CURRENT TRAJECTORY AND PROSPECTIVE POTENTIAL OF PHARMACOGENOMICS IN PERSONALIZED MEDICINES

Abstract

 The field of pharmacogenomics, which investigates how a person's genetic make-up affects how they react to pharmaceuticals, has the potential to have a substantial impact on personalized medicine. Healthcare professionals may customize medicines for individual patients, maximizing efficacy and lowering the risk of adverse effects, by studying the genetic variables that affect medication response and metabolism. An overview of the current state and future possibilities of pharmacogenomics Chayanika Goswami in personalized medicine are Genomic technology advancements, Healthcare professionals may choose drugs and dosages with more knowledge by screening patients for particular genetic markers, which enhances both safety and efficacy,Healthcare professionals can select drugs for each patient with a better possibility of success by taking into consideration these genetic variations,In order to prevent under or overmedication situations, pharmacogenomics can be used to establish the best dose techniques,Clinical decision support systems can be improved by integrating pharmacogenomic data with electronic medical records.

Pharmacogenomics has a lot of potential for personalised medicine overall. Pharmacogenomics is anticipated to play a bigger part in improving medication choice, dosage, and overall patient care as our understanding of genetics deepens and the cost of genomic technology falls.

Keywords: Pharmacogenomics ,Genomic technology, Personalised medicine.

Authors

Abhijita Talukder

Department of Pharmacology NETES Institute of Pharmaceutical Science NEMCARE Group of Institution Guwahati, Assam, India.

Nayanika Neog

Assam Down Town University Guwahti, Assam, India.

Department of Pharmacology, Mata Gujri College of Pharmacy, Kishanganj, Bihar, India.

Chayanika Kalita

Department of Pharmacology, NETES Institute of Pharmaceutical Science NEMCARE Group of Institution Guwahati, Assam, India.

I. INTRODUCTION

 The field of pharmacogenomics, which investigates how a person's genetic composition affects how they react to medications, offers a lot of potential for the development of personalised medicine. Pharmacogenomics strives to optimise medication selection and dosing for specific individuals by gaining a knowledge of how genetic variants impact drug metabolism, effectiveness, and adverse responses. Clinical pharmacology, clinical pathology, and a variety of clinicians are all involved in pharmacogenomics, a multidisciplinary collaborative effort with the common goal of enhancing patient care by individualised prescribing and patient care [1].

 Historically, medicine has been recommended based on broad criteria and demographic averages, with medical treatments being one-size-fits-all. This method, however, ignores the substantial genetic heterogeneity in medication reactions across individuals. Pharmacogenomics studies the intricate connection between a person's genetic make-up and how they react to medications. It entails the investigation of the effects of genetic variants on drug metabolism, transport, receptor binding, and cellular response, including single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), insertions, deletions, and copy number variations. These genetic indicators can give researchers and medical professionals important information into each person's particular medication response profile [2].

 Multiple pharmacological classes, including immune-suppressants, psychotropics, antibiotics, antidepressants, selective oestrogen receptor modulators, beta blockers, statins, proton pump inhibitors, anticoagulants, and antiplatelet medicines, have a large number of identified gene-drug combinations.[3] Not all gene-drug combinations have enough data to support changes in clinical prescription. Furthermore, not all drug toxicity can be explained by the discovery of gene variations; a number of upstream and downstream regulators have an impact on the pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic effects of therapeutic medicines. An evaluation of the cost-utility and cost-effectiveness is necessary before a pharmacogenomics strategy to customise medication selection and/or dose can be used clinically [4]. Aside from cost effectiveness, other anticipated advantages include increased patient medication tolerance and thus increased compliance improved management results for patients (disease control, relapse/recurrence of illness, and even overall survival) can be extrapolated from improved compliance.[5] The application of personalised medicine may undergo many changes as a result of the incorporation of pharmacogenomics as it reduces the danger of negative responses , while the possibility of therapeutic effectiveness increased [6]. The second benefit of pharmacogenomics is improved dosage. Healthcare professionals can choose the ideal dosage for a patient's genetic profile, maximising efficacy while avoiding hazardous or inadequate medication levels [7]. Third, adverse medication responses, which are a major source of morbidity and mortality, can be greatly decreased through pharmacogenomic [8]. Additionally, pharmacogenomics is essential for the creation of novel drugs. Researchers can create focused clinical trials and create medications with enhanced effectiveness and safety profiles by identifying patient subpopulations that are more likely to respond favourably to a certain therapy[9]. This field has the promise to enhance medication selection, dose, and safety through the use of genetic data, thereby improving patient outcomes.

Understanding Genetic Variations: Pharmacogenomics, a science that seeks to understand the link between a person's genetic make-up and their reaction to medications, focuses a strong emphasis on understanding genetic variation. Pharmacogenomics, a science that seeks to understand the link between a person's genetic make-up and their reaction to medications, focuses a strong emphasis on understanding genetic variation. The first, crucial steps were isolating and purifying receptor proteins, whose existence had previously only been hypothesised based on their distinctive pharmacological properties. The finding of a far greater multiplicity at the DNA level underlying the pharmacologically specified effects and the cloning of the genes encoding these proteins were the following, significant stages[10].This progress was made possible by the creation of cloning and high-throughput sequencing techniques, as well as the availability of a complete genome sequence. These developments gave researchers access to all human genes, as well as their regulators, transcripts, and proteins, laying the groundwork for the identification of disease-causing genes and drug targets. Due to reference genome and gene sequences, it was able to compare sequences within and between species. This allowed for the identification of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), which are differences in DNA sequence.[11]. The types of variants detected and the quantity of detectable polymorphisms were both constrained by the limited accessibility of tools to access genetic variation. In order to conduct fruitful association studies, the number and frequency of alleles, together with the ease and robustness of typing, were crucial. For many years, markers including microsatellites, short tandem repeats (STR), and variable number of tandem repeats (VNTR) markers, as well as restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs), dominated the list of variable sites used in these research. SNP analysis afterwards took front stage since it is the most common type of variation in the human genome[12]

