

# Personalised Medicine as the Promising Implication for Healthcare

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## 1. Introduction

Personalized medicine is a growing branch of medicine that implements genetic profiling to guide decisions regarding disease prevention, diagnosis, and treatment based on an individual's genetics. An individual's genetic profile can assist doctors in selecting the proper medication or therapy and administering it in the proper dosage and regimen. A large amount of data from the Human Genome Project is providing insights into personalized medicine. An individualized approach to diagnostics and drug therapy and prevention could explicitly replace a "one size fits all" approach.

We all are alike; however, we differ in terms of our genetic combination. Genomics is the key role player in the field of personalized medicine as it enables us to make specific estimates about disease risk that can assist someone in selecting the most appropriate anticipation plan for them based on their specific molecular differences [1]. It also permits the probability in some instances of selecting the precise drug at the accurate dose for the right- person as an alternative to the generalized approach to drug therapy.

Through personalized medicine, a medical treatment is tailored to each patient's individual characteristics. The hypothesis is perceived on the basis of how molecular and genetic profiles contribute to a person's susceptibility to certain diseases backed by several scientific studies

34 [2]. As a result, we are gaining greater insight into which treatments will be safe and effective  
35 for each patient, as well as which ones will not. Personalized medicine can be considered a  
36 complement to conventional methods of disease diagnosis and treatment. With more precise  
37 tools, physicians can customize a treatment based on the molecular profile of a patient [3]. This  
38 approach not only helps in reducing detrimental side effects and ensuring a positive outcome,  
39 but also controls costs compared to a “trial-and-error” approach to disease management.  
40 Personalized medicine has the potential to change our perception, identify and manage health  
41 problems. Our understanding and technologies are improving, and this will have an even  
42 greater impact on clinical research and patient care.

43 Personalised medicine is based on the core research related to pharmacogenetics wherein it acts  
44 as a model of implementing individualized therapies for diverse patients or groups. Every  
45 individual differs based on their distinct heredity, health related behaviour and metabolism.  
46 Additionally, the elder population suffer from several illnesses. Until now, drugs are prescribed  
47 solely based on clinical overview of the disease irrespective of the individual make-up of  
48 distinct patients. Consequently, treatments with established efficacy frequently induce  
49 (adverse) side-effects or may be unable to induce any effect in a subgroup of patients. This  
50 approach not only have considerable impact on personal well-being, but also leads to economic  
51 costs which can be saved by certain targeted therapies. The advances of pharmacogenetic  
52 research since the late 1950s has provided deep insights into the future potentials of discretely  
53 designed drug therapies. The spectrum personalised medicine according to several researchers  
54 includes [4]:

- 55 • Medicine, based on the utilization of distinctive therapeutic measures including the  
56 Regenerative Medicine - Tissue Engineering or Stem Cell Therapy
- 57 • Pharmacogenetics
- 58 • Other areas of research wherein biomarkers are used to improve prediction of disease  
59 and/or the course of disease.

60 Personalised medicine incorporates various strategies to tailoring healthcare. Till date various  
61 factors has been considered for diagnosis and treatment of various diseases such as age, sex  
62 and family history, co-morbidities and considering patient’s psycho-social, lifestyle and  
63 perhaps family and economic conditions.

64 Over 60 years medical field has been struggling to become more ‘scientific’. Medical practice  
65 has prominently focused on proof-based approach considering narrative accounts by patient,

66 tactual exploration, demographic and societal aspects related to the patient, including others.  
67 The process operation has become more systematic and automated with respect to collection,  
68 processing and analysis of data which can be further easily aggregated and extracted [5].

69 The present concern in personalised medicine is related to customizing the science of medicine.  
70 As a result, it has the potential to go beyond producing evidence of the most effective  
71 interventions for the 'average' patient to produce scientific data and 'individual evidence' of the  
72 optimal treatment for the individual. Since everyone has distinct features of their disease,  
73 medicine is moving away from 'one size fits all' to 'personalised interventions'. It is already  
74 common practice to select antimicrobial drugs based on the sensitivity of the organism  
75 infecting the disease.

