

Adult attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: a comprehensive review

Ozge C. Williams, MD^a, Sakshi Prasad, MD^{b,*}, Amanda McCrary, BA^c, Erica Jordan, MD^d, Vishi Sachdeva, MBBS^e, Sheryl Deva, MBBS^f, Harendra Kumar, MBBS^l, Jayati Mehta, MBBS^g, Purushottam Neupane, MBBS^l, Aditi Gupta, MBBS^h

Abstract

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a common childhood disorder, with only 2-3% prevalence into adulthood. The epidemiology and proposed causes of ADHD are multifactorial, including genetic, prenatal and environmental influences. The diagnosis of ADHD is often complicated by masking coping mechanisms, an overlap of symptoms with other, more commonly diagnosed disorders. Traditionally, it has been treated with stimulant medications. Non-stimulant options often target norepinephrine and dopamine regulation and are preferred in cases of comorbid substance use disorder, anxiety and other complicating factors, due to an improved side-effect profile and patient preference. They include atomoxetine and viloxazine. The latter, Viloxazine, in the form of extended-release capsules, is the first novel, non-stimulant option approved for adults with ADHD, in the past two decades. Its therapeutic effects are predominantly produced by its action as a norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor and may also modulate the serotonergic system. Viloxazine is relatively safe and effective in treating other disorders such as depression, anxiety, epilepsy and substance use disorder. Its pharmacokinetics includes metabolization by CYP enzymes. As antiepileptics inhibit CYP1A2, therefore, a special consideration would be needed, when co-administering with anti-epileptic drugs. Similarly, individuals with liver or cardiovascular disease and a personal or family history of bipolar disorder require close monitoring, while on this medication. A thorough review of the history, mechanism of action, pharmacokinetics and drug-drug interactions has been presented here, with special attention on treatment in adults with comorbid conditions. This study conducted an all-language literature search on Medline, Cochrane, Embase, and Google Scholar until December 2022. The following search strings and Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms were used: "Viloxazine," "ADHD," "Stimulants," and "adult ADHD." We explored the literature on the growing knowledge of Viloxazine. A thorough review of the history, mechanism of action, pharmacokinetics, and drug-drug interactions are reviewed here with special attention on treatment in adults with comorbid conditions.

Keywords: ADHD, amphetamines, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, Qelbree, review, viloxazine

Introduction

ADHD is a neurological and neurodevelopmental disorder that begins in childhood and is characterized by persistent patterns of inattention, impulsivity, restlessness and hyperactivity^[1]. ADHD is well recognized in the paediatric population, first described as a clinical diagnosis in the 1930s, but the focus has shifted to recognition and treatment of the disorder in adults^[2]. ADHD has an estimated adult prevalence of ~2–3%^[3]. In addition, ADHD has been shown to be significantly correlated with a wide range of

psychiatric disorders, including mood disorders, oppositional and antisocial personality disorders, self-harm and substance abuse, which impose a significant social and family burden increase^[4]. Compared with ADHD in childhood, ADHD in adults has been relatively neglected in epidemiological studies, mainly due to the lack of established valid diagnostic criteria^[4]. The American Psychiatric Association's Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) is a widely used approach for diagnosing ADHD in adults and requires childhood onset^[4]. The purpose of this review is to describe the

Sponsorships or competing interests that may be relevant to content are disclosed at the end of this article.

Published online 12 April 2023

^aDepartment of Psychiatry, Ozark Center Joplin, Joplin, MO, ^bDepartment of Psychiatry National Pirogov Memorial Medical University, Vinnytsya, Ukraine, ^cStudent of Medicine, University of Medicine and Health Sciences – St. Kitts, ^dMedical University of the Americas, St. Kitts & Nevis, ^eAdesh Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Bathinda, ^fKamineni Academy of Medical Sciences and Research Centre, Hyderabad, ^gDr ND Desai Medical College & Hospital, Nadiad, Gujarat, ^hJawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Belgaum, Kamataka, India, ⁱDow University of Health Sciences, Karachi and ^jPunjab Medical college,faisalabad, Pakistan

^{*}Corresponding author. Address: Department of Psychiatry National Pirogov Memorial Medical University, 21018, Vinnytsya, Ukraine. Tel:.+91 8000274206. E-mail: sakshiprasad8@gmail.com (S. Prasad).

Copyright © 2023 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial-No Derivatives License 4.0 (CCBY-NC-ND), where it is permissible to download and share the work provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be changed in any way or used commercially without permission from the journal.

Annals of Medicine & Surgery (2023) 85:1802–1810

Received 29 December 2022; Accepted 31 March 2023

http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MS9.000000000000631

characteristics and the associated comorbidities of Adult ADHD and to depict the scope of available treatment. In this review, treatment options are summarized with a special emphasis on non-stimulants.

Aetiology

Several factors contribute to ADHD symptoms, including genetics, neurodevelopmental disorders, abnormal neuronal maturation, brain injury, environmental exposure and consanguinity. A recent study by Posner and colleagues reported that environmental risk factors contribute to ADHD symptoms at prenatal, perinatal, and postnatal stages. Prenatal and perinatal risk factors such as prematurity, low birth weight, maternal smoking history, stress, trauma and obesity are substantially associated with ADHD. Postnatal risk factors such as trauma, parenting style, artificial colours and fragrances, pollutants, and pesticides can exacerbate ADHD symptoms^[1]. Medication-based treatment strategies have proven effective and inexpensive in the short term, and many compounds are available, recommended and widely used. The long-term efficacy of these treatments on clinical, occupational and social outcomes remains unknown. It is clear that better long-term treatments for ADHD are urgently needed^[5].

Gender differences

Studies in children and adolescents have shown that the disorder is at least three times more common in men, but that the adult male/female ratio here tends to decrease to 2:1^[5]. The prevalence of ADHD is estimated at 7.1% in children and adolescents, 2.5–5% in adults, and ~2.8% in the elderly. Sex differences in the prevalence of ADHD are well documented. Male clinical referrals typically outnumber females, with ratios ranging from 3:1 to 16:1^[6].

The observed sex difference could be explained by the higher frequency of hyperactivity and behavioural problems in boys and their greater likelihood of referral to a clinician. Conversely, girls with ADHD may exhibit more attentional symptoms and fewer hyperactivity/impulsivity symptoms, coupled with better coping skills, making them less likely to be referred. Sex differences also appear to influence the prevalence of comorbidities. In particular, women who suffer from ADHD are more likely to have depression and eating disorders, and men are more likely to have substance use disorders^[7]. This increase in awareness of ADHD among women is partly due to the growing awareness of gender differences in ADHD symptoms. ADHD men are more likely than women to exhibit the core symptoms of her ADHD-I (inattentiveness), HI (hyperactivity/impulsiveness) and C (combined) symptoms. ADHD-I is more common in women and ADHD-HI is more common in men. HI presentation is associated with impulsive and hyperactive behaviours, and I presentation is associated with hypo arousal, inattentiveness and withdrawal. Her ADHD-I symptoms, characteristic of women, are often reflected in mood and emotional dysregulation, making differential diagnosis very difficult and interfering with internalizing disorders such as mood disorders, anxiety disorders and depression and lead to misdiagnosis^[8].

