

The Emerging Role of Pharmacomicrobiomics in Pharmacovigilance: Gut Microbiome as A Determinant of Drug Safety

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Article History

Received: 21.09.2025

Revised: 30.09.2025

Accepted: 22.10.2025

Published: 12.11.2025

Abstract: Pharmacomicrobiomics, the study of interactions between the gut microbiome and drugs, is emerging as a key factor in pharmacovigilance and drug safety evaluation. Traditional adverse drug reaction (ADR) detection methods often overlook individual microbial variability that significantly influences drug metabolism, efficacy, and toxicity. This review highlights the gut microbiome's pivotal role as a determinant of drug safety, exploring its mechanism in modulating drug responses and adverse effects. The integration of pharmacovigilance into personalized pharmacovigilance frameworks promises to enhance ADR prediction and prevention by considering individual microbiome profiles. Additionally, this article addresses regulatory and ethical considerations associated with microbiome data usage in drug safety monitoring. Future perspectives include overcoming challenges such as standardization, microbiome complexity, and data integration to fully realize personalized, microbiome-informed pharmacovigilance.

Keywords: Pharmacomicrobiomics, Gut Microbiome, Pharmacovigilance, Adverse Drug Reactions, Drug Safety.

INTRODUCTION

Pharmacomicrobiomics is an emerging multidisciplinary field that studies the impact of microbiome variation primarily the gut microbiome on how drugs absorbed, distributed, metabolized and excreted as well as their efficacy and toxicity. It explores the interaction between human microbiome (secondary genome) and pharmacology, aiming to explain variability in drug response beyond what pharmacogenomics accounts for. The gut microbiota, a highly diverse ecosystem can directly metabolize drugs, produced metabolites that interfere with drug action, and influence host drug-metabolizing enzymes, thus affecting individualized drug response and toxicity. The field is particularly relevant because it offers opportunities for modulating the microbiome through diet, probiotics, or antibiotics to optimize personalized medicine.

Pharmacovigilance is the science and activities focused on detecting, assessing, understanding, and preventing adverse drug reactions (ADRs), which are harmful or unintended responses to medicines. ADR monitoring is crucial because it ensures drug safety post-marketing, protecting patient health and minimizing clinical and financial burdens associated with drug-related harm. Despite improved pharmacovigilance practices, which limits the generation of comprehensive drug safety data. Structured training and enhanced involvement of healthcare professionals, especially pharmacists, significantly improve ADR reporting and reinforce drug safety surveillance systems.

There is a critical need to explore the gut microbiome as a missing link in explaining variability in drug response

and ADRs, a dimension that pharmacogenomics alone cannot fully explain. The microbiome contributes to up to 95% of inter-individual variability in drug response that genetics cannot clarify, acting through metabolic and immunomodulatory mechanisms that affect drugs, pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. This missing microbiome dimension is integral for understanding adverse drug effects and therapeutic failure, positioning pharmacomicrobiomics as a frontier to bridge this gap and adverse personalized medicine. The dynamic and modifiable nature of the microbiome makes it a compelling target for therapeutic intervention to minimize ADRs and optimize drug efficacy.

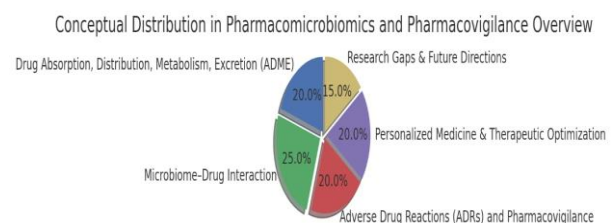


Figure 1: Conceptual Distribution in pharmacomicrobiomics and Pharmacovigilance

The current research gap lies in the limited systematic understanding of how the gut microbiome modulates drug response across diverse populations and drug classes. Most studies are preliminary, focused mainly on oral cardiovascular and chemotherapeutic drugs, and often fail to clinical outcomes. There is a pressing novelty in systematically characterizing drug-microbiome interactions (DMIs), their mechanistic basis, and applying this knowledge in clinical pharmacovigilance frameworks. This novel integration of

pharmacomicrobiomics within pharmacovigilance could improve ADR prediction, personalized therapy design, and drug safety monitoring on a population scale.

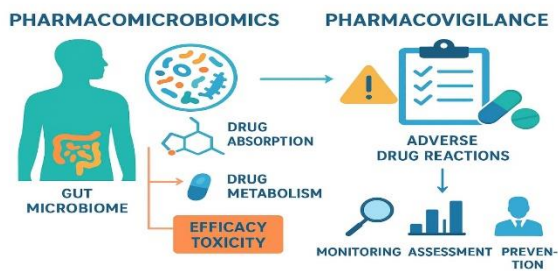


Figure 2: Pharmacomicrobiomics Vs Pharmacovigilance

Pharmacomicrobiomics: Concept and Scope

Pharmacomicrobiomics is the study of how variations in human microbiome influence drug deposition, action, metabolism and toxicity (vice versa) how drugs affect the composition and function of the microbiome. In simple terms, it explores the two way interaction between drugs and the gut microbiota (and other microbial communities in the body).