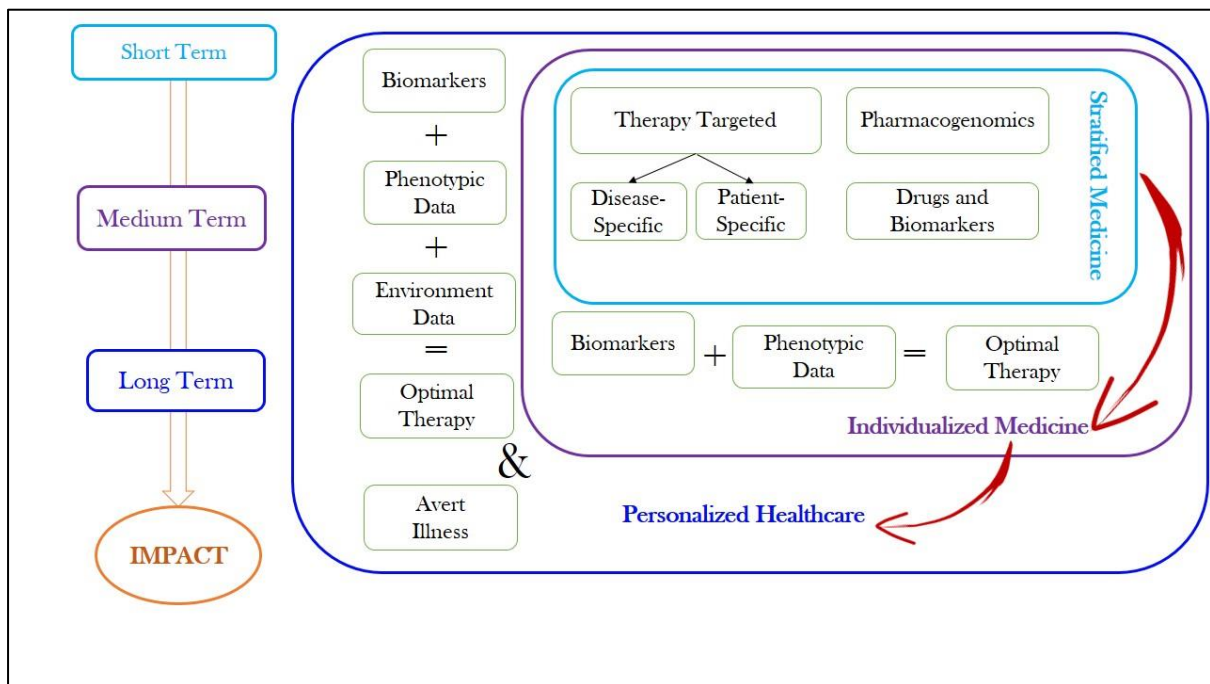
76 With the advancements in pharmacogenomics, the concept of personalised medicine is already  
77 becoming realistic for humans. For instance, research identifying genetic determinants of drug  
78 response is making it feasible to estimate which diverse therapies will benefit which individuals  
79 (Cetuximab and panitumumab fail to treat colorectal cancer patients with KRAS gene  
80 mutations), or who will respond adversely (hypersensitive reactions to the anti-AIDS drug  
81 Abacavir is linked to the existence of the HLA-B\*5701 allele) [6].

82 Pharmacogenomics customizes medication to the degree that it delineates patients having  
83 particular illness into subgroups. This definition brings about a fitting that is practically  
84 equivalent to having a decision of little, medium or enormous, as opposed to one-size-fits-all  
85 solution; it isn't the arrangement of a custom-tailored ensemble. Through extension of  
86 pharmacogenomics, and with research, by clarifying the sub-atomic premise of pathologies,  
87 reclassifying would be thought of by most to be a solitary sickness element into various  
88 infection subtypes (as has changed the therapy of leukaemias) or without a doubt various  
89 ailment, re-classifying normal complex illness into numerous intriguing infections [7].

90 Nevertheless, besides stratification, individualisation is also an important direction for tailoring  
91 advancement [8,9]. This means valuing the individual as an individual and as a totality. In  
92 silico representations of the virtually simulated patients can be built using omics-type analytic  
93 techniques, such as sequencing the entire genome and transcriptome of a cancer and comparing  
94 it to the patient's genome. This information can then be used to find a personalised treatment  
95 plan.

96 A comprehensive knowledge of the biological processes in the body as an intricate and dynamic  
97 entity is produced through systems biology methodologies. The associated healthcare practises

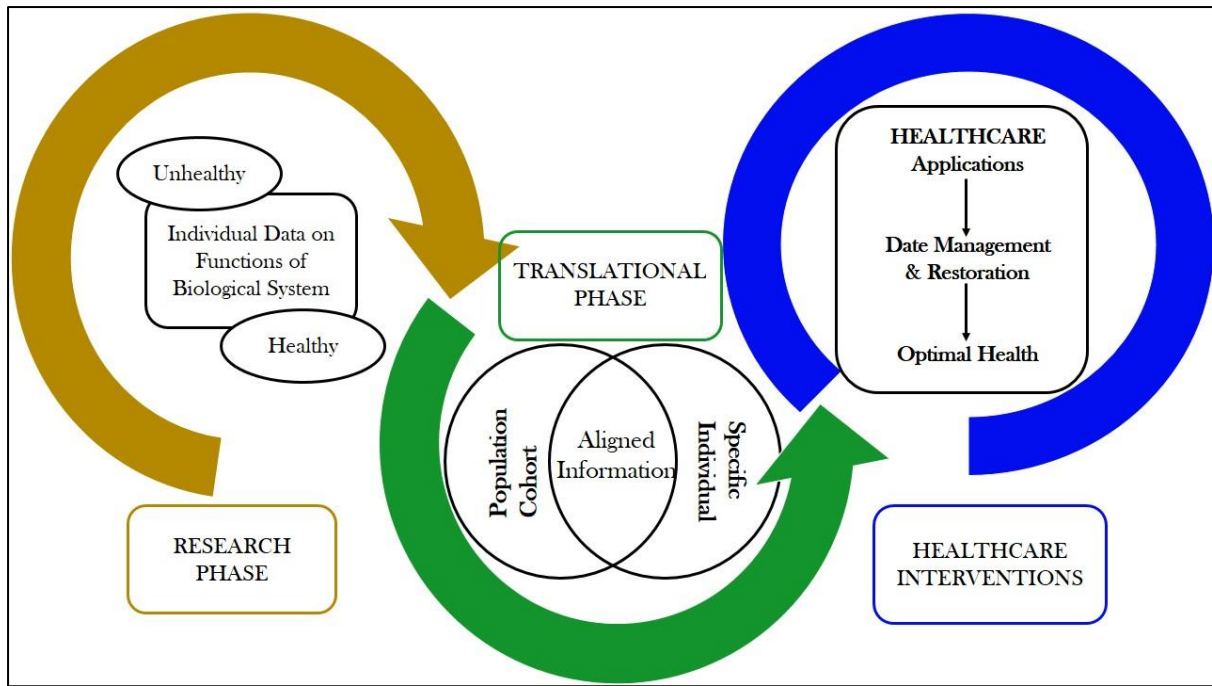
98 would use a holistic perspective, evaluating how each person's unique biological make-up  
 99 interacts with their surroundings and devising treatments to promote wellbeing. Doctors could  
 100 choose the best treatment for a patient by integrating data pertaining to that person's biological  
 101 composition using techniques like gene pathway studies and in silico modelling. Additionally,  
 102 it aims to refocus efforts towards preventative healthcare, allowing for personalised illness  
 103 prevention strategy recommendations (Fig. 1).