II. PHARMACOGENOMICS IN SPECIFIC DISEASE AREAS

1. Pharmacogenomics in COPD: Pharmacogenomics is becoming increasingly important in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) management, as it investigates how genetic variations impact drug responses. COPD is a progressive lung disease with airflow obstruction, and its treatment often involves various medications. However, individual responses to these drugs can differ due to genetic factors. Pharmacogenomics in COPD seeks to identify genetic markers to predict treatment responses and tailor personalized therapies, leading to improved patient outcomes and fewer adverse reactions[13]. Eg: A study focused on patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) who were prescribed inhaled corticosteroids (ICS) and aimed to identify genetic factors influencing the changes in forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV1) related to ICS therapy. The research involved a pharmacogenomic genome-wide association study in 802 participants and found five loci with significant genotype-by-ICS treatment interactions. One of the loci, SNP rs111720447 on chromosome 7, was successfully replicated in a separate group of 199 COPD patients. ENCODE data suggested that this SNP was associated with glucocorticoid receptor binding sites. Stratified analyses showed that the genotype at SNP rs111720447 was linked to the rate of FEV1 decline in patients taking ICS, as well as those assigned to placebo, but the direction of the relationship differed between the two groups [14]A large pharmacogenetic analysis examined the relationship between common ADRB2 gene variations and indacaterol treatment response in 648 COPD patients. Despite genotyping for several ADRB2 polymorphisms, the study found no proof that these genetic variations and indacaterol response are significantly related. As a consequence, it was determined that ADRB2 genetic diversity is unlikely to have a significant impact on how differently COPD patients respond to indacaterol medication.[15].

- 2. Pharmacogenomics in Cancer: Pharmacogenomic studies seek to comprehend the genetic underpinnings of interindividual variation and to forecast the safety, toxicity, and effectiveness of medications. Examples include genetic variants in transporters (MDR1), drug target enzymes (TS), and drug metabolising enzymes (TPMT, UGT1A1, and DPD) connected to clinical outcomes in chemotherapy with 5-fluorouracil and irinotecan. For better outcomes and lowered risks, personalised therapies can optimise medication selection and dose. [16]. Genetic variation plays a crucial role in an individual's response to drug treatments, and studying this variation can enhance therapy efficacy and safety. In cancer, both disease-defining mutations in tumors and a patient's germline genetic variation influence drug response, including effectiveness and toxicity. Recent advancements in sequencing technologies, statistical genetics analysis methods, and clinical trial designs have shown potential in identifying variants associated with drug response, paving the way for more personalized and effective treatments in the future[17]Aromatase inhibitors (AIs) are effective in reducing breast cancer recurrence and improving survival, but up to 30% of patients still experience recurrence. Researchers conducted a genome-wide association study on breast cancer patients and identified a specific genetic variation (SNP) in the CSMD1 gene associated with a longer breast cancer-free interval and fewer distant recurrences. CSMD1 was found to regulate the expression of CYP19, a key enzyme in estrogen synthesis, in a drug-specific and SNPdependent manner. Moreover, anastrozole combined with estradiol showed promise as a potential new therapeutic approach for patients with AI- or fulvestrant-resistant breast cancers[18].
- 3. Pharmacogenomics in Community Pharmacy: Pharmacogenomics is a rapidly advancing field that uses an individual's genetic code to optimize medication therapy, predicting adverse effects and drug efficacy. Recent technological advancements allow pharmacogenomic testing in community pharmacies. Pharmacists need to acquire knowledge and skills in pharmacogenomics to integrate it effectively into patient care, offering a valuable opportunity to improve treatment outcome[19]In a study involving 41 patients taking clopidogrel, 18 patients (43.9%) completed testing and analysis of pharmacogenomic findings. To complete all project phases, chemists needed an average of 76.6 minutes per participant. Between the first and second visit, participants in the initiative participated for an average of 30.1 days. Nine individuals had normal genetic alleles and maintained their prescription as directed, whereas nine other patients had genetic variations and their prescribers approved of any therapy changes suggested by the chemist. Only 12 of the 17 patients who gave their authorization to submit reimbursement claims were successfully billed, and none of them were paid.[20]
- 4. Pharmacogenomics in Cardiovascular Diseases: Pharmacogenomics research in cardiovascular therapies has provided a model for understanding variable drug responses based on individual genetic differences. This approach has identified critical pathways and specific genetic locations that influence the effectiveness of commonly used drugs. These findings offer valuable insights for personalized medicine and help to understand how individuals' unique genomic profiles can impact their response to cardiovascular

treatment[21] Statin therapy can lead to myopathy, ranging from mild to severe symptoms. Risk factors for myopathy include higher statin doses, medication interactions, renal or hepatic dysfunction, and specific genetic variations, such as the SLCO1B1 c.521T>C polymorphism. Simvastatin shows the strongest genetic association with myopathy. To mitigate risks, the CPIC guidelines recommend lower simvastatin doses or alternative statins for patients with the SLCO1B1 c.521T>C genotype, with routine creatine kinase monitoring if using simvastatin[22]. Vanderbilt University incorporates SLCO1B1 genotyping into clinical practice to identify at-risk patients and issues electronic alerts when prescribing simvastatin to individuals with the CT or CC genotype.[23]