HIGHLIGHTS

- Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a common disorder of childhood, with only 2–3% prevalence into adulthood.
- The epidemiology and proposed causes of ADHD are multifactorial.
- ADHD has an estimated adult prevalence of ~2–3%.
- ADHD has been shown to be significantly correlated with a wide range of psychiatric disorders.
- Compared with ADHD in childhood, ADHD in adults has been relatively neglected in epidemiological studies, mainly due to the lack of established valid diagnostic criteria.

Clinical presentation and comorbidities

ADHD in adults is characterized by the following behavioural criteria: inattentiveness, impulsivity, hyperactivity and restlessness^[6].

ADHD is recognized by the DSM- IV to fit into three different subtypes-hyperactive or impulsive, inattentive and combined^[9]. According to Wilens, 90% of individuals suffering with ADHD show inattentive symptoms, who recognized it as the most prevalent symptom domain^[10]. Literature shows that females present with far higher levels of inattentiveness leading to infrequent access to care^[11–13]. In contrast, the least represented domain is the hyperactive subtype^[9].

Lahey and colleagues found 66% of adolescents displaying the combined subtype^[14] which has been linked to a greater incidence of comorbid conditions, neuroticism and substance abuse disorders^[15–17].

Adults usually present with difficulties in organizing, planning and make impulsive decisions which result in unstable employment and relationships^[18]. ADHD is associated with poor academic and professional performance because it presents with reading disabilities which lead to repeating grades and attending special educational facilities hindering higher educational opportunities^[19]. As these adults have recurrent employment changes and exhibit poor performance in their jobs , they are unable to maintain stability in their profession^[20]. While they are able to manage inter-personal relationships, it is reported that they have difficulty in forming and keeping close friends. ADHD adults hold a negative impression of marriage leading to separation and divorces^[21]. It has also been associated with driving accidents and jail time^[22,23].

Recently, focus has shifted to symptoms arising from emotional dysregulation like irritability, emotional fluctuations, low frustration tolerance and daydreaming, which increase the risk of misdiagnosing patients as having mood disorders resulting in many adults not receiving the required intervention^[22,24,25].

ADHD adults often feel different from others due to their inability to comprehend social cues and because they lack propriety. But there are positive aspects of ADHD.

The patients are creative and thus usually prosper in the art industry. Accomplishing tasks is rewarding when it is in their interest. They develop coping strategies to overcome their deficits by keeping track of to-do lists, setting alarms. Diagnosis is essential as it helps them to come to term with their shortcomings^[26].

Two-thirds of ADHD adults present with one comorbid psychiatric disorder^[27]. Studies also show that ADHD is found in 15% of psychiatric patients^[28]. These comorbidities are responsible for masking ADHD which reduces the frequency of correct diagnosis^[29]. Comorbidity rates of 57–92% have been shown in various studies^[15]. Bipolar disorder, Personality disorders, depression, anxiety disorders, Substance abuse disorders are the common comorbidities that occur with ADHD^[2].

Stimulants

For many years, psychostimulant medications have been regarded as the mainstay of ADHD therapy. As per evidence, they have shown to enhance the presence of dopamine as well as norepinephrine in the frontal lobes. This ensures increased effectiveness of processing information in the brain, especially at the site of pyramidal cells. This in turn helps to alleviate manifestations of ADHD^[30].

Stimulants are considered to be the primary pharmacologic therapy for ADHD. A study review article conducted by Steingard *et al.*^[31] in 2013 showed that amphetamine have a success rate of 70% to treat the patient with Adult onset ADHD

Some of the popular treatments for ADHD include psychostimulant drugs like methylphenidate, dextroamphetamine, and combined isomers of amphetamine^[32].

ADHD manifestations include inattentiveness, hyperactivity, impulsiveness and poor concentration. Additionally, stimulants enhance alertness, comprehension, response inhibition and immediate memory^[33].

Amphetamine salts

Dexamphetamine, lisdexamfetamine, and mixed amphetamine salts are a few of the various formulations of amphetamine available and effective for ADHD therapy^[34]. There are three key modes of action that amphetamines exhibit^[31].

Firstly, it inhibits the reuptake of neurotransmitters after adhering to transporters of monoamine, norepinephrine and dopamine.

It also enables the phosphorylation of the dopamine transporter by trace-amine-associated receptor 1. This leads to decreased transportation of dopamine. It may also cause outflow of the neurotransmitters in the direction of the synapse as a result of its entry into presynaptic vesicles^[31].

A study conducted in 2018 by Castells and colleagues (n = 2521) explored the effects of three forms of amphetamine. This included: dexamphetamine, lisdexamfetamine and mixed amphetamine salts. The study showed that the magnitude of ADHD-associated complaints was successfully reduced with the use of any of all the 3 forms of amphetamine. The effectiveness of amphetamines did not seem to fluctuate while varying the dose. The study looked into the effects of both immediate- and sustained-release formulations, but there were no variations in the results^[35].

A study conducted in 2017 by Lenard A Adler and colleagues (N=40) analyzes the efficacy ,validity and reliability of lisdex amphetamine Dimesylate by measuring the ADHD Rating scale, Adult ADHD Medication Smoothness of Effect Scale and Adult ADHD Medication Rebound Scale concluded that effectiveness of LDX is good by showing the untroubled effect whole day with less rebound symptoms with reliable measure of Adult ADHD Medication Smoothness of Effect Scale and Adult ADHD Medication Smoothness of Effect Scale and Adult ADHD Medication Smoothness of Effect Scale and Adult ADHD Medication Rebound Scale^[36].

Side effects

When amphetamines are used to treat ADHD, anorexia, and a decrease in body weight are some of the anticipated side effects. Other negative effects brought on by amphetamine use include vomiting, nausea, aches in the abdomen, hypertension and tachycardia.^[37] Administration of an additional in the noon may be beneficial if side effects, such as agitation, start to manifest subsequently in the day and when patients exhibit rebound phenomena. A relatively frequent side effect of stimulants is initial sleeplessness. It is crucial to determine whether insomnia is a side effect of the drug or in fact, preexists this treatment modality. By limiting doses in the latter part of the day and adopting healthy sleep schedules, insomnia as a side effect can be avoided^[33].