104

105 **Figure 1: Impact of Personalized Healthcare-From Stratified to Individualized Health System**

106 Personalised medicine, whether stratified or individualised, is predicated on the disposal of  
 107 additional information about individuals. It promises to provide better, more precise therapy  
 108 for individuals. There is a need for quantitative growth: additional in-depth information on  
 109 human biology that is obtained from "-Omics" data including diverse fields of genomics,  
 110 epigenomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, amongst others in amalgamation  
 111 with other categories of data like biological imaging and physiological measurements.  
 112 Likewise, there is a need for qualitative improvement; new data types, such as information  
 113 about a person's surroundings that includes nutritional aspects, the microbiome, toxin exposure  
 114 etc.; are now considered crucial for comprehending the physiological processes. Both research  
 115 and healthcare practice require additional information, and there must be a process for  
 116 evaluating how knowledge derived in one domain can be applied to the other (Fig. 2). In order  
 117 to shift from stratified medicine to individualised medicine and individualised healthcare,  
 118 various aspects of biological functions need to be studied and presented. (Fig. 3).



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**Figure 2: Translational process research to applications**

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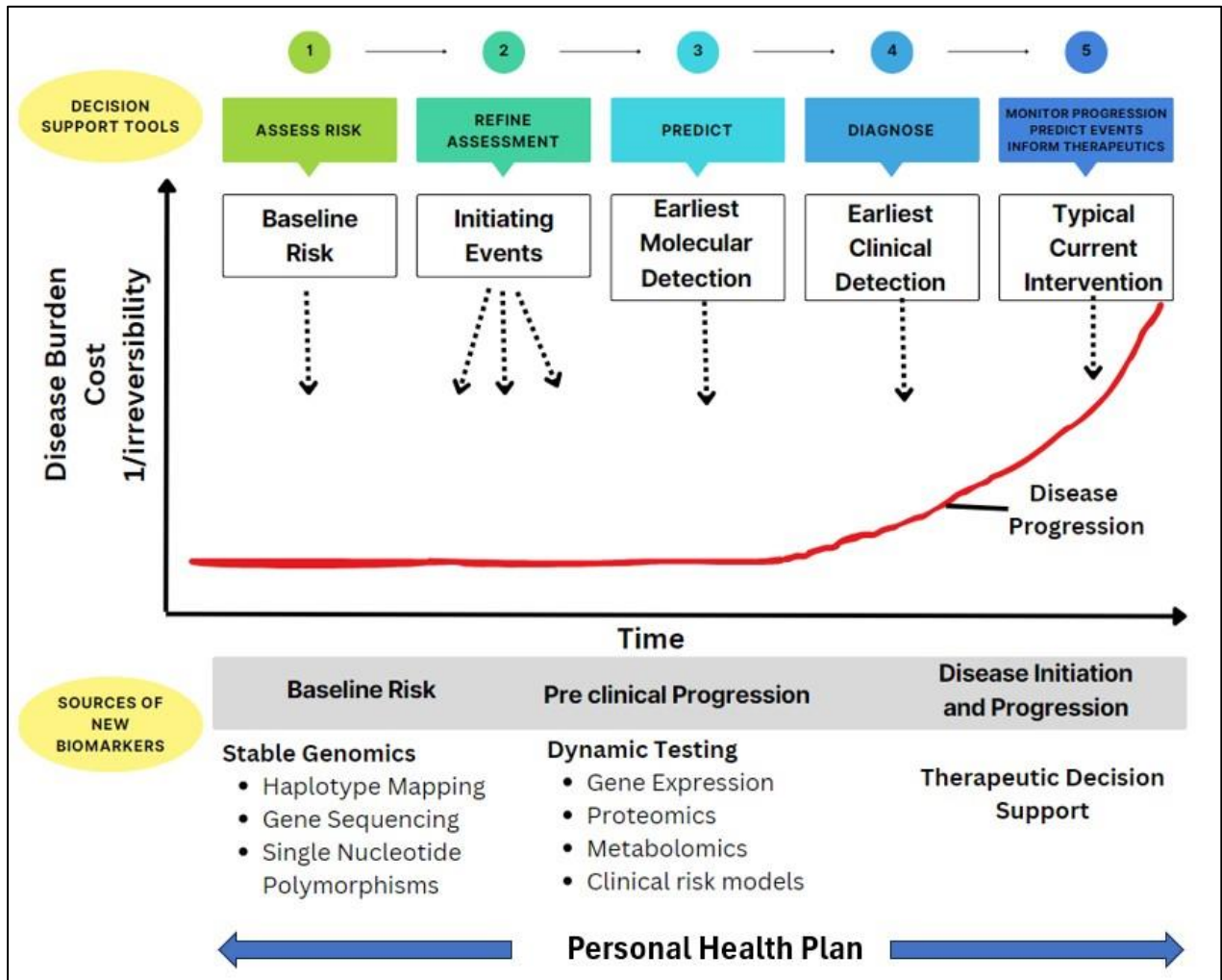
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The precise and accurate quantification of data is another necessity of the scientific community so that inputs from different platforms can be merged effectively. It may be particularly challenging to analyse biological imaging data in this way. Analysing broader categories of data like lifestyle or environmental factors will likely pose further challenges. In an era of increasingly complex environments, economics, and family circumstances, it is extremely difficult to capture the clinical phenotype with all its complication [10]. By incorporating deep phenotyping, these 'phenomes' can interact with disease linked pathways predicted through '-Omics' technologies by using the thorough information about an individual's disease. There is a considerable informatics challenge here, not to mention the difficult task of capturing sufficient phenome detail. New techniques or technologies may be required to standardize and quantify linear data. In addition to the data generation on integrated biological systems, data collection on dynamic ensembles also needs to be considered; thus, new technologies will be required to achieve this. Processing large quantities of linear data will require good IT infrastructure, in terms of both storage and processing. Data processing will also be facilitated by new algorithms. Handling longitudinal information from highly dynamic ensembles over time and space will require new tools, as will the integration of multiple data types. To improve our knowledge of human functioning in health and disease, bioscience researchers must first gather big volumes of standardised data and convert into biological information. As a result of this improved understanding of biology, interventions can be optimized that facilitate health

