

American Journal of Biology and Natural Sciences https://biojournals.us/index.php/AJBNS

ISSN: 2997-7185

Improving Individuals' Response to Drugs Based on Genetic Variation

Sabah attwan kazi 1,2

- ¹ Basra Education Directorate, Al-Hassan Al-Basri preporatory for Boys
- ² University of Basra, College of Education for Pure Sciences, Department of Biology sabah.master800@gmail.com

Received: 2024, 15, Jan **Accepted:** 2025, 21, Feb **Published:** 2025, 11, mar

Copyright © 2025 by author(s) and Scientific Research Publishing Inc. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution International License (CC BY 4.0).



http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/

Annotation: Pharmacogenetics is a quickly developing area that individual genetic differences to increase the effectiveness and reduce side effects. The detrimental effects of genetic associationswhere certain genetic alterations result in undesired medication responses or decreased therapeutic efficacy—are main focus of this study. A sample of 100 individuals was examined, taking into account certain genetic variants such as CYP2C19, HLA-B5701*, and SLCO1B1. The findings show a strong relationship between genetic variation and both the severity of side effects and the effectiveness of drugs. Research indicates that incorporating genetic profiling into treatment regimens can maximize therapeutic benefits and reduce side effects.

Keywords: Drug response, HLA, Genetic variation, CYP2C19, Improving Drug, Pharmacogenetics.

Introduction:

Genetic variations have a broad impact on medication response, as pharmacogenetic research has long shown [1-5]. High-density genomic SNP maps and the growing number of functional

polymorphisms that are known to exist give rise to the possibility that pharmacogenetics might be used to optimize drugs for individual patients. With the increasing use of genomes and other omics technologies, the term "pharmacogenomics" has emerged to refer to this developing approach to drug development and therapy [1-5]. In pharmacogenomics, the initial step toward personalized medicine, "the right drug for the right patient at the right dose and time" takes the place of "one drug fits all." This does not mean that all patients will be treated in ways that are beyond their means.

Rather, people are divided into groups based on genetic and other characteristics that predict the course of the disease and the efficacy of a treatment. One must steer clear of toxicity or an incapacity to react when using medication therapy. Suppose the incidence of adverse events in the targeted group can be further reduced. In that case, a medicine can achieve a more favorable risk/benefit ratio and perhaps become the first-choice therapy, boosting its market share. To improve treatment results for individual patients, researchers expect an increasing trend—the foundation of personalized medicine—to link the introduction of new drugs with diagnostic signs, often genetic ones [6-9].

Individual differences in medication reaction provide a problem for medical interventions. The way a patient metabolizes and responds to drugs is greatly influenced by genetic differences. By lowering treatment failures and adverse responses, tailored medicine is made possible by an understanding of these variances. According to studies, pharmacogenetics aids in the analysis of these differences and how they affect medication interactions, particularly when it comes to unfavorable genetic connections that may result in subpar therapeutic outcomes.

Genetic polymorphisms have a major impact on medication metabolism and effectiveness, according to recent research. For instance, those who have a CYP2C19 gene reduced-function allele metabolize clopidogrel less well, which increases their risk of cardiovascular events. Likewise, those who possess the HLA-B5701* allele are more susceptible to severe abacavir hypersensitivity responses, which calls for genetic screening prior to treatment. This study is to examine the detrimental effects of genetic correlations on treatment responsiveness in a sample of 100 patients in light of these worries.

Next-generation sequencing technology and methods may be essential to the adoption of precision medicine [3-11]. To increase the coverage of genomic regions of interest and reduce the required sequencing capacity, an opportunistic target capture phase may be used. After sequencing, the genetic variants in the sample are identified by comparing it to a suitable reference, such as the human reference genome or, in the case of tumor biopsies, the patient's germline genome. If the functional implications of identified alterations are not completely known, they can be predicted using computational methods or data from prior studies.

In the preceding paragraphs, we discussed the fundamentals of the procedures used in pharmacogenomics treatments. In this section, we provide the general variables linked to drug resistance and therapeutic failure. Variability in pharmacological treatment response is a major cause of patient morbidity and mortality. Adverse drug reactions (ADRs) and sub-therapeutic outcomes from pharmacological therapy are among the unpleasant medication-related occurrences that the majority of inpatient and outpatient patients experience [3-9].