III. CLINICAL APPLICATION OF PHARMACOGENOMICS:

 Based on genetic differences in enzymes and proteins involved in drug metabolism, pharmacogenomics customises pharmacological treatment. These variances may affect how a medicine is absorbed, distributed, biotransformed, excreted, and interacts with its target. Based on their allelic variations, individuals are categorised as poor, extensive, or rapid/ultrarapid metabolizers, which affects medication effectiveness and safety. [24]

- 1. Personalised Drug Selection: By utilizing pharmacogenomics, healthcare providers can use a patient's genetic profile to make informed decisions about the most appropriate medication, enhancing the chances of a positive treatment response [25]
- 2. Avoiding Adverse Reactions: Recognizing genetic variations that could heighten the risk of adverse drug reactions enables healthcare providers to approach drug selection with greater caution, thereby reducing the chances of harmful side effects[26]
- 3. Cancer Treatment: In oncology, pharmacogenomics can guide the selection of chemotherapy drugs and predict patients' response to specific treatments[16]
- 4. Psychiatry: Pharmacogenomics finds application in psychiatric practice to identify drugs that are more likely to be effective and better tolerated by individual patients[27]
- 5. Cardiovascular Medicine: Utilizing genetic information can assist in identifying the most appropriate anticoagulants or antiplatelet therapies for patients, reducing the risk of adverse events[28]
- 6. HIV Treatment: Pharmacogenomics can aid in the identification of suitable antiretroviral therapies and predict drug interactions for HIV patients[29] Pharmacogenomics promises personalized and effective drug therapies, benefiting patients and reducing healthcare costs. Yet, widespread implementation demands further research, standardization, and integration into clinical practice[30]

IV. FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND EMERGING TRENDS OF PHARMACOGENOMICS

 The future of pharmacogenomics depends on further advancements in genetic technologies. Next-generation sequencing (NGS) and targeted genotyping will allow comprehensive and affordable analysis of patients' genetic profiles, providing valuable information about drug metabolism and response patterns[31] Pharmacogenomics research is on the brink of a revolution with the integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and big data analytics. AI-powered algorithms have the potential to efficiently analyze extensive datasets, discover new genetic markers, and predict drug responses more accurately, leading to highly personalized and effective drug therapies[32]. Current research is directing its focus towards comprehending pharmacogenomic variations in diverse populations. This approach aims to customize drug therapies based on the specific genetic backgrounds of individuals from various ethnicities, promoting equitable and precise treatment outcome[33]. Pharmacogenomic data will assume a crucial role in drug development, aiding in the identification of responders and non-responders during clinical trials. This information empowers pharmaceutical companies to enhance drug efficacy, expedite drug approval processes, and reduce development costs[25]. The future of pharmacogenomics relies on its widespread integration into routine clinical practice. As research evidence accumulates, healthcare providers will become better equipped to integrate pharmacogenomic testing into drug prescription decisions, ultimately enhancing patient safety and treatment efficacy[34]. Pharmacogenomics is set to become a pivotal element in the growing domain of precision medicine. By integrating genetic data with other patient-specific information, including medical history and lifestyle factors, healthcare providers can create customized treatment plans, leading to the attainment of optimal therapeutic outcomes[30]. The establishment of evidence-based pharmacogenomic guidelines will be essential for healthcare providers to effectively interpret and utilize complex genetic testing results in patient care. Moreover, an increasing number of drugs are anticipated to include pharmacogenomic information in their labels, assisting physicians in selecting the most suitable medications for individual patients[35].

V. PHARMACOGENOMICS IN DRUG DEVELOPMENT

 As we move into the early stages of drug development, pharmacogenomics is becoming more and more recognised as a crucial scientific field for identifying important aspects of drug efficacy and safety. The current estimate is that 90% of patients will have at least one pharmacogenomic variant in genes involved in absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion[36]. Knowledge of pharmacogenomics is helpful for a variety of procedures, including the creation of novel medications and the titration of genotype-based medicinal regimens. Genetic polymorphism alters the extent and amount of gene expression, which may result in individual variations in drug response and drug behaviour inside the body, as well as changed phenotypic traits that raise disease vulnerability.[37]. Drug discovery is improved by using genomic data for drug target identification and evaluation, lead optimisation through high throughput screening, evaluation of drug metabolising enzymes, transporters, and receptors using computer assisted technique and bioinformatics library data base, and application of two areas of pharmacogenomics: structural and functional pharmacogenomics. Pharmacogenomics also provides a major and reliable basis for assessing and refining dose forms and for repurposing ineffective drugs to treat new conditions. It is simple to assess various dosage forms of categories of pharmaceuticals, such as anticancer therapies, vaccines, gene and DNA delivery systems, and immunological agents, based on the genetic markers of the associated disease.[38].

A few examples of the many variables that affect a drug's fate during its ADME cycle (absorption, distribution, metabolism, and elimination) include drug metabolising enzymes, drug transporters, and drug targets. The changes in these parameters from person to person are caused by the existence of different variants of the genes regulating these factors, which eventually affect the pharmacological activity. Drug target proteins are extremely sensitive to polymorphism in the genes of drug transporters and metabolising enzymes, which has an effect on the pharmacodynamic profile of medications. The aforementioned factors alter a drug's ADME profile, which alters a drug's toxicity and bioavailability inside the body. Therefore, genetic markers for drug targets, drug transporters, and drug metabolising enzymes can be employed during drug development.[39][40].