140 restoration and maintenance on an individual basis [10]. It is imperative that such interventions  
 141 are proven before they can be used in healthcare.



142  
 143 **Figure 3: The role of genome-based information across continuum of health to disease**

144 Additionally, we must keep in mind that the concept of "personalised medicine" incorporates  
 145 its use in various contexts, considering various areas of healthcare. A personalized approach  
 146 can assist in selecting optimal treatments by predicting the outcome of interventions, as is  
 147 already possible through pharmacogenetic testing [11]. Future applications might include  
 148 predicting someone's risk of ill health and guiding their treatment selection.

149 It is particularly challenging to corroborate the efficacy for preventive action, as has even been  
 150 acknowledged by those who claim their necessity. Moving personalised medicine from the lab  
 151 into healthcare will require addressing important questions about suitable methodologies for  
 152 assessing validity and utility. Although providing adequate answers to the questions necessary  
 153 for introducing a novel tool into healthcare in principle, addressing the cost effectiveness  
 154 question is essential in practice. Personalised medicine will be in a position to answer the

155 questions with respect to cost effectiveness. As a matter of fact, one of the main benefits of  
156 personalised medicine is that it will decrease expenses by focusing on treatments for the  
157 individual, thereby avoiding spending money on interventions that may not be effective for the  
158 patient, or may lead to adverse effects that require additional therapeutic care.

159 The goal of personalised medicine is to determine the best therapy for an individual based on  
160 the information gathered from him or her. In its early stages, this will involve transforming a  
161 research methodology into a device for investigating and/or evaluating a biomarker or set of  
162 biomarkers that can be routinely implemented for healthcare. Personalized medicine can be  
163 applied in a wide variety of contexts and by different users, thus the device may also take a  
164 different form depending on the task. As has so far been recognised, personalised medicine  
165 occurs in a clinical setting and entails assisting the clinician in making decisions regarding drug  
166 therapy and preventative measures (pharmacogenomics). The development of companion  
167 diagnostics, or biomarker assays that are created concurrently with therapeutic products and  
168 are used to assess the efficacy and/or safety of those drugs for a specific patient, is being  
169 sparked by advances in pharmacogenomics.

170 In addition to diagnostics firms collaborating with pharmaceutical firms to create companion  
171 diagnostics for their products (Qiagen + Pfizer), pharmaceutical firms themselves are  
172 establishing companion diagnostics departments (Roche). These companion diagnostics have  
173 so far involved obtaining a patient's sample and forwarding it to the lab for examination using  
174 specialised tools. Nevertheless, even in genetic testing, there is a tendency towards point-of-  
175 care testing or near-patient diagnostics, which brings the test to the patient.

176 As an illustration of this, pilot tests have shown that a hand-held gadget (the "SNIP doctor")  
177 for examining single nucleotide polymorphisms is effective. A key step for personalised  
178 medicine will be to develop diagnostic modalities that are handy for health professionals, such  
179 as kits, machines and portable imaging devices. Over the long run, personalised medicine may  
180 require citizens to become health literate and to use health monitoring and management tools  
181 in their daily lives [12]. The concept of self-monitoring is not new: chronic conditions such as  
182 diabetes and asthma are managed using self-monitoring. Additionally, high street pharmacies  
183 now sell blood pressure monitoring devices, which are becoming increasingly available for  
184 self-monitoring. The development of an iPhone app to track food intake via barcodes is an  
185 example of how advanced technologies are implemented to simplify regular health monitoring.  
186 Physiological variables are being tracked and communicated to a mobile smart phone or other

187 computerised device through increasingly sophisticated medical devices. Proteus Biomedical,  
188 for instance, manufactures the 'raisin personal monitor' which is worn under the skin like a  
189 sticking plaster to monitor and analyse heart rate, physical activity, body position, and patient-  
190 logged events. The company is also developing 'chip-on-a-pill' technology: ingestible  
191 microsensors that can be implanted in tablets and pills along with this monitoring tools. These  
192 markers are currently used to support adherence to medication, but could also feedback data  
193 from diagnostics or other measuring devices. As a result of these technologies and gadgets,  
194 functional status can be continuously monitored in real time, allowing therapy to be fine-tuned  
195 to control chronic diseases or lifestyle changes to achieve health goals.

