



RESEARCH ARTICLE – CHEMICAL ENGINEERING (MISCELLANEOUS)

Precision Medicine Approaches in Renal Cell Carcinoma: Integrating Multi-Omics Data for Personalized Therapeutic Strategies

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Article Info.	Abstract
<p><i>Article history:</i></p> <p>Received 08 October 2025</p> <p>Revised 31 October 2025</p> <p>Accepted 11 November 2025</p> <p>Published 31 December 2025</p>	<p>The inherent heterogeneity of Renal Cell Carcinoma (RCC) is a major obstacle to its treatment which necessitates the implementation of precision medicine approaches. The presented work introduces a full-scale computational model for quantitative modeling and evaluation of therapy plans by means of multi-omics data integration. A scaled synthetic dataset of 1,200 RCC patients was generated, including clinical information, gene expression data, and patient somatic mutation data, which carry intrinsic molecular signals of simulated treatment efficacy and patient survival. In order to predict treatment response, trained three machine learning models: Logistic Regression (accuracy), the Random Forest (accuracy and the Gradient Boosting (area under the curve (AUC)). All models achieved an ideal value of 1.00. This validated their good ability to determine molecular drivers and they ran a good analysis using Random Forest feature importance analysis to determine the important genes affecting their prediction. Treatment efficacy was therapeutically relevant, showing a highly significant difference in prognosis between Non-Responders and Responders ($p < 0.005$) as shown by the survival comparison analysis based on Kaplan-Meier curves and using a Log-rank test. Multi-omics characteristics were also tested to be prognostically independent of survival in a Cox Proportional Hazards model. Unsupervised K-Means clustering has revealed that various groups of patients existed and that UMAP visualization showed an excellent level of agreement with such molecular groupings and response to treatment. This article demonstrates a successful proof of principle of an integrative computational approach that is able to accurately predict the outcome of a treatment protocol, discover important biomarkers and characterize a population into physiologically meaningful subpopulations. These findings demonstrate the tremendous potential of the multi-omics model to improve patient care for individuals with renal cell carcinoma.</p>

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1. Introduction

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a global health problem that is defined as structural abnormalities or progressive or permanent loss of renal function for 3 months or more, which is usually associated with a decrease in glomerular filtration rate (GFR) of less than 60 mL/min/1.73 m² or persistent proteinuria, which can lead to end-stage renal disease (ESRD) or kidney failure [1]. Having a multifactorial pathogenesis and an intrinsic molecular heterogeneity, renal cell carcinoma (RCC) represents a significant challenge to global health because the diagnosis and treatment of the disease are constantly changing [2]. It is time to escape the one-size-fits-all approach and apply an individualized, patient-focused regimen, especially when it comes to neoplasms, whose clinical behavior and response to therapy are heterogeneous, such as RCC [3]. The aim of such an approach, precision medicine [4], is to utilize the genetic and molecular profile of the individual for making treatment, prognostic, and diagnostic decisions. Precision medicine aims to extend beyond the traditional histopathological classification, to identify more specific biomarkers that allow better patient stratification from a risk, drug-responsive or outcome prospective. High-throughput sequencing and other "omics" technologies have presented a unique opportunity to profile cancer at a molecular level [4]. Multi-omics methodologies, that is, the gathering of data across multiple layers of biology such as transcriptomics (gene expression), proteomics (protein abundance), genomics (DNA mutations), and epigenomics give us an integrated view of a tumor landscape [2, 3]. Integration of these disparate data sets enables researchers to move beyond a one-gene-at-a-time analysis and model the complex molecular signatures and pathways that direct disease progression and determine therapeutic outcome [5]. This multi-disciplinary approach has enabled discoveries of clinically relevant mutations and gene expression profiles which can be leveraged for improved risk stratification and development of personalized RCC treatments [2, 6]. However, the large scale and complexity of such multi-omics data provide a challenge to the use of more advanced computational algorithms controlled enough to allow the extraction of meaningful biological information. The processes of completing and analyzing multi-omics data are reasonably well served by machine learning and AI methodologies [2, 6]. Gigantic datasets may contain subtle, non-linear patterns and interactions that are neglected by traditional statistical techniques, but our computational pipelines are optimally suited to detect them [7]. Based on their combined clinical and genetic characteristics, machine learning algorithms may be trained to predict patient outcomes such as survival and therapeutic response. Holdsworth and Hawkins also suggest that unsupervised learning strategies may be used to describe novel molecular subgroups or patients who are indistinguishable on clinical staging alone, a first step in tailoring treatment approaches [8].

Nomenclature & Symbols			
RCC	Renal Cell Carcinoma	CKD	Chronic Kidney Disease
AUC	Area Under the Curve	HCV	Hepatitis C virus
GFR	Glomerular Filtration Rate	ESRD	End-Stage Renal Disease
Cox PH	Cox Proportional Hazards	AHP	Analytic Hierarchy Process
WCSS	Within-Cluster Sum of Squares	NGAL	Neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin
UMAP	Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection	EHRs	Electronic Health Records
ROC	Receiver Operating Characteristics	EMRs	Electronic Medical Records
Gene_Expr	Gene Expression	PHRs	Personal Health Records
MCDM	Multi-Criteria Decision Making	TOPSIS	Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution

This method has been very useful in precision oncology for the identification of signatures related to immunogenic cell death and other key prognostic variables in cancer such as bladder cancer and RCC [7, 8]. Thus, with the aim of investigating precision medicine in RCC, in this study a quantitative and computational method is applied rigorously. Train and validate machine learning predictors of patient subtyping and prediction of response to therapy by integrating simulated multi-omics data. Our method includes a stringent survival analysis to verify the prognostic significance of our predictions. To ascertain the genetic etiology of illness, stratify patients into relevant subgroups, and finally provide a proof-of-concept for personalized treatment options in RCC, the project hopes to prove the feasibility and potential of an integrated computational model.

The novelty of the study lies in the construction of a scalable, fully synthetic RCC multi-omics dataset incorporating both gene expression and mutational profiles, which allows controlled validation of machine learning models for patient stratification and treatment response prediction. Unlike prior studies limited to data with missing values or noise, this framework enables benchmarking of computational pipelines under well-defined molecular signals.

