



The Impact of Omics Technologies on Laboratory Medicine: Transformations in Precision and Personalized Healthcare

¹- Belgaith Othman Belgaith Alsefri,²- Ghalib Ali Ahmed Almaqadi,³- Khalid Moadi Assiri,⁴- Mousa Mohmad Abdo Alhassni,⁵- Ali Ahmed Ali Alsayed,⁶- Ibrahim Ali Ahmed Alnashery,⁷- Ahmed Belqasem Nasser Alsolbi,⁸- Noori Mabred Noori Alsayed,⁹- Darweesh Othman Ahmed Alsffri,¹⁰- Abubakr Ali Alsobhi,¹¹- Mohammad Abduh Jaber Alhelaly,¹²- Merai Ali Muabrid Alsayed,¹³- Khadijah Ahmed Ali Alshuqayfi

¹ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

² Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

³ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

⁴ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfudhah Hospital

⁵ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfudah Hospital

⁶ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

⁷ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfudah Hospital

⁸ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, Alquz Primary Health Care Centre -Alqunfedah

⁹ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

¹⁰ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

¹¹ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfthah Hospital

¹² Ksa, Ministry Of Health, Aneker Primary Healthcare Center-Qunfudah

¹³ Ksa, Ministry Of Health, South Qunfudah Hospital

Abstract

Background: Integrating omics technologies—genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and transcriptomics—into laboratory medicine is revolutionizing the diagnostic landscape. These technologies facilitate precision and personalized medicine by enabling the categorization of patients based on their unique biological profiles, leading to more effective treatment strategies.

Methods: This review systematically examines the role of omics technologies in laboratory medicine, focusing on their applications in clinical diagnostics and patient management. A comprehensive literature search was conducted across various databases to identify relevant studies and innovations in omics technologies from their inception to 2023.

Results: The findings reveal that omics technologies significantly improve diagnostic accuracy and treatment efficacy, particularly in oncology, cardiology, and metabolic disorders. For instance, next-generation sequencing (NGS) has identified genetic mutations associated with specific cancers, allowing for targeted therapies. Additionally, the integration of artificial intelligence with omics data enhances predictive modeling, further personalizing patient care.

Conclusion: Omics technologies are essential for advancing laboratory medicine, offering transformative capabilities that enhance patient outcomes through tailored treatment plans. As these technologies continue to evolve, ongoing research and interdisciplinary collaboration are vital to fully realize their potential in clinical settings.

Keywords: Omics technologies, laboratory medicine, personalized medicine, precision diagnostics, next-generation sequencing.

Received: 04 October 2024

Revised: 23 November 2024

Accepted: 10 December 2024

1. Introduction

We are entering a new age of transformed practices in the medical laboratory. In "precision medicine," patients are categorized into specific subgroups based on their unique disease pathology, while in "personalized medicine," treatment plans are tailored to each patient's individual etiology and responsiveness to certain therapies. A significant transformation is underway in the field of pathology as well as laboratory medicine, positioning pathologists as well as laboratory scientists at the forefront of patient care. This evolution redefines their roles from mere diagnostic specialists to active contributors in patient management, encompassing disease risk prediction, prognosis assessment, treatment decision guidance, and post-treatment follow-up [1]. This revolution is initiated by two separate categories of inventions: sustaining and disruptive developments [2]. Sustaining innovations are defined as enhancements in the efficacy of existing methods and technologies that result in an improved product or enhanced functionality [3].

Numerous instances of sustaining inventions exist inside a laboratory environment. For example, developing more efficient, precise, and more rapid next-generation sequencing (NGS) devices [4] or expedited chemistry analyzers capable of evaluating a broader spectrum of analytes in reduced time and at lower cost [5]. Disruptive innovation refers to the development of a novel idea or technology. A disruptive innovation is described as an invention that interrupts an existing market and establishes a new one by offering a distinct set of values, eventually and unexpectedly surpassing the present market. This process involves an innovative new product or service first emerging as a basic application in a lower market segment and then advancing "upmarket," ultimately eliminating existing rivals [6-8]. The introduction of disruptive innovations often aims their performance at the low-end portions of established standard care technologies. For example, they often do not include the full range of uses of a standard technology and may exhibit lower throughput or sensitivity (e.g., a strip pregnancy test is less precise than a routine laboratory analysis for hCG in a clinical setting) [9]. Their attractiveness lies in their ability to reduce costs, hence making their adoption inevitable. Other disruptive technologies tackle issues for which no alternative solutions exist. Ultimately, their performance aligns with their value offering and cost-effectiveness, resulting in widespread distribution of the product/service.

These developments primarily target a wider client base rather than the high-demand, advanced users of the technology, since cost-effectiveness establishes realistic performance expectations. Moreover, in certain instances, a disruptive innovation enables an entirely new demographic of consumers to access products or services that were conventionally available solely to affluent individuals capable of affording them (e.g., automated or robotic chemistry auto analyzers typically accessible only to major medical facilities or academic institutions) or to highly skilled individuals proficient in their utilization (e.g., next-generation sequencing, which necessitates expertise in sample preparation, manufacturing, and results clarification) [10].

2. Disruptive innovations: transformative alterations throughout several sectors

To get a clearer comprehension of the effects of disruptive technologies, we might examine several industries [11]. Numerous success examples illustrate how disruptive innovations have transformed markets by offering more convenient and cost-effective alternatives to existing technology, as detailed in recent studies [9,10]. A clear illustration is the realm of computing technology [12]. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the computer industry was controlled by huge manufacturers like IBM; nonetheless, computers were costly, bulky, and needed specialized knowledge for data processing. The revolution was initiated by the advent of mini computers as well as laptops. Initially, the capabilities and performance levels of these were much inferior to those achievable with an advanced computer facility. Years after the emergence of mini-computers and laptops, they rapidly evolved to almost replace the requirement for highly advanced computers. They established a completely novel market for nonprofessionals, enabling them to operate their tiny computing solutions without requiring qualified specialists [13].