## 196 **2. Personalised medicine and the Human genome**

197 Personalised medicine is an emerging field which is based on an individual's genetic profile to  
198 take decisions in regards of prevention, diagnosis and treatment of disease. Understandings of  
199 a patient's genetic profile can aid doctors in selecting the appropriate medication or the therapy  
200 and its administration in particular controlled dose. It is being advanced through data from the  
201 Human Genome Project. According to Sir Bruce Keogh, Medical Director NHS England, "In  
202 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries, microscope and x-rays revolutionised medicine so in 21<sup>st</sup> century, the  
203 knowledge of the human genome will dramatically change medicines".

204 Studies on the genome sequences of microorganisms, plants and animals have revolutionized  
205 many fields of science which includes microbiology, virology, plant biology and infectious  
206 diseases. Similarly, the Human Genome Project has remodelled biology by decoding a  
207 reference human genome sequence along with the whole genome sequences of key model  
208 organisms [13]. Scientist, Renato Dulbecco first of all advocated the idea of the Human  
209 Genome Project publicly in an article published in 1984 in which the knowledge of the human  
210 genome sequence would help in better understanding of cancer [14]. Initially, the main aim of  
211 Human Genome Project was to determine a human genetic map and then a physical map of the  
212 human genome [15].

213 The completion of The Human Genome project in 2001 helped a lot in deeper understanding  
214 of medicines. The knowledge achieved through further research has changed the field of  
215 genomics and helping into clinical medicines [16]. The combination and analysis of  
216 information about our genome with other clinical and diagnostic findings will help in  
217 determining our individual risk of disease, earlier detection of illness and finding the most



218 effective way to improve our health; either by using medicines or changes in lifestyles or even  
219 simple changes in diet. By understanding the role of DNA in our health will help in:

- 220 • The prediction of disease
- 221 • The precise diagnosis and prevention of disease
- 222 • Personalised treatment plans
- 223 • A more involvement of patients

## 224 **2.1 Decoding the genome**

225 The human genome comprises of approx. 3 billion DNA base pairs (data from National Human  
226 Genome Research Institute, 2003) [17]. Previously, individual genes were sequenced exon by  
227 exon using conventional method of Sanger sequencing but now the advancements in the field  
228 of sequencing have enabled a genome to be sequenced within hours and cost effectively  
229 resulting in numerous applications in the field of diagnosis and research (DNA sequencing cost  
230 data from National Human Genome Research Institute, 2016) [18]. There are around 3-5  
231 million genetic variants in every human genome when compared with the reference sequence.  
232 Hence it is very challenging in understanding variation within the human genome and to  
233 differentiate ‘normal sequences’ from disease causing variants. Therefore, it is very important  
234 to take expert interpretation and caution in analysing genomic results [19]. Accuracy is vital as  
235 inaccuracy in interpretation may not only cause harm to the particular individual but also to the  
236 family members as well as the future generations.

## 237 **2.2 Pharmacogenetics and Pharmacogenomics**

238 The basic difference between pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics is that the previous  
239 one examines the relationship between drug response and genetic variances but the later uses  
240 a genome wide approach to understand the complete range of genes associated with drug  
241 response [20]. Both pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics are basis for personalized  
242 medicines. They provide opportunities to revolutionize drug therapy by designing drugs  
243 according to individual genotypes [21].

244 The adverse reaction to drugs and their lack of effectiveness in several patients require new  
245 methods to improvise drug therapy that can be influenced by knowledge of specific genetic  
246 makeup of individuals [22]. The metabolism and fate of any drug inside any individual along  
247 with its therapeutic and toxicological effect depend on complex process which involves protein  
248 coded by different genes. These proteins influence the transport of drug inside body, its

249 metabolism and mechanism of action [21]. At the time of evolution, majority of genes comprise  
250 certain discrepancies in their nucleotide sequence. If these variations occur in the coding  
251 region, it may result in substitution of an amino acid in specific position of polypeptide chain  
252 and which will in turn affect protein function. In other words, variations in nucleotide sequence  
253 influences transcription and translation processes [23]. The ultimate goal of personalized  
254 medicine is to exactly match each therapeutic intervention with the patient's molecular profile  
255 [24]. Hence, pharmacogenomics encourages the advancement of targeted therapies and was  
256 demonstrated by the use of drug ivacaftor for the treatment of subset of cystic fibrosis patients  
257 which was approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the European  
258 Medicines Agency [25].

### 259 **3 Technological requirements for the development of personalized medicines**

260 Researchers and scientists have a great hope in personalized medicines as a form of healthcare  
261 that is being designed based on individual needs. The main aim is to shift 'one size fits all'  
262 concept to a more objective based prediction, prevention and therapy for underlying illness [26,  
263 27]. It allows scientists to develop customizable therapeutic formulations based on an  
264 individual's genetic composition, medical history and physiology. Many novel technologies  
265 are required for the personalized medicine to be realised in practice.