Key Concept of Pharmacomicrobiomics

1. Microbiome ~ Drug

- Microbes in the human body (especially gut bacteria) can metabolize, activate, inactivate, detoxify drugs before they are absorbed or reach their targets.

2. Drug~ Microbiome

- Drugs can alter the composition diversity, and function of the microbiota which may affect the health and disease outcomes.
- Thus, pharmacomicrobiomics is the branch of pharmacogenomics, but instead of studying *genes of humans* , it studies the gene of microorganisms that live in humans and how they affect pharmacological outcomes.

Scope and Applications of Pharmacomicrobiomics:

1. Personalised Medicine

- Helps in explaining inter individual variability in drug response not accounted for by genetics alone.
- Enables microbiome-based drug dosing or therapy adjustment.

2. Drug Discovery and Development

- Pharmaceutical industries can use microbiome data to :
 - a) Screen drugs for microbiome interactions early in development.

- b) Design drugs that are resistant to bacterial metabolism.
- c) Identify new microbial enzyme useful in biotransformation .

3. Therapeutic Modulation

- Use of prebiotics, or fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) to restore beneficial microbiota and improve drug efficacy.

4. Predicting drug Toxicity

- Understanding microbial metabolism helps prevent adverse effects, eg (irinotecan toxicity due to bacterial enzymes)

5. Cancer and Immunotherapy

- Certain gut bacteria improve response to checkpoint inhibitors (anti-PD-1 , anti-CTLA-4) in cancer therapy.
- Microbiome profiling could become part of oncology treatment planning.

6. Antibiotic Resistance and Microbiome Protection

- Supports rational antibiotic use and development of microbiome sparing drugs.

Microbial metabolism of drugs:

Gut microbes possess diverse enzymatic machinery capable of biotransforming drugs into active , inactive or toxic metabolites. For example

1. Digoxin

- microbial action : Inactivation by *Eggerthella lenta*
- Key enzyme : cardiac glycoside reductase
- Effect : reduce drug efficacy

2. L Dopa

- Microbial action : Decarboxylation to dopamine in gut
- Key enzyme : TDC
- Effect : Decreases availability for CNS absorption.

3. Irinotecan (CPT-11)

- Microbial action : Deconjugation of inactive glucuronide metabolite
- Key enzyme : β -glucuronidase
- Effect : diarrhea

Key microbial enzymes is as follows

1. **β -Glucuronidase:** Hydrolyzes glucuronide conjugates, reactivating drug metabolites (e.g., irinotecan toxicity).
2. **Azoreductase:** Cleaves azo bonds
3. **Nitroreductase:** Reduces nitro groups
4. **Sulphatase:** Hydrolyzes sulfate conjugates.

Microbial influence on Pharmacokinetics

1. Absorption

- Microbes alter intestinal pH, bile acid metabolism and mucosal permeability affecting drugs absorption.
- Example: Bile salt–deconjugating bacteria can change solubility of lipophilic drugs.

2. Metabolism

- Gut microbes can perform reduction, hydrolysis, deconjugation, and demethylation reactions before hepatic metabolism.
- They may activate or inactivate drugs (e.g., sulfasalazine activation; digoxin inactivation)

3. Distribution

- Microbial metabolites can affect **plasma protein binding** or compete for transporters, indirectly influencing drug distribution.

4. Excretion

- Microbial enzymes like β -glucuronidase can deconjugate drug-glucuronides excreted in bile, leading to enterohepatic recycling.

Inter individual variation in gut microbiota as follows

- Each individual harbours a unique Microbial composition influence by genetics ,diet ,age , antibiotic and environment.
- This leads to differences in Microbial enzyme levels , altering drug metabolism in between Individuals.
- Example: Some individuals have more *E. lenta* carrying the *cgr* operon, leading to stronger digoxin inactivation.

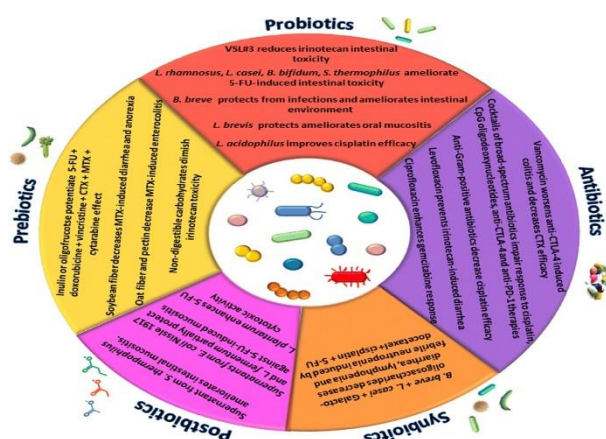


Figure 3: Microbial Enzymes Involved in Drug Metabolism

Pharmacovigilance and Traditional ADR Detection:

Pharmacovigilance is the science and activities related to the detection assessment understanding and presevention of advers effect or any other drug related problem. It plays a key role in ensuring drug safety after a medicine

is released to the marked complement pre clinical and clinical trial data.