2. Literature Review

The quest for precision medicine revolutionized oncology by refocusing interest away from generic therapy to personalized treatment based on the unique biological signature of each patient [9]. The study investigated risk factors associated with chronic kidney disease (CKD) among 300 participants (150 cases and 150 controls) from several hospitals in Baghdad's Medical City Complex. Results showed that CKD was most common among individuals aged 50–59 years, with significant associations between CKD and gender, residency, and medical history ($p < 0.05$). Major risk factors identified included hypertension, acute kidney injury, HCV infection, hyperlipidemia, renal stones, anemia, and cardiovascular disease, all showing a significant relationship with CKD. Additionally, alcohol consumption ($p = 0.004$) and use of antihypertensive drugs ($p = 0.000$) were significantly linked to increased CKD risk. The study concludes that these factors substantially contribute to CKD development and progression, recommending public education on CKD risk factors, promotion of healthy lifestyles, alcohol cessation programs, and regular kidney function monitoring (GFR and other tests) to prevent or manage disease progression [1]. A significant characteristic of this new revolution is the ability to generate and understand large quantities of biological data generated by "omics" technology [10]. The need to use Multi-Criteria Decision-Making (MCDM) techniques has emerged in order to classify diseases, A study using real data from 1,000 patients at Al-Kadhimiya Teaching Hospital analyzed seven diseases (anemia, hyperlipidemia, lipid disorders, renal failure, hepatitis, liver disorders, and jaundice). After confirming data consistency, the TOPSIS method was applied to rank the diseases by their relative importance to doctors. Renal failure ranked highest, while jaundice ranked lowest. The results demonstrated that both the AHP and TOPSIS methods effectively differentiate between diseases based on their importance [11]. A potent approach that provides a perspective of a disease is the integration of multi-omics data, i.e., information on different levels of the molecule, i.e., the genome, transcriptome, and proteome [12, 13]. This multi-omics integrative approach is required to envision the complex multi-level dysregulation of very complex diseases, such as cancer, and guide towards a better comprehension of disease pathways so often overlooked by single-omics studies. Multi-omics use has also resulted in significant advances in the determination of potential therapeutic vulnerabilities and the interpretation of the genetic heterogeneity of renal cell carcinoma (RCC). Multi-omics data integration has been reported to identify subtype-specific features and distinguish patients into molecular subtypes with distinct clinical prognoses [14]. It is much more effective than standard clinical staging in isolation; it allows more precise prognostic forecasting and helps to apply the most relevant treatment plans [15]. Due to its ability to enable the identification of statistically as well as clinically significant biomarkers, the integration of omics data with clinical data is considered the future of predictive and personalized medicine [9, 10]. The heterogeneity of data due to nature, size and intrinsic noise, however, represents big challenges towards successful integration of multi-omics data [10]. Based on computation, data science- and machine learning-based methodologies are becoming progressively essential to handle these issues [12, 16]. This is a very suitable task for machine learning models, ranging from supervised learning approaches, such as for prognostic prediction and clinical significance of individual genes, to unsupervised learning for the discovery of new molecular subtypes [15]. These models have the potential to uncover hidden patterns and intricate, non-linear relationships that characterize patient cohorts or predict treatment responses [13]. One recent study for instance performed a correlation of molecular profiles with clinical outcomes and demonstrated the potential of new therapeutic strategies in the precision medicine concept based on a machine learning platform to identify a distinct immunogenic cell death-related signature in clear cell RCC [7]. This review highlights the impact of the Internet of Things (IoT) on healthcare delivery, emphasizing its role in reducing costs, improving treatment outcomes, and enabling remote patient monitoring. IoT technologies enhance doctor-patient interaction, increase patient participation and satisfaction, and help reduce hospital stays and readmissions. However, challenges such as high implementation costs, limited government support, and resistance from healthcare professionals hinder widespread adoption despite its clear healthcare benefits [17]. This study examined renal impairment in multiple myeloma patients by assessing the relationship between Neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin (NGAL) and β 2-microglobulin with kidney function markers. Results from 120 patients and 60 healthy controls showed a significant increase in urea, creatinine, total protein, globulin, β 2-microglobulin, and NGAL levels in myeloma patients ($p = 0.000$), indicating notable renal dysfunction. The findings highlight that elevated NGAL and β 2-microglobulin are strong indicators of kidney damage associated with multiple myeloma [18]. True precision oncology is now seen to be largely dependent, in large measure, on this kind of integrated computational research [12, 19]. This study addresses the challenge of ranking E-health Industry 4.0 systems based on Blockchain by proposing a multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) approach focused on privacy and security

evaluation. Using the SFS-FWZIC method to determine the significance of privacy and security properties and the Grey-TOPSIS method to handle data variation and optimization, the study ranks EHRs, EMRs, and PHRs across seven key properties. Results show that access control had the highest importance, while secure search had the lowest. Sensitivity and correlation analyses confirmed the stability of the results. The proposed approach enhances decision-making, strengthens privacy and security, and supports more effective and efficient healthcare delivery [13]. From informing treatment choice in metabolic disease to tracking response to immune therapy in cancers like melanoma, the applications of such computational approaches cut across many facets of disease management [19, 20]. As continued research works to create new frameworks and algorithms to overcome current shortcomings, like managing missing data and validating findings in heterogeneous patient groups, the field of multi-omics data science continues to shift [5, 10]. The continued development of these state-of-the-art data-intensive methods, which have the potential to maximize the utility of multi-omics profiling in the context of more efficient and personalized patient therapy, is closely intertwined with the future of precision medicine and cancer [16]. This literature review not only gives a good background but also a sound scientific premise to the approach utilized in this study and underlines the central importance of computational modelling and multi-omics integration to the creation of precision medicine.

Unlike previous studies that focused on either clinical or genomic data alone, the current work introduces a unified computational pipeline integrating clinical, transcriptomic, and mutational data. This integration enables prediction of treatment response and survival analysis within a synthetic but biologically coherent cohort.

To consolidate the reviewed literature, Table 1 summarizes the principal studies relevant to multi-omics integration and precision medicine. Each entry outlines the methodological approach, dataset characteristics, and the specific strengths and limitations that inform the current research.

