

PHARMACOGENOMICS AND PERSONALIZED MEDICINE: TRANSFORMING DRUG SAFETY AND TOXICOLOGICAL OUTCOMES

M.JALAIHAH

Associate Professor, Department of Pharmacology, QJS College of Pharmacy, Ongole.

Article History: Received: 18 Mar 2026, Revised: 06 Apr 2026, Accepted: 11 May 2026

***Corresponding Author**

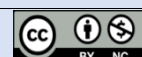
Dr. M. Jalaiah

ABSTRACT

Pharmacogenomics and personalized medicine have emerged as transformative approaches in modern healthcare, significantly improving drug safety, therapeutic efficacy, and toxicological outcomes. Traditional “one-size-fits-all” pharmacotherapy often results in adverse drug reactions, therapeutic failures, and increased healthcare burdens due to interindividual genetic variability. Pharmacogenomics integrates genomic information into clinical decision-making, enabling healthcare professionals to tailor drug selection and dosage according to a patient’s genetic profile. Variations in genes encoding drug-metabolizing enzymes, transporters, and receptors—such as CYP450 enzymes, TPMT, VKORC1, and HLA alleles—play critical roles in determining pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic responses. Personalized medicine utilizes these genetic insights to minimize toxicity, enhance therapeutic effectiveness, and prevent severe adverse drug reactions. Recent advances in next-generation sequencing, bioinformatics, artificial intelligence, and multi-omics technologies have accelerated the integration of pharmacogenomics into clinical practice. Pharmacogenomic-guided therapy has demonstrated substantial benefits in oncology, cardiology, psychiatry, infectious diseases, and pain management. Despite its promise, challenges remain regarding ethical concerns, regulatory frameworks, clinical implementation, healthcare disparities, data privacy, and economic feasibility. Moreover, pharmacogenomics contributes significantly to toxicology by identifying genetically susceptible individuals and predicting toxic responses before drug administration. This article explores the principles, clinical applications, technological advancements, toxicological implications, benefits, limitations, ethical considerations, and future prospects of pharmacogenomics and personalized medicine. The study emphasizes how precision therapeutics can transform healthcare systems globally by reducing adverse drug reactions and promoting safer, more individualized treatment strategies for improved patient outcomes and public health sustainability.

Keywords: Pharmacogenomics; Personalized medicine; Drug safety; Toxicology; Precision medicine; Adverse drug reactions; Genomics; Biomarkers; Pharmacogenetics; Drug metabolism.

This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non-commercial 4.0 International License. Copyright © 2026 Author(s) retains the copyright of this article.



I. INTRODUCTION

Pharmacogenomics represents one of the most significant scientific advancements in modern medicine, bridging the fields of genomics, pharmacology, toxicology, and clinical therapeutics. The fundamental objective of pharmacogenomics is to understand how an individual’s genetic composition influences drug response, efficacy, metabolism, and toxicity. Personalized medicine, also known as precision medicine, utilizes this genetic information to customize healthcare interventions according to individual patient characteristics rather than relying on generalized treatment approaches [1].

Conventional therapeutic strategies are frequently associated with variable responses among patients. Some individuals achieve optimal therapeutic outcomes, whereas others experience severe adverse drug reactions (ADRs), treatment failure, or drug toxicity. ADRs constitute a major public health issue and are among the leading causes of hospitalization and mortality worldwide [2]. Genetic variability contributes significantly to these interindividual differences in drug response. Variants in genes encoding drug-metabolizing enzymes, transport proteins, receptors, and signaling pathways can profoundly alter pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic profiles [3].

Pharmacogenomics evolved from pharmacogenetics, which primarily focused on single-gene influences on drug metabolism. Advances in the Human Genome Project and high-throughput sequencing technologies enabled researchers to examine multiple genes simultaneously, thereby expanding the scope to genome-wide analyses and

systems biology approaches [4]. Today, pharmacogenomics encompasses comprehensive genomic profiling, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and epigenomics to optimize therapeutic interventions and improve drug safety [5].

The importance of pharmacogenomics is particularly evident in the context of toxicological outcomes. Drug-induced toxicity remains a major limitation in clinical therapeutics and pharmaceutical development. Genetic predispositions can increase susceptibility to hepatotoxicity, cardiotoxicity, neurotoxicity, nephrotoxicity, and hypersensitivity reactions. Pharmacogenomic screening allows clinicians to identify at-risk individuals before drug administration, thereby minimizing toxicological complications and enhancing patient safety [6].