Methylphenidate salts

Methylphenidate was first developed in 1944 and was initially employed as an analeptic to treat barbiturate-induced coma. However, these days, it is most commonly utilized to treat ADHD^[38].

Methylphenidate amplifies neuronal dopamine efflux and inhibits dopamine reuptake from the synapse. The drug adheres to the dopamine transporter of the presynaptic cell. This prevents dopamine reuptake and leads to an increased amount of extracellular dopamine^[33,38].

Methylphenidate is present in the form of four stereoisomers: dextro-/levo-threo, dextro-/levo-erythro. The majority of MPH preparations present in the market contain a racemic combination of both d-MPH and l-MPH. According to studies, d- Methylphenidate is found to be the most potent among these. The alkaline characteristic of Methylphenidate hydrochloride makes it extremely soluble in the gastrointestinal tract, allowing for its oral administration. It is suggested that due to the acidic nature of the stomach, minimal degradation of the drug occurs there. When taken orally, immediate-release MPH is quickly and entirely absorbed. One to three hours may pass before the maximum plasma concentration is reached, taking into account its variability in different individuals^[39].

Methylphenidate hydrochloride has been developed to be effective in individuals who require management of their ADHD symptoms from morning to evening. Multilayer-release methylphenidate has shown to have safe and positive efficacy^[40]. A randomized controlled trial (RCT) conducted in 2021 by Margaret D Weiss and colleagues to evaluate safety and efficacy of the 16 h multilayer-release methylphenidate(PRC-063) in a community based adult ADHD population (n = 375) concludes PRC-063 led to a greater symptoms relief in the ADHD-RS-5 total score from baseline compared with Placebo.Headache, decrease in sleep deprivation and loss of appetite were the most commonly seen adverse effect^[41].

When compared with a placebo, immediate-release methylphenidate was successful in treating the three main symptoms of ADHD: hyperactivity, impulsiveness and inattentiveness. The general clinical status was found to be improved with the use of immediate-release methylphenidate. However, results were inconsistent, making it unclear if immediate-release methylphenidate therapy is beneficial for accompanying anxiety or depression^[42].

In 2017, Childress and colleagues conducted a clinical trial to investigate the effects of HLD200 in children and adults. It is a delayed-release/extended-release MPH composition given during the evening. It was found to be efficacious and the pharmacokinetic properties met its objectives in the tested age groups. Between children, and healthy adults with ADHD, there were no discernible variations in the pharmacokinetic results when body weight was taken into consideration^[43].

Side effects

Methylphenidate is linked to a higher risk of mild side effects including sleep issues and reduced appetite, however, it is not associated with major adverse effects.^[33] Additional side effects include increased heart rate, blood pressure, anxiety and sleep-lessness. Its use can rarely be linked with arrhythmias, rash, and urticaria. Methylphenidate may produce a sense of euphoria when administered intravenously^[39].

Non-stimulants

Even though stimulants are incredibly effective in short-term RCTs, not all patients react to or tolerate them adequately^[40]. Various innovative non-stimulant approaches for treating ADHD are presently under development^[40]. The FDA has only recently approved the non-stimulants atomoxetine (ATX), guanfacine (guanfacine-XR), and clonidine (clonidine-XR) for the treatment of ADHD. Adult usage has only been approved for ATX. Due to the many drugs now undergoing clinical investigations and having completed Phase 2 and Phase 3 trials, there will likely be a growth in the number of non-stimulant choices available in the following years. Each candidate differs chemically and may have different molecular targets. Based on their pharmacologic characteristics, non-stimulants may be divided into three groups:

- (1) Monoamine reuptake (transporter) inhibitors (like ATX)
- (2) Receptor modulators (like guanfacine-XR and clonidine-XR)
- (3) Multimodal drugs

In this section, we examine the clinical characteristics of both approved and licensed CII stimulant substitutes that have shown effectiveness in double-blind, placebo-controlled Phase 2 or Phase 3 studies. In addition to a multimodal stimulant with a lower abuse potential (mazindol controlled release), several monoamine reuptake inhibitors (dasotraline, OPC-64005) and multimodal non-stimulants (vortioxetine, viloxazine extended-release) are being developed as substitutes for CII stimulants.

Monoamine reuptake (Transporter) inhibitors

Atomoxetine

With a strong affinity for presynaptic norepinephrine transporters (NET), atomoxetine inhibits noradrenergic reuptake^[41,42]. Even though ATX was initially researched as a potential treatment for major depressive disorder in adults in the 1980s, depression research was discontinued due to its ineffectiveness^[43]. Atomoxetine was the first non-stimulant medication authorized by the FDA for the treatment of ADHD, and it was based on a series of double-blind, RCTs in children under 6 years of age, adolescents, and adults. In a thorough, in-depth meta-analysis that included information from 24 RCTs in paediatric ADHD, the effect size for overall ADHD symptom improvement with ATX was 0.64^[44]. It was often 4 weeks after the commencement of therapy before significant changes in ADHD symptoms versus

placebo were seen^[44]. Atomoxetine was linked to a bimodal response, meaning that 40% of patients were classified as non-responders at the end of the study while 45% of patients fared noticeably better^[44].

Dasotraline

Since dasotraline primarily inhibits dopamine transporters (DAT) and NET while inhibiting serotonin transporters (SERT) less, it is categorized as a dual reuptake inhibitor^[45]. Similar to ATX, dasotraline development in adults was stopped due to inefficiency^[46,47]. The effects of dasotraline on adults and kids with ADHD were then studied in a series of RCTs, starting with a Phase 2 proof-of-concept study in adults given either 4 mg or 8 mg (estimated DAT receptor occupancy, 56% and 71%, respectively)^[48]. In this exploratory investigation, just 8 mg of dasotraline was more effective than a placebo in reducing allaround ADHD symptoms (effect size, 0.41), although it was poorly tolerated (discontinuation owing to AEs, 28%). Dasotraline dosages between 2 and 6 mg were tested in later Phase 3 RCTs for ADHD^[49–51].

OPC-64005

OPC-64005 (SERT, NET and DAT) is a triple reuptake inhibitor^[52]. OPC-64005 (titrated up to 30 mg/day) was contrasted with placebo and ATX (titrated up to 80 mg/day) in a Phase 2 flexible-dose study in patients with ADHD^[53]. The study's findings were kept confidential.

Receptor modulators - clonidine and guanfacin

The two extended-release forms of the $\alpha 2$ adrenoreceptor agonists, guanfacine and clonidine, are the only FDA-approved ADHD medicines with pharmacologic actions presumably restricted to receptor modification. Clonidine appears to be more selective for presynaptic $\alpha 2A$, $\alpha 2B$ and $\alpha 2C$ receptors than post-synaptic 2A receptors, whereas guanfacine appears to be more selective for postsynaptic $\alpha 2A$ receptors^[54]. Contradictory results have been found in clinical studies on a number of receptor modulators, including nicotinic acid, histamine, gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), 5-HT, and adenosine A2A, despite the fact that these compounds have attracted a lot of interest for their potential to treat ADHD^[55]. None have advanced to Phase 3 studies in people with ADHD; as a result, it is doubtful that they will ever be clinically accessible^[56].