What is an Advers Drug Reaction (ADR): An ADR is a harmful a unplesasent reaction resulting from the use of a medicinal product at normal doses or prevention ,diagnosis or therapy

WHO definition: A response to a drug that is noxious and unintended and occurs at doses normally used in human for prophylaxis ,diagnosis or therapy of disease

Objectives

- Identify unknown or rare ADRs
- Improve patient safety
- Ensure effective and safe use of medicines
- Support regulatory action (warning label changes or drug withdrawal
- Example: Mild .Nausea from antibiotic, Server. Liver toxicity anti TB drug, Life-threatening Anaphylaxis from penicillin

Traditinal Method of ADR Detection

Before advanced pharmacovigilance system ADRs were identified using traditional or classical method such as

1. Spontaneous (voluntary) Reporting System (SRS)

- Health care professionals or patients voluntarily report suspected ADR
- Reports are collected in national pharmacovigilance databases (eg, FDA CDSO PvPI
- Advantages
 - a. Simple ,inexpensive ,wide coverage
 - b. Useful for idenfying rare and unexpected ADRs

2. Case reports And case Serioes

- Detailed description of one or more individual patient experiences with a suspected ADRs
- Advantages:
 - a. Early signal of new or rare ADRs
 - b. Easy to collect
- Limitations:
 - a. Cannot prove causality
 - b. May reflect coincidence

3. Cohort and Case Control Studies (Epidemiological Method)

- Cohort: Follow a group of patient exposed to a drug and compare ADR incidence withan unexposed group.
- Case control: campare drug exposure between patient with ADR (cases) and without ADR (control)
- Advantages
 - a. Can estimate relative risk and causaliy
 - b. Good for hypothesis testing
- Limitation

- a. Expensive and time consuming
 - b. May have confounding variable
- 4. Prescription Event Monitoring (PEM)**
- Collect data on all patient receiving new drug via prescription records and follow
 - Advantages
 - a. Detect ADRs in real world population
 - b. Identifies frequency of event
 - Limitation
 - a. Large -scale data collection required
 - b. Delayed detection

Gut Microbiome as a Determinant of Drug Safety

Mechanistic Insights: Microbial Activation and Deactivation of Drugs

Gut microbes possess a vast array of enzymes that can chemically modify drugs, influencing their pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics:

1. **Activation:** Some drugs are prodrugs that require microbial metabolism to become active. - Example: Sulfasalazine is cleaved by colonic bacterial azoreductases into sulfapyridine and 5-aminosalicylic acid, its active anti-inflammatory components.
2. **Deactivation:** Microbes can inactivate drugs, reducing efficacy.
Example: Digoxin, a cardiac glycoside, is inactivated by *Eggerthella lenta* via cardiac glycoside reductase, impacting therapeutic outcomes.
3. **Reactivation of metabolites:** Microbial enzymes can reverse host detoxification processes. - Example: Irinotecan, a chemotherapy drug, is detoxified in the liver but reactivated in the gut by bacterial β -glucuronidase, leading to severe diarrhea.

Drug-Microbiome Interactions Leading to ADRs

- Irinotecan-induced diarrhea: As noted, microbial β -glucuronidase reactivates SN-38 (irinotecan's active metabolite), damaging intestinal epithelium.
- NSAIDs and gut injury: NSAIDs like diclofenac can alter microbial composition, increasing gut permeability and inflammation.
-
- L-DOPA metabolism: Gut bacteria like *Enterococcus faecalis* decarboxylate L-DOPA, reducing its availability for Parkinson's treatment

Role in Antibiotic Resistance, Hepatotoxicity, Neurotoxicity

1. **Antibiotic resistance**
 - Gut microbes harbor resistance genes that can be transferred to pathogens.
 - Broad-spectrum antibiotics disrupt microbial balance, promoting resistant strains.

2. Hepatotoxicity

- Dysbiosis can impair bile acid metabolism and increase endotoxin levels, contributing to liver inflammation and drug-induced liver injury (DILI).
 - Example: Acetaminophen toxicity is exacerbated by microbial modulation of glutathione metabolism.
- ### 3. Neurotoxicity
- Microbial metabolites like ammonia and short-chain fatty acids can cross the bloodbrain barrier
 - Dysbiosis may influence neuroactive drug metabolism, altering efficacy and side effects.