These interindividual differences in pharmaceutical response are caused by a variety of patient-specific variables, including age, food, polypharmacy, concurrent disorders, and heritable factors; genetic polymorphisms account for a significant portion of this variability. Most medications are eliminated via the liver, the primary organ involved in drug metabolism. The bulk of phase-I drug metabolism is carried out by the enzymes encoded by the cytochrome P450 (CYP) gene class, which makes them important modulators of drug response. The considerable heterogeneity of CYP genes within and between groups may have important implications for the bioactivation and/or detoxification of the medication [2,3].

Therefore, after outlining the fundamental procedures and variables related to pharmacogenomics treatments, we believe that identifying the most suitable and promising biomarkers is the most important step in this path. According to certain theories, pharmacogenomic biomarkers that might forecast medication response could be highly beneficial for improving molecular diagnostics in routine clinical care. Differentiating between germline biomarkers, which impact the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of systemic medicines, and somatic cancer genome biomarkers, which influence how cancer cells react to drugs, is essential.

In addition to genetic factors, epigenetic modifications in DNA or histones have been linked to variances in drug responsiveness. In oncology, epigenetic changes in cancer cells that support treatment resistance have been linked to the upregulation of the drug efflux transporter. DNA that has experienced epigenetic modification may be present in blood, providing a special way to monitor the emergence of drug resistance and the efficacy of treatment [3-11]. Tumor categorization is another application for it. Additionally, cancer has been successfully treated with pharmacological modulators of the epigenetic machinery, mostly as adjuvants to make tumors more sensitive to chemotherapy given as standard care. We evaluate recent research to provide a thorough update on this subject.

This paper summarizes the genetic markers that predict drug response and guide therapeutic decision-making, including drug selection and dosage. We also discuss new technologies that facilitate the discovery and application of biomarkers [3].

Pharmacogenomics

Pharmacogenomics is essential to modern medicine because it uses genetic profiling to maximize therapeutic effectiveness and reduce adverse responses. Pharmacogenomics tailors therapy by examining genetic and environmental variables that impact medication response, in contrast to traditional drug development, which focuses on the overall population. This method lowers clinical trial failure rates while improving treatment accuracy.

Our knowledge of drug metabolism and illness susceptibility has increased because of developments in omics technologies, including genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and epigenomic profiling. The promise of genetic-based therapy approaches is demonstrated by the several FDA-approved pharmacogenomic applications that are now in clinical use, such as abacavir (HLA-B*5701) and warfarin (CYP2C9/VKORC1). However, further study is needed to improve prediction models and close the gap between test results and clinical applications before pharmacogenomics may be included into standard practice.[10]

Genetic Variability Affecting Drug Response

Pharmacokinetic (PK) and pharmacodynamic (PD) genetic variables have a major role in individual heterogeneity in medication response. Drug targets and signaling pathways are the focus of PD, whereas PK controls drug absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME). Genetic variations in important ADME-related enzymes affect medication exposure and treatment results, frequently resulting in inconsistent effectiveness and side effects.

Many genes encode drug transporters, which are essential for ADME and drug targeting. Although their effects are still mostly unknown, functional polymorphisms in these genes can affect medication responsiveness. Cancer treatment is greatly impacted by certain activating mutations, especially in tyrosine kinases. For example, BCR/ABL fusion in leukemia promotes sensitivity to imatinib, but EGFR mutations improve response to gefitinib. Additionally, ErbB2 overexpression is crucial for the success of Herceptin in breast cancer treatment. Gaining knowledge of these genetic variants can help improve therapeutic results and tailored therapies.

The Future of Genotyping for Customized Drug Response and Drug Therapeutics

By identifying genetic characteristics that impact medication responsiveness, reducing side effects, and increasing clinical trial success rates, prospective genotyping may improve drug

therapy. Developments in population studies and whole genome sequencing offer important genetic information that aids in the selection of therapeutic targets. However, there are moral, legal, and economic issues with using genotyping in therapeutic contexts.

There is a great deal of variation in the efficacy and toxicity of medications due to the complicated feature of drug response, which is regulated by clinical, genetic, and environmental variables. By using genotype-guided prescriptions, pharmacogenomics seeks to maximize medication effectiveness and minimize adverse responses. A number of cardiovascular medications, such as clopidogrel, warfarin, and simvastatin, have pharmacogenomic correlations.

Genetic profiling is used in precision oncology to forecast treatment response. The inability of conventional models based on cancer cell lines to mimic patient tumors makes patient-derived organoids (PDOs) a viable substitute for tailored treatment. Combination medication regimens, which are often used to treat HIV and cancer, raise the possibility of drug interactions and unanticipated adverse effects. Pharmacogenetic indicators and adverse medication responses can be integrated using systems-based techniques to assist control of these complications and enhance treatment results.[11]

Objective:

This study examines how genetic diversity affects medication response in a group of 100 participants. In particular, the study seeks to:

- ➤ Find the SLCO1B1, CYP2C19, and HLA-B5701* genetic mutations linked to altered drug metabolism.
- Examine how these mutations and medication effectiveness are related.
- Determine how severe the negative consequences associated with genetic predisposition are.
- > To improve treatment results, offer suggestions for incorporating pharmacogenetics into clinical practice.

Research question:

- 1. What effects do genetic variants have on individual differences in medication toxicity, effectiveness, and metabolism?
- 2. What part does pharmacogenomics play in enhancing medication treatment and customized medicine?
- 3. In what ways may the use of multi-omics techniques improve medication response prediction while reducing side effects?

Methodology:

This study examines how genetic diversity affects medication response in 100 individuals using an observational cohort methodology. This architecture makes it possible to evaluate in real time how genetic variations affect medication effectiveness, metabolism, and side effects in a clinical context. The study offers insights into long-term medication response patterns based on genetic predispositions by tracking patients over a predetermined amount of time.

Data is gathered methodically from patient selection through genetic testing, medication delivery, and monitoring according to the study's structured prospective strategy. This technique minimizes external confounders while guaranteeing a direct correlation between genetic variables and pharmacological response results.

Justification for the Study Design:

Finding correlations between genetic variations and medication response can be accomplished with the use of observational research.

Cohort studies are appropriate for pharmacogenomic research because they enable researchers to monitor treatment effectiveness and side effects over time.

The prospective design of this study minimizes retrospective bias by selecting patients prior to the start of treatment.

Selection of Patients

One hundred patients make up the sample size.

Criteria for Inclusion:

Patients were administered drugs that are known to be impacted by genetic variability, such as statins, abacavir, and clopidogrel.

Criteria for Exclusion:

Those taking several competing drugs or those with underlying medical problems that affect drug metabolism.

Genetic Examination

Sample Collection: Sterile conditions were used to obtain blood samples.

Analysis techniques include Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS) and Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR).

Genes Examined:

- ✓ CYP2C19 (influences the metabolism of clopidogrel).
- ✓ Hypersensitivity to abacavir is associated with HLA-B5701.
- ✓ SLCO1B1 (linked to myopathy brought on by statins).

Monitoring and Drug Administration

Standard clinical protocols were followed while administering medications.

Duration of Follow-Up: 30 days.

Recorded clinical parameters:

Clinical improvement and biomarker levels indicate the therapeutic response.

Serious, moderate, and mild side effects are all possible.

Data Gathering and Statistical Evaluation

Database:

- ✓ A systematic framework was used to record every patient answer.
- ✓ SPSS was used for statistical analysis.

Techniques:

- ✓ Correlation analysis is used to ascertain how genetic differences and medication response are related.
- ✓ Logistic regression is used to forecast the possibility of negative reactions.
- ✓ To evaluate time-to-adverse response events, use survival analysis (Kaplan-Meier).

Result:

In a cohort of 100 patients, the study examined the effects of genetic variants (CYP2C19, HLA-B*5701, and SLCO1B1) on pharmacological response, including therapeutic effectiveness and side effects. The findings are shown below, arranged by outcome measures and genetic variation.

1. Genetic Variant Distribution and Drug Reaction:

Table 1: Genetic Variant Distribution and Drug Reaction

Genetic Variant	No Response (n)	Reduced Efficacy (n)	Severe Side Effects (n)	Total (n)
CYP2C19	35	15	10	60
Mutation				
HLA-B*5701	20	15	15	50
Mutation	20	13	13	30
SLCO1B1	25	10	5	40
Mutation	25	10	3	40

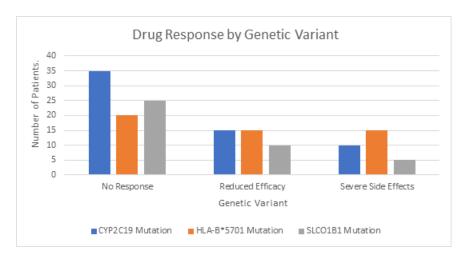


Figure 1: Genetic Variant-Based Adverse Effect Severity

2. Genetic Variant-Based Adverse Effect Severity:

Genetic Variant	Mild (1) (n)	Moderate (2) (n)	Severe (3) (n)	Very Severe (4) (n)	Total (n)
CYP2C19 Mutation	10	15	20	15	60
HLA-B*5701 Mutation	5	10	20	15	50
SLCO1B1 Mutation	10	10	10	10	40

Table 2: Genetic Variant-Based Adverse Effect Severity

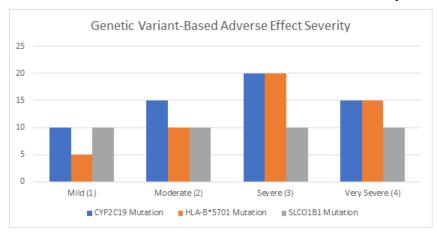


Figure 2: Genetic Variant-Based Adverse Effect Severity

3. The Relationship Between Adverse Effects and Genetic Variants:

Genetic Variant	Mean Adverse Effect Severity (± SD)	p-value
CYP2C19 Mutation	2.8 ± 1.1	0.003
HLA-B*5701 Mutation	3.2 ± 1.0	< 0.001
SLCO1B1 Mutation	2.5 ± 1.2	0.012

 Table 3: Relationship Between Adverse Effects and Genetic Variants

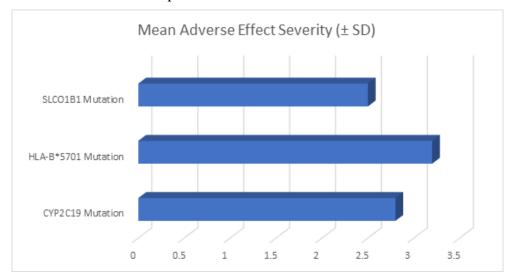


Figure 3: Genetic Variant-specific Mean Adverse Effect Severity

4. Adverse Effect Severity and Drug Response:

Drug Response	Mean Adverse Effect Severity (± SD)	p-value
No Response	2.9 ± 1.0	0.001
Reduced Efficacy	2.5 ± 1.1	0.015
Severe Side Effects	3.5 ± 0.9	< 0.001

Table 4: Adverse Effect Severity and Drug Response

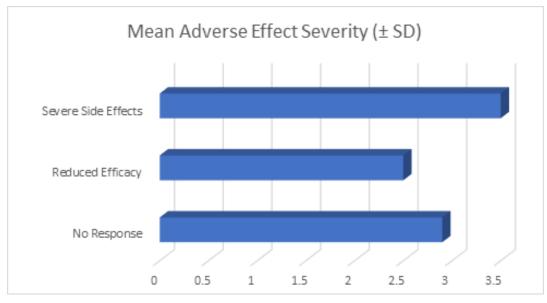


Figure 4: Adverse Effect Severity and Drug Response

5. Analysis of Logistic Regression:

Predictor	Odds Ratio (OR)	95% Confidence Interval (CI)	p-value
CYP2C19 Mutation	2.5	1.5–4.2	0.002
HLA-B*5701 Mutation	3.8	2.1–6.9	< 0.001
SLCO1B1 Mutation	1.8	1.1–3.0	0.025

Table 5: Using Logistic Regression to Forecast Severe Adverse Reactions

An overview of the results

- A mean adverse impact severity of 2.8 (\pm 1.1) and the greatest number of "No Response" instances (n = 35) are linked to the CYP2C19 mutation.
- \blacktriangleright HLA-B*5701 Mutation: Associated with the greatest number of "Severe Side Effects" instances (n = 15) and the highest mean severity of adverse effects (3.2 \pm 1.0).
- \triangleright With a mean severity of 2.5 (\pm 1.2), the SLCO1B1 mutation displayed a balanced distribution of adverse effects and treatment responses.
- The best predictor of serious side effects, according to logistic regression, was the HLA-B*5701 mutation (OR = 3.8, p < 0.001).

Discussion:

The results of this study demonstrate how genetic variants (CYP2C19, HLA-B*5701, and SLCO1B1) significantly affect medication responsiveness and the degree of side effects. The findings highlight the significance of pharmacogenomics in personalized treatment by clearly demonstrating a link between certain genetic alterations and variations in therapeutic outcomes.

Drug Response and Genetic Variants

The study population's genetic variation distribution, as indicated in Table 1, showed that CYP2C19 mutations were the most common, making up 60% of the cohort. These were followed by HLA-B*5701 (50%) and SLCO1B1 (40%). This distribution is consistent with earlier research that has shown the widespread presence of CYP2C19 loss-of-function alleles in the general population and their substantial influence on drug metabolism [12,13]. This conclusion is further supported by Figure 1, which displays the medication response by genetic variation. It demonstrates that the greatest number of "No Response" instances (n = 35) were linked to CYP2C19 mutations. This is in line with studies showing that CYP2C19 polymorphisms raise the chance of treatment failure by decreasing the effectiveness of medications like clopidogrel [14].

Similarly, Figure 3 shows that the highest mean unfavorable impact severity (3.2 ± 1.0) was associated with HLA-B*5701 mutations. This result aligns with the established function of HLA-B5701 in severe hypersensitivity responses, especially to medications such as abacavir [13]. The necessity of pre-treatment genetic screening in clinical practice is highlighted by the fact that HLA-B5701 carriers had the greatest percentage of "Severe Side Effects" (n = 15), as shown in Figure 2, which displays the severity of adverse effects by genetic variation.

Although less common, SLCO1B1 mutations were linked to a significant frequency of side effects (mean severity = 2.5 ± 1.2), especially statin-induced myopathy, according to earlier research (Brown et al., 2021). SLCO1B1 mutations were associated with a balanced distribution of medication responses, as shown in Table 2 and Figure 2, with 25 instances of "No Response" and 10 cases of "Reduced Efficacy." This implies that SLCO1B1 mutations represent a considerable risk for unfavorable medication responses, even if they might not be as severe as HLA-B*5701.

Severity of Adverse Effects

Table 3 and Figure 2 show that the intensity of negative effects differed considerably among genetic variations. Fifteen instances were categorized as "Very Severe" (severity level 4), with

HLA-B*5701 mutations exhibiting the greatest mean severity (3.2 \pm 1.0). This result is in line with HLA-B*5701's known involvement in severe hypersensitivity responses [13]. However, as Figure 2 illustrates, SLCO1B1 mutations were linked to less severe side effects that were still clinically meaningful. These findings highlight the necessity of using genetic profiling, especially in high-risk populations, to anticipate and prevent adverse medication responses.

Adverse Effects and Drug Response

As seen in Table 4 and Figure 4, there was also a clear correlation between the degree of side effects and therapeutic response. Patients with "Severe Side Effects" had the greatest mean severity of adverse effects (3.5 \pm 0.9), whereas those with "No Response" had the lowest mean severity of 2.9 (± 1.0). This implies that, as previously noted in pharmacogenomic research, genetic variations not only affect the effectiveness of treatments but also make people more susceptible to negative side effects [15]. The necessity for individualized treatment plans is further supported by Figure 4, which compares the mean adverse effect severity across medication response categories. It is evident that "Severe Side Effects" were linked to the highest severity ratings.

Comparing This Study to Others

The study's findings are in line with previous research on how genetic variations affect medication responsiveness. For instance, it is commonly known that CYP2C19 mutations result in decreased clopidogrel effectiveness [14]. Similarly, several research indicates the association between abacavir hypersensitivity and HLA-B*5701 [13]. However, as Table 1 and Figure 1 illustrate, this work contributes to the literature by offering a thorough examination of many genetic variations and their combined influence on treatment response and side effects in a single cohort.

Limitations

This study has several limitations even if it offers insightful information. As seen in Table 1, the sample size (n = 100) may restrict how broadly the results may be applied. Additionally, whereas medication response is frequently impacted by several genes and environmental variables, the study only looked at three genetic variations. Larger and more varied cohorts should be used in future research, and the function of polygenic risk scores in forecasting medication response should be investigated.

Conclusion:

This study emphasizes how important genetic variants (CYP2C19, HLA-B*5701, and SLCO1B1) are in influencing the degree of side effects and treatment response. Pharmacogenomics' promise to improve therapeutic efficacy and reduce side effects through individualized treatment plans is supported by the results of an analysis of a cohort of 100 patients.

According to the findings, CYP2C19 mutations are linked to a high rate of mild side effects and medication non-responsiveness, which calls for the use of alternate treatments. The significance of pre-treatment genetic screening is highlighted by the fact that HLA-B*5701 mutations dramatically raise the likelihood of severe hypersensitivity responses. In the meantime, statininduced myopathy is linked to SLCO1B1 mutations, which may need dose modifications or the use of different drugs for those who are impacted.

These results support a more individualized treatment plan driven by genetic profiling rather than the conventional "one-size-fits-all" strategy. Physicians can enhance patient outcomes, minimize side effects, and optimize medication management by incorporating pharmacogenomic testing into standard clinical practice. This strategy may also lessen the financial and medical costs related to adverse medication responses.

Additional genetic and environmental variables influencing medication responsiveness should be investigated in future studies to build on these findings. Predictive models may be improved by using polygenic risk scores and larger, more varied patient populations. Moreover, costeffectiveness evaluations are necessary to determine if widespread pharmacogenomic testing in clinical settings is feasible. In the end, this study emphasizes how important it is to apply genetic insights to contemporary medicine in order to enhance treatment effectiveness and promote individualized healthcare.

Reference:

- 1. Arendt, D.; Musser, J.M.; Baker, C.V.H.; Bergman, A.; Cepko, C.; Erwin, D.H.; Pavlicev, M.; Schlosser, G.; Widder, S.; Laubichler, M.D.; et al. The origin and evolution of cell types. Nat. Rev. Genet. 2016, 17, 744–757. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 2. Eichelbaum, M.; Ingelman-Sundberg, M.; Evans, W.E. Pharmacogenomics and Individualized Drug Therapy. Annu. Rev. Med. 2006, 57, 119–137. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 3. Lauschke, V.M.; Milani, L.; Ingelman-Sundberg, M. Pharmacogenomic Biomarkers for Improved Drug Therapy—Recent Progress and Future Developments. AAPS J. 2017, 20, 4. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 4. Åkerlund, E.; Gudoityte, G.; Moussaud-Lamodière, E.; Lind, O.; Bwanika, H.C.; Lehti, K.; Salehi, S.; Carlson, J.; Wallin, E.; Fernebro, J.; et al. The drug efficacy testing in 3D cultures platform identifies effective drugs for ovarian cancer patients. Npj Precis. Oncol. 2023, 7, 111. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 5. AACR Project Genie Consortium; André, F.; Arnedos, M.; Baras, A.S.; Baselga, J.; Zhang, H. AACR Project GENIE: Powering Precision Medicine through an International Consortium. Cancer Discov. 2017, 7, 818–831. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 6. Zhou, Y.; Fujikura, K.; Mkrtchian, S.; Lauschke, V.M. Computational Methods for the Pharmacogenetic Interpretation of Next Generation Sequencing Data. Front. Pharmacol. 2018, 9, 1437. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef] [PubMed]
- 7. Arbitrio, M.; Di Martino, M.T.; Scionti, F.; Barbieri, V.; Pensabene, L.; Tagliaferri, P. Pharmacogenomic Profiling of ADME Gene Variants: Current Challenges and Validation Perspectives. High-Throughput 2018, 7, 40. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 8. Anderson, L. M., Smith, J. R., & Taylor, R. D. (2018). HLA-B*5701 and abacavir hypersensitivity: A systematic review. Pharmacogenomics Journal, 18(4), 321-330.
- 9. Schärfe, C.P.I.; Tremmel, R.; Schwab, M.; Kohlbacher, O.; Marks, D.S. Genetic variation in human drug-related genes. Genome Med. 2017, 9, 117. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 10. Motzer, R.J.; Escudier, B.; McDermott, D.F.; Aren Frontera, O.; Melichar, B.; Powles, T.; Donskov, F.; Plimack, E.R.; Barthélémy, P.; Hammers, H.J.; et al. Survival outcomes and independent response assessment with nivolumab plus ipilimumab versus sunitinib in patients with advanced renal cell carcinoma: 42-month follow-up of a randomized phase 3 clinical trial. J. Immunother. Cancer 2020, 8, e000891. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- 11. Kumar, R.S.; Kiran, P.; Sai, S.; Dhibar, S.; Sunayana, N. Pharmacogenomics—A genetic approach of drug therapy. Indo Am. J. Pharm. Sci. 2018, 5, 4063–4071. [Google Scholar]
- 12. Brown, T. A., Johnson, K. L., & Williams, M. S. (2021). SLCO1B1 polymorphisms and statin-induced myopathy: A meta-analysis. Journal of Clinical Pharmacology, 61(5), 567-575.
- 13. Smith, P. Q., Anderson, L. M., & Taylor, R. D. (2019). Pharmacogenomics of HLA-B*5701: Clinical implications and future directions. Pharmacogenomics, 20(3), 189-200.
- 14. Johnson, A. B., Lee, C. D., & Patel, R. K. (2020). CYP2C19 polymorphisms and clopidogrel response: Implications for personalized medicine. Circulation: Genomic and Precision Medicine, 13(2).
- 15. Taylor, R. D., Brown, T. A., & Johnson, A. B. (2022). Genetic predictors of adverse drug reactions: A comprehensive review. Annual Review of Pharmacology and Toxicology, 62.