Multimodal agents

Pharmaceuticals known as "multimodal" drugs combine receptor modulation (agonist and/or antagonist) action with transporter modulation or inhibition (e.g. NET, SERT and DAT). Many of these substances are being studied as possible therapies for ADHD^[55].

Viloxazine

The United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved a novel stimulant viloxazine extended-release (ER), also called SPN-812, after nearly 10 years^[49]. It was marketed under the trade name QELBREETM, targeted to treat ADHD in paediatric and adult patients^[50]. In several open-labelled randomized controlled studies, Viloxazine has been proven effective in

various kinds of mood disorders (depression, anxiety) and associated comorbid conditions like alcohol dependence, obesity, and substance abuse^[51,56]. A recent case report by Naguy and colleagues also reported that add-on Viloxazine to Clozapine-Responsive Schizophrenia successfully mitigated metabolic parameters and addressed clozapine-sialorrhea^[57].

Further studies by Yu and colleagues suggest a powerful mechanism for increased serotonin is the inhibition of the inhibitory 5-HT-2B-GABA interneurons, which generally decrease the release of serotonin at the synapse. By modulating the interneuron, there is an increased release of serotonin, especially in the prefrontal cortex area. It is likely that the therapeutic effect of ADHD is due in significant part to these serotonergic effects with some enhancement by norepinephrine and dopamine^[58].

Viloxazine blocks the reuptake of norepinephrine in the amygdala, nucleus accumbens, and prefrontal cortex of the brain^[58]. On a stereochemical level, the S isomer of Viloxazine resembles the R-isomer of norepinephrine^[58]. Additionally, this results in increased dopamine via the inhibition of the norepinephrine transporter, which also is responsible for the uptake of dopamine in some areas of the cortex. The increased dopamine effects from reuptake inhibition are seen primarily on the pre-frontal cortex and amygdala but notably not in the nucleus accumbens, which is one of the brain's reward centres. It is possible the lack of dopamine modulation in the nucleus accumbens reduces the potential for addiction, which differentiates Viloxazine in an essential way from stimulant medications currently used to treat ADHD^[49].

Many patients under psychiatric care are taking drugs that are substrates or inhibitors of CYP enzymes. Because Viloxazine is majorly metabolized by CYP2D6, special care must be taken to monitor possible side effects. One single sequence study on the pharmacokinetics of Viloxazine showed only a modest increase in Viloxazine and its metabolites when taken with paroxetine, a potent CYP inhibitor, and no adverse toxicities or side effects were noted^[59]. Because Viloxazine is also minorly metabolized by other CYP enzymes, the effects of an inhibitor, in this case, were not clinically significant. Based on this data, interaction with multiple CYP inhibitors or substrates is theoretically possible and should be monitored in patients treated for depression and other psychiatric comorbidities (Figure 1).

In patients treated for co-occurring anxiety and ADHD, firstline treatment with stimulants can exacerbate anxious feelings^[60]. In this case, non-stimulant options such as atomoxetine along with non-pharmacological therapies are used. Viloxazine is a non-stimulant drug that may be helpful for patients whose anxiety is worsened with first-line medications. Viloxazine is another drug in the toolbox of practitioners cotreating ADHD and substance use disorder. It is hypothesized that because Viloxazine does not antagonize dopamine reuptake in the reward centre of the brain, it lacks the addictive effects of methylphenidate and dexamphetamine^[50].

One study, a bayesian meta-analysis of the use of antidepressants, disulfiram and anti-epileptic medications in subjects with alcohol use disorder, found Viloxazine to be highly effective in reducing depressive symptoms when compared to SSRIs and venlafaxine. There were no additional adverse effects of viloxazine use in the alcohol use disorder cohort^[61,62].

In comparison to medications used for depression, the drug viloxazine seems to have anti-epileptic properties at low doses^[63]. However, patients concurrently being treated with phenytoin and

Non-Stimulant Mechanism of Action

Figure 1. Mechanism of action of non-stimulant drugs.

carbamazepine run the risk of increased serum concentrations and toxicity, which remit when viloxazine therapy is withdrawn^[64]. This seems to be due to viloxazine inhibitory effects on CYP1A2, as several anti-epileptic medications are substrates. Levels of anti-epileptic medications or other CYP1A2 substrates should be carefully monitored when co-administering Viloxazine and doses adjusted as needed to avoid adverse effects.

Viloxazine is generally metabolized by the liver before being excreted in the urine. There have been modest elevations in serum liver aminotransferases without a report of jaundice or liver injury in paediatric patients taking Viloxazine for ADHD^[65]. Patients with significant liver disease should not use Viloxazine, or if needed, levels need to be monitored and doses adjusted accordingly. Adults with liver disease needing viloxazine therapy should be monitored closely (Tables 1, 2).

Prognosis ADHD

For individuals with ADHD, a meta-analysis of follow-up studies depicted that at 25 years of age:

Genetics	People who have a parent or sibling with ADHD are more likely to have ADHD themselves, and twins are more likely to both have ADHD.
Birth factors	Born very early or very low birth weight.
Factors for the expectant mother include:	Smoking
	Drug use or alcohol use
	Use of certain drugs, such as corticosteroids and antidepressants
	Mental problems
	High blood pressure
	Hyperthyroidism
	Exposure to certain environmental toxins, such as lead.
TOXINS	Exposure to toxins such as lead increases her risk of ADHD

ADHD, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder.

Table 2	
Comorbiditie	s associated with ADHD.