Numerous genes and their variants are present in the human genome, and these variations may affect how drugs are metabolised, transported, and act at their target sites. As a result, pharmacogenomics is a crucial tool for scientists working on drug development to enhance drug therapy. Once anticipated and their influence on illness and treatment response has been shown, genomic markers may be employed by drug development experts to design and create medications based on the sensitivity and activity profile of pharmaceuticals with regard to that marker and manage the disease at its early phases. Candidate gene analysis and random whole genome disequilibrium analysis are the two main techniques used to assess single nucleotide polymorphisms and discover pharmacogenomic markers. Understanding single nucleotide polymorphisms in the illness, drug transport, drug metabolism, and drug target genes enables the identification of genetic markers for a disease and the distribution of therapeutic molecules to treat it. Drug mechanisms, illness aetiology, and primary and secondary [41].

More than 30 families of drug metabolising enzymes are found in humans, and they are in charge of more than 75% of drug metabolism in the body. Monoamine oxidase (MAO), cytochrome P450 (CYP), aldehyde oxidase, xanthine dehydrogenase, alcohol dehydrogenases, aldehyde dehydrogenases, and peroxidases are a few of these[42]. The majority of drugs are metabolised by CYP enzymes, which have 57 genes, 18 families, and 44 sub-families. CYP enzymes include CYP2D6, CYP2C19, CYP2C9, CYP3A4, and CYP3A5 in particular. Out of these families, CYP2D6 is the principal enzyme that metabolises the majority of drugs (roughly 25–30%). All enzymes have demonstrated genetic differences from person to person, so drug metabolism is also variable. This, in turn, accounts for variation in drug response [43][44]. These enzymes can oxidise, S-methylate, N-acetylate, reduce, or hydrolyze the medicines as they metabolise them. The genetic variability of these enzymes, however, can change drug metabolism and result in an accentuated, masked, or completely absent pharmacological response. [45]. The activity of distinct polymorphic variants of these enzymes may be inhibited or stimulated by concurrent medicines that can impact the metabolism of other drugs..

The potential of biomarkers, particularly PG, to advance the discovery, development, and application of medicines is widely acknowledged by regulatory authorities. A new generation of predictive biomarkers, or PG biomarkers, has been identified by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) as one of the most crucial areas for enhancing medical product development in its Critical Path Initiative. In its Road Map to 2010, the European Medicines Agency (EMA) also identifies PG as a difficult new technology. In order to incorporate PG into drug development, various regulatory agencies have released white papers, considerations, draught guidance, and final guidance. As a result, regulatory guidance documents play a crucial role in directing operational procedures for companies funding pharmaceutical R&D.

VI. PHARMACOGENOMICS AND ADVERSE DRUG REACTIONS

 Pharmacogenomics testing has been reported to be helpful for predicting various health related issues and improvement in treating certain adverse drug reactions(ADRs). Pharmacogenomics is a field of study that investigates the genetic variance in how individuals respond to various pharmaceuticals in terms of dose requirement, efficacy and the risk of adverse drug reactions (ADRs). As pharmacogenomics determines the effect of genome in response to a particular drug, it may be helpful to reduce the ADRs of various drugs in near future[46].In western societies ADRs are considered as one of the most common cause of death. Pharmacogenomics is responsible for 80% of the variation in drug efficacy and safety. Developments in pharmacogenomics has helped in increasing the better understanding of ADRs.Various study report has demonstrated the effect of pharmacogenomics in the clinical aspects of ADRs[47].

 The pharmacogenomic machinery is consisted of a series of genes that codes for various proteins and enzymes which helps further in drug targeting. Genes involved in the pharmacogenomic study in response to drug deals with pathogenesis, mechanism of action of drugs, drug metabolism, drug transporters and pleiotropic genes which is a single gene controlling more than one trait. Various alleles are associated with ADRs caused by drugs such as antifungals, minocycline, allopurinol, non-steroidal anti inflammatory drugs.HLA-B□35:02 allele is associated with the ADRs of minocycline. Cyclooxygenase genes are the effective determinants of the ADRs caused by non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. HLA-B*58:01 allele may lead to severe cutaneous ADRs during treatment with allopurinol. Gene polymorphism that codes for drug metabolising enzymes, drug receptors, drug transporters and ion channels may either increase the risks of ADRs or reduce the potency of pharmacological action of drugs. Individual risk factors for adverse drug reactions are best examined in mutant alleles at a single gene locus, which includes numerous gene coding for drug-metabolising enzymes. The risk factors can be effectively analyzed using pharmacogenomic approaches, and genotype testing may help to optimize drug therapy[48]. ADRs are shown to be more common in paediatrics than in adults as a result of drug-drug interactions and improper therapies. Some nations have developed pharmacogenomic networks to generate genetically based assessments of children's drug responses, adverse medication reactions, and drug safety. Pharmacogenomics has not been applied sufficiently in geriatric medicine to combat the lethal pandemic of polypharmacy-related adverse drug reactions (ADRs) among the elderly.[49]. According to a theory, the patient's genome affects medication exposure and adverse drug reactions (ADRs), and the genome of the tumour cell impacts the effectiveness of anticancer therapy. The findings state that CYP2D6*4, 2D6*10, 2D6*41, 2D6*10/*10, CYP2C9*2, ABCB1 C3435T, and SLCO1B1*5 are the genotypes most often linked to ADRs.ADRs are divided into two groups, Type A and Type B, according to Rawlins and Thompson (1991). Type A ADRs may be predicted from a drug's known pharmacological activities and rely on dose, in contrast to type B ADRs, which cannot be anticipated from a drug's known pharmacological effects. Over time, pharmacogenomic research has progressed, and recent studies have revealed a link between genetic variants linked to drug-coding genes and inter-individual variability in the risks of ADRs. [50].