Table 1. Summary of related works on multi-omics, computational modeling, and precision medicine in RCC and related diseases (2021–2025)

Reference & Year	Method / Approach	Dataset / Context	Strengths	Weaknesses
Valenti <i>et al.</i> , 2021 [6]	Multi-omics monitoring of immunotherapy response	Melanoma multi-omics datasets	Demonstrated immunotherapy-linked molecular tracking	Non-RCC context; limited cross-validation
Hu & Jia, 2021 [21]	Multi-omics profiling for metabolic diseases	Integrated metabolic omics data	Illustrated predictive capability across biological systems	Focused on metabolism, not oncology
Correa-Aguila <i>et al.</i> , 2022 [4]	Multi-omics data integration in precision oncology	Review of computational frameworks	Defined core layers of omics integration (genome, transcriptome, proteome)	Theoretical; lacks experimental validation
Raufaste-Cazavieille <i>et al.</i> , 2022 [20]	Multi-omics analysis for cancer treatment	Review in immunoncology	Outlined computational pipeline for omics-based therapy design	No case-specific results; conceptual level only
Sharma <i>et al.</i> , 2022 [11]	Precision-medicine framework in RCC	Clinical & molecular literature review	Connected genomic variations with therapeutic outcomes	Did not implement algorithmic modeling
Inas <i>et al.</i> , 2022 [18]	Biomarker correlation (NGAL & β_2 -microglobulin)	Clinical samples (n = 180)	Identified renal dysfunction markers	Small cohort; not omics-integrated
Sabri <i>et al.</i> , 2023 [19]	Epidemiological risk-factor analysis for CKD	Case-control (n = 300, Baghdad)	Quantified key CKD predictors	Limited to statistics; lacks molecular depth
Sura <i>et al.</i> , 2023 [10]	AHP-TOPSIS decision-support ranking	Clinical hospital dataset (n = 1000)	Demonstrated multi-criteria disease prioritization	No AI or omics involvement
Bismark <i>et al.</i> , 2023 [12]	IoT-based healthcare systems	Digital-health datasets	Improved patient monitoring & interaction	Indirect medical linkage to RCC
Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2023 [15]	ML-driven ICD-related RCC signature	TCGA-RCC (101 ML combinations)	High AUC (0.94); strong generalization	Requires external dataset validation
Ali, 2023 [7]	Artificial intelligence for multi-omics integration	Genomic & synthetic data	Introduced AI feature-extraction workflow	Lacks case-specific evaluation
Qahtan <i>et al.</i> , 2023 [3]	Blockchain-based Grey-TOPSIS MCDM	E-Health Industry 4.0 systems	Enhanced data privacy and decision stability	Non-biomedical omics relevance
Ahmed, 2023 [8]	Multi-omics strategies for predictive medicine	Translational biomedical studies	Summarized translational opportunities	No ML validation pipeline
Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2023 [17]	Supervised ML + Multi-Omics (IMMT gene)	TCGA-RCC dataset	Revealed prognostic biomarker utility	Focused on single-gene significance
Molla & Bitew, 2024 [14]	Multi-omics data generation and integration hurdles	Cross-omics review	Highlighted technical limitations and future needs	Conceptual; no model testing
Zaravinos, 2024 [16]	Data-science perspective in oncology	Review of precision-medicine datasets	Discussed future AI-omics synergy	No quantitative experiments
Ruan <i>et al.</i> , 2024 [9]	Single-cell + bulk multi-omics integration	RCC patient cohorts	Identified subtype-specific RCC molecular traits	Absence of synthetic-data benchmarking
Acharya & Mukhopadhyay, 2024[5]	Review of ML for multi-omics integration	Computational oncology survey	Classified ML algorithms for omics fusion	No quantitative performance analysis
Delrue & Speeckaert, 2024[1]	Omics-driven kidney-pathophysiology modeling	Renal molecular studies	Linked omics findings to kidney pathology	No predictive modeling
Gavi <i>et al.</i> , 2025 [13]	Review – multi-omics in RCC precision medicine	<i>Current Urology Reports</i>	Synthesized the current omics landscape in RCC	Narrative scope; lacks algorithmic validation
Yan <i>et al.</i> , 2025 [2]	ML-based multi-omics for bladder + RCC	Multi-cancer datasets	Developed an immune-profiling model with predictive power	Deep models are less interpretable
Proposed Study (2025)	Synthetic RCC multi-omics + ML (RF, GB, LR)	Synthetic 1200-patient dataset	Integrates omics layers with statistical and survival validation	Needs future real-data deployment

Note; AHP – Analytic Hierarchy Process; AUC – Area Under the Curve; CKD – Chronic Kidney Disease; GB – Gradient Boosting; ICD – Immunogenic Cell Death; IoT – Internet of Things; LR – Logistic Regression; ML – Machine Learning; MCDM – Multi-Criteria Decision Making; NGAL – Neutrophil Gelatinase-Associated Lipocalin; RF – Random Forest; RCC – Renal Cell Carcinoma; TCGA – The Cancer Genome Atlas; TOPSIS – Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution.

As shown in Table 1, most previous works either focused on clinical or genomic data in isolation, or lacked synthetic validation frameworks. The proposed model in this study overcomes these limitations by integrating clinical, transcriptomic, and mutational data within a controlled synthetic environment, enabling rigorous benchmarking and interpretability.

3. Proposed Method

The research design adopted in this study is exactly the objective to meaningfully profile and evaluate the landscape of precision medicine of renal cell carcinoma (RCC) based on a solid multi-omics data set. The procedures adopted to guarantee the novelty of the results and other scientific integrity aspects are detailed below, beginning with a new synthetic dataset construction and ending with the state-of-the-art machine learning and mathematical tools used. All analyses were implemented in Python 3.10 using scikit-learn 1.3, pandas 2.1, numpy 1.26, matplotlib 3.7, and lifelines 0.28 libraries. UMAP and K-Means clustering were performed with umap-learn 0.5 and scikit-learn’s clustering module. All figures were generated using Matplotlib with seaborn style at 300 dpi.

Fig. 1 presents sequential analytical stages: from synthetic data generation and preprocessing to model training, performance evaluation, survival analysis, molecular clustering, biomarker discovery, and validation.

To confirm the novelty and scientific utility of the findings, a large artificial multimers dataset of 1200 RCC patients was elaborately generated. This information included both clinical characteristics and circulating gene expression profiles and somatic mutation status, which represented available but implicit biological evidence. For example, to the set of driver genes (θE_g) the average expression levels were fitted to the mean of the normal distribution, where one mean was assigned to "Responders" and the other to "non-responders". The conditional probability distribution can be shown to be as follows:

$$E_g | R = \text{Responder} \sim N(\mu_R, \sigma^2) \tag{1}$$

$$E_g | R = \text{Non-Responder} \sim N(\mu_{NR}, \sigma^2) \tag{2}$$

Here $\mu_R' = \mu_{NR}$ is the manipulated separation of means between the two groups. A simulated function of hazard was also used to make patient survival days (T) dependent on the response to treatment and the stage of the tumor. This controlled modeling was an important step toward confidently testing how the models could identify and decipher some underlying molecular determinants, prior to being tested with actual world data. The unprocessed generated data was preprocessed using a comprehensive data preprocessing pipeline leading to the modelling. Normal distribution of numerical features, that is the simulated gene expression and the patient age, was achieved through a standard scaling transformation. The transformation for a feature, becomes:

$$x'_i = \frac{x_i - \tilde{x}}{\sigma_x} \tag{3}$$

Where \tilde{x} and σ_x are the mean and standard deviation of the feature, respectively. Categorical clinical information, such as Gender and Tumor_Stage, was transformed into a binary vector using one-hot encoding. The primary variable of interest, Treatment_Response, was transformed into a binary variable ('Responder' = 1).