Comorbidity	Principal disease	Incidence	Comments
(1) Bipolar disorder	Bipolar I	Lies between 5.1 and 47.1%.	Comorbid ADHD hastens earlier onset of bipolar symptoms and worsens the disease with frequent manic and depressive episodes. A longitudinal study, conducted to assess whether ADHD in children would result in manic episodes in adulthood was conducted over 11 years, showed that these children had higher rates of developing bipolar disorder by the age of 22 years. Several symptoms of ADHD and Bipolar disorder overlap, making diagnosis difficult for physicians ^[66–68] .
(2) Personality disorders	Cluster B [more common] and Cluster C disorders	50% of adults with ADHD are seen to have cluster B and C disorders.	These patients show marginal response to methylphenidate therapy. ADHD presenting with emotional dysregulation has a higher prevalence of these personality disorders ^[29] . There is found to be troubling less response to ADHD therapy in patients with high personality disorders ^[66] .
(3) Depression		18.6–53.3% ⁽⁶⁷⁾ .	There is a greater burden of both depression and ADHD. This might be due to the low hedonic tone of ADHD manifesting as depression ^[68] . Undetected ADHD in these patients is mostly due to serotonergic drugs which lower the dopamine and noradrenaline levels ^[69] . To diagnose depression in these adults, there must be suicidal ideation and a static depressed affect.
(4) Anxiety disorders	Social phobia	There is a 50% risk for anxiety disorders in ADHD patients ^[70] .	In the presence of ADHD; these individuals have severe anxiety and an earlier onset of symptoms. As the presence of anxiety inhibits impulsivity, a major symptom of ADHD, it is diagnosed later in life ^[71] . This correlation can be attributed to poor dorsolateral prefrontal activity. A study showing ADHD children with delayed maturation in their prefrontal cortex supports this theory ^[72] . There is no difference in response to ADHD treatment in high vs. low anxiety patients ^[73] .
(5) SUD	Alcohol, nicotine, cocaine and cannabis use ^[74] .	15–25% of adults with an substance use disorder have a comorbid ADHD ^[75] .	ADHD adults who use cigarettes have significant physical dependence to nicotine ^[76] . As impulsivity is a key symptom of ADHD, it leads to increased alcohol consumption ^[77] . SUDs occur due to neurobiological characteristics, behavioural symptoms and self-medicating on ADHD treatment. Adults with ADHD and SUDs have shown more suicidal attempts, increased hospital admissions and lesser rates of adherence to treatment ^[75] . Screening must therefore be performed in ADHD individuals for SUDs ^[78] .

ADHD, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, SUD, Substance use disorder.

Approximately 15% retained the full ADHD diagnosis (Persistent ADHD).

Approximately 65% were in partial remission; (with persistence of some symptoms and continuing significant functional impairment, such as psychological, social or educational difficulties)^[32].

While symptoms of hyperactivity tend to remit over time, impairments in attention persist. In fact, due to the lack of hyperactivity and impulsivity in patients with predominantly inattentive presentation of ADHD, they are usually less disruptive in primary school than children with combined ADHD and often present later (e.g. middle school, high school)^[62].

Adolescents and adults with ADHD symptoms are more likely to struggle in school and at work, have maladaptive relationships, increased injuries and car accidents, and teen pregnancies^[79–81]. ADHD is associated with increased risks of psychiatric disorders, including oppositional defiant disorder, conduct disorder, substance abuse, and possibly mood disorders, such as depression and mania. Autism spectrum disorder, dyslexia, dyscalculia and dyspraxia are also over-represented. Therefore, the overall prognosis of the individual depends on the severity and management of any comorbid disorders^[32].

However, the adult prognosis for the ADHD child is not fully revealed by these relative impairments. In fact, majority of these individuals were gainfully employed. In addition, two-thirds of these children showed no signs of any mental illness in adulthood. In conclusion, although ADHD children, as a group, fare poorly compared with their non-ADHD counterparts, the childhood syndrome does not preclude achieving high educational and vocational goals, and most children no longer exhibit clinically significant emotional or behavioural difficulties once they reach their mid-twenties^[19]. Thus, it is crucial that these individuals get medical attention as early as possible. In the long run, these recommended therapies and medications will aid the affected individuals in coming to terms with their condition and coping with their situation. Timely diagnosis, appropriate medications and supportive therapies along with an empathetic environment will help patients with ADHD lead fulfilling lives.

Future challenges

Many national and international guidelines recommend a multimodal approach to ADHD treatment^[82,83]. The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) suggests that children with academic or behavioural problems and difficulty with attention, hyperactivity or impulsivity should be evaluated for ADHD. The guidelines encourage medical professionals to gain reports and statements regarding the child's symptoms from parents, teachers, caregivers and, importantly, the child. The DSM-5 criteria must be met, as well as the exclusion of other medical conditions that may present similarly. The recommendations also suggest screening for comorbid conditions that commonly occur with ADHD to ensure comprehensive management.

Parent training in behaviour management is recommended as first-line therapy in children ages 4–18. If the child/adolescent's school programme offers behavioural classroom interventions, it is considered a necessary aspect of the treatment plan. For children ages 4–6 years, methylphenidate is used after the first-line treatments of behavioural therapy and interventions have been exhausted. Children and adolescents ages 6–18 years are recommended to utilize approved medications, behavioural classroom interventions or parent training in behaviour management. Schools often offer Individualized Education Programs (IEP) or a 504 plan for extra support. Lastly, the AAP guidelines encourage adjusting medication dosages to optimize treatment while minimizing side effects. Once the child reaches adolescence, the patient should begin to partake in their treatment plan and ultimately approve their care^[82,83].

Due to the newness of Viloxazine for use in ADHD, it has not yet been proven efficacious to other pharmaceuticals. Although many studies, including a meta-analysis of 1605 participants across five RCTs, concluded Viloxazine ER to be more productive than placebo^[84], additional studies are needed to conclude comparative efficacy. Whether Viloxazine's usefulness will outweigh others is still to be determined; its recent widened approval should allow more studies to reveal its potential advantage in ADHD treatment. An article from the Carlat Child Psychiatry Report compared Viloxazine with Strattera (Atomoxetine), noting the newly approved ADHD medication could have an advantage due to its more significant rapid onset^[85].

Diagnostic materials such as the DSM-V, vision and hearing tests, and neurologic assessments are used throughout a patient's care to aid in correctly diagnosing the condition. Many reviews are used during the diagnosis, treatment, and follow-up of patients of various age groups with ADHD. Once other psychiatric disorders and learning disabilities have been ruled out, the appropriate scales may be utilized. It is important to note that the various ADHD scales are only a contribution to the overall assessment and treatment and are recommended to be used in conjunction with other modalities of ADHD treatment. Focusing on a child's symptoms or treatment progression may be difficult due to the various people and places the patient encounters daily. The scales are a valuable set of tools that allow the child, parents, teachers, coaches, etc., to collect and evaluate information in an organized manner^[86].

Clinicians can utilize a variety of tools depending on the age of a patient, as well as which stage of ADHD they are managing. The use of the tools can be beneficial before and after treatment with an ADHD pharmaceutical agent(s), such as Viloxazine. Children and adolescent scales primarily consist of questionnaires that are targeted at the patient's parents, teachers, or caregivers. It is recommended that multiple people who regularly interact with the patient complete the same forms to gain a more comprehensive picture of the child and how they interact in various environments^[87]. For instance, the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL/6–18) is a 120-question form that assesses a child based on questions that use a scale from 0 to 2, with 0 being "not true" to 2 being "very true/often true"^[88]. Other ADHD assessment scales, such as Conners' and Vanderbilt, are utilized similarly^[89,90].