#### 266 **3.1 Genomics and Personalized medicines**

267 Genomics plays an incipient role in clinical and public health research. Technology related to  
268 genomics have abundant applications in clinical medicine and have the capability to transform  
269 public health. The battle against the COVID-19 pandemic which has imposed the  
270 implementation of genomic technologies to find the origin, transmission and evolution of the  
271 SARS-CoV-2 virus worldwide and also to understand different host response against virus,  
272 severity of infection and outcomes [28]. Genetics and genome technologies allow us to develop  
273 a link between our genes and health.

274 Genomics studies provide precision both in terms of the infectious agent and the host  
275 population that is affected. One of the genomic technology, whole genome sequencing (WGS)  
276 is an important standard assay for characterizing infectious disease and provide good source of  
277 information to guide public health interventions [29]. DNA sequencing helps in the  
278 identification of pathogen species or variants which may be linked to variety of risks and hence  
279 bring about diverse responses in terms of clinical management of individual patients [28].  
280 Different genetic variants produce conditions that require different treatments yet they share

281 similar symptoms. So, without knowledge of exact genetic cause of symptom, it is difficult to  
282 decide most effective treatment. For example, there are many causes of lung cancer but those  
283 people who have an alteration in the gene EGFR only respond to treatment with tyrosine kinase  
284 inhibitors [30, 31]. The main aim of personalized medicine to predict most appropriate course  
285 of action. Genetic and clinical data can be combined to find best action plan for a patient.

### 286 **3.2 Proteomics and Personalized medicines**

287 Proteomics, coined by Mark Williams in 1994, is the characteristic investigation of the  
288 complete protein complement at cellular, tissue or organism level including protein  
289 interactions, localizations and post translational modifications at a particular condition [32].  
290 Proteins are the building blocks and are directly responsible for structure, function and  
291 regulation of body's tissues and organs. Proteomics provide direct biological insights into  
292 physiological patterns while genetics contribute for basis characteristics. Proteins are the  
293 products of gene expression and are direct bridge between diagnostics and therapeutics [33].  
294 There are several factors which influence a person response to different disease and treatment.  
295 These factors can be epigenetic, transcriptional, proteomic, posttranslational modifications,  
296 metabolic and environmental factors. Though personalized medicine has the same roots as  
297 genomic medicine but it goes far beyond genetics considering the full complexity of cellular  
298 physiology [34]. There are different proteins which are expressed in an individual before  
299 infection, after infection or in an infected person [35, 36] (Herberts et al. 2003; Wahl et al.  
300 2010). Therefore, it is important to integrate a cellular physiology, environmental factors and  
301 medical history of the individual for the development of personalized medicine and to generate  
302 a customized treatment strategy based on that individual's need. Techniques like RNA  
303 microarrays help in determining gene expression and the association of various proteins  
304 depicting different disease conditions or levels. The consequent progression of proteomics has  
305 enabled scientists to use microarrays for studying expression, kinome and interactome profiling  
306 [37].

307 The key technique presently used for proteomic study is the mass spectrometry. This technique  
308 depends on the accomplishment in three main aspects: sample pretreatment and examination  
309 and data analysis. The techniques used for sample preparation before mass spectrometric  
310 analysis are 2-dimensional gel electrophoresis and sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide  
311 gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) [32]. Chromatographic methods are of importance for high  
312 level sample purification, recovery and automation before mass spectrometric analysis [38,

313 39]. Other than this protein microarrays are being used to study protein-macromolecule  
314 interaction analysis and identification of drug target in a speedy, reproducible and economical  
315 way [40]. Intensive studies in the field of tumour biology have led to exploration of prospective  
316 therapeutic targets resulting in emergence of new drugs. Translational studies facilitate novel  
317 and improvised clinical assays that shall help in development of new personalized medicines  
318 helping oncologists to determine right treatment for individual patients [41]. Proteomics is a  
319 powerful tool for the development of personalized medicine.

### 320 **3.3 Metabolomics and Personalized medicines**

321 Metabolites provide straight forward knowledge on the biochemical activity in a cell during  
322 diseased condition. Measurement and assessment of these metabolites in huge scale categorised  
323 under the omics technology known as “metabolomics” [42]. It is an emerging ‘omics’ science  
324 combining characterization of metabolites and metabolism in biological system [43]. The  
325 formulation of personalized medicine requires the combination of all molecular variations that  
326 may differentiate individuals. Metabolomics in association with genomics can be applied to  
327 distinguish patients with different treatment response and hence helps in the progress of host  
328 targeted therapy in contrast to the pathogen targeted therapy as pathogens are susceptible to  
329 variations causing antimicrobial resistance. Therefore, metabolomics can be implemented for  
330 patient categorisation, personalized drug development and disease control and management  
331 [42].

332 The most commonly used analytical methods for metabolomics studies are the use of various  
333 chromatographic separation techniques, most commonly gas chromatography or liquid  
334 chromatography in association with various mass spectrometry detectors and Nuclear Magnetic  
335 Resonance. The application of metabolomics for the development of personalized medicine  
336 involves three basic steps [44]

- 337 (i) Pre-analytical processes: The important factors need to be taken into account at this  
338 step are type of sample containers for collection and storage of samples, sample  
339 handling and transport. It involves good experimental design for selection of  
340 sample, quenching solution and methods for metabolite extraction, separation and  
341 detection [45].
- 342 (ii) Detection of analyte: This involves biophysical methods that determines structure,  
343 characteristics and functions of biomolecules at atomic and molecular level. The  
344 commonly used techniques are X-ray crystallography, chromatography,

345 spectroscopic techniques like nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), mass  
346 spectrometry (MS) and surface plasmon resonance (SPR) [45, 46].