Dysbiosis and Altered Drug Response

1. Reduced drug efficacy: Loss of key microbial species can impair drug activation (e.g., sulfasalazine).
2. Increased toxicity: Overgrowth of β -glucuronidase-producing bacteria heightens irinotecan toxicity.
3. Immune modulation: Dysbiosis affects immune responses, altering outcomes of immunotherapies and vaccines.
4. Microbiome-based variability: Individual differences in microbiome composition contribute to interpatient variability in drug response, a key challenge in precision medicine.

Implications for Personalized Medicine

- Microbiome profiling may guide drug selection and dosing
- Co-administration of probiotics or β -glucuronidase inhibitors can mitigate ADRs.
- Fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) is being explored to restore microbial balance and improve drug safety

Pharmacomicrobiomics and Personalized Pharmacovigilance:

Pharmacomicrobiomics is the branch of pharmacology that investigates how variation in the human microbiota influence individual response to medications, including drug efficacy, toxicity, and metabolism.

1. Drug metabolism by microbes:

Microbes in the gut express diverse enzymes there are numerous enzymes including reductase, hydrolases, and dehydroxylate, are expressed by gut microbes and can make prodrug active.

Inactive medication (eg: *Eggerthella lenta*'s digoxin) they produce harmful byproducts, such as diarrhea caused by irinotecan reactivation.

2. Impact on the absorption of the drug:

Drug bioavailability may be impacted by gut bacteria that change intestinal pH, generate

metabolites, or modify transporters. Absorption of certain drugs may increase some toxicity.

3. Modulation of host enzymes microbial:

Short chain fatty acids they can regulate host cytochrome P450 enzymes, influencing systemic drug metabolism. The interaction can significantly impact drug pharmacokinetics, therapeutic efficacy, and adverse drug reaction. Bile acid metabolites regulating CYP3A4 through pregnane X receptor (PXR) and farnesoid X receptor (FXR) signaling.

4. Immune response modification:

Immune modulation, which is influenced by microbiota, can impact immunotherapy results and drug induced hypersensitivity. The gut microbiota plays a crucial role in the development and regulation of the host immune system. Eg: corticosteroids, biologics

Drawbacks of conventional pharmacovigilance:

Conventional systems, such as FDA's FAERS or Who is Vigibase, depend on spontaneous ADR reporting and frequently overlook individual biological diversity. even with the same medication and dosage, some individuals have severe adverse drug reaction (ADRs) and others do not, a phenomenon that cannot be explained by current models.

Customized ADR Forecasting:

Patient at risk of medication toxicity, such as diarrhea caused by irinotecan or hepatotoxicity from isoniazid, can be identified using microbiome analysis. Pharmacovigilance system mostly relies on patients and healthcare providers reporting adverse drug adverse on their own initiative, which frequently results in incomplete and underreported data. These technologies postpone the detection of safety concerns by only detecting signals after the population has exposed to the drug to a sufficient degree. Furthermore, their capacity to forecast individual diversity in drug reactions is diminished by reporting basis, a lack of real time monitoring and a limited integration of genetic or microbiome data.

Dynamic surveillance:

Metagenomic sequencing can be used to track changes in gut microbiota following treatment and forecast treatment changing ADR risk.

Pharmacovigilance Database integration:

Microbiome data fields can be incorporated into future pharmacovigilance systems, connecting ADR trends to microbial makeup.

Advances in research and technology: detailed mapping of the microbiome is made possible by next generation sequencing.

Clinical consequences:

Improves medication efficacy and safety by using microbiome – based satisfaction. It enhances ADR

management and precise dosage. Consequences make it easier to rationally develop drug that take microbial metabolism into account. It encourages proactive rather than reactive pharmacovigilance. A microbial dysbiosis can promote pro inflammatory immune profile increasing the risk of the induced hypersensitivity. In oncology, immune inhibitor such as nivolumab and pembrolizumab rely on immune modulation for efficacy. Microbial imbalance can trigger loss of immune tolerance, increasing susceptibility to autoimmune like ADRs such as induced lupus or hepatitis. Certain microbes produce pro-inflammatory metabolites that activates the innate immune system, increasing drug-induced organ injury. Biomarker based risk stratification helps identify susceptible patients before adverse immune reaction occurs. Eg gut flora sequencing

Obstacles and Prospects for the future for the pharmacovigilance:

- a) Problems with Standardization: Inconsistent procedure for micro biodata analysis and sampling
- b) Data complexities: It takes a lot of data resources to integrate microbiome data with pharmacovigilance databases.
- c) Consent and data privacy in individualized surveillance are ethical issues.
- d) Regulatory framework is required; the FDA, EMA and WHO must modify their policies to incorporate their risks based on microbiome-based risk management.

Personalized pharmacovigilance:

By combining genomes, pharmacogenomics, pharmacomicrobiomics, and real-world data, personalized pharmacovigilance is a contemporary, patient centered development of traditional drug safety monitoring that aims to anticipate, identify, and stop adverse drug reaction at the individual level. Personalized pharmacovigilance acknowledges that each person's genetic composition, microbiome composition, age, gender, comorbidities, and environmental factors influence medication metabolism and response, in contrast to traditional approaches that treat populations uniformly.