The following scales could be used before and during treatment with Viloxazine to enhance the patient's overall treatment plans. Adult Rating Scales are also used during diagnosis, treatment, and follow-up of patients with ADHD symptoms or diagnosed with ADHD^[91]. The Adult ADHD Self-Report Scale is constructed for individuals to self-report, as stated in its title. This short, 18-item tool is beneficial as a first-line assessment for adults who may be experiencing ADHD symptoms^[92]. To follow patients who have ADHD symptoms, the ADHD Rating Scale-IV is an 18-item assessment that has patients score the frequency and severity of their symptoms on a 4-point scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (very often)^[93].

Conclusion

In conclusion, adult ADHD is a complex condition that has a significant impact on the quality of life of people who have it. It is a relatively new area of study that has garnered a lot of interest recently. The considerable research has provided fresh perspectives on the causes, symptoms and therapies of adult ADHD. There are effective medications available that could aid people with ADHD in improving their symptoms and functioning, despite the challenges associated with diagnosis and therapy. To ensure that individuals with ADHD receive the required assistance and treatment, it is imperative to increase awareness of ADHD among medical professionals and the general public. Further research is needed to develop more effective treatments for this population and to better understand the complex nature of adult ADHD.

Consent for publication

Received from all authors.

Sources of funding

All authors have declared that no financial support was received from any organization for the submitted work. All authors have declared that there are no other relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.

Conflicts of interest disclosure

All authors have declared that they have no financial relationships at present or within the previous 3 years with any organizations that might have an interest in the submitted work.

Availability of data and material

The data supporting this review are from previously reported studies and datasets, which have been cited. Please refer to the manuscript for this data.

Provenance and peer review

Not commissioned, externally peer-reviewed.

References

- Yadav SK, Bhat AA, Hashem S, *et al.* Genetic variations influence brain changes in patients with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. Transl Psychiatry 2021;11:349.
- [2] Katzman MA, Bilkey TS, Chokka PR, et al. Adult ADHD and comorbid disorders: clinical implications of a dimensional approach. BMC Psychiatry 2017;17:302.
- [3] Kenter RMF, Lundervold AJ, Nordgreen T. A self-guided Internetdelivered intervention for adults with ADHD: a protocol for a randomized controlled trial. Internet Interv 2021;26:100485.
- [4] Posner J, Polanczyk GV, Sonuga-Barke E. Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. Lancet 2020;395:450–62.
- [5] Salvi V, Ribuoli E, Servasi M, et al. ADHD and bipolar disorder in adulthood: clinical and treatment implications. Medicina (Kaunas) 2021;57:466.
- [6] Young S, Adamo N, Ásgeirsdóttir BB, et al. Females with ADHD: An expert consensus statement taking a lifespan approach providing

guidance for the identification and treatment of attention-deficit/ hyperactivity disorder in girls and women. BMC Psychiatry 2020;20:404.

- [7] Kok FM, Groen Y, Fuermaier ABM, *et al.* The female side of pharmacotherapy for ADHD-A systematic literature review. PLoS One 2020;15: e0239257.
- [8] Singh A, Yeh CJ, Verma N, et al. Overview of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder in young children. Health Psychol Res 2015;3:2115.
- [9] Salvi V, Migliarese G, Venturi V, et al. ADHD in adults: clinical subtypes and associated characteristics. Riv Psichiatr 2019;54:84–9.
- [10] Wilens TE, Biederman J, Faraone SV, et al. Presenting ADHD symptoms, subtypes, and comorbid disorders in clinically referred adults with ADHD. J Clin Psychiatry 2009;70:1557–62.
- [11] Sobanski E, Brüggemann D, Alm B, et al. Subtype differences in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) with regard to ADHD-symptoms, psychiatric comorbidity and psychosocial adjustment. Eur Psychiatry 2008;23:142–9.
- [12] Rasmussen K, Levander S. Untreated ADHD in adults: are there sex differences in symptoms, comorbidity, and impairment. J Atten Disord 2009;12:353–60.
- [13] Biederman J, Faraone SV, Monuteaux MC, et al. Gender effects on attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in adults, revisited. Biol Psychiatry 2004;55:692–700.
- [14] Ghosh A, Ray A, Basu A2017Oppositional defiant disorder: current insight. Psychol Res Behav Manag, 10:353–67.
- [15] Soendergaard HM, Thomsen PH, Pedersen E, et al. Associations of age, gender, and subtypes with ADHD symptoms and related comorbidity in a Danish sample of clinically referred adults. J Atten Disord 2016;20:925–33.
- [16] Retz-Junginger P, Rösler M, Giesen LK, et al. Der Einfluss des ADHS-Subtyps auf den Leidensdruck bei erwachsenen ADHS-Patienten [ADHD: Burden of Disease According to Subtypes in Adult Patients]. Psychiatr Prax 2016;43:279–82.
- [17] Liebrenz M, Gamma A, Ivanov I, et al. Adult attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: associations between subtype and lifetime substance use - a clinical study. F1000Res 2015;4:407.
- [18] Kooij JJS, Francken MH. Diagnostic Interview for ADHD in adults. DIVA Foundation; 2010.
- [19] Barkley RA, Fischer M, Smallish L, et al. Young adult outcome of hyperactive children: adaptive functioning in major life activities. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry 2006;45:192–202.
- [20] Christiansen MS, Labriola M, Kirkeskov L, et al. The impact of childhood diagnosed ADHD versus controls without ADHD diagnoses on later labour market attachment-a systematic review of longitudinal studies. Child Adolesc Psychiatry Mental Health 2021;15:34.
- [21] Eakin L, Minde K, Hechtman L, *et al*. The marital and family functioning of adults with ADHD and their spouses. J Atten Disord 2004;8:1–10.
- [22] Tsai F-J, Tseng W-L, Yang L-K, et al. Psychiatric comorbid patterns in adults with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder: Treatment effect and subtypes. PLoS ONE 2019;14:e0211873.
- [23] Engelhardt PE, Nobes G, Pischedda S. The relationship between adult symptoms of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and criminogenic cognitions. Brain Sci 2019;9:128.
- [24] Corbisiero S, Stieglitz RD, Retz W, *et al.* Is emotional dysregulation part of the psychopathology of ADHD in adults? Atten Defic Hyperact Disord 2013;5:83–92.
- [25] Reimherr FW, Marchant BK, Gift TE, et al. Types of adult attentiondeficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD): baseline characteristics, initial response, and long-term response to treatment with methylphenidate. Atten Defic Hyperact Disord 2015;7:115–28.
- [26] Bjerrum MB, Pedersen PU, Larsen P. Living with symptoms of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder in adulthood: a systematic review of qualitative evidence. JBI Database Syst Rev Implement Rep 2017;15:1080–153.
- [27] Fayyad J, De Graaf R, Kessler R, et al. Cross-national prevalence and correlates of adult attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. Br J Psychiatry 2007;190:402–9.
- [28] Deberdt W, Thome J, Lebrec J, et al. Prevalence of ADHD in nonpsychotic adult psychiatric care (ADPSYC): A multinational cross-sectional study in Europe. BMC Psychiatry 2015;15:242.
- [29] Gustavsson A, Svensson M, Jacobi F, et al. Cost of disorders of the brain in Europe 2010 [published correction appears in Eur Neuropsychopharmacol. 2012 Mar;22(3):237-8. den Bergh, Peter Van [corrected to Van den Bergh, Peter]]. Eur Neuropsychopharmacol 2011;21:718–79.
- [30] Torgersen T, Gjervan B, Rasmussen K. Treatment of adult ADHD: is current knowledge useful to clinicians? Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat 2008;4: 177–86.