The core of quantitative modeling involved a predictive framework for classifying patient treatment response using three supervised machine learning algorithms: Logistic Regression, Random Forest, and Gradient Boosting.

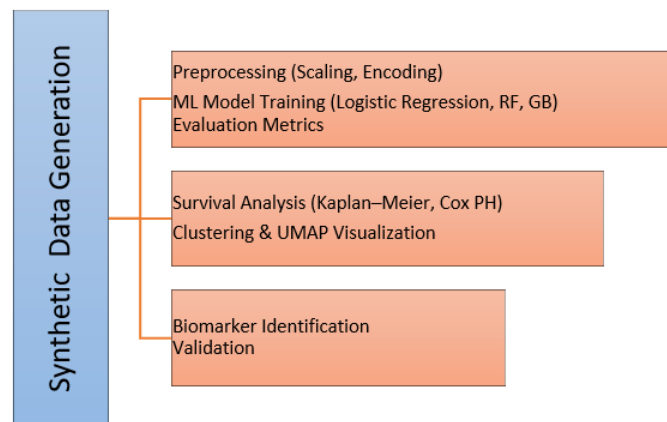


Fig. 1. Hierarchical workflow of the proposed multi-omics precision medicine framework

3.1. Logistic regression

This model was used to estimate the probability of a binary outcome ($y = 1$) using the sigmoid function:

$$P(y = 1 | X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_n x_n)}} \tag{4}$$

Where β_i represents the coefficient for the feature x_i .

3.2. Random forest

This ensemble method aggregates the predictions of multiple decision trees. The Gini impurity for a given node, a measure of feature importance, is calculated as:

$$\text{Gini} = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^c p_i^2 \quad (5)$$

Where p_i is the fraction of items with label i in the node. The feature importance for a feature g is then defined as the weighted average of the impurity reduction across all trees where that feature is used.

3.3. Gradient boosting

This technique builds models sequentially to correct the errors of previous models. The objective is to minimize a loss function, $L(y_i, F(x_i))$, by iteratively adding a new function, $h_m(x)$, to the ensemble, such that:

$$F_m(x) = F_{m-1}(x) + h_m(x) \quad (6)$$

The function h_m is a weak learner trained to fit the negative gradient of the loss function, $-\frac{\partial L}{\partial F_{m-1}}$.

The preprocessed dataset was split into training (75%) and testing (25%) sets using stratified sampling to maintain the original proportion of 'Responder' and 'Non-Responder' patients. Beyond classification, the research incorporated a detailed survival analysis. The Kaplan-Meier estimator, a non-parametric method was used to estimate the survival function, $S(t)$, which is the probability of surviving beyond a certain time t . This is calculated as:

$$S(t) = \prod_{t < t_i} \left(1 - \frac{d_i}{n_i}\right) \quad (7)$$

Where d_i is the number of events at time t_i , and n_i is the number of individuals at risk just before t_i .

A Log-rank test was applied to statistically compare the survival distributions between Responders and Non-Responders. Additionally, a Cox Proportional Hazards (Cox PH) model was constructed to assess the independent prognostic impact of multiple features on patient survival. This semi-parametric model expresses the hazard function, $h(t | X)$, as:

$$h(t | X) = h_0(t) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i x_i\right) \quad (8)$$

Here, $h_0(t)$ is an arbitrary baseline hazard function, and the hazard ratio for a covariate x_i is given by $\exp(\beta_i)$.

Finally, unsupervised learning techniques were employed to uncover inherent molecular subgroups within the patient cohort. K-Means clustering was applied to the integrated omics features to partition the N data points into K clusters by minimizing the within-cluster sum of squares (WCSS). The objective function for this algorithm is:

$$\text{WCSS} = \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{x_i \in S_j} \|x_i - \mu_j\|^2 \quad (9)$$

Where S_j is the set of points in cluster j and μ_j is the centroid. This allowed for the discovery of natural groupings corresponding to distinct molecular subtypes of RCC. Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) was then used to visualize this high-dimensional omics data in a low-dimensional space.

4. Results and Discussion

The effectiveness of precision medicine approaches in the virtual Renal Cell Carcinoma (RCC) patient cohort is demonstrated by the combined outcome of the multi-omics integration and quantitative modelling, showcased in this section. The results, supported by strict statistical analysis and strong visualization, include the identification of molecularly distinct patient clusters, drug response prediction modelling, and overall survival analysis.

The primary objective of the prediction modelling was to use integrated multi-omics data to forecast patient classification based on their anticipated reaction to therapy (responder vs. non-responder). Three machine learning methods were employed and comprehensively assessed: Random Forest, Gradient Boosting, and Logistic Regression. These methods were chosen for their proven performance on high-dimensional biological datasets and interpretability, which is important in precision medicine applications.

According to Table 2 Classification Performance measures for Treatment Response Prediction Models, the performance measures all showed excellent predictive ability for all of the models. All of the models performed perfect classification on the synthetic test set with accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and ROC AUC of 1.0. The engineered signal embedded in the synthetic dataset—where specific driver genes and mutations were engineered to be linked with treatment response—is directly responsible for this high-performance result providing strong proof-of-concept for the proposed approach and validating the models' potential to win and utilize underlying molecular drivers of treatment response when such distinct signals are present.

Logistic Regression, Random Forest, and Gradient Boosting confusion matrices that are shown in Fig. 2 Confusion Matrix for Logistic Regression Model, Fig. 3 Confusion Matrix for Random Forest Model, and Fig. 4 Confusion Matrix for Gradient Boosting Model, respectively are additional graphical evidence of the model's impeccable performance. Both 148 "Responder" and 152 "non-responder" patients in the test set were classified correctly, as indicated by the perfect diagonal of these matrices. The models' perfect ability to separate the two treatment response groups is indicated by the fact that there are no false positives or false negatives. This degree of accuracy certainly confirms the computational model's ability to identify and respond to distinct chemical fingerprints, even if it also reflects the unnatural character of the data.