Several pharmacogenomic biomarkers have already been incorporated into clinical practice. Examples include HLA-B*57:01 testing before abacavir therapy, TPMT genotyping before thiopurine administration, CYP2C19 testing for clopidogrel responsiveness, and VKORC1/CYP2C9 genotyping for warfarin dosing [7]. These examples demonstrate the practical utility of pharmacogenomics in reducing ADRs and improving therapeutic precision.

The integration of artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning, and digital health systems has further accelerated the development of personalized medicine. AI-driven predictive models can analyze large genomic datasets and identify clinically relevant gene-drug interactions more efficiently than traditional methods [8]. Additionally, next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies have reduced the cost and time required for genomic testing, making precision medicine increasingly accessible [9].

Despite these advancements, numerous challenges hinder widespread implementation. These include limited clinician awareness, insufficient pharmacogenomic education, high testing costs, lack of standardized guidelines, ethical concerns regarding genetic privacy, and disparities in healthcare access [10]. Regulatory agencies such as the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium (CPIC), and the European Medicines Agency (EMA) continue to develop frameworks for integrating pharmacogenomics into routine healthcare practice [11].

This article critically examines the role of pharmacogenomics and personalized medicine in transforming drug safety and toxicological outcomes. It explores the scientific basis of pharmacogenomics, its clinical applications, implications for toxicology, technological innovations, ethical considerations, challenges, and future prospects in precision healthcare.

2. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PHARMACOGENOMICS

The origins of pharmacogenomics can be traced back to observations made in the mid-twentieth century regarding unusual drug responses among certain individuals. Early researchers noted that some patients exhibited extreme sensitivity or resistance to medications, suggesting a hereditary basis for drug metabolism [12].

One of the earliest documented examples involved succinylcholine-induced prolonged apnea caused by atypical butyrylcholinesterase variants. Similarly, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency was linked to hemolytic anemia following exposure to certain antimalarial drugs [13]. These discoveries established the concept that inherited genetic traits could influence drug safety and efficacy.

The term “pharmacogenetics” was first introduced by Friedrich Vogel in 1959 to describe the study of genetically determined drug responses [14]. During the following decades, researchers identified several polymorphic drug-metabolizing enzymes, including cytochrome P450 isoenzymes such as CYP2D6, CYP2C9, and CYP2C19 [15].

The completion of the Human Genome Project in 2003 marked a turning point in biomedical research. The availability of comprehensive genomic data facilitated the transition from pharmacogenetics to pharmacogenomics, enabling genome-wide investigations into drug response variability [16]. High-throughput sequencing technologies and bioinformatics tools further accelerated the discovery of pharmacogenomic biomarkers.

The emergence of precision medicine initiatives in the twenty-first century significantly expanded clinical applications. Regulatory agencies began incorporating pharmacogenomic information into drug labeling, while organizations such as CPIC developed evidence-based guidelines for genotype-guided therapy [17].

Today, pharmacogenomics is integrated into multiple medical disciplines, including oncology, cardiology, psychiatry, infectious diseases, and anesthesiology. Advances in multi-omics technologies, AI, and digital healthcare systems continue to shape the future of personalized medicine [18].

3. PRINCIPLES OF PHARMACOGENOMICS

Pharmacogenomics is based on the principle that genetic variability influences individual responses to medications. These variations may affect drug absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and pharmacological targets [19].

Genetic Polymorphisms

Genetic polymorphisms refer to naturally occurring variations in DNA sequences among individuals. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are the most common type of genetic variation and can alter protein function or gene expression [20].

Variants in genes encoding drug-metabolizing enzymes significantly influence drug pharmacokinetics. For example, CYP2D6 polymorphisms can classify individuals as poor, intermediate, extensive, or ultra-rapid metabolizers [21]. Poor metabolizers may experience drug accumulation and toxicity, whereas ultra-rapid metabolizers may exhibit reduced therapeutic efficacy.

4. PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

Pharmacogenomics affects both pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic processes. Pharmacokinetic genes influence drug metabolism and transport, while pharmacodynamic genes affect drug targets such as receptors and enzymes [22].

Genes commonly involved in pharmacokinetics include:

- CYP450 enzymes
- TPMT
- UGT1A1
- NAT2
- ABC transporters

Pharmacodynamic genes include:

- VKORC1
- DRD2
- ADRB1
- HTR2A

Genetic alterations in these genes can substantially modify therapeutic responses and toxicity profiles [23].

5. BIOMARKERS IN PHARMACOGENOMICS

Pharmacogenomic biomarkers are measurable genetic indicators associated with drug response. Biomarkers assist clinicians in selecting optimal therapies and predicting ADR risk [24].

Important biomarkers include:

- HLA-B*57:01 for abacavir hypersensitivity
- HLA-B*15:02 for carbamazepine-induced Stevens–Johnson syndrome
- CYP2C19 for clopidogrel response
- TPMT for thiopurine toxicity

These biomarkers are increasingly incorporated into routine clinical practice [25].

6. PHARMACOGENOMICS AND DRUG SAFETY

Drug safety is one of the most important applications of pharmacogenomics. ADRs impose substantial clinical and economic burdens globally. Genetic testing enables healthcare professionals to predict susceptibility to adverse reactions before treatment initiation [26].

Adverse Drug Reactions

ADRs are harmful or unintended responses occurring at normal therapeutic doses. Genetic polymorphisms contribute significantly to ADR susceptibility [27].

Examples include:

- Warfarin-induced bleeding
- Carbamazepine hypersensitivity
- Statin-induced myopathy
- Opioid toxicity

Pharmacogenomic-guided prescribing reduces these complications by individualizing therapy [28].

Cytochrome P450 Enzymes

Cytochrome P450 enzymes metabolize approximately 75% of clinically used drugs [29]. Genetic polymorphisms within CYP genes can profoundly influence drug clearance.

CYP2D6

CYP2D6 metabolizes antidepressants, antipsychotics, opioids, and beta-blockers. Poor metabolizers exhibit higher plasma drug concentrations, increasing toxicity risk [30].

CYP2C19

CYP2C19 variants affect clopidogrel activation. Poor metabolizers demonstrate reduced antiplatelet activity and increased cardiovascular risk [31].

CYP2C9

CYP2C9 polymorphisms influence warfarin metabolism and bleeding susceptibility [32].

Human Leukocyte Antigen (HLA) System

HLA alleles are strongly associated with immune-mediated ADRs [33].

Examples include:

- HLA-B*57:01 and abacavir hypersensitivity
- HLA-B*15:02 and carbamazepine-induced Stevens–Johnson syndrome
- HLA-A*31:01 and anticonvulsant hypersensitivity

Routine HLA screening has substantially reduced severe drug-induced hypersensitivity reactions [34].

7. PERSONALIZED MEDICINE AND PRECISION THERAPEUTICS

Personalized medicine aims to tailor medical treatment according to individual genetic, environmental, and lifestyle factors [35].

Precision Drug Selection

Genomic profiling enables clinicians to select medications most likely to produce therapeutic benefit while minimizing toxicity [36].

In oncology, tumor genomic sequencing identifies actionable mutations that guide targeted therapy selection. HER2 amplification in breast cancer predicts responsiveness to trastuzumab, whereas EGFR mutations guide tyrosine kinase inhibitor therapy in lung cancer [37].

Dose Optimization

Genetic testing assists in determining optimal drug dosages. Warfarin dosing algorithms incorporating VKORC1 and CYP2C9 genotypes reduce bleeding risk and improve anticoagulation control [38].

Prevention of Toxicological Outcomes

Pharmacogenomic screening identifies patients susceptible to severe toxicity before drug exposure. This approach improves patient safety and decreases healthcare expenditures associated with ADR management [39].

8. APPLICATIONS IN ONCOLOGY

Oncology represents one of the most advanced fields in personalized medicine [40].

Targeted Cancer Therapy

Cancer treatment increasingly relies on molecular profiling to identify driver mutations and therapeutic targets [41].

Examples include:

- HER2-positive breast cancer treated with trastuzumab
- EGFR-mutated lung cancer treated with osimertinib
- BCR-ABL-positive leukemia treated with imatinib

Targeted therapies demonstrate improved efficacy and reduced systemic toxicity compared with conventional chemotherapy [42].

Pharmacogenomics of Chemotherapy

Pharmacogenomic testing predicts chemotherapy toxicity and therapeutic outcomes [43].

Examples include:

- TPMT variants and thiopurine toxicity
- UGT1A1 polymorphisms and irinotecan toxicity
- DPYD deficiency and fluoropyrimidine toxicity

Screening for these variants improves chemotherapy safety and tolerability [44].

9. CARDIOVASCULAR PHARMACOGENOMICS

Cardiovascular drugs exhibit substantial interindividual variability in efficacy and toxicity [45].

Warfarin

Warfarin dosing is influenced by VKORC1 and CYP2C9 polymorphisms [46]. Genotype-guided dosing reduces hemorrhagic complications and improves therapeutic stability.

Clopidogrel

Clopidogrel requires activation by CYP2C19. Poor metabolizers experience reduced antiplatelet effects and higher cardiovascular event rates [47].

Statins

SLCO1B1 polymorphisms increase susceptibility to statin-induced myopathy [48]. Pharmacogenomic testing enables safer statin selection and dosing.

10. PHARMACOGENOMICS IN PSYCHIATRY

Psychiatric medications frequently produce variable therapeutic responses and adverse effects [49].

Antidepressants

CYP2D6 and CYP2C19 polymorphisms influence antidepressant metabolism and efficacy [50]. Personalized dosing strategies reduce side effects and improve treatment adherence.

Antipsychotics

Variants in dopamine receptor genes and metabolic enzymes affect antipsychotic response and toxicity [51].

Opioid Pharmacogenomics

CYP2D6 polymorphisms influence opioid metabolism, particularly codeine conversion to morphine [52]. Ultra-rapid metabolizers may experience life-threatening respiratory depression.

11. PHARMACOGENOMICS AND TOXICOLOGY

Pharmacogenomics plays a vital role in toxicological science by identifying genetic determinants of chemical susceptibility [53].

Drug-Induced Liver Injury

Genetic variants influence susceptibility to hepatotoxicity. HLA alleles and metabolic enzyme polymorphisms contribute to drug-induced liver injury risk [54].

Nephrotoxicity

Variants affecting renal transporters and metabolic enzymes influence susceptibility to nephrotoxic agents [55].

Neurotoxicity

Pharmacogenomic factors modulate vulnerability to neurotoxic drugs, including chemotherapeutic agents and antiepileptics [56].

Environmental Toxicogenomics

Toxicogenomics examines genomic responses to environmental toxins, chemicals, and pollutants [57]. This field enhances risk assessment and preventive toxicology.

12. TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES IN PHARMACOGENOMICS

Technological innovations have accelerated pharmacogenomic research and clinical implementation [58].

Next-Generation Sequencing

NGS enables rapid and cost-effective genomic profiling [59]. Whole-genome sequencing identifies rare variants influencing drug response.

Artificial Intelligence

AI and machine learning facilitate analysis of complex genomic datasets and prediction of drug responses [60].

Multi-Omics Integration

Integration of genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and transcriptomics enhances understanding of drug response mechanisms [61].

Digital Health Systems

Clinical decision support systems integrate pharmacogenomic data into electronic health records to assist clinicians in personalized prescribing [62].

13. ETHICAL, LEGAL, AND SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS

Pharmacogenomics raises significant ethical and societal concerns [63].

Genetic Privacy

Protection of genomic data is essential to prevent misuse and discrimination [64].

Informed Consent

Patients must understand the implications of pharmacogenomic testing before participation [65].

Healthcare Disparities

Limited access to genomic testing may exacerbate healthcare inequalities [66].

Regulatory Challenges

Standardization of testing procedures and regulatory oversight remain ongoing challenges [67].

14. ECONOMIC IMPACT OF PHARMACOGENOMICS

Pharmacogenomics has the potential to reduce healthcare expenditures associated with ADRs, hospitalization, and ineffective therapy [68].

Cost-effectiveness analyses demonstrate economic benefits in several clinical contexts, including anticoagulation management, oncology, and psychiatry [69]. However, implementation costs and reimbursement policies remain barriers in many healthcare systems [70].

15. FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The future of pharmacogenomics lies in comprehensive precision healthcare models integrating genomic, environmental, and lifestyle data [71].

Emerging developments include:

- AI-driven predictive therapeutics
- Gene editing technologies
- Real-time genomic monitoring
- Personalized vaccine development
- Population-scale genomic medicine

Advances in bioinformatics and systems biology will further enhance individualized therapeutic strategies [72].

16. CONCLUSION

Pharmacogenomics and personalized medicine are transforming healthcare by improving drug safety, therapeutic efficacy, and toxicological outcomes through individualized treatment approaches. Genetic variability influences drug metabolism, response, and adverse effects, making pharmacogenomic-guided therapy essential for optimized drug selection and dosing. Its applications in oncology, cardiology, psychiatry, and infectious diseases highlight the benefits of precision medicine. Advances in next-generation sequencing, artificial intelligence, multi-omics, and digital health are accelerating clinical implementation. Pharmacogenomics also plays a key role in toxicology by identifying genetically susceptible individuals and predicting toxic risks. However, challenges such as ethical concerns, genetic privacy, healthcare disparities, clinician training, regulation, and cost remain. Despite these barriers, pharmacogenomics is driving a shift toward individualized healthcare, with the potential to improve patient outcomes, reduce costs, and enhance public health safety.

18. REFERENCES

1. Dash B, Shireen M, Pushpendra, Kumar S, Goel A, Semwal P, et al. A comprehensive review: Pharmacogenomics and personalized medicine customizing drug therapy based on individual genetics profiles. *Zhongguo Ying Yong Sheng Li Xue Za Zhi*. 2024;40:e20240011.
2. Chenchula S, Atal S, Uppugunduri CRS. A review of real-world evidence on preemptive pharmacogenomic testing for preventing adverse drug reactions: A reality for future health care. *Pharmacogenomics J*. 2024;24:9.
3. Abad-Santos F, Aliño SF, Borobia AM, García-Martín E, Gassó P, Maroñas O, et al. Developments in pharmacogenetics, pharmacogenomics, and personalized medicine. *Pharmacol Res*. 2024;200:107061.
4. Zhou Y, Peng S, Wang H, Cai X, Wang Q. Review of personalized medicine and pharmacogenomics of anti-cancer compounds and natural products. *Genes (Basel)*. 2024;15(4):468.
5. Amaro-Álvarez L, Cordero-Ramos J, Calleja-Hernández MÁ. Exploring the impact of pharmacogenetics on personalized medicine: A systematic review. *Farm Hosp*. 2024;48(6):299-309.
6. Mokbel K, Weedon M, Jackson L. Pharmacogenomic determinants of adverse drug effects: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *In Vivo*. 2024;38(5):2098-2106.
7. Farmaki A, Manolopoulos E, Natsiavas P. Will precision medicine meet digital health? A systematic review of pharmacogenomics clinical decision support systems used in clinical practice. *OMICS*. 2024;28(9):1-15.
8. Shaman JA. The future of pharmacogenomics: Integrating epigenetics, nutrigenomics, and beyond. *J Pers Med*. 2024;14(12):1121.
9. Popova L, Carabetta VJ. The use of next-generation sequencing in personalized medicine. *arXiv [Preprint]*. 2024.
10. AI's role in revolutionizing personalized medicine by reshaping pharmacogenomics and drug therapy. *Intell Pharm*. 2024;2(5):643-650.

11. Relling MV, Klein TE. CPIC: Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium of the Pharmacogenomics Research Network. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 2011;89(3):464-467.
12. Meyer UA. Pharmacogenetics and adverse drug reactions. *Lancet.* 2000;356(9242):1667-1671.
13. Evans WE, McLeod HL. Pharmacogenomics—Drug disposition, drug targets, and side effects. *N Engl J Med.* 2003;348(6):538-549.
14. Vogel F. Moderne Probleme der Humangenetik. *Ergeb Inn Med Kinderheilkd.* 1959;12:52-125.
15. Ingelman-Sundberg M. Pharmacogenetics of cytochrome P450 and its applications in drug therapy. *Trends Pharmacol Sci.* 2004;25(4):193-200.
16. Collins FS, Green ED, Guttmacher AE, Guyer MS. A vision for the future of genomics research. *Nature.* 2003;422(6934):835-847.
17. Caudle KE, Klein TE, Hoffman JM, Muller DJ, Whirl-Carrillo M, Gong L, et al. Incorporation of pharmacogenomics into routine clinical practice. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 2014;96(2):121-122.
18. Roden DM, Wilke RA, Kroemer HK, Stein CM. Pharmacogenomics: The genetics of variable drug responses. *Circulation.* 2011;123(15):1661-1670.
19. Weinshilboum R, Wang L. Pharmacogenomics: Bench to bedside. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2004;3(9):739-748.
20. Johnson JA. Pharmacogenetics: Potential for individualized drug therapy through genetics. *Trends Genet.* 2003;19(11):660-666.
21. Zanger UM, Schwab M. Cytochrome P450 enzymes in drug metabolism. *Pharmacol Ther.* 2013;138(1):103-141.
22. Ma Q, Lu AY. Pharmacogenetics, pharmacogenomics, and individualized medicine. *Pharmacol Rev.* 2011;63(2):437-459.
23. Kalow W. Pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics: Origin, status, and future. *Pharmacogenomics J.* 2006;6(3):162-165.
24. Phillips KA, Veenstra DL, Oren E, Lee JK, Sadee W. Potential role of pharmacogenomics in reducing adverse drug reactions. *JAMA.* 2001;286(18):2270-2279.
25. Relling MV, Evans WE. Pharmacogenomics in the clinic. *Nature.* 2015;526(7573):343-350.
26. Lazarou J, Pomeranz BH, Corey PN. Incidence of adverse drug reactions in hospitalized patients. *JAMA.* 1998;279(15):1200-1205.
27. Pirmohamed M. Pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2001;52(4):345-347.
28. Meyer UA. Pharmacogenetics—Five decades of therapeutic lessons from genetic diversity. *Nat Rev Genet.* 2004;5(9):669-676.
29. Guengerich FP. Cytochrome P450 and chemical toxicology. *Chem Res Toxicol.* 2008;21(1):70-83.
30. Stingl JC, Brockmüller J, Viviani R. Genetic variability of drug-metabolizing enzymes. *Mol Psychiatry.* 2013;18(3):273-287.
31. Mega JL, Close SL, Wiviott SD, Shen L, Hockett RD, Brandt JT, et al. Cytochrome P450 polymorphisms and response to clopidogrel. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360(4):354-362.
32. Wadelius M, Pirmohamed M. Pharmacogenetics of warfarin. *Pharmacogenomics J.* 2007;7(2):99-111.
33. Mallal S, Phillips E, Carosi G, Molina JM, Workman C, Tomazic J, et al. HLA-B*5701 screening for hypersensitivity to abacavir. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;358(6):568-579.
34. Chung WH, Hung SI, Hong HS, Hsieh MS, Yang LC, Ho HC, et al. Medical genetics: A marker for Stevens–Johnson syndrome. *Nature.* 2004;428(6982):486.
35. Jameson JL, Longo DL. Precision medicine—Personalized, problematic, and promising. *N Engl J Med.* 2015;372(23):2229-2234.
36. Hamburg MA, Collins FS. The path to personalized medicine. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;363(4):301-304.
37. Garraway LA, Verweij J, Ballman KV. Precision oncology. *N Engl J Med.* 2013;369(11):1027-1034.
38. Johnson JA, Cavallari LH. Warfarin pharmacogenetics. *Trends Cardiovasc Med.* 2015;25(1):33-41.
39. Pirmohamed M, Park BK. Genetic susceptibility to adverse drug reactions. *Trends Pharmacol Sci.* 2001;22(6):298-305.
40. Schilsky RL. Personalized medicine in oncology. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2010;9(5):363-366.
41. Dienstmann R, Rodon J, Barretina J, Tabernero J. Genomic medicine frontier in oncology. *Cancer Discov.* 2013;3(4):392-405.
42. Sawyers C. Targeted cancer therapy. *Nature.* 2004;432(7015):294-297.
43. Innocenti F, Ratain MJ. Pharmacogenetics of irinotecan. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2002;8(8):2517-2523.

44. Amstutz U, Froehlich TK, Largiadèr CR. Dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase gene as a predictor of toxicity. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2011;12(9):1321-1336.
45. Roden DM. Cardiovascular pharmacogenomics. *Circ Res*. 2011;109(7):807-820.
46. Kimmel SE, French B, Kasner SE, Johnson JA, Anderson JL, Gage BF, et al. Pharmacogenetic versus clinical algorithm for warfarin dosing. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;369(24):2283-2293.
47. Scott SA, Sangkuhl K, Stein CM, Hulot JS, Mega JL, Roden DM, et al. Clinical pharmacogenetics implementation consortium guidelines for CYP2C19 and clopidogrel therapy. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2011;90(2):328-332.
48. Link E, Parish S, Armitage J, Bowman L, Heath S, Matsuda F, et al. SLCO1B1 variants and statin-induced myopathy. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;359(8):789-799.
49. Arranz MJ, de Leon J. Pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics of schizophrenia. *Clin Lab Med*. 2008;28(1):179-197.
50. Hicks JK, Sangkuhl K, Swen JJ, Ellingrod VL, Muller DJ, Shimoda K, et al. Clinical pharmacogenetics implementation consortium guideline for CYP2D6 and CYP2C19 genotypes. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2015;98(2):127-134.
51. Müller DJ, Kennedy JL. Genetics of antipsychotic treatment emergent weight gain. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2006;7(6):863-887.
52. Crews KR, Gaedigk A, Dunnenberger HM, Klein TE, Shen DD, Callaghan JT, et al. Clinical pharmacogenetics implementation consortium guidelines for codeine therapy. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2012;91(2):321-326.
53. Nuwaysir EF, Bittner M, Trent J, Barrett JC, Afshari CA. Microarrays and toxicology. *Mol Carcinog*. 1999;24(3):153-159.
54. Daly AK. Pharmacogenomics of adverse drug reactions. *Genome Med*. 2013;5(1):5.
55. Wilke RA, Lin DW, Roden DM, Watkins PB, Flockhart D, Zineh I, et al. Identifying genetic risk factors for serious adverse drug reactions. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*. 2007;6(11):904-916.
56. McLeod HL, Evans WE. Pharmacogenomics: Unlocking the human genome for better drug therapy. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol*. 2001;41:101-121.
57. Waters MD, Fostel JM. Toxicogenomics and systems toxicology. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2004;5(12):936-948.
58. van Dijk EL, Auger H, Jaszczyszyn Y, Thermes C. Ten years of next-generation sequencing technology. *Trends Genet*. 2014;30(9):418-426.
59. Behjati S, Tarpey PS. What is next generation sequencing? *Arch Dis Child Educ Pract Ed*. 2013;98(6):236-238.
60. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: The convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nat Med*. 2019;25(1):44-56.
61. Hasin Y, Seldin M, Lusis A. Multi-omics approaches to disease. *Genome Biol*. 2017;18(1):83.
62. Bell GC, Crews KR, Wilkinson MR, Haidar CE, Hicks JK, Baker DK, et al. Development and use of active clinical decision support. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2014;21(e1):e93-e99.
63. Burke W, Psaty BM. Personalized medicine in the era of genomics. *JAMA*. 2007;298(14):1682-1684.
64. McGuire AL, Burke W. Health system implications of direct-to-consumer personal genome testing. *Public Health Genomics*. 2011;14(1):53-58.
65. Dressler LG. Ethical and legal issues in pharmacogenomics. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2009;10(9):1527-1533.
66. Sirugo G, Williams SM, Tishkoff SA. The missing diversity in human genetic studies. *Cell*. 2019;177(1):26-31.
67. Frueh FW. Regulation, reimbursement, and the long road of implementation. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2010;87(5):543-545.
68. Verbelen M, Weale ME, Lewis CM. Cost-effectiveness of pharmacogenetic-guided treatment. *Pharmacogenomics J*. 2017;17(5):395-402.
69. Phillips KA, Deverka PA, Marshall DA, Marshall JK. Economic perspectives on personalized medicine. *Value Health*. 2014;17(7):A562-A563.
70. Dunnenberger HM, Crews KR, Hoffman JM, Caudle KE, Broeckel U, Howard SC, et al. Preemptive clinical pharmacogenetics implementation. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2015;97(2):187-193.
71. Collins FS, Varmus H. A new initiative on precision medicine. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;372(9):793-795.
72. Ginsburg GS, Phillips KA. Precision medicine: From science to value. *Health Aff (Millwood)*. 2018;37(5):694-701.