This strategy uses big data analytics, omics, machine learning, and artificial intelligence to forecast potential adverse drug reaction before they happen and to identify risk profiles unique to each individual. Patient with CYP2C9 or VKORC1 gene variants, for instance, responding differently to the warfarin and require customized dosage to avoid bleeding or clotting issues. Real-time signal detection is improved and safer, more efficient drug use is supported by incorporating such genetics insights into pharmacovigilance databases.

Additionally, by utilizing wearable technology, electronics health records, and patient- reported outcomes, personalized pharmacovigilance continuously

monitors safety signals in real-world settings, minimizing preventable adverse drug reaction, promoting precision medicine where monitoring and treatment are customized to each patient's unique characteristics and bridging the gap between pharmacovigilance and personalized medicine, it creates a dynamic, predictive, and patient-specific safety surveillance system for future healthcare.

REGULATORY AND ETHICAL PERSPECTIVES

Regulatory and Ethical Perspectives in Microbiome Data and Pharmacovigilance

Current regulatory gaps (FDA, EMA, ICMR)

1. FDA (United States)

There is no comprehensive, unified guidance specifically for microbiome post-marketing surveillance or standardized microbiome data submission formats for pharmacovigilance, despite the FDA having started evaluating microbiome-targeted therapies (LBPs, FMT products) and publishing clinical reviews for individual approvals. Instead of using a customized pharmacovigilance strategy for microbiome signals (such as changes in microbiome composition as AE indicators), safety reviews to far have concentrated on product-specific dossiers and established frameworks (biologics, microbial treatments).

2. EMA (European Union)

Although EU-level agreement on the regulation of FMT and other microbiome therapies is still developing, the EMA actively horizon-scans new microbiome interventions. According to EMA documentation, there is no universally accepted regulatory stance among Member States, and standardized regulatory science methodologies are required. This leaves holes in common post-authorization safety monitoring for microbiome impacts, cross-border data exchange, and uniform adverse-event classifications.

3. ICMR (India)

There are no widely known, India-specific regulatory guidelines for microbiome clinical data governance or pharmacovigilance (e.g., standardized metadata, sample handling, or adverse-event reporting tied specifically to microbiome perturbations), despite the fact that India conducts a substantial amount of microbiome research and refers to the ICMR's general ethical and human-subject research rules in microbiome studies. Numerous microbiome projects in India adhere to the current, non-microbiome-specific ICMR human-subject frameworks and clinical trial regulations. This raises questions about cross-

study comparability and uniform microbiome safety reporting.

Ethical challenges in microbiome data sharing and patient consent

1. Re-identification & 'microbial fingerprint' privacy risk:

Beyond the privacy concerns associated with traditional genomic data, microbiome profiles can occasionally function as a biometric signature. Once shared in public repositories, they may allow linking back to specific people or communities. It is common for informed consent forms to minimize this danger of re-identification.

2. Broad consent vs. granular consent:

Microbiome research often uses broad, open-ended data use statements (to enable future discovery), but this can conflict with participants' expectations about how their data — which may later be used for commercial biomarker development — will be used. Clear, tiered consent options are often missing.

3. Return of results and incidental findings:

It is still unclear how to evaluate a particular microbiome signature's clinical significance, and it is morally challenging to decide whether and how to provide participants with potentially actionable discoveries (or ambiguous "risk" signals).

4. Community and indigenous rights / benefit sharing:

Microbiome data from distinct populations (indigenous or geographically isolated groups) may carry commercial value. There are concerns about exploitation and lack of benefit sharing; call(s) exist for governance that respects community-level consent and safeguards cultural rights.

5. Data ownership & commercial use:

Patient expectations about ownership and the potential for downstream commercialization (e.g., proprietary probiotics) can clash with academic and industry incentives. This raises questions on transparency, licensing, and equitable benefit sharing.

6. Equity & representativeness:

It is still unclear how to evaluate a particular microbiome signature's clinical significance, and it is morally challenging to decide whether and how to provide participants with potentially actionable discoveries (or ambiguous "risk" signals) microbiome composition varies by diet, geography, and ethnicity. Under-representation of global populations in reference datasets risks biased safety signals and limits generalizability of pharmacovigilance findings.