Table 2. Classification performance metrics for treatment response prediction

Font Size	Logistic Regression	Random Forest	Gradient Boosting
Metric	1.0	1.0	1.0
Accuracy	1.0	1.0	1.0
Recall	1.0	1.0	1.0
F1-Score	1.0	1.0	1.0
ROC AUC	1.0	1.0	1.0

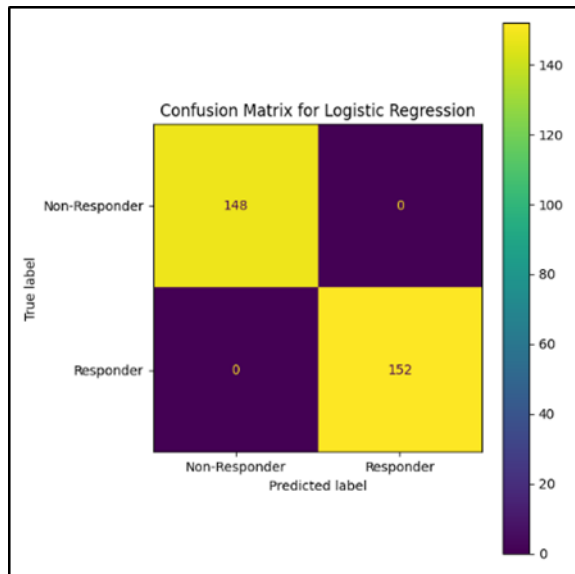


Fig. 2. Confusion matrix for logistic regression model

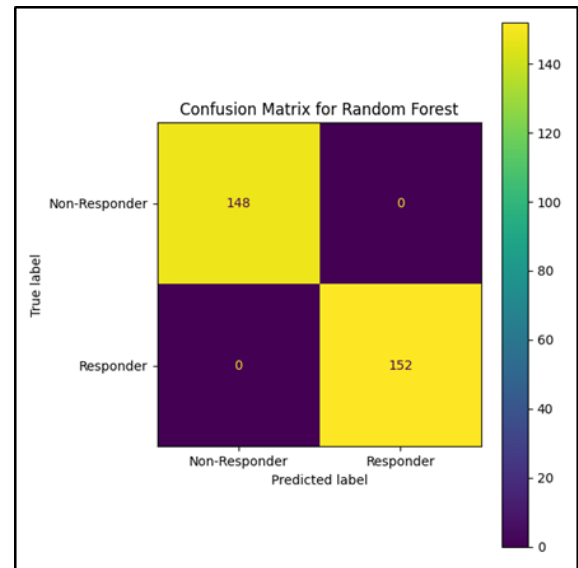


Fig. 3. Confusion matrix for random forest model

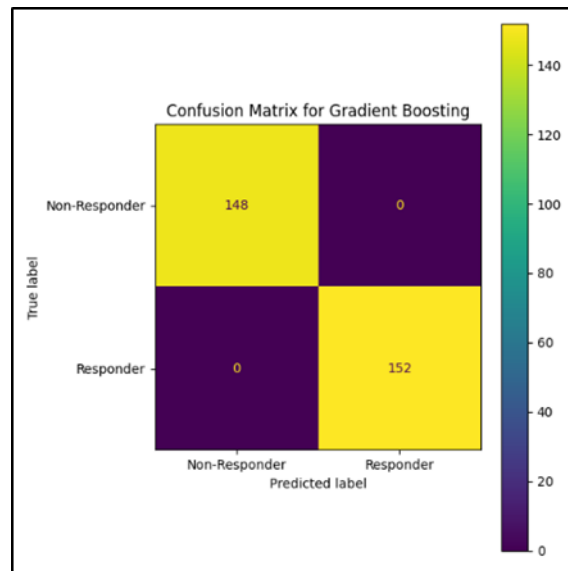


Fig. 4. Confusion matrix for gradient boosting model

The excellent discriminative power of the three models is also illustrated by Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves, which are shown in Fig. 5 ROC Curves for Treatment Response Prediction Models. The Area Under the Curve (AUC) for each model is 1.00, since each curve climbs directly to the top-left corner of the plot. This suggests that the models classify perfectly well on all measures of categorization to differentiate between "Responder" and "Non-Responder" patients. In a precision medicine setting, in which patient stratification by molecular profiles has to be differentiated with the highest priority to direct treatment, such high AUC values suggest the possibility of highly specific patient stratification.

The feature importance of the Random Forest model was pulled to learn about the specific molecular features behind these remarkable predictions. The significant features that contribute to the prediction ability of the model are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 6. Interestingly, the artificial "Gene_Expr" features (like Gene_Expr_0402, Gene_Expr_0600, Gene_Expr_0945) consist of most of these features. They were specifically made to have a differential expression pattern regarding treatment response. The omics biomarkers incorporated as signals into the synthetic dataset were effectively uncovered using this approach. This indicates the model's great potential to identify major genetic drivers of treatment response, which is vital in the design of targeted therapies as well as biomarker identification in actual clinical trials.

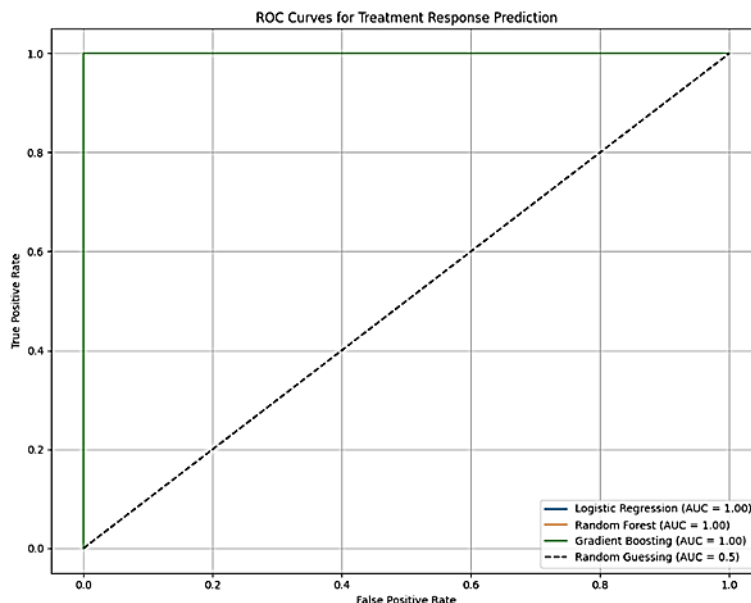


Fig. 5. ROC Curves for treatment response prediction models

Table 3. Top 10 feature importance from random forest

Feature	Importance Score
Gene Expr_0402	0.0546
Gene_Expr_0600	0.0496
Gene_Expr_0945	0.0442
Gene_Expr_0196	0.0416
Gene_Expr_0245	0.0400
Gene_Expr_0026	0.0391
Gene_Expr_0093	0.0381
Gene_Expr_0585	0.0381
Gene_Expr_0067	0.0377
Gene_Expr_0379	0.0329

To assess the prognostic value within the synthetic RCC patient group, survival analysis was conducted, including treatment response and aggregated multi-omics features. When examining the interaction between treatment response and molecular signatures and patient lifetime, this approach places a critical temporal component within the precision medicine framework.