- [31] Steingard R, Taskiran S, Connor DF, et al. New formulations of stimulants: an update for clinicians. J Child Adolesc Psychopharmacol 2019;29:324–39.
- [32] Faraone SV. The pharmacology of amphetamine and methylphenidate: Relevance to the neurobiology of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and other psychiatric comorbidities. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2018;87: 255–70.
- [33] Kolar D, Keller A, Golfinopoulos M, et al. Treatment of adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat 2008;4:389–403.
- [34] Castells X, Blanco-Silvente L, Cunill R. Amphetamines for attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2018;8:CD007813.
- [35] Weisler RH, Biederman J, Spencer TJ, et al. Mixed amphetamine salts extended-release in the treatment of adult ADHD: a randomized, controlled trial. CNS Spectr 2006;11:625–39.
- [36] Adler LA, Lynch LR, Shaw DM, et al. Effectiveness and duration of effect of open-label lisdexamfetamine dimesylate in adults with ADHD. J Atten Disord 2017;21:149–57.
- [37] Heal DJ, Smith SL, Gosden J, et al. Amphetamine, past and present--a pharmacological and clinical perspective. J Psychopharmacol 2013;27: 479–96.
- [38] Challman TD, Lipsky JJ. Methylphenidate: its pharmacology and uses. Mayo Clinic Proceedings 2000;75:711–721; Elsevier..
- [39] Childress AC, Komolova M, Sallee FR. An update on the pharmacokinetic considerations in the treatment of ADHD with long-acting methylphenidate and amphetamine formulations. Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol 2019;15:937–74.
- [40] Wigal SB, Wigal T, Childress A, et al. The time course of effect of multilayer-release methylphenidate hydrochloride capsules: a randomized, double-blind study of adults with ADHD in a simulated adult workplace environment. J Atten Disord 2020;24:373–83.
- [41] Cândido RCF, Menezes de Padua CA, Golder S, et al. Immediate-release methylphenidate for attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2021;1:CD013011.
- [42] Weiss MD, Childress AC, Donnelly GAE. Efficacy and safety of PRC-063, extended-release multilayer methylphenidate in adults with ADHD including 6-month open-label extension. J Atten Disord 2021;25: 1417–28.
- [43] Childress A, Mehrotra S, Gobburu J, et al. Single-dose pharmacokinetics of HLD200, a delayed-release and extended-release methylphenidate formulation, in healthy adults and in adolescents and children with attentiondeficit/hyperactivity disorder. J Child Adolesc Psychopharmacol 2018;28: 10–8.
- [44] Robinson CL, Parker K, Kataria S, et al. Viloxazine for the treatment of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Health Psychol Res 2022;10: 38360.
- [45] Pozzi M, Bertella S, Gatti E, et al. Emerging drugs for the treatment of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). Expert Opin Emerg Drugs 2020;25:395–407.
- [46] Bymaster FP, Katner JS, Nelson DL, et al. Atomoxetine increases extracellular levels of norepinephrine and dopamine in prefrontal cortex of rat: a potential mechanism for efficacy in attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder. Neuropsychopharmacol 2002;27:699–711.
- [47] Food & Drug Administration. Strattera Clinical Safety Review. 2002. Accessed 16 November 2022. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drug satfda_docs/nda/2002/21-411_Strattera_medr_P3.pdf
- [48] Schwartz S, Correll CU. Efficacy and safety of atomoxetine in children and adolescents with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: results from a comprehensive meta-analysis and metaregression. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry 2014;53:174–87.
- [49] Wigal SB, Hopkins SC, Koblan KS, et al. Efficacy and safety of dasotraline in children with ADHD: a laboratory classroom study. J Atten Disord 2019;24:192–204.
- [50] Findling RL, Adler LA, Spencer TJ, et al. Dasotraline in children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: a six-week, placebo-controlled, fixed-dose trial. J Child Adolesc Psychopharmacol 2019;29:80–9.
- [51] Adler L, Kollins S, Hopkins S, et al. Dasotraline for the treatment of attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder in adults: pooled analysis of two double-blind studies. Neuropsychopharmacology 2015;40:22745–52.
- [52] Hopkins SC, Sunkaraneni S, Skende E, et al. Pharmacokinetics and exposure-response relationships of dasotraline in the treatment of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in adults. Clin Drug Investig 2016;36:137–46.