Future need for microbiome-informed pharmacovigilance guidelines:

Individuals' responses to various drugs are significantly influenced by their human microbiota. Changes in the makeup of gut bacteria can affect how drugs are absorbed, metabolized, and eliminated, which may result in unanticipated side effects or therapeutic results. However, there are currently no mechanisms in place for the FDA, EMA, and ICMR's pharmacovigilance systems to include microbiome-related data into medication safety monitoring. This makes the development of future pharmacovigilance guidelines informed by the microbiome imperative. These guidelines should focus on collecting microbiome profiles of patients during clinical trials and post-marketing surveillance to understand how microbial imbalance contributes to adverse drug reactions. Standardized protocols for assessing microbial diversity, along with the integration of microbiome data into ADR databases, will help identify individual risk factors more precisely. Artificial intelligence and bioinformatics tools can also be utilized to predict potential drug-microbiome interactions before prescribing therapy. Furthermore, regulatory agencies must establish clear ethical frameworks for patient consent and microbiome data sharing to ensure transparency and privacy. Training programs for healthcare professionals about the impact of microbiota on drug safety will also be essential. Overall, integrating microbiome insights into pharmacovigilance can significantly enhance patient safety, minimize ADRs, and pave the way for personalized and precision-based therapeutics in the future.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND CHALLENGES:

Inclusion of microbiome screening in clinical trials

The human microbiome, especially the gut microbiota, has a key role in influencing drug absorption, metabolism, and the effectiveness of treatment. Yet, despite its increasing significance, microbiome analysis is still not regularly part of most clinical trials. Including microbiome screening in clinical studies is an important step forward in the field of personalized medicine.

Including microbiome screening would help researchers see how different types of microbes affect how safe and effective drugs are. For example, some gut bacteria can turn drugs on or off, change how much of the drug the body uses, or even make harmful substances. Knowing these connections could let doctors predict how a patient will react to a drug and adjust their treatment plan. Also, studying the microbiome might find new signs that show how diseases develop, how well treatments work, or if there are unwanted side effects.

The integration of microbiome screening into routine clinical research faces several key challenges. One major issue is the absence of standardized protocols for sample collection, DNA sequencing, and data analysis, which results in inconsistent and non-reproducible findings across studies. Additionally, the high variability in the

microbiome between individuals, influenced by factors such as diet, lifestyle, age, and geographic origin, complicates the development of universal reference standards. Interpreting complex microbiome data also requires specialized bioinformatics tools and expertise, which are not yet commonly available in clinical settings.

Moreover, ethical and regulatory concerns, including data privacy and the need for clear guidelines on microbiome data storage and usage, must be addressed. Despite these hurdles, continuous technological progress and a deeper understanding of host-microbiome interactions are making microbiome screening an increasingly important component of precision medicine.

Development of probiotic/prebiotic co-therapies to minimize ADRs.

Introduction:

Adverse drug reactions (ADRs) are a major cause of morbidity, healthcare costs, and treatment discontinuation. Growing evidence suggests that the gut microbiome influences drug metabolism and host immune responses, which in turn can affect both the efficacy and toxicity of many medications. Probiotic and prebiotic interventions, either alone or in combination, offer a promising approach to modulate the microbiome in a way that reduces ADRs, improves tolerability, and expands the therapeutic window of existing treatments. This section outlines the scientific rationale, proposed development pathway, clinical trial considerations, mechanisms of action, regulatory and safety concerns, and remaining challenges for probiotic/prebiotic co-therapies aimed at minimizing ADRs.

1. Mechanism-driven, indication-specific product development

Move from empirical to mechanistic design. For each drug or class (e.g., chemotherapeutics, antimicrobials, cardiac glycosides, immunotherapies), identify microbiome-mediated pathways that drive ADRs-specific enzymes, metabolites, or taxa and design probiotic/prebiotic interventions aimed at those mechanisms. Example approaches include:

- Selecting strains that lack (or competitively inhibit) drug-activating enzymes.
- Encouraging the growth of bacteria that make butyrate by using specific foods, which can help protect the gut lining from inflammation.
- Using probiotics that help the immune system function better to manage side effects related to the immune system.

2. Personalized, baseline-guided interventions

Create tests that check a person's gut bacteria before starting a treatment to see how likely they are to have side effects and to help decide which other medicines to use together.

By using computer models trained on data about gut bacteria, body chemicals. And genetic information,

we can group people into those who are more likely to respond and those who may not, and suggest whether to take preventive measures or wait for side effects to happen.

3. Symbiotic and formulation science

Improve the effectiveness of probiotic products by combining specific strains of bacteria with the right food sources. Also, invest in ways to package these products so that the bacteria stay alive during storage and while passing through the stomach, and reach the right part of the gut.

4. Multi-omics and biomarker development

Use detailed studies that look at changes in gut bacteria, body chemicals, and immune system responses over time during early trials to find markers that can:

- Help predict if someone will have side effects,
- Track changes in gut bacteria while on treatment, and
- Show how the treatment is working based on biological processes for approval by health officials.

5. Standardization and reference frameworks

Make clear guidelines for collecting samples, analysing gut bacteria, and reporting results. Create shared databases that show how different drugs interact with gut bacteria across different groups of people and places, making it easier to understand and apply findings in other situations.