347 (iii) Validation of result and clinical translation: The type and concentration of  
348 metabolites varies depending on the type of sample taken. Hence, the selection of  
349 metabolite to be used for clinical inference or as biomarker require consent from  
350 regulatory bodies [47].

351 Metabolomic studies whose main aim is to identify biomarkers of disease requires complex  
352 technologies and well-designed roadmap for precise inference and representation of the patient  
353 related data. As evident, from the above information, ‘-Omics’ technologies project diverse  
354 applications in investigating the disease mechanism, disease prognosis as well as diagnosis  
355 along with pharmacogenomics studies, thus laying a strong foundation for ‘Personalized  
356 Medicine’ (Fig. 4).

### 357 **3.4 Epigenetics and Personalized Medicine**

358 ‘Epigenetics’, coined by Conrad Waddington in the 1940s is the study of reversible  
359 modifications to chromatin and their effects on gene regulation or the modifications in gene  
360 expression that are not due to changes in DNA sequences but due to changes in the internal and  
361 external environment [48]. The modification in gene expressions can be controlled by several  
362 mechanisms like DNA methylation, post translational modifications of histones, chromatin  
363 remodelling and microRNAs that act as regulatory molecules [49]. There are various methods  
364 to classify phenotypic or epigenetic modifications in biological system and patients with  
365 epigenetic alterations do not respond to conventional therapy. Epigenetic disease associations  
366 function as diagnostic biomarkers [50]. The two epigenetic tests that are currently available in  
367 US are ConfirmMDx for prostate cancer and AssureMDx for bladder cancer [51]. As epigenetic  
368 marks are reversible therefore drugs are developed with epigenetic mode of action. Hence,  
369 personalized medicines can be developed to efficiently deal these disorders on the basis of  
370 individual’s genetic profile.

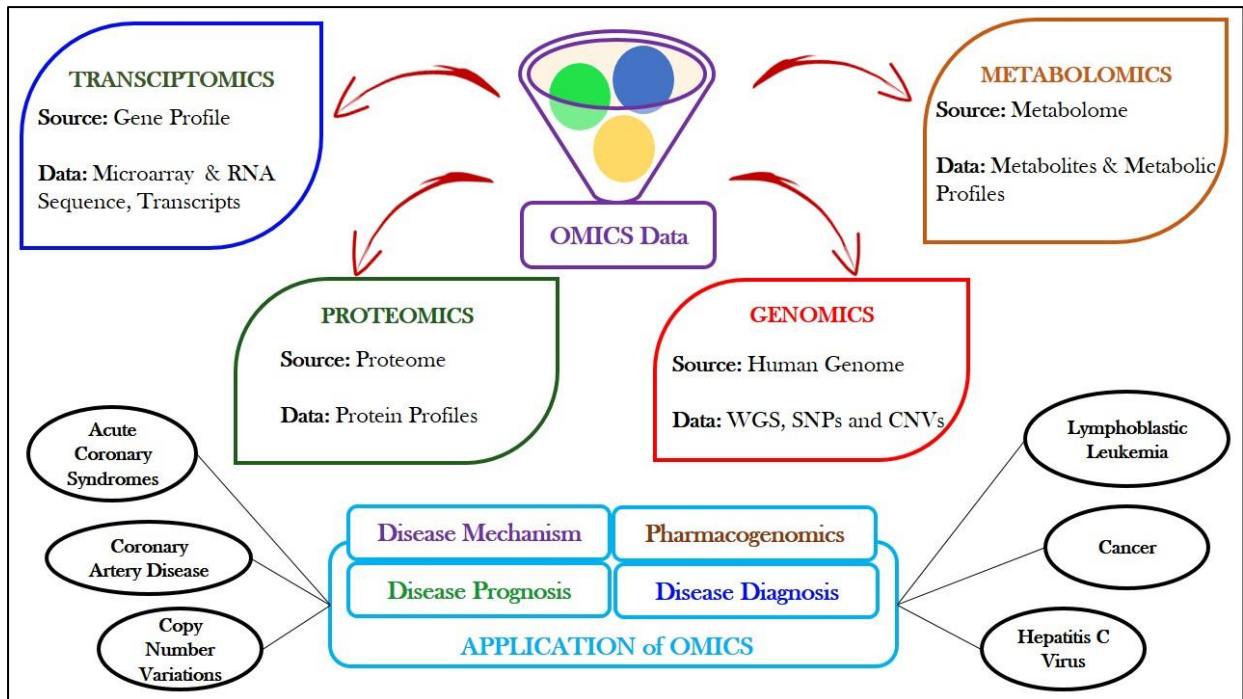


Figure 4: Applications of OMICS

#### 4. Personalised medicine for certain diseases

##### 4.1 Personalised medicine for cancer

Personalized Medicine has a promising impact in curing patients suffering from many diseases. One of the initial and prevalently used personalized medicine used for treating breast cancer is trastuzumab. Most of the patients with breast cancer (~30%) have a form that over-expression of a protein called HER2 [52], it is of a major concern due to its unresponsiveness to certain standardised therapies which otherwise play a major role in curing the disease. Hence, Trastuzumab was formulated and received approval in 1998 to treat the disease with HER2 overexpression. A research analysis conducted in 2005 had significant findings in reduction of breast cancer recurrence by 52% with personalized medicine along with chemotherapy [53].