 According to the reports, elderly population are more prone to have ADRs[51]. Older persons with chronic illnesses may take 10-12 different medications each day and pharmacogenomics may help to optimize programs focused at improving the appropriate use of polypharmacy[52]. There is a correlation between the risk of ADRs associated to polypharmacy and advanced age, several co-morbidities, dementia, frailty, and a short life expectancy. [53]. Several medicines are more likely to cause ADRs in the elderly population. ADRs in old age are caused by inappropriate drug exposure, pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic alterations, decreased homeostatic reserve, and drug-drug interactions[54]. Gender variations can be seen in pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic (oral bioavailability, absorption, intestinal and liver metabolism, and renal elimination) variables. Drug distribution, metabolism, and excretion alterations associated to sex are also regulated by structural genomics, gene expression, epigenetics, cellular regulatory systems, and physiological activities.[55].

 Through increased pharmaceutical safety,efficacy and reduced medical expenses, the results of pharmacogenomic researches can improve future outcomes for patients and healthcare providers. Pharmacogenomic technologies can help the healthcare providers by reducing the ADRs and decreasing the chances of side effects and dependency. The use of pharmacogenomics for identifying the most appropriate and affordable drug can decrease the cost of healthcare expenditures[56].Along with ADRs pharmacogenomics can reduce the time required for drug approval, number of medicines required for therapeutic effects and harmful effects of a particular disease through early pharmacogenomic detection.

 The identification of genes linked to inter-individual variations in medication response, notably those that predispose people to adverse drug reactions (ADRs) and, to a lesser extent, those linked to treatment efficacy, has substantially advanced as a result of recent pharmacogenomic investigations. These studies have also aided in our comprehension of the mechanisms responsible for ADRs and drug effectiveness. These results led the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) to approve many medications designed to collect genetic data. To far, pharmacogenomic research have employed case-control association studies using either a candidate gene technique or genome-wide association (GWA) analysis to find genes that contribute to susceptibility to negative drug responses.Despite the fact that complicated disease genomics has advanced significantly as a result of the development of GWA research, this is usually seen as a positive development. The bulk of uncovered genetic risk factors have large impact sizes and are frequently located in physiologically obvious genes. Personalised medicine may enter a new age thanks to pharmacogenomics. As a result, occasionally unavoidable side effects could become at least partially avoided. Using pharmacogenomics as a first step in using genetic data to optimise medication therapy has been shown in several papers to help minimise side effects, which is a huge issue.To identify the most practical uses and social consequences of pharmacogenomics, further basic scientific, clinical, and political research is required. The use of pharmacogenomic data is now beset by significant challenges [57].

VII. DISCUSSION

 The field of pharmacogenomics, which investigates how a person's genetic composition affects how they respond to pharmaceuticals, is fast developing and changing the face of personalised medicine. This chapter examines the present status and future promise of pharmacogenomics in personalising medical care for distinct people based on their own genetic profiles.

- 1. Current Trajectory: Research, technology development, and clinical application have all advanced significantly along the present trajectory of pharmacogenomics in personalised medicine. Clinical practise is increasingly incorporating genetic testing for specific drug-gene interactions, enabling medical professionals to make more educated treatment choices. Growing acceptance of pharmacogenomic information's significance in enhancing medication therapy is reflected in the guidelines for pharmacogenetic testing and the inclusion of pharmacogenomic information in prescription labels.
- 2. Clinical Implementation: Pharmacogenomic testing is increasingly becoming a part of standard clinical therapy. Pharmacogenomic testing programmes have been created by several medical facilities and research facilities, providing genetic screening for particular drug-gene interactions. Particularly in areas where genetic differences greatly impact drug response, testing is anticipated to become a common component of medical practise for prescription pharmaceuticals as it becomes more affordable and accessible.
- 3. Improving Drug Selection and Dosage: Pharmacogenomics has the potential to improve medication selection and dose optimisation, which is key to personalised treatment. Healthcare professionals can customise pharmacological regimens for specific individuals by detecting genetic differences linked to drug metabolism, effectiveness, and adverse responses. This focused strategy may result in better treatment results, fewer unfavourable events, and greater patient compliance.
- 4. Preventing Adverse Drug Reactions (ADRs): Medical professionals are very concerned about adverse medication responses because they raise morbidity, death, and healthcare expenditures. Pharmacogenomics holds out the possibility of identifying people who are more likely to have ADRs through genetic testing. With this knowledge, medical professionals may steer clear of drugs that can have unfavourable effects in some patients, enhancing patient safety and lessening the strain on healthcare systems.
- 5. Challenges and Future Directions: Despite pharmacogenomics' optimistic future, there are still difficulties. Successful implementation depends on the standardisation of recommendations, their incorporation into electronic health records, education of healthcare professionals, and ethical issues. To further our understanding of genetic differences and their influence on medication response, extensive initiatives and cooperative efforts are needed.

VIII. CONCLUSION

 In closing, the current trajectory of pharmacogenomics in personalized medicine is characterized by notable improvements in clinical application and scientific study. Pharmacogenomics has the potential to completely transform medication selection, dose optimization, and ADR avoidance. Pharmacogenomics has the potential to drastically enhance patient outcomes and usher in a new age of personalized treatment catered to each person's particular genetic make-up as it is more fully incorporated into clinical practice. To fully utilize pharmacogenomics in personalized medicine, it is essential to resolve obstacles and promote collaboration.