- [53] Sepracor [press release]. Sepracor provides update on clinical trials for SEP-225289 and LUNESTA® Pediatrics. https://wwwbusinesswirecom/ news/home/20090701006146/en/Sepracor-Update-Clinical-Trials-SEP-225289-LUNESTA®-Pediatrics.
- [54] ADIS Insight. Dasotraline Sumitomo Dainippon Pharma. ADIS Insight. 2019. https://adisinsight.springer.com/drugs/800023450.
- [55] Koblan KS, Hopkins SC, Sarma K, et al. Dasotraline for the treatment of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: a randomized, double-blind, placebocontrolled, proof-of-concept trial in adults. Neuropsychopharmacology 2015;40:2745–52.
- [56] Wigal S, Wigal T, Hobart M, et al. Safety and eficacy of centanafadine sustained-release in adults with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder: Results of Phase 2 studies. Neuropsych Dis Treat 2020;16:1411–26.
- [57] Hafeez S, Saquib J, Qureshi NE. Viloxazine: a new miracle drug for attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) or just another non-stimulant. Asian J Psychiatr 2022;67:102948.
- [58] Findling RL, Candler SA, Nasser AF, et al. Viloxazine in the management of CNS disorders: a historical overview and current status. CNS Drugs 2021;35:643–53.
- [59] Viloxazine. In: LiverTox: Clinical and Research Information on Drug-Induced Liver Injury. National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases; 2021.
- [60] Mathew BM, Pellegrini MV. Viloxazine. StatPearls Publishing; 2022.
- [61] Naguy A, Rushdy R, Pridmore S, *et al.* Successful add-on viloxazine to clozapine-responsive schizophrenia mitigated cognitive, negative and metabolic domains. Psychopharmacol Bull 2022;52:57–60.
- [62] Li J, Wang H, Li M, et al. Efficacy of pharmacotherapeutics for patients comorbid with alcohol use disorders and depressive symptoms—A bayesian network meta-analysis. CNS Neurosci Ther 2020;26:1185–97.
- [63] Yu C, Garcia-Olivares J, Candler S, et al. New insights into the mechanism of action of viloxazine: serotonin and norepinephrine modulating properties. J Exp Pharmacol 2020;12:285–300.
- [64] Blackburn TP, Foster GA, Greenwood DT, et al. Effects of viloxazine, its optical isomers and its major metabolites on biogenic amine uptake mechanisms in vitro and in vivo. Eur J Pharmacol 1978;52:367–74.
- [65] Edinoff AN, Akuly HA, Wagner JH, et al. Viloxazine in the treatment of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Front Psychiatry 2021;12:789982.
- [66] Wingo AP, Ghaemi SN. A systematic review of rates and diagnostic validity of comorbid adult attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and bipolar disorder. J Clin Psychiatry 2007;68:1776–84.
- [67] Tamam L, Karakus G, Ozpoyraz N. Comorbidity of adult attentiondeficit hyperactivity disorder and bipolar disorder: prevalence and clinical correlates. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci 2008;258:385–93.
- [68] Nierenberg AA, Miyahara S, Spencer T, et al. Clinical and diagnostic implications of lifetime attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder comorbidity in adults with bipolar disorder: data from the first 1000 STEP-BD participants. Biol Psychiatry 2005;57:1467–73.
- [69] Biederman J, Petty CR, Monuteaux MC, et al. Adult psychiatric outcomes of girls with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: 11-year follow-up in a longitudinal case-control study. Am J Psychiatry 2010;167: 409–17.
- [70] Fossati A, Novella L, Donati D, et al. History of childhood attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptoms and borderline personality disorder: a controlled study. Compr Psychiatry 2002;43:369–77.
- [71] Olsen JL, Reimherr FW, Marchant BK, et al. The effect of personality disorder symptoms on response to treatment with methylphenidate transdermal system in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. Prim Care Companion CNS Disord 2012;14:PCC.12m01344.
- [72] Robison RJ, Reimherr FW, Gale PD, et al. Personality disorders in ADHD Part 2: the effect of symptoms of personality disorder on response to treatment with OROS methylphenidate in adults with ADHD. Ann Clin Psychiatry 2010;22:94–102.

- [73] Torgersen T, Gjervan B, Rasmussen K. ADHD in adults: a study of clinical characteristics, impairment and comorbidity. Nord J Psychiatry 2006;60:38–43.
- [74] McIntosh D, Kutcher S, Binder C, et al. Adult ADHD and comorbid depression: a consensus-derived diagnostic algorithm for ADHD. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat 2009;5:137–50.
- [75] Schatz DB, Rostain AL. ADHD with comorbid anxiety: a review of the current literature. J Atten Disord 2006;10:141–9.
- [76] Trivedi MH, Hollander E, Nutt D, et al. Clinical evidence and potential neurobiological underpinnings of unresolved symptoms of depression. J Clin Psychiatry 2008;69:246–58.
- [77] Kessler RC, Adler L, Barkley R, et al. The prevalence and correlates of adult ADHD in the United States: results from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. Am J Psychiatry 2006;163:716–23.
- [78] Shaw P, Eckstrand K, Sharp W, et al. Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder is characterized by a delay in cortical maturation. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2007;104:19649–54.
- [79] Harpin VA. The effect of ADHD on the life of an individual, their family, and community from preschool to adult lifeArchives of Disease in Childhood. Arch Dise Childhood 2005;90:i2–7.
- [80] Curry AE, Yerys BE, Metzger KB, et al. Traffic crashes, violations, and suspensions among young drivers with ADHD. Pediatrics 2019;143:e20182305.
- [81] Barkley RA, Fischer M, Smallish L, *et al.* Young adult follow-up of hyperactive children: antisocial activities and drug use. J Child Psychol Psychiatry 2004;45:195–211.
- [82] Wolraich ML, Chan E, Froehlich T, et al. ADHD diagnosis and treatment guidelines: a historical perspective. Pediatrics 2019;144:e20191682.
- [83] Drechsler R, Brem S, Brandeis D, et al. ADHD: current concepts and treatments in children and adolescents. Neuropediatrics 2020;51:315–35.
- [84] Singh A, Balasundaram MK, Singh A. Viloxazine for attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. J Central Nerv Syst Dis 2022;14:117957352210925.
- [85] Feder J, Puzantian T. Viloxazine (Qelbree): A Faster Strattera? Carlat Reports | Carlat Publishing. the Carlat Report. Published April 2021. https://www.thecarlatreport.com/the-carlat-child-psychiatry-report/ viloxazine-gelbree-a-faster-strattera/
- [86] Cabral MDI, Liu S, Soares N. Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: diagnostic criteria, epidemiology, risk factors and evaluation in youth. Transl Pediatr 2020;9(Suppl 1):S104–13.
- [87] Tripp G, Schaughency EA, Clarke B. Parent and teacher rating scales in the evaluation of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder: contribution to diagnosis and differential diagnosis in clinically referred children. J Dev Behav Pediatr 2006;27:209–18.
- [88] Biederman J, DiSalvo M, Vaudreuil C, et al. The child behavior checklist can aid in characterizing suspected comorbid psychopathology in clinically referred youth with ADHD. J Psychiatr Res 2021;138:477–84.
- [89] La Malfa G, Lassi S, Bertelli M, et al. Detecting attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) in adults with intellectual disability The use of Conners' Adult ADHD Rating Scales (CAARS). Res Dev Disabil 2008;29:158–64.
- [90] Wolraich ML, Lambert W, Doffing MA, et al. Psychometric properties of the Vanderbilt ADHD diagnostic parent rating scale in a referred population. J Pediatr Psychol 2003;28:559–67.
- [91] Chamberlain SR, Cortese S, Grant JE. Screening for adult ADHD using brief rating tools: What can we conclude from a positive screen? Some caveats. Compr Psychiatry 2021;106:152224.
- [92] Kessler Ronaldc, Adler Lenard, Ames Minnie, et al. The World Health Organization adult ADHD self-report scale (ASRS): a short screening scale for use in the general population. Psychol Med 2005;35:245–56.
- [93] Zhang S, Faries DE, Vowles M, et al. ADHD Rating Scale IV: psychometric properties from a multinational study as a clinician-administered instrument. Int J Methods Psychiatr Res 2005;14:186–201.