6. Co-development with drug sponsors

Work together early between companies that make probiotics and the companies making new medicines, so that the two can be tested together in clinical trials. This helps get results faster and clarify how the probiotic works with the drug, and what claims can be made about it.

7. Regulatory science and evidence generation

Talk with health officials to define what kind of proof is needed to show a probiotic helps reduce side effects-like showing a meaningful drop in the number or seriousness of side effects, and having a clear explanation of how it works. Create strong evidence from controlled studies and also use real-world data to show how it works in different situations.

Challenges: interindividual variability, causality establishment, cost:

1. Interindividual Variability

One of the biggest problems when creating probiotic and prebiotic treatments together is the big differences in people's gut bacteria. Everyone's gut bacteria are influenced by things like genes, what they eat, their age, where they live, the medications they take, and their lifestyle. Because of these differences, a probiotic or prebiotic that helps one person might not work for another. This makes it hard to make one-size-fits-all

treatments and predict how well they will work. To fix this, we need treatments that are customized to each person's gut bacteria, but those kinds of treatments are still complicated and expensive.

For example, two people taking the same probiotic might have very different results. One might feel better and have fewer side effects, while the other might not see any improvement or even have negative reactions.

Also, the makeup of a person's gut bacteria, or microbiome, affects how well introduced microbes work. A probiotic must compete with the existing gut bacteria to survive and do its job. If the gut environment isn't suitable, the probiotic might not stick around or work as it should.

Another important factor is what someone eats. For instance, diets high in fibre can lead to different results compared to low-fibre diets. This influences how prebiotics are broken down and which types of gut bacteria thrive. Because of this, it's hard to predict the same outcome for everyone.

To deal with this, future research should focus on personalized or precision-based approaches that take into account each person's unique microbiome. However, creating these tailored solutions needs advanced technology, detailed data analysis, and proper testing. These steps make the process more expensive and complex. Until these methods improve, differences between individuals will continue to make it difficult to achieve consistent results.

2. Causality Establishment

Another big challenge is proving that changes in the gut bacteria actually cause less side effects from drugs.

Many studies only show that certain bacteria are connected to drug side effects, but they don't prove that the bacteria are the real cause. To show real cause and effects, we need good experiments using animals with controlled gut bacteria, lab models of the gut, and long-term studies in people that clearly link certain bacteria to drug responses. Without clear proof of cause and effect, it's hard to create targeted treatments or get them approved for use.

To prove that a cause and effect relationship exists between gut microbes and adverse drug reactions (ADRs), scientists need to do detailed research. They have to show that changing certain microbes like adding, taking away, or altering them can directly affect whether or not ADRs happen or how severe they are. This usually involves:

- Using germ free animals, where the gut microbes can be carefully controlled to see how specific bacteria influence ADRs.
- Using lab made models of the gut and systems that simulate human intestinal conditions to study how drugs and microbes interact.

- Following people over time to track how their gut microbes change before, during, and after taking medication, while closely watching for any ADRs.

But doing these kinds of studies is really hard and takes a lot of time and money. The gut microbiome is made up of many different microbes, their byproducts, and the body's own immune system, all of which interact in complicated ways. This makes it tough to figure out exactly what causes ADRs.

Without clear proof that a specific microbe or group of microbes is actually causing ADRs, it's hard to get regulators to approve probiotics or prebiotics that are meant to reduce ADRs.

So, proving causality is one of the biggest challenges in this area of science and regulation.

3. High Cost and Resource Requirements

Another big issue is the high cost of developing treatments based on the microbiome. It takes a lot of money and special skills for things like testing large amounts of bacteria, analysing data, doing lab tests, and running clinical trials. Also, making probiotic products that are safe and high quality according to strict rules adds to the cost. Making treatments that are tailored to each person's gut bacteria makes it even more expensive. For poorer countries or smaller research groups, these costs can make it really hard to develop these new treatments.

The research process is quite costly. Doing things like microbiome sequencing, looking at genetic material from microbes, and studying how microbes and drugs interact with the body needs trained experts and expensive tools. To get reliable results that can be trusted, big clinical studies with people from different backgrounds are needed, which makes everything more expensive.

When it comes to making the probiotics, keeping the good bacteria alive and safe during storage and when they are given to patients adds to the cost. These microbes need to stay active, so special temperature control, packaging methods, and ongoing checks are required to make sure they work properly.

Also, making custom probiotic or prebiotic products for each person, which might be needed to handle differences between individuals, is even more expensive. This involves checking each person's gut bacteria, designing a product that works for them, and making it in a way that fits their needs. Right now, this process is too expensive to be used in regular medical care.

In poorer countries, cost is a big problem, making it hard for people to get these advanced treatments even if they work.

So, creating cheaper ways to make, test, and deliver these therapies will be key to making them widely available.