REFERENCE

- [1] C. White, R. Scott, C. L. Paul, and S. P. Ackland, "Pharmacogenomics in the era of personalised medicine," Med. J. Aust., vol. 217, no. 10, pp. 510–513, Nov. 2022, doi: 10.5694/mja2.51759.
- [2] V. Rollinson, R. Turner, and M. Pirmohamed, "Pharmacogenomics for Primary Care: An Overview," Genes (Basel)., vol. 11, no. 11, p. 1337, Nov. 2020, doi: 10.3390/genes11111337.
- [3] M. Del Re, G. Restante, A. Di Paolo, S. Crucitta, E. Rofi, and R. Danesi, "Pharmacogenetics and Metabolism from Science to Implementation in Clinical Practice: The Example of Dihydropyrimidine Dehydrogenase," Curr. Pharm. Des., vol. 23, no. 14, May 2017, doi: 10.2174/1381612823666170125155530.
- [4] J. J. Swen et al., "Pharmacogenetics: From Bench to Byte— An Update of Guidelines," Clin. Pharmacol. Ther., vol. 89, no. 5, pp. 662–673, May 2011, doi: 10.1038/clpt.2011.34.
- [5] L. M. Henricks et al., "A cost analysis of upfront DPYD genotype–guided dose individualisation in fluoropyrimidine-based anticancer therapy," Eur. J. Cancer, vol. 107, pp. 60–67, Jan. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.ejca.2018.11.010.
- [6] L. H. Goetz and N. J. Schork, "Personalized medicine: motivation, challenges, and progress," Fertil. Steril., vol. 109, no. 6, pp. 952–963, Jun. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.fertnstert.2018.05.006.
- [7] K. R. Crews, J. K. Hicks, C.-H. Pui, M. V Relling, and W. E. Evans, "Pharmacogenomics and Individualized Medicine: Translating Science Into Practice," Clin. Pharmacol. Ther., Sep. 2012, doi: 10.1038/clpt.2012.120.
- [8] E. Micaglio, E. T. Locati, M. M. Monasky, F. Romani, F. Heilbron, and C. Pappone, "Role of Pharmacogenetics in Adverse Drug Reactions: An Update towards Personalized Medicine," Front. Pharmacol., vol. 12, Apr. 2021, doi: 10.3389/fphar.2021.651720.
- [9] C. Adithan, A. Surendiran, and S. Pradhan, "Role of pharmacogenomics in drug discovery and development," Indian J. Pharmacol., vol. 40, no. 4, p. 137, 2008, doi: 10.4103/0253-7613.43158.
- [10] M. R. Hoehe and T. Kroslak, "Genetic variation and pharmacogenomics: concepts, facts, and challenges," Dialogues Clin. Neurosci., vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 5–26, Mar. 2004, doi: 10.31887/DCNS.2004.6.1/mhoehe.
- [11] F. S. Collins, M. S. Guyer, and A. Chakravarti, "Variations on a Theme: Cataloging Human DNA Sequence Variation," Science (80-.)., vol. 278, no. 5343, pp. 1580–1581, Nov. 1997, doi: 10.1126/science.278.5343.1580.
- [12] R. Sachidanandam et al., "A map of human genome sequence variation containing 1.42 million single nucleotide polymorphisms," Nature, vol. 409, no. 6822, pp. 928–933, Feb. 2001, doi: 10.1038/35057149.
- [13] M. Pirmohamed, "Pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics," Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol., vol. 52, no. 4, pp. 345–347, Oct. 2001, doi: 10.1046/j.0306-5251.2001.01498.x.
- [14] M. Obeidat et al., "The pharmacogenomics of inhaled corticosteroids and lung function decline in COPD," Eur. Respir. J., vol. 54, no. 6, p. 1900521, Dec. 2019, doi: 10.1183/13993003.00521-2019.
- [15] R. Yelensky et al., "A pharmacogenetic study of ADRB2 polymorphisms and indacaterol response in COPD patients," Pharmacogenomics J., vol. 12, no. 6, pp. 484–488, Dec. 2012, doi: 10.1038/tpj.2011.54.
- [16] W. Lee, A. C. Lockhart, R. B. Kim, and M. L. Rothenberg, "Cancer Pharmacogenomics: Powerful Tools in Cancer Chemotherapy and Drug Development," Oncologist, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 104–111, Feb. 2005, doi: 10.1634/theoncologist.10-2-104.
- [17] H. E. Wheeler, M. L. Maitland, M. E. Dolan, N. J. Cox, and M. J. Ratain, "Cancer pharmacogenomics: strategies and challenges," Nat. Rev. Genet., vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 23–34, Jan. 2013, doi: 10.1038/nrg3352.
- [18] J. Cairns et al., "Pharmacogenomics of aromatase inhibitors in postmenopausal breast cancer and additional mechanisms of anastrozole action," JCI Insight, vol. 5, no. 16, Aug. 2020, doi: 10.1172/jci.insight.137571.
- [19] L. Padgett, S. O'Connor, M. Roederer, H. McLeod, and S. Ferreri, "Pharmacogenomics in a community pharmacy: ACT now," J. Am. Pharm. Assoc., vol. 51, no. 2, pp. 189–193, Mar. 2011, doi: 10.1331/JAPhA.2011.10178.
- [20] S. P. Ferreri et al., "Implementation of a pharmacogenomics service in a community pharmacy," J. Am. Pharm. Assoc., vol. 54, no. 2, pp. 172–180, Mar. 2014, doi: 10.1331/JAPhA.2014.13033.
- [21] P. Weeke and D. M. Roden, "Pharmacogenomics and Cardiovascular Disease," Curr. Cardiol. Rep., vol. 15, no. 7, p. 376, Jul. 2013, doi: 10.1007/s11886-013-0376-0.
- [22] L. B. Ramsey et al., "The Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium Guideline for SLCO1B1 and Simvastatin-Induced Myopathy: 2014 Update," Clin. Pharmacol. Ther., vol. 96, no. 4, pp. 423–428, Oct. 2014, doi: 10.1038/clpt.2014.125.
- [23] W. Lieb, H. Völzke, J. M. Pulley, D. M. Roden, and H. K. Kroemer, "Strategies for Personalized

IIP Series, Volume 3, Book 3, Chapter 16

CURRENT TRAJECTORY AND PROSPECTIVE POTENTIAL OF PHARMACOGENOMICS IN PERSONALIZED MEDICINES

Medicine–Based Research and Implementation in the Clinical Workflow," Clin. Pharmacol. Ther., vol. 92, no. 4, pp. 443–445, Oct. 2012, doi: 10.1038/clpt.2012.119.

- [24] L. Quiñones et al., "Farmacogenómica como herramienta fundamental para la medicina personalizada: aplicaciones en la práctica clínica," Rev. Med. Chil., vol. 145, no. 4, pp. 483–500, Apr. 2017, doi: 10.4067/S0034-98872017000400009.
- [25] D. Lopez, "Pharmacogenetics: An Important Part of Drug Development with A Focus on Its Application," Int. J. Biomed. Investig., vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 1–16, Jun. 2018, doi: 10.31531/2581-4745.1000111.
- [26] M. Ingelman-Sundberg, S. Mkrtchian, Y. Zhou, and V. M. Lauschke, "Integrating rare genetic variants into pharmacogenetic drug response predictions," Hum. Genomics, vol. 12, no. 1, p. 26, Dec. 2018, doi: 10.1186/s40246-018-0157-3.
- [27] A. Alchakee, M. Ahmed, L. Eldohaji, H. Alhaj, and M. Saber-Ayad, "Pharmacogenomics in Psychiatry Practice: The Value and the Challenges," Int. J. Mol. Sci., vol. 23, no. 21, p. 13485, Nov. 2022, doi: 10.3390/ijms232113485.
- [28] C. Espinola-Klein, "When and How to Combine Antiplatelet and Anticoagulant Drugs?," Hamostaseologie, vol. 42, no. 01, pp. 073–079, Feb. 2022, doi: 10.1055/a-1724-4922.
- [29] Z. J. Yu, E. P. Mosher, and N. N. Bumpus, "Pharmacogenomics of Antiretroviral Drug Metabolism and Transport," Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol., vol. 61, no. 1, pp. 565–585, Jan. 2021, doi: 10.1146/annurevpharmtox-021320-111248.
- [30] E. Cecchin and G. Stocco, "Pharmacogenomics and Personalized Medicine," Genes (Basel)., vol. 11, no. 6, p. 679, Jun. 2020, doi: 10.3390/genes11060679.
- [31] Y. Ji, Y. Si, G. A. McMillin, and E. Lyon, "Clinical pharmacogenomics testing in the era of next generation sequencing: challenges and opportunities for precision medicine," Expert Rev. Mol. Diagn., vol. 18, no. 5, pp. 411–421, May 2018, doi: 10.1080/14737159.2018.1461561.
- [32] A. M. Rahmani et al., "Artificial intelligence approaches and mechanisms for big data analytics: a systematic study," PeerJ Comput. Sci., vol. 7, p. e488, Apr. 2021, doi: 10.7717/peerj-cs.488.
- [33] J. O'Shea, M. Ledwidge, J. Gallagher, C. Keenan, and C. Ryan, "Pharmacogenetic interventions to improve outcomes in patients with multimorbidity or prescribed polypharmacy: a systematic review," Pharmacogenomics J., vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 89–99, Mar. 2022, doi: 10.1038/s41397-021-00260-6.
- [34] E. B. Tata, M. A. Ambele, and M. S. Pepper, "Barriers to Implementing Clinical Pharmacogenetics Testing in Sub-Saharan Africa. A Critical Review," Pharmaceutics, vol. 12, no. 9, p. 809, Aug. 2020, doi: 10.3390/pharmaceutics12090809.
- [35] H. Abdullah-Koolmees, A. M. van Keulen, M. Nijenhuis, and V. H. M. Deneer, "Pharmacogenetics Guidelines: Overview and Comparison of the DPWG, CPIC, CPNDS, and RNPGx Guidelines," Front. Pharmacol., vol. 11, Jan. 2021, doi: 10.3389/fphar.2020.595219.
- [36] F. Schreeck, G. Ahne, R. Tremmel, E. Schaeffeler, and M. Schwab, "Pharmacogenomics in pediatric medicine and drug development," Pharmacogenomics, vol. 23, no. 13, pp. 709–712, Aug. 2022, doi: 10.2217/pgs-2022-0105.
- [37] M. Hijikata et al., "Influence of the polymorphism of the DUSP14 gene on the expression of immunerelated genes and development of pulmonary tuberculosis," Genes Immun., vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 207–212, Jun. 2016, doi: 10.1038/gene.2016.11.
- [38] S. Gupta and V. Jhawat, "Quality by design (QbD) approach of pharmacogenomics in drug designing and formulation development for optimization of drug delivery systems," J. Control. Release, vol. 245, pp. 15– 26, Jan. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.jconrel.2016.11.018.
- [39] L. Tremaine et al., "The role of ADME pharmacogenomics in early clinical trials: perspective of the Industry Pharmacogenomics Working Group (I-PWG)," Pharmacogenomics, vol. 16, no. 18, pp. 2055– 2067, Dec. 2015, doi: 10.2217/pgs.15.141.
- [40] B. Mittal, S. Tulsyan, and R. Mittal, "The effect of ABCB1 polymorphisms on the outcome of breast cancer treatment," Pharmgenomics. Pers. Med., p. 47, Apr. 2016, doi: 10.2147/PGPM.S86672.
- [41] R. Pranavchand and M. Reddy, "Genomics era and complex disorders: Implications of GWAS with special reference to coronary artery disease, type 2 diabetes mellitus, and cancers," J. Postgrad. Med., vol. 62, no. 3, p. 188, 2016, doi: 10.4103/0022-3859.186390.
- [42] A. Isvoran et al., "Pharmacogenomics of the cytochrome P450 2C family: impacts of amino acid variations on drug metabolism," Drug Discov. Today, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 366–376, Feb. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.drudis.2016.09.015.
- [43] J. K. Ostermann, A. Berghöfer, F. Andersohn, and F. Fischer, "Frequency and clinical relevance of potential cytochrome P450 drug interactions in a psychiatric patient population – an analysis based on German insurance claims data," BMC Health Serv. Res., vol. 16, no. 1, p. 482, Dec. 2016, doi:

10.1186/s12913-016-1724-8.

- [44] S. N. Hart, S. Wang, K. Nakamoto, C. Wesselman, Y. Li, and X. Zhong, "Genetic polymorphisms in cytochrome P450 oxidoreductase influence microsomal P450-catalyzed drug metabolism," Pharmacogenet. Genomics, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 11–24, Jan. 2008, doi: 10.1097/FPC.0b013e3282f2f121.
- [45] M. V. Relling and W. E. Evans, "Pharmacogenomics in the clinic," Nature, vol. 526, no. 7573, pp. 343– 350, Oct. 2015, doi: 10.1038/nature15817.
- [46] S. J. Wieczorek and G. J. Tsongalis, "Pharmacogenomics: will it change the field of medicine?," Clin. Chim. Acta, vol. 308, no. 1–2, pp. 1–8, Jun. 2001, doi: 10.1016/S0009-8981(01)00419-3.
- [47] G. Severino, "Adverse drug reactions: role of pharmacogenomics," Pharmacol. Res., vol. 49, no. 4, pp. 363–373, Apr. 2004, doi: 10.1016/j.phrs.2003.05.003.
- [48] R. Cacabelos, N. Cacabelos, and J. C. Carril, "The role of pharmacogenomics in adverse drug reactions," Expert Rev. Clin. Pharmacol., vol. 12, no. 5, pp. 407–442, May 2019, doi: 10.1080/17512433.2019.1597706.
- [49] E. K. Crowley et al., "Intervention protocol: OPtimising thERapy to prevent avoidable hospital Admission in the Multi-morbid elderly (OPERAM): a structured medication review with support of a computerised decision support system," BMC Health Serv. Res., vol. 20, no. 1, p. 220, Dec. 2020, doi: 10.1186/s12913- 020-5056-3.
- [50] C. Atasilp et al., "Effect of drug metabolizing enzymes and transporters in Thai colorectal cancer patients treated with irinotecan-based chemotherapy," Sci. Rep., vol. 10, no. 1, p. 13486, Aug. 2020, doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-70351-0.
- [51] M. Cardelli, F. Marchegiani, A. Corsonello, F. Lattanzio, and M. Provinciali, "A Review of Pharmacogenetics of Adverse Drug Reactions in Elderly People," Drug Saf., vol. 35, no. S1, pp. 3–20, Jan. 2012, doi: 10.1007/BF03319099.
- [52] J. A. Cooper et al., "Interventions to improve the appropriate use of polypharmacy in older people: a Cochrane systematic review," BMJ Open, vol. 5, no. 12, p. e009235, Dec. 2015, doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2015-009235.
- [53] D. Mangin et al., "International Group for Reducing Inappropriate Medication Use & amp; Polypharmacy (IGRIMUP): Position Statement and 10 Recommendations for Action," Drugs Aging, vol. 35, no. 7, pp. 575–587, Jul. 2018, doi: 10.1007/s40266-018-0554-2.
- [54] A. Sheth, R. Dave, D. Rana, and D. Sheth, "Comparison of the extent and prevalence of prescription of potentially inappropriate medications prescribed to geriatric age group residing in old-age homes versus those receiving care from tertiary care hospital using Beers criteria," Perspect. Clin. Res., vol. 11, no. 4, p. 144, 2020, doi: 10.4103/picr.PICR_144_18.
- [55] A. M. Moyer, E. T. Matey, and V. M. Miller, "Individualized medicine: Sex, hormones, genetics, and adverse drug reactions," Pharmacol. Res. Perspect., vol. 7, no. 6, Dec. 2019, doi: 10.1002/prp2.541.
- [56] C. W. Heise, T. Gallo, S. C. Curry, and R. L. Woosley, "Identification of populations likely to benefit from pharmacogenomic testing," Pharmacogenet. Genomics, vol. 30, no. 5, pp. 91–95, Jul. 2020, doi: 10.1097/FPC.0000000000000400.
- [57] M. K. Siddiqui, J. Luzum, M. Coenen, and S. H. Mahmoudpour, "Editorial: Pharmacogenomics of Adverse Drug Reactions," Front. Genet., vol. 13, Mar. 2022, doi: 10.3389/fgene.2022.859909.