In melanoma, BRAF is the human gene accountable for the production of a protein called B-Raf, which has a role in signal transduction related to direct cell growth and found to be mutated in cancers [54]. A breakthrough came up in 2011 to treat last stage melanoma using a drug called vemurafenib. It is a B-Raf protein inhibitor, hence, this drug and a treatment associated test known as BRAF V600E mutation test received approval for the treatment of late-stage melanoma. Vemurafenib worked well for treatment of cancer patients only with positive V600E BRAF mutation test [55].

391 *4.2 Personalised medicine for diabetes*

392 Personalized medicine for diabetes has gained significant importance as it is considered as most  
393 common form of disease now-a-days. It can be used to provide information about the genetic  
394 makeup of a patient with diabetes to formulate a strategy to prevent, detect, treat or monitor  
395 their diabetes [56]. Practicing personalized medicine for diabetes is a four-step process:

- 396 1. The genes as well as biomarkers identification is crucial for diabetes and for obesity,  
397 as it is the prevalent risk factor for type 2 diabetes.
- 398 2. After identification of these parameters, allocation of resources is essential to prevent  
399 or recognise the diabetes and/or obesity phenotype in high-risk people, whose risk  
400 depends upon their genotype.
- 401 3. Selection of individualized therapies for affected persons is a third step. The drug will  
402 be selected based on which drug to prescribe, what dose of drug to use, and which diet  
403 to prescribe. Selection process also justifies on drugs having least side effects or  
404 toxicity.
- 405 4. Evaluation of diabetes circulating biomarkers for monitoring the response for  
406 prevention or therapeutic use

407 **5. Technologies for personalised medicine: Factors influencing their development**

408 5.1 Integration of information

409 Combining different sorts of information comes under integration which involves – biological,  
410 clinical, environmental, lifestyle – about the contributor in a research analysis or the patient in  
411 the clinic or the citizen determined to improve their health. This combining must transfer from  
412 the current linear, cumulative model to a truly integrative model for generation of system-level  
413 knowledge [57, 58]. Moreover, organisational integration is crucial. It is significant to have a  
414 framework for integrating science across countries, allowing scientists to collaborate on the  
415 same problems in different research sites.

416 5.2 Co-ordination

417 Generation of standardised data which speeds up research, there must be co-ordination in  
418 critical steps such as collection of data, verification for accuracy and storage of the data at  
419 suitable site. A practical measure for implementing this coordination involves imposing and  
420 monitoring quality assurance procedures for data assembly and data processing. Ideally, these  
421 processes should be implemented for all sorts of data (biological, clinical, environmental) as

422 well as incorporating information about their origin [59, 60]. To integrate research output as  
423 suggested above, there needs to be coordination of research methods, in addition to data  
424 collection and analysis, so that information can be transformed into understanding of biological  
425 functioning and these insights can be converted into interventions to change that functioning  
426 in health-promoting ways. Communication tools that are more effective across different  
427 sciences, as well as between science and medicine, will be crucial to the coordination of efforts.  
428 In order for research to be targeted to priority areas and produce workable results, there needs  
429 to be better communication between bioscience and biomedicine about what health issues  
430 require attention and what remedies are implementable [59, 60].

### 431 5.3 Resources

432 As anticipated, in order to develop technologies for personalised medicine, resources are an  
433 issue. Data processing and data storage needs access to computing resources. Bioscience  
434 funding needs to be re-distributed or re-prioritized by funding bodies like national governments  
435 in order to guarantee access to IT resources. The next-generation technologies have permitted  
436 cheap, rapid sequencing of DNA, similarly, it may also drive the advancements in new data  
437 processing tools [61]. Choosing the right investigator is crucial to the success of the  
438 investigation. However, lack of skilled and experienced people is a concern. It is essential that  
439 they be skilled and focused to succeed in their jobs. Additionally, adequate grants must be  
440 available for translational and basic research. As the focus shifts from potent drugs to in vitro  
441 diagnostics, the pharmaceutical industry will have to develop innovative business models to  
442 implement new technology for personalized medicine and introduce it into healthcare practice.  
443 New partnerships between in vitro diagnostics companies and pharmaceutical companies are  
444 expected to emerge as a result. Translational research has been criticized for being less  
445 financially supported, whereas basic research is experiencing intense pressure [62]. The  
446 potentials of personalised medicine involve radical plus evolutionary progresses: as we move  
447 from linear to integrated and dynamic data, from explicating how biological components work  
448 to deciphering how biological systems function, from one-size-fits-all healthcare to one-  
449 tailored healthcare that is tailored to the individual, we must move from linear to integrated  
450 and dynamic data.

451 These transition press for a true originality which is accurately inventive, in compared to just  
452 novel provisions of what already exists. Such innovation necessitates a tremendous amount of



453 effort along with the readiness to tolerate failure. Resource agencies need to be convinced of  
454 the value of this kind of "disruptive research."

## 455 **6. Conclusion**

456 Assessment of disease risk and prevention of the same is possible with the utilization of a  
457 promising approach of personalized medicine, which involve family history and genome  
458 information. Key clinical decisions can be easily taken with the help of data obtained from  
459 patients' genomic information which provides the foundation for genomic medicine. The  
460 incorporation of genomic research into the medical field needs to be optimized, standardized  
461 as well as reorganized. Personalized medicine is by now being practiced in the clinic, and the  
462 incorporation of genomic tools specifically in oncology and cardiology has improved patients'  
463 treatment. The additional integration of personalized medicine into the medical system needs  
464 seizing various barriers in learning, ease of access, regulation, and reimbursement.

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