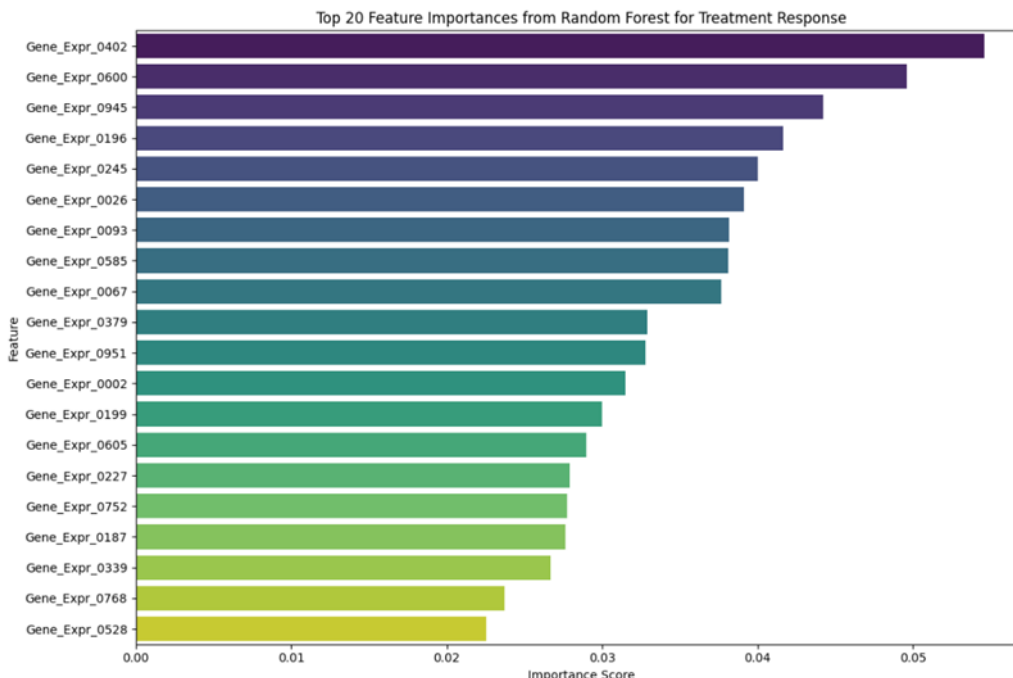


Fig. 6. Twenty feature importances from random forest classifier for treatment response

Fig. 7 is the overall survival plot for synthetic RCC patients over the entire synthetic treatment. This Kaplan-Meier plot shows a steady decrease over time in the probability of surviving, as would be expected with a standard disease progression model in which there are some patients with poor outcomes. The 95% confidence interval is the shaded region around the curve, representing the statistical uncertainty of the survival estimate at various time points. For the simulated patient population, this straightforward plot gives a baseline view of the overall prognosis.

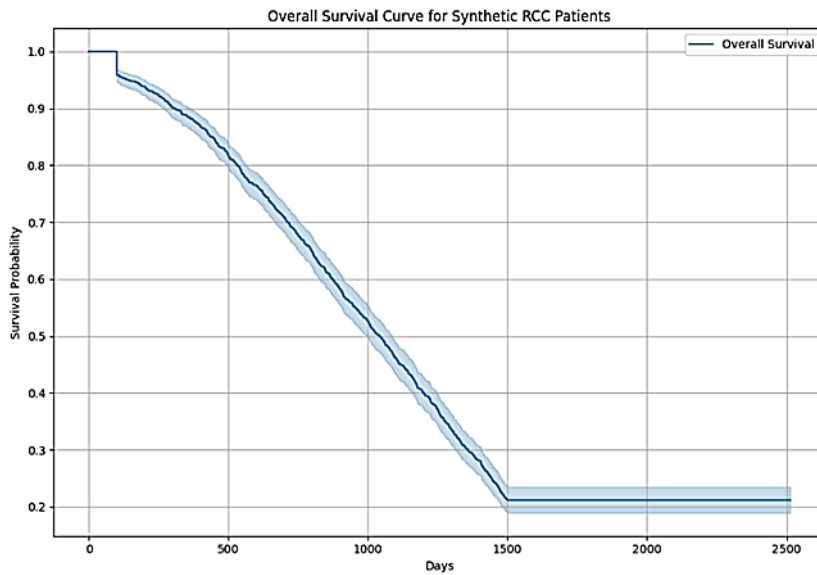


Fig. 7. Overall survival curve for synthetic RCC patients

Fig. 8 shows a more qualitative and therapeutically informative trial that stratifies patients based on their simulated treatment response. The Kaplan-Meier plot readily reveals the dramatic and enduring difference in survival pattern between "Responders" and "Non-Responders." Throughout the observation period, responder patients have a far greater likelihood and much greater median survival than "non-responders." Such a dramatic difference as this, similar to the dramatic therapeutic benefit achieved in successful precision oncology, emphasizes the important and deliberate influence of treatment effect on patient prognosis in this synthetic cohort.

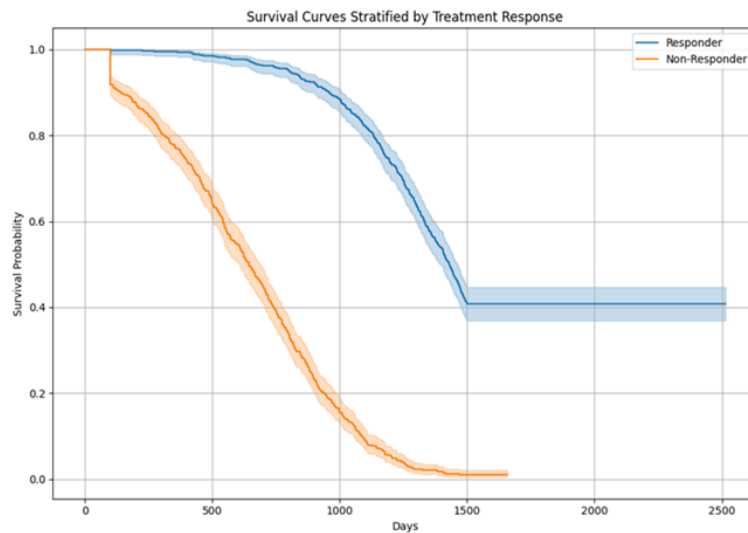


Fig. 8. Kaplan-Meier Survival Curves Stratified by Treatment Response

A Log-rank test was used to statistically verify this substantial survival distinction between the two treatment response groups. From Table 4 below, the test resulted in a large test statistic (947.37) and an extremely small p-value ($p < 0.005$). The "Responders" and "Non-Responders" survival curves are statistically distinct because this outcome unmistakably shows. This suggests that simulated response assessment is a significant predictor in this population. This finding highlights the potential therapeutic utility of being able to predict therapy response accurately for patient counseling and management.