Online trading is a revolutionary innovation that empowers consumers across all socioeconomic strata to independently manage their stock portfolios, eliminating the need for costly brokerage professionals from

major organizations. The advent of Android operating systems for mobile phones diminished the market popularity of major firms such as Nokia and Blackberry, resulting in a substantial decline in sales. Online purchasing sites, such as Amazon, exemplify disruptive advancements. The car-sharing models exemplify disruptive technologies that have challenged and, to some extent, surpassed traditional taxi models [14].

3. Disruptive innovation in healthcare

Disruptive technologies are also evident in health care. A notable example is the advent of angioplasty. Historically, the only remedy for heart disease was invasive surgery, which had considerable adverse consequences. It was costly and needed advanced surgical expertise. The advent of noninvasive angioplasty, with equivalent outcomes, facilitated improved and expedited recovery, allowing a group of patients previously considered unsuitable for open surgery to receive treatment [9,10]. A further compelling instance is the correction of vision, which has historically required the expertise of a qualified optometrist to conduct the laborious procedure of vision evaluation. Recently, techniques for rapidly and effectively modifying spectacles have been launched on the market. A notable instance of disruptive healthcare innovation is the emergence of "Nurse Practitioners" and "Physician Assistants," who can assume certain straightforward tasks typically performed by physicians, thereby delivering expedited service at a significantly reduced cost while maintaining equivalent or comparable efficacy [15].

MinuteClinic, formerly referred to as QuickMedx, is a successful instance of disruptive innovation [16]. Boasting over 1,100 facilities across 33 states, it provides rapid and easy testing for a fixed fee of USD 35 for every visit. The objective was to provide expedited testing, diagnosis, and medications for eleven prevalent ailments, including influenza, otitis media, conjunctivitis, and seasonal allergies. It provides vaccinations for Hepatitis B, tetanus, as well as influenza. Their stations are situated inside a renowned grocery store chain and are manned by registered nurses who provide prompt treatment for these relatively uncomplicated ailments [10]. This concept provides a cost-effective solution that is rapid and convenient in contrast to traditional multi-step medical consultations and related laboratory procedures.

Disruptive technologies have been beneficial in offering unconventional remedies for health crises such as the current COVID-19 epidemic [17]. Researchers at Johns Hopkins discovered that Twitter may successfully communicate and update pediatric intensive care unit care teams globally during the COVID-19 emergency [17]. Robotic devices successfully operated ventilators in the rooms of COVID-19 patients from a distance. A new application named "COVID Alert" has been created in Canada to detect COVID-19 outbreaks [18]. Artificial intelligence methods successfully predicted cardiac issues in COVID-19 patients [19-21].

This review concentrates on disruptive innovation specifically within laboratory medicine, excluding the extensive array of detrimental innovations and advances that have transformed health care over the years.

4. Transformative innovation in laboratory medicine

Pathology and laboratory medicine are conducive environments for disruptive innovation due to their significant dependence on technology. Disruptive technologies have transformed our diagnostic capabilities and will advance laboratory medicine into a new age of personalized healthcare, where therapy is customized to meet each individual's exact requirements.

Digital pathology

The introduction of computerized pathology practice in the late 1990s exemplifies technological disruption in laboratory medicine. Digital pathology offers several benefits and a broad range of applications, as detailed in previous studies [22]. This encompasses the seamless exchange of slides across institutions, significantly enhancing the accuracy of consults via digital interactions among pathologists with specialized expertise globally. It is crucial to acknowledge that pathology is progressing towards specialized practice; however, many community hospitals exhibit a deficiency in specialization contrasted to academic institutions, where pathologists predominantly focus on one or a limited range of specialties, such as genitourinary or breast pathology. Certain pathologists possess sub-specializations, such as "pediatric

gastrointestinal pathology." The advent of digital pathology enables the acquisition of digital second opinions from experienced pathologists worldwide in a very short timeframe.

The advent of telepathology enables us to enhance services in rural and underserved regions. Numerous recent studies have shown the efficacy of telepathology in intraoperative counseling conducted by specialist pathologists for distant sites [23,24]. The digitization of pathology will challenge the longstanding need to preserve glass slides for extended periods. Storing a digital replica instead of a glass slide minimizes spatial requirements and mitigates the disadvantages and risks connected with glass storage. Pathology digitalization will transform the field of pathology into a global community, enabling diagnoses to be conducted remotely, perhaps hundreds of kilometers from the site of specimen processing [25–27].

Furthermore, digital pathology is transformative as it facilitates the emergence of computing pathology and artificial intelligence, converting pathology evaluation from a qualitative approach—dependent on the subjective judgment of a pathologist—into a quantitative assessment via image analysis [28]. It is noteworthy that the introduction of high-resolution scanned pathology pictures exemplified a disruptive innovation, characterized by worse image quality and diminished digital diagnostic capabilities. Due to increased investment and incentives stemming from initial achievement, the diagnostic accuracy of digital entire slide imaging currently matches that of microscopic diagnosis [29].

The digitalization of pathology influences teaching by facilitating the national and international exchange of online materials, such as digitized slides. Pathology digitalization has transformed the methods of conducting exams and assessing residents in several countries. Canada completely digitized the Royal College test in pathology some years ago [30]. Research shown that residents' performance was equivalent between digital pictures and microscopes, resulting in a significant savings in examination preparation costs and the inconvenience of transporting a microscope to the evