

PERSONALIZED MEDICINE FOR HIGH ALERT DRUGS IN RESPIRATORY DISEASESMonisha Mohanraj^{1*}, Srinivas Kalaiselvan²¹Pharm D, JKKN College of Pharmacy, Komarapalayam, Namakkal, 638183, Tamil Nadu, India.²Assistant Professor, JKKN College of Pharmacy, Kumarapalayam, 638183, Tamil Nadu, India.***Corresponding Author: Monisha Mohanraj**

8/1 Periyapalayathamman Koil Street, Madumanagar, Perambur, Perambur/Chennai, Tamil Nadu.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20964077>**How to cite this Article:** Monisha Mohanraj^{1*}, Srinivas Kalaiselvan² (2026). Personalized Medicine For High Alert Drugs In Respiratory Diseases. World Journal of Pharmaceutical and Medical Research, 12(7), 123-129.

This work is licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.



Article Received on 28/05/2026

Article Revised on 18/06/2026

Article Published on 01/07/2026

ABSTRACT

Background: Personalized medicine has significant potential for enhancing high-alert respiratory medication treatment, particularly emphasizing pharmacogenomics. Understanding the impact of genetic variations on drug responses can lead to improved patient care and minimized adverse reactions. This study reviews the current status and challenges of personalized medicine in high-alert respiratory drugs, exploring its potential to modify patient care and treatment outcomes. **The main body of the abstract:** This study aims to explore the application of personalized medicine in high-alert respiratory drugs by considering genetic factors and individual variations. The objective is to enhance patient safety and treatment efficacy while reducing the burden of respiratory diseases. The study discusses the genetic determinants of drug response in bronchodilator therapy (Albuterol, Salmeterol, and Formoterol), corticosteroid response (Fluticasone, Budesonide, and Prednisone), and anaesthesia (propofol) in respiratory problems. It highlights the role of pharmacogenomics in optimizing drug effectiveness and reducing adverse reactions. Additionally, the study emphasizes the significance of genetic variability and genotype-based therapies. **Conclusion:** Personalized medicine, especially pharmacogenomics, can change high-alert respiratory drug treatment by tailoring therapies based on individual genetic profiles. Despite challenges, implementing personalized medicine can improve patient care and treatment outcomes. Further research is essential to overcome barriers and integrate pharmacogenomics into routine healthcare for personalized respiratory drug therapy.

KEYWORDS: Personalized medicine, pharmacogenomics, high-alert respiratory drugs, genetic variability, and treatment efficacy.

INTRODUCTION

The study of pharmacogenomics, in particular, can change high-alert respiratory medication treatment. Despite challenges in implementation, understanding the impact of genetic variations on drug responses can optimize treatment outcomes and minimize adverse reactions, ultimately improving patient care.^[1-4] This study reviews the current status, challenges, and prospects of personalized medicine for high-alert respiratory drugs, aiming to offer valuable insights and recommendations for effective implementation. By tailoring treatments based on genetic factors, personalized medicine can revolutionize patient care, particularly in complex diseases like cancer, leading to improved outcomes and reduced adverse reactions.^[5, 6]

(Fluticasone, budesonide, and prednisone), anaesthesia (Propofol), and oxygen therapy, which pose significant risks if not used properly. If these drugs are overused or given in excess amounts, side effects such as tachycardia, hyperglycemia, and neuropsychiatric events may happen, but respiratory depression is a significant adverse effect.^[7,8] Personalized medicine holds promise in optimizing the use of high-alert respiratory drugs by considering genetic factors and individual variations, enhancing patient safety and treatment outcomes.^[9] This study explores the potential of personalized medicine in improving medication safety and addressing the challenges associated with high-alert respiratory drugs, emphasizing the importance of patient monitoring and education.^[10-12]

High-alert respiratory drugs are bronchodilators (Albuterol, salmeterol, and formoterol), corticosteroids

Respiratory diseases like Asthma and Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), cystitis fibrosis,

and lung cancer (many diseases) have a significant global impact, contributing to a substantial number of deaths worldwide. The long-term use of respiratory drugs is necessary for disease management, but these medications can carry significant side effects.^[13] Implementing personalized medicine in respiratory drug therapy becomes crucial for optimizing treatment outcomes and minimizing adverse reactions.^[14,15] The current study explores the potential of personalized medicine in improving respiratory drug therapy by considering individual genetic variations and response patterns, aiming to enhance patient care and reduce the burden of respiratory diseases.^[15,16]

Pharmacogenomics, the study of how genetic factors influence drug responses, holds great potential for personalized medicine.^[17] Understanding patients' genetic profiles allows healthcare providers to customize treatment plans, maximizing effectiveness and minimizing adverse reactions, particularly in the context of respiratory drug prescriptions. The current review article explores the application of personalized medicine and pharmacogenomics in optimizing patient care and treatment efficacy for high-alert respiratory drugs, highlighting the importance of genetic variability and genotype-based therapies.^[18] Patient care and reduce the burden of respiratory diseases.^[15,16]

Personalized medicine has significant implications for personalized medicine in high-alert respiratory drugs, as it identifies genetic variations impacting drug response and allows tailored treatment plans. Analysis of genetic information reduces adverse reactions and improves treatment effectiveness by identifying variations in drug response. This review explores the application of pharmacogenomics in high-alert respiratory drugs, emphasizing personalized treatments and minimized risks through genetic testing. Integrating genetic

information into prescribing enables optimal outcomes and reduced adverse reactions.^[19] The study aims to enhance patient care and treatment efficacy through personalized medicine in high-alert respiratory drugs.

The implementation of pharmacogenomics in respiratory drug therapy faces challenges and limitations, such as cost, availability, interpretation of genetic data, and integration into routine healthcare. Overcoming these barriers is crucial for the widespread adoption of personalized medicine in respiratory drug prescriptions.^[19] Improved research and development efforts are needed to address these challenges and effectively integrate pharmacogenomics into standard clinical practice for personalized respiratory drug therapy.

The review summarizes the current knowledge on pharmacogenomics for high-alert respiratory drugs, including genetic variants and their impact on drug metabolism, response, and adverse reactions. It evaluates clinical evidence, identifies research gaps, and provides guidance for implementing pharmacogenomics in respiratory medicine to enhance patient care and treatment outcomes.^[20]

PERSONALIZED APPROACHES IN BRONCHODILATOR THERAPY

Bronchodilators, essential in the management of respiratory disorders like asthma and COPD, exhibit interindividual variability in efficacy and safety. Pharmacogenomics studies have identified specific genes, including *ADRB2* (beta-2 adrenergic receptor gene) and *GSTP1* (glutathione S-transferase gene), that influence drug metabolism, response, and potential adverse reactions. Albuterol, salmeterol, and formoterol (Fig. 1) are a few examples of bronchodilators metabolized by the *ADRB2* and *GSTP1* enzyme system.



Fig. 1: Understanding the Significance of High-Risk drugs in Respiratory Pharmacotherapy.

ALBUTEROL

Albuterol is classified as a short-acting beta agonist (SABA) that functions by binding to the beta-2 adrenergic receptor. Albuterol, a short-acting β 2-agonist, exerts its effects through binding to ADRB2 on airway smooth muscle cells.^[21] This leads to bronchodilation and significantly improves breathing for individuals who have asthma. The ADRB2 gene is associated with the response to albuterol treatment in asthma patients since it encodes the beta-2 adrenergic receptor. Studies have revealed that genetic variations in this gene can impact the effectiveness of albuterol treatment. Specifically, individuals with the arginine-16 (Arg16) homozygous genotype exhibit a more acute response to SABA bronchodilation when compared to those with the Gly16 homozygous genotype.^[22-26] The ADRB2 gene exhibits significant polymorphism, with multiple single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) reported^[27], some of which result in amino acid changes and impact protein structure.^[28] Studies indicate that specific variants, such as Ile164, lead to reduced receptor activation duration.^[29, 30], while the glycine-16 (Gly16) allele is associated with enhanced ADRB2 down-regulation.^[31] In a multi-ethnic asthma population, it has been observed that rare genetic variants in the ADRB2 gene can influence the likelihood of experiencing severe exacerbations and the level of symptom control during long-acting beta-agonist treatment. These genetic variations have been found to impact the risk and effectiveness of long-acting beta-agonist treatment in individuals with asthma.^[32] In an Indian asthmatic population, individuals with the Arg16 homozygous genotype showed a lower response to albuterol.^[33]

SALMETEROL

Salmeterol, similar to albuterol, acts as a beta-2 adrenergic receptor agonist, resulting in bronchodilation for individuals with asthma. However, the gene associated with the response to salmeterol differs from that of albuterol. In patients treated with formoterol and salmeterol, those with the Arg16 homozygous genotype have been observed to exhibit bronchoprotective subsensitivity. Furthermore, studies indicated that the Arg16 genotype was linked to a more favourable response to personalized second-line therapy in children with asthma.^[34-36]

FORMOTEROL

A long-acting beta-2 adrenergic receptor agonist is a type of medication formoterol. It is commonly used to induce bronchodilation in patients with asthma. By binding to the β 2 adrenergic receptor, formoterol initiates a cascade of events within the G-protein coupled receptor pathway. This activation ultimately triggers the production of cyclic AMP, resulting in the relaxation of smooth muscles.^[37-41] While administered formoterol and salmeterol, the Arg16 homozygous genotype has been shown to have bronchoprotective subsensitivity.

Furthermore, a study revealed that asthmatic children with the Gly16 genotype demonstrated a more favourable response to formoterol. Extensive research has focused on the ADRB2 gene, which encodes the β 2 adrenergic receptor, particularly in asthma pharmacogenetics. Various genetic variations within the ADRB2 gene have been identified and linked to the response individuals have to beta-2 agonists, including formoterol.^[42-45]

GENETIC DETERMINANTS OF CORTICOSTEROID RESPONSE IN RESPIRATORY PROBLEMS

Glucocorticoids are crucial in a biological pathway involving biosynthetic hormones that bind and activate a cytosolic chaperone-receptor heterocomplex, which subsequently translocates into the nucleus. This process leads to the repression of proinflammatory gene transcription and the enhancement of anti-inflammatory gene transcription.^[46, 47] The response to systemic glucocorticoids, such as corticosteroids, in respiratory conditions like asthma can vary among individuals. Genetic factors, including variants in genes such as NR3C1 (glucocorticoid receptor), FKBP5 (glucocorticoid receptor co-chaperone protein), and CRHR1 (corticotropin-releasing hormone receptor 1), have been associated with the response to systemic glucocorticoids in asthma patients. Understanding the genetic basis of individual responses to corticosteroids (Fluticasone, Budesonide, Prednisone) (Fig. 1) can contribute to the development of personalized medicine approaches for respiratory problems, optimizing treatment outcomes and patient safety.^[48, 49]

FLUTICASONE

Fluticasone, an inhaled glucocorticoid, functions as an anti-inflammatory agent within the lungs of individuals with asthma. It achieves this by binding to the glucocorticoid receptor, which results in the activation of anti-inflammatory genes and the inhibition of proinflammatory genes. The response to inhaled glucocorticoids involves multiple genes, including CRHR1, STIP1, and GLCCI1 (glucocorticoid-induced 1), which have been associated with the effectiveness of this treatment.^[48-53] A specific study has identified that sequence variants in the CRHR1 gene are linked to enhanced lung function in individuals with asthma who are undergoing treatment with inhaled corticosteroids. These genetic variations have been found to influence the respiratory capacity and improvement observed in asthmatic patients receiving inhaled corticosteroid therapy. Similarly, the gene STIP1, which encodes the glucocorticoid receptor heterocomplex, has been linked to enhanced lung function in individuals with asthma who receive treatment with inhaled corticosteroids. Conversely, a genome-wide association study (GWAS) revealed that a variant in the GLCCI1 gene was associated with a reduced response to inhaled glucocorticoids.^[48, 49, 54] These genes CRHR1, STIP1, TBX21 (T-box transcription factor 21), and GLCCI1 to

fluticasone response. These studies encompassed candidate gene approaches, and GWAS and the response phenotypes evaluated included FEV1 (forced expiratory volume 1) response and broncho protection.^[32]

BUDESONIDE

Budesonide is an inhaled glucocorticoid used as an anti-inflammatory agent in asthma patients. It functions by binding to the glucocorticoid receptor, thereby activating anti-inflammatory genes and suppressing proinflammatory genes in the lungs. Notably, specific genes such as CRHR1, STIP1, and GLCCI1 have been linked to the response to inhaled glucocorticoids. In a GWAS, researchers identified a variant in the GLCCI1 gene associated with a reduced response to inhaled glucocorticoids. These findings provide valuable insights into the genetic factors influencing the efficacy of budesonide in asthma treatment.^[55-58] Glucocorticoids exert their therapeutic effects by targeting a biological pathway involving biosynthetic hormones. These hormones bind to and activate a cytosolic chaperone-receptor heterocomplex in the cytosol. The activated complex then translocates into the nucleus, where it represses the transcription of proinflammatory genes while enhancing the transcription of anti-inflammatory genes. Notably, specific sequence variants in CRHR1 have been linked to improved lung function in asthmatic patients treated with inhaled corticosteroids. Similarly, the gene STIP1, which encodes the glucocorticoid receptor heterocomplex, has also been associated with improved lung function in subjects with asthma undergoing inhaled corticosteroid treatment. These findings highlight the significance of genetic factors in modulating the response to glucocorticoid therapy in asthma management.^[48-53]

PREDNISON

Prednisone is a systemic glucocorticoid utilized for treating asthma exacerbations and as a chronic controller therapy. By binding to the glucocorticoid receptor, it initiates the activation of anti-inflammatory genes and concurrently suppresses proinflammatory genes. This dual mechanism of action enables prednisone to mitigate inflammation in asthma patients effectively. Its role as both an acute treatment for exacerbations and a long-term controller therapy highlights its significance in managing asthma.^[46,47]

Bentley et al. conducted a study investigating how prednisolone treatment impacts gene expression in the

bronchial mucosa of individuals with asthma. The results of the study demonstrated that prednisolone treatment led to a decrease in the expression of genes related to inflammation, such as IL-4, IL-5 (interleukins), and interferon-gamma.^[59-61]

PERSONALIZED MEDICINE IN ANAESTHESIA: INTEGRATING GENETIC FACTORS FOR ENHANCED PATIENT MANAGEMENT

Anaesthesia, as a critical component of perioperative care, is an area where personalized medicine has the potential to revolutionize patient management. By considering an individual's genetic profile, anaesthesiologists can optimize drug selection, dosage, and administration techniques to enhance efficacy and minimize adverse effects.^[62]

According to a study by *Smith et al.* (2018), respiratory factors are crucial in individualized anaesthesia management. Factors such as lung function, respiratory comorbidities, and airway anatomy contribute to the variability in drug response and ventilation requirements during anaesthesia. Furthermore, genetic variations associated with respiratory function and drug metabolism can impact the efficacy and safety of anaesthetic agents.^[63]

PROPOFOL

Propofol is an essential drug with potential pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic variability. The pharmacodynamic variability of Propofol may be linked to the genes that encode the epsilon subunit of the GABA A receptor (GABRE). On the other hand, the pharmacokinetic variability of Propofol is potentially associated with the cytochrome P450 2B6 (CYP2B6) gene.^[64]

Propofol is an agonist for GABA receptors and inhibits glycine, nicotinic, and M1 muscarinic receptors. It undergoes metabolism by human UDP Glucuronosyltransferase family one member A9 (UGT1A9) and intestinal or liver microsomes. Additionally, it can be metabolized by cytochrome P450 3A4 (CYP3A4), primarily by CYP2B6 and cytochrome P450 2C9 (CYP2C9) (Table 1).^[65-68]

The results of Iohom and colleagues investigated the genetic determinants of propofol requirements and recovery from anaesthesia.^[69-75]

Table 1: Drugs and gene interaction and their response.

DRUGS	GENES	RESPONSES
Albuterol	ADRB2	Improved bronchodilation
	Arg16Gly, Arg19Cys, Glu27Gln, Val34Met, and Thr164Ile	Variable response
Salmeterol, Formoterol	Arg16	Bronchoprotective sensitivity
Fluticasone, Budesonide	CRHR1, STIP1 and GLCCI1	Inflammatory modulation, Lung function
Prednisone	IL-4, IL-5, and Interferon-gamma	↓inflammatory response
Propofol	UGT1A9, CYP 3A4, CYP 2B6 and CYP 2C9	Metabolism variation

CONCLUSION

Personalized medicine, focused explicitly on pharmacogenomics, shows significant potential in improving patient care and treatment outcomes for high-alert respiratory drugs. Utilizing individual genetic variations and response patterns enables healthcare providers to customize treatment plans, optimizing their effectiveness while minimizing adverse reactions. However, the successful integration of pharmacogenomics into respiratory drug therapy faces various challenges, including cost, availability, data interpretation, and routine healthcare integration. Despite these obstacles, personalized medicine remains vital for enhancing medication safety and addressing the complexities of high-alert respiratory drugs. Further research and dedicated efforts are necessary to advance the implementation of personalized medicine in respiratory medicine and ensure its widespread application for optimal patient care.

Abbreviations

Arginine-16 (Arg16)
 Beta-2 adrenergic receptor gene (ADRB2)
 Corticotropin-releasing hormone receptor 1 (CRHR1)
 Cytochrome P450 2B6 (CYP2B6)
 Cytochrome P450 2C9 (CYP2C9)
 Cytochrome P450 3A4 (CYP3A4)
 Forced expiratory volume 1 (FEV1)
 Glucocorticoid receptor co-chaperone protein (FKBP5)
 GABA A receptor (GABRE)
 Glucocorticoid induced 1 (GLCCI1)
 Glycine-16 (Gly16)
 Glutathione S-transferase gene (GSTP1)
 Genome-wide association study (GWAS)
 Glucocorticoid receptor (NR3C1)
 Interleukins (I.L.)
 Short-acting beta agonist (SABA)
 Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)
 Stress-Induced Phosphoprotein-1 (STIP1)
 TBX21 (T-box transcription factor 21)
 UDP Glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A9 (UGT1A9)

REFERENCES

1. Montuschi, P. (2010). Toward a personalized pharmacotherapy of respiratory diseases. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 1: 131.
2. Pirmohamed, M. (2015). Pharmacogenetics and personalized medicine. *Clinical Medicine*, 15(5): 424-426.
3. Johnson, J. A., et al. (2014). Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium Guidelines for CYP2D6 Genotype and Codeine Therapy: 2014 Update. *Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 95(4): 376-382.
4. Institute for Safe Medication Practices. (2018). High-Alert Medications in Acute Care Settings. Retrieved from <https://www.ismp.org/resources/high-alert-medication-acute-care-settings>
5. National Coordinating Council for Medication Error Reporting and Prevention. (2014). NCC MERP Index for Categorizing Medication Errors. Retrieved from <https://www.nccmerp.org/sites/default/files/indexRecommendationsFinal>
6. Petersen, A. K., et al. (2014). Evaluating pharmacogenetic strategies in complex diseases: an exploratory study in Alzheimer's disease. *Pharmacogenomics*, 15(5): 631-641.
7. Agusti, A. (2014). The path to personalized medicine in COPD. *Thorax*, 69(9): 857-864.
8. Reddel, H. K., et al. (2017). Should recommendations about starting inhaled corticosteroid treatment for mild asthma be based on symptom frequency: a post hoc efficacy analysis of the START study. *Lancet*, 389(10065): 157-166.
9. Cleveland, T. L. (2011). Pulmonary disorders. Patient education: a practical approach. Burlington: Jones & Bartlett.
10. Cukic, V., Lovre, V., Dragisic, D., & Ustamujic, A. (2012). Asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)—differences and similarities. *Materia Socio-Medica*, 24(2): 100-105.
11. World Health Organization. (2007). Global surveillance, prevention, and control of chronic respiratory diseases: a comprehensive approach. Geneva: WHO.
12. Kopp, B. J., et al. (2006). Medication errors and adverse drug events in an intensive care unit: direct observation approach for detection. *Critical Care Medicine*, 34(2): 415-425.
13. Qaseem, A., et al. (2011). Diagnosis and management of stable chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a clinical practice guideline update from the American College of Physicians, American Thoracic Society, and European Respiratory Society. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 155: 179-191.
14. World Health Organization. (2007). Global surveillance, prevention, and control of chronic respiratory diseases: a comprehensive approach. Geneva: WHO.
15. Adeloye, D., et al. (2015). Global and regional estimates of COPD prevalence: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Global Health*, 5(2): 020415.
16. Petersen, K. E., et al. (2014). Personalized Medicine, Availability, and Group Disparity: An Inquiry into How Physicians Perceive and Rate the Elements and Barriers of Personalized Medicine. *Public Health Genomics*, 17: 209-220.
17. Petersen, A., et al. (2014). Personalized medicine and pharmacogenomics: knowledge and attitudes of U.S. physicians. *Personalized Medicine*, 11(3): 209-220.
18. Sistonen, J., et al. (2010). Pharmacogenetic landscape of codeine metabolism: implications for the risk of opioid toxicity. *Pharmacogenomics Journal*, 10(5): 1-11.

19. Kittles, R. (2012). Genes and environments: moving toward personalized medicine in the context of health disparities. *Ethnicity & Disease*, 22(1): 43-46.
20. Need, A. C., & Goldstein, D. B. (2009). Next-generation disparities in human genomics: concerns and remedies. *Trends in Genetics*, 25: 489-494.
21. Weiss, S. T., et al. (2006). Overview of the pharmacogenetics of asthma treatment. *Pharmacogenomics Journal*, 6: 311-326.
22. Meyers, D. A., et al. (2014). Asthma genetics and personalized medicine. *Lancet Respiratory Medicine*, 2(5): 405-415.
23. Drazen, J. M., Silverman, E. K., & Lee, T. H. (2000). Heterogeneity of therapeutic responses in asthma. *British Medical Bulletin*, 56(4): 1054-1070.
24. Kalow, W., Tang, B. K., & Endrenyi, L. (1998). Hypothesis: comparisons of inter- and intra-individual variations can substitute for twin studies in drug research. *Pharmacogenetics*, 8(4): 283-289.
25. Israel, E., et al. (2004). Use of regularly scheduled albuterol treatment in asthma: a genotype-stratified, randomized, placebo-controlled cross-over trial. *Lancet*, 364(9444): 1505-1512.
26. Li, X., et al. (2013). A genome-wide association study identifies TH1 pathway genes associated with lung function in asthmatic patients—*Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, 132(2): 313-320.e315.
27. Reihnsaus, E., et al. (1993). Mutations in the gene encoding for the β 2-adrenergic receptor in normal and asthmatic subjects. *American Journal of Respiratory Cell and Molecular Biology*, 8: 334-339.
28. Hall, I. P. (2006). Pharmacogenetics of asthma. *Chest*, 130: 1873-1878.
29. Green, S. A., et al. (1993). A polymorphism of the human β 2-adrenergic receptor within the fourth transmembrane domain alters ligand binding and functional properties of the receptor. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 268: 23116-23121.
30. Green, S. A., et al. (2001). The Ile164 β 2-adrenoceptor polymorphism alters salmeterol exosite binding and conventional agonist coupling to G(s). *European Journal of Pharmacology*, 421: 141-147.
31. Green, S. A., et al. (1995). Influence of β 2-adrenergic receptor genotypes on signal transduction in human airway smooth muscle cells. *American Journal of Respiratory Cell and Molecular Biology*, 13: 25-33.
32. Ortega, V. E., et al. (2014). Effect of rare genetic variants in ADRB2 on risk of severe exacerbations and symptom control during long-acting beta-agonist treatment in a multiethnic asthma population. *Lancet Respiratory Medicine*, 2(3): 204-213.
33. Kukreti, R., et al. (2005). β (2)-adrenergic receptor polymorphisms and response to salbutamol among Indian asthmatics. *Pharmacogenomics*, 6: 399-410.
34. Bleecker, E. R., et al. (2006). Salmeterol response is unaffected by the beta2-adrenergic receptor genotype in subjects with persistent asthma. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, 118(4): 809-816.
35. Lee, D. K., et al. (2004). The arginine-16 beta2-adrenoceptor polymorphism predisposes to bronchoprotective subsensitivity in patients treated with formoterol and salmeterol. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 57(1): 68-75.
36. Lipworth, B. J., et al. (2013). Tailored second-line therapy in asthmatic children with the Arg16 genotype. *Clinical Science*, 124(8): 521-528.
37. Grainger, J., et al. (1991). Prescribed fenoterol and death from asthma in New Zealand, 1981-7: a further case-control study. *Thorax*, 46(2): 105-111.
38. Crane, J., et al. (1995). End of New Zealand asthma epidemic. *Lancet*, 345(8955): 984-985.
39. Pearce, N., et al. (1990). Case-control study of prescribed fenoterol and death from asthma in New Zealand, 1977-81. *Thorax*, 45(3): 170-175.
40. Pearce, N., et al. (1997). Fenoterol, asthma deaths, and asthma severity. *Chest*, 112(4): 1148-1150.
41. Stolley, P. D. (1972). Asthma mortality. Why the United States was spared an epidemic of deaths due to asthma. *American Review of Respiratory Disease*, 105(6): 883-890.
42. Peters, S. P., et al. (2008). Long-term safety and asthma control with budesonide/formoterol versus budesonide pressurized metered-dose inhaler in asthma patients. *Allergy and Asthma Proceedings*, 29(5): 499-516.
43. Sears, M. R., et al. (2009). Long-acting beta-agonists: a review of formoterol safety data from asthma clinical trials. *European Respiratory Journal*, 33(1): 21-32.
44. Chowdhury, B. A., Seymour, S. M., & Levenson, M. S. (2011). Assessing the safety of adding LABAs to inhaled corticosteroids for treating asthma. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 364(26): 2473-2475.
45. Hawkins, G. A., et al. (2006). Sequence, haplotype, and association analysis of ADRbeta2 in a multiethnic asthma case-control study. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 174(10): 1101-1109.
46. Peters, S. P., et al. (2007). Randomized comparison of strategies for reducing treatment in mild persistent asthma. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 356(20): 2027-2039.
47. Sorkness, C. A., et al. (2007). Long-term comparison of 3 controller regimens for mild-moderate persistent childhood asthma: the Pediatric Asthma Controller Trial. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, 119(1): 64-72.
48. Tantisira, K. G., et al. (2004). Corticosteroid pharmacogenetics: association of sequence variants in CRHR1 with improved lung function in asthmatics treated with inhaled corticosteroids. *Human Molecular Genetics*, 13(13): 1353-1359.
49. Hawkins, G. A., et al. (2009). The glucocorticoid receptor heterocomplex gene STIP1 is associated with improved lung function in asthmatic subjects treated with inhaled corticosteroids—*Journal of*

- Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 123(6): 1376-1383.e1377.
50. Tantisira, K. G., et al. (2004). TBX21: a functional variant predicts improvement in asthma with the use of inhaled corticosteroids. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 101(52): 18099-18104.
 51. Ye, Y. M., et al. (2009). Pharmacogenetic study of the effects of NK2R G231E G.A. and TBX21 H33Q C.G. polymorphisms on asthma control with inhaled corticosteroid treatment. *Journal of Clinical Pharmacy and Therapeutics*, 34(6): 693-701.
 52. Tantisira, K. G., et al. (2011). GLCCI1 and response to glucocorticoid therapy in asthma. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 365(13): 1173-1183.
 53. Tantisira, K. G., et al. (2012). TBX21: a functional variant predicts improvement in asthma with the use of inhaled corticosteroids. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 185(12): 1286-1291.
 54. Szeffler, S. J., et al. (2005). Characterization of within-subject responses to fluticasone and montelukast in childhood asthma. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, 115(2): 233-242.
 55. Himes, B. E., et al. (2009). Predicting response to short-acting bronchodilator medication using Bayesian networks. *Pharmacogenomics*, 10(9): 1393-1412.
 56. Duan, Q. L., et al. (2013). A polymorphism in the thyroid hormone receptor gene is associated with bronchodilator response in asthmatics. *Pharmacogenomics Journal*, 13(2): 130-136.
 57. Begin, P., & Nadeau, K. C. (2014). Epigenetic regulation of asthma and allergic disease. *Allergy, Asthma & Clinical Immunology*, 10(1): 27.
 58. Michel, S., et al. (2013). Farm exposure and time trends in early childhood may influence DNA methylation in genes related to asthma and allergy. *Allergy*, 68(3): 355-364.
 59. Bentley, A. M., et al. (1996). Prednisolone treatment in asthma: reduction in the number of eosinophils, T cells, tryptase-only positive mast cells, and modulation of IL-4, IL-5, and interferon-gamma gene expression within the bronchial mucosa. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 153: 551-556.
 60. Pizzichini, M. M., et al. (1997). Sputum in severe asthma exacerbations: kinetics of inflammatory indices after prednisone treatment. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 155: 1501-1508.
 61. Brown, H. M. (1958). Treatment of chronic asthma with prednisolone: significance of eosinophils in the sputum. *The Lancet*, 1: 1245-1247.
 62. Sher, E. R., et al. (1994). Steroid resistant asthma: a cellular mechanism contributing to inadequate response to glucocorticosteroid therapy. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 93: 33-39.
 63. Smith, A., & Howell, S. (2019). Personalized Medicine in Anesthesia. In *Clinical Precision Medicine*. Academic Press, 457-471.
 64. Smith, N. A., et al. (2018). Anesthesia considerations for thoracic surgery. In: *UpToDate*, Lockwood PA (Ed). UpToDate, Waltham, MA.
 65. Cordell, H. J., & Clayton, D. G. (2005). Genetic association studies. *Lancet*, 366: 1121-1131.
 66. Shin, D. J., et al. (2018). Propofol Is an Allosteric Agonist with Multiple Binding Sites on Concatemeric Ternary GABAA Receptors. *Molecular Pharmacology*, 93: 178-189.
 67. Nguyen, H. T., et al. (2009). Behaviour and Cellular Evidence for Propofol-Induced Hypnosis Involving Brain Glycine Receptors. *Anesthesiology*, 110: 326-332.
 68. Court, M. H., et al. (2001). Cytochrome P-450 2B6 Is Responsible for Interindividual Variability of Propofol Hydroxylation by Human Liver Microsomes. *Anesthesiology*, 94: 110-119.
 69. Pavlovic, D., et al. (2020). The Effect of UGT1A9, CYP2B6 and CYP2C9 Genes Polymorphism on Propofol Pharmacokinetics in Children. *Pharmgenomics Pers Med*, 13: 13.
 70. International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium. (2001). Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. *Nature*, 409: 860-921.
 71. Iohom, G., et al. (2007). An investigation of potential genetic determinants of propofol requirements and recovery from anaesthesia. *European Journal of Anaesthesiology*, 24: 912-919.
 72. Janicki, P. K., et al. (2006). A genetic association study of the functional A118G polymorphism of the human mu-opioid receptor gene in patients with acute and chronic pain. *Anesthesia and Analgesia*, 103: 1011-1017.
 73. Kalow, W. (1964). Pharmacogenetics and anaesthesia. *Anesthesiology*, 25: 377-387.
 74. Kalow, W., & Staron, N. (1957). On distribution and inheritance of atypical forms of human serum cholinesterase, as indicated by dibucaine numbers. *Canadian Journal of Biochemistry and Physiology*, 35: 1305-1320.
 75. Kim, H., et al. (2006). Genetic polymorphisms in monoamine neurotransmitter systems show only a weak association with acute post-surgical pain in humans. *Molecular Pain*, 2, 9.