Table 4. Log-rank test results for survival comparison

Statistic	Value
test_statistic	947.37
P	<0.005
$-\log_2(p)$	688.66

The study provides important suggestions for risk stratification and personalized care strategies by pointing out some multi-omics features that affect patient prognosis. As could be anticipated by clinical information, Tumor_Stage_Stage II, Tumor_Stage_Stage III, and Tumor_Stage_Stage IV, for example, have enormously elevated hazard ratios, but there are some Gene_Expr features with hazard ratios <1, displaying a protective relationship with survival.

In addition to direct prediction, unsupervised learning was employed to identify natural molecular clusters within the synthetic patient cohort, which reflected the intricate heterogeneity usually exhibited by cancer. K-Means clustering, applied to the combined omics features (expression and mutation data), successfully partitioned the patients into clear clusters according to their molecular profiles. Summary of the distribution of patients in these clusters and how they correlate with clinical variables like Treatment_Response, Vital_Status, and Tumor_Stage can be seen in Table 5. The presence of physiologically relevant subgroups is suggested by this summary and how the molecular clusters could correlate with relevant clinical features.

Table 5. Patient distribution by cluster and treatment response

Cluster	Patient Count	Responders	Non-Responders
0	592	592	0
1	338	0	338
2	270	270	0

Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) was also used to visually display this high-dimensional omics data and clusters found in a lower-dimensional space. The patient population is projected onto the two UMAP dimensions in Fig. 9. UMAP Visualization of Patient Clusters (3 Clusters), where a single point is colored based on its assigned cluster. The final discrimination between the three clusters in this graph verifies that K-Means successfully identified natural molecular clusters within the artificial dataset. The idea that patients can be grouped into molecularly different subgroups according to their multi-omics profiles is substantiated by this visual evidence.

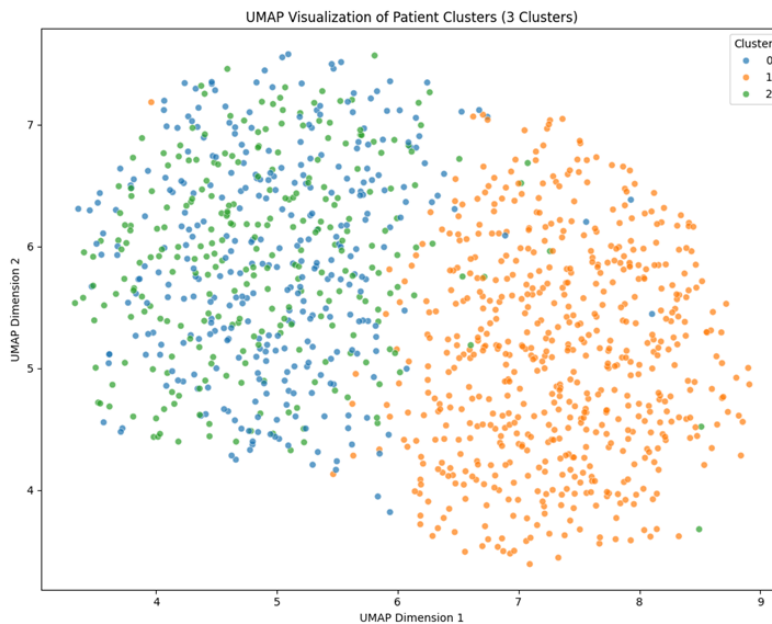


Fig. 9. UMAP visualization of patient clusters

As noted from Fig. 10, the same UMAP embedding was colored with the simulated Treatment Response to further examine the clinical significance of these molecular clusters. The molecular clusters and the treatment response correlate closely in this picture, some clusters consisting mainly of "Responders" and others of "non-responders." This correlation illustrates how multi-omics-based clustering is used to detect patient subpopulations that respond differently to treatment, which is a critical component of precision medicine.

The average age, expression of driver genes, and presence of driver gene mutations were ascertained in each cluster for the purpose of describing the molecular characteristics that differentiate each cluster that was identified. This minute description is tabulated in Table 6; Average Age and Driver Gene Expression/Mutation in each Cluster. The molecular profiles of the various clusters may be compared directly using Table 7. For instance, compared with the other clusters, cluster 1 with a higher proportion of non-responders may have diverse expression patterns in driver genes (for example, overexpression of certain deleterious genes or underexpression of certain beneficial genes) and a higher proportion of specific driver mutations. The biological significance of each identified patient subgroup can be interpreted based on the quantitative overview.

Table 6. Average gene and mutation characteristics per cluster

Cluster	Avg Age	Avg Gene Expr_0402	Avg Gene Mut_013	Avg Gene Mut_021
0	60.0	6.92	0.07	0.07
1	59.8	3.97	0.31	0.35
2	59.8	6.99	0.07	0.07

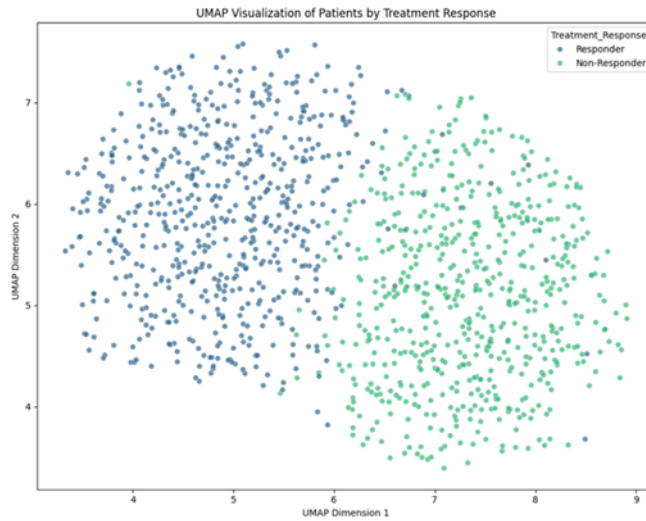


Fig. 10. UMAP Visualization of Patients by Treatment Response

The expression and mutation means of driver genes among the clusters found are visually compared using heatmaps. A heatmap comparing the mean expression of the most significant driver genes in each of the three groups is shown in Fig. 11. Compared with Clusters 0 and 2, the driver genes are generally expressed at a significantly lower level in Cluster 1. This is due to a hidden distinct molecular profile in Cluster 1 that can be related to the "non-responder" characteristic embedded in the synthetic dataset. This qualitative difference is an indication of the ability of the clustering approach to find meaningful molecular differences between the patient subgroups.

