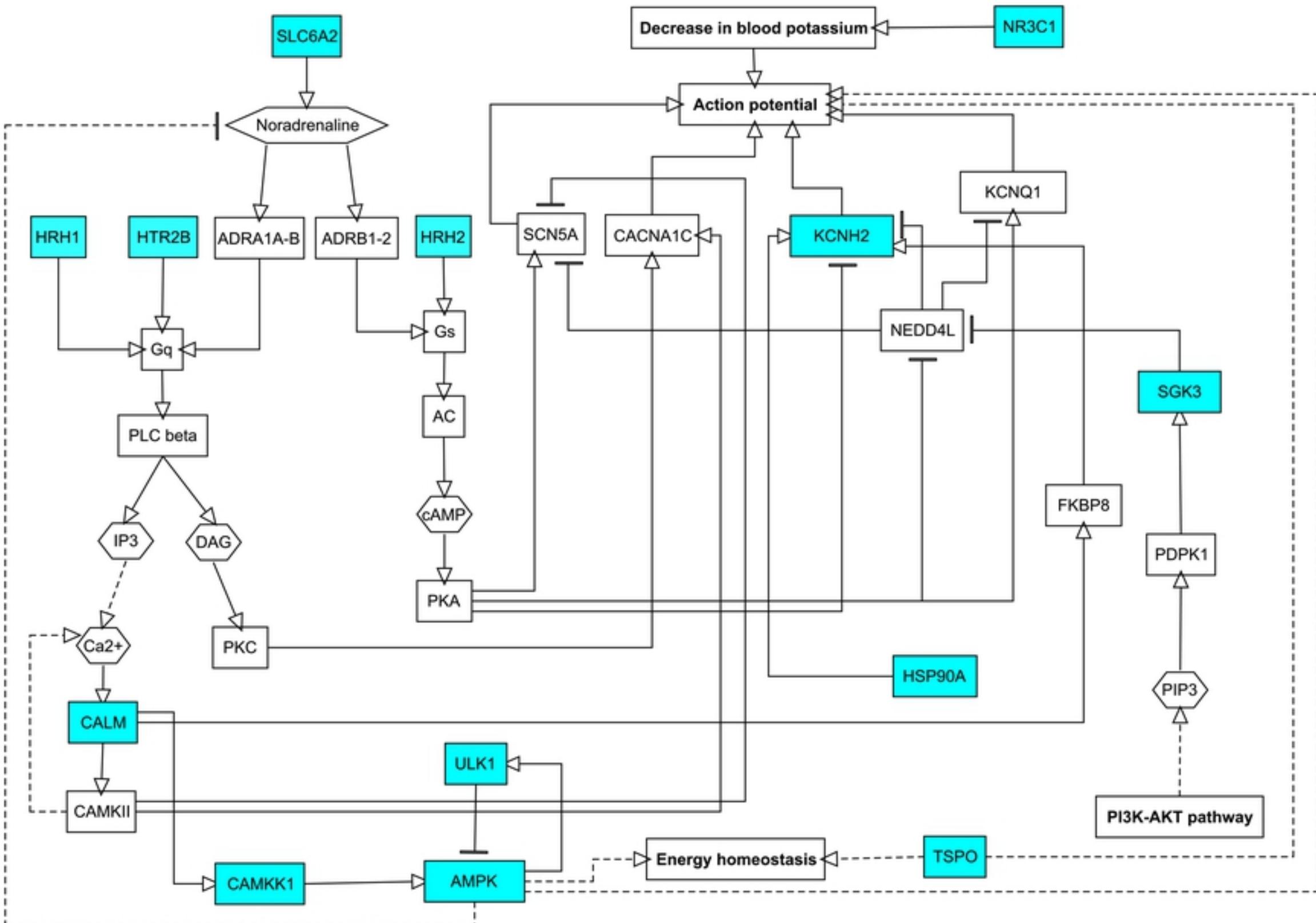


Figure 5