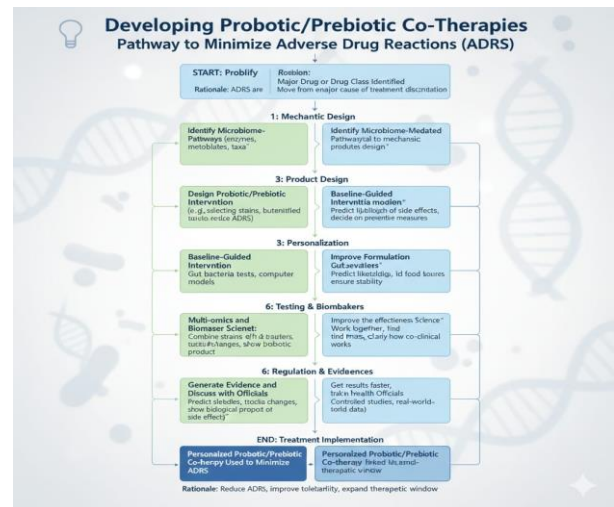


Figure 4: Pathway To Minimize Adverse Drug Reaction (ADRs)

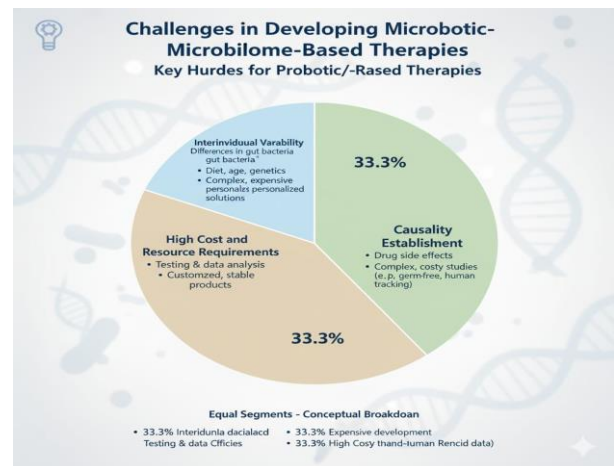


Figure 5: Challenges in Developing Microbiome-Based Therapies

DISCUSSION:

The integration of pharmacomicrobiomics into pharmacovigilance marks a paradigm shift in drug safety monitoring by recognizing the gut microbiome as a critical determinant of individual drug response. Traditional pharmacovigilance systems, which rely heavily on spontaneous reporting and population-level data, often overlook the profound influence of microbial variability on drug metabolism, efficacy, and toxicity. Microbial enzymes such as β -glucuronidase, cardiac glycoside reductase, and decarboxylases can activate, inactivate, or reactivate drugs, leading to adverse drug reactions (ADRs) that are not predictable through genetic profiling alone. For example, the reactivation of irinotecan's toxic metabolite by gut bacteria exemplifies how microbial activity can directly contribute to drug-induced harm.

Personalized pharmacovigilance, informed by microbiome profiling, offers a more precise and

proactive approach to ADR prediction and prevention. By incorporating metagenomic sequencing, machine learning, and real-time monitoring technologies, clinicians can stratify patients based on microbiome-related risk factors and tailor therapies accordingly. This approach not only enhances drug efficacy and safety but also supports the development of microbiome-sparing drugs and probiotic/prebiotic co-therapies. However, challenges such as data standardization, regulatory gaps, and ethical concerns around microbial data privacy must be addressed to fully realize the potential of microbiome-informed pharmacovigilance. As the field evolves, integrating microbiome insights into clinical trials and pharmacovigilance databases will be essential for advancing precision medicine and minimizing preventable ADRs.

CONCLUSION:

Pharmacomicrobiomics is redefining the landscape of pharmacovigilance by identifying the gut safety, efficacy, and adverse outcomes. The integration of microbial genomics with pharmacological profiling enables a mechanistic variations contribute to differential drug response and toxicities. Modern approaches such as shotgun metagenomics, metatranscriptomics, and metabolomics allow precise characterization of drug-microbiome interactions, but the field still lacks standardized technical and analytical frameworks comparable to conventional pharmacokinetics or pharmacodynamics

Establishing universally accepted guidelines that define sampling procedures, sequencing platforms, bioinformatic pipelines, and data interpretation is essential for translating pharmacomicrobiomics into clinical pharmacovigilance. Moreover, regulatory harmonization-particularly by agencies such as the FDA and EMA should prioritize incorporating microbiome derived biomarkers into adverse drug reaction detection and risk-benefit assessment models. Ethical stewardship will remain central, ensuring that microbiome derived data are managed with privacy, consent and equitable access in mind.

Ultimately, the convergence of pharmacomicrobiomics and pharmacovigilance promises a paradigm shift toward predictive and preventive medicine where adverse reaction can be anticipated and mitigated before they manifest. By integrating microbial signatures into regulatory frameworks and clinical drug monitoring systems, future pharmacovigilance will evolve into a precision model that safeguards drug safety while model that safeguards drug safety while maximizing therapeutic benefit

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