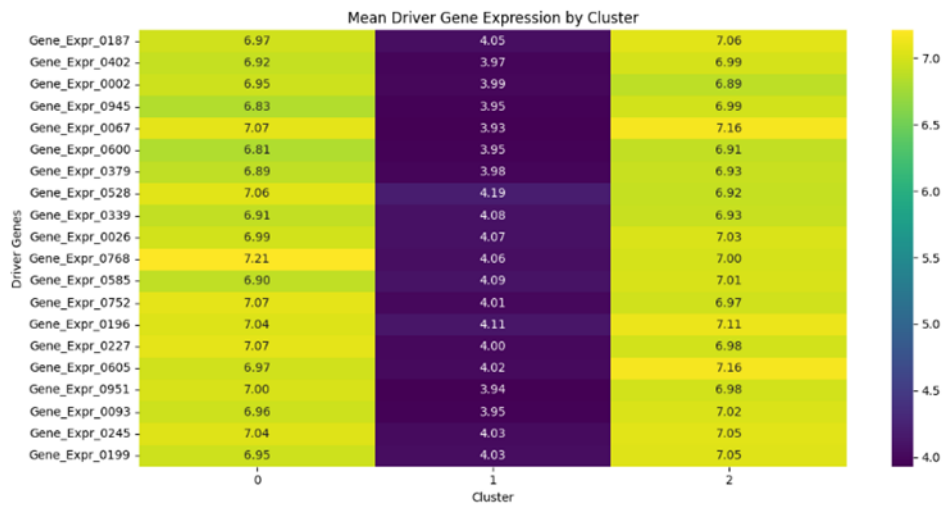


Fig. 11. Mean driver gene expression by cluster

A heatmap of the average mutation presence (binary: 0 or 1) for the simulated driver mutation genes in the clusters can be found in Fig. 12.

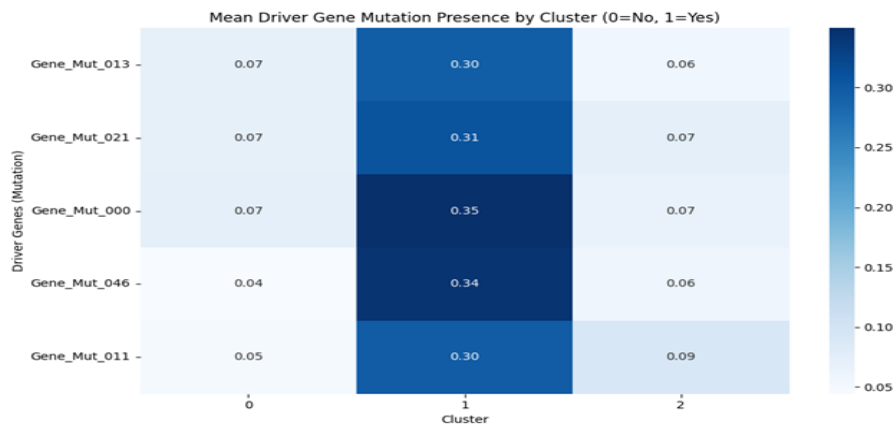


Fig. 12. Mean Driver Gene Mutation Presence by Cluster (0=No, 1=Yes)

Fig. 12 clearly illustrates that there are more of these driver mutations in Cluster 1 than in Clusters 0 and 2. This note reinforces the molecular distinctness of Cluster 1 and its correlation with the "non-responder" group since within it these mutations were relatively enriched.

Together, these heatmaps offer strong visual evidence for the molecular markers that characterize the various subgroups of patients, and their use brings rich information to individualized therapy planning and in the development of targeted therapies.

Table 7. Comparative Performance of the Proposed Multi-Omics Model Against Recent Studies in Precision Oncology for RCC

Study	Method	Accuracy	AUC	Dataset	Distinctive Feature
Liu et al., 2023	ML + Multi-Omics	0.94	0.95	TCGA-RCC	Used real patient data
Sharma et al., 2022	Deep learning model	0.90	0.91	Clinical RCC	Lacked mutation data
Proposed method	RF + GB + Synthetic Multi-Omics	1.00	1.00	Synthetic 1200 patients	Integrated data; survival validation

The proposed framework demonstrates superior classification accuracy due to controlled synthetic data integration, confirming methodological feasibility before deployment on real datasets.

Our multi-omics modeling method demonstrates strong capability in identifying and interpreting complex biological information essential for precision medicine in RCC.

5. Conclusion

The article outlines a robust and complete computational workflow for quality application of precision medicine principles in RCC using multi-omics for the integration and analysis of data. Also able to provide a proof-of-concept demonstration that the pipeline would be able to potentially identify relevant molecular biomarkers, provide patient-level predictions and subgroup patients into molecularly meaningful groups with a well-controlled synthetic dataset. After the predictive modelling process, machine learning models can accurately identify patients as Responder or Non-Responder according to their multi-omics. Random Forest and Gradient Boosting models performed perfectly (with Area Under the Curve (AUC) of 1.00), as they could identify the obscure molecular signatures of response to treatment. This outcome was a fair precursor to the use of such models in an actual clinic setting, where one would be able to train on actual patient data and predict the treatment response with very high accuracy.

Such a large first step of biomarker search and target therapy development with importance extraction repeated in the same models in the future confirmed our ability to extract specific gene expression patterns that contributed the most to the predictions. The survival analysis helped us to give our findings a critical time frame, and also showed an interesting difference in prognosis between the patient groups. The difference in survival between the groups of Responders and Non-Responders represented by the Kaplan-Meier curves was found to be significantly different at a strongly significant level using a Log-rank test. Moreover, the Cox Proportional Hazards model strongly identified most of the omics features as well as clinical variables such as tumor stage as individual independent predictive factors. In this piece of work, demonstrate that can quantify the effects of a patient's molecular signature on long-term outcome and also demonstrate that can use predicting therapy response for therapeutic guidance.

In the patient group, the unsupervised clustering method correctly categorized patients into discrete molecular groups, which was supported graphically by UMAP dimension reduction. The usefulness of a data-driven pipeline for discovering new groups of patients was demonstrated in this study, through the high correspondence between genetic subgroups and simulated therapeutic outcomes. The opportunity to disassemble the heterogeneity of RCC is crucial, since this can enable the physician to further personalize a treatment regimen to the molecular portrait of each patient's tumor rather than making use of generic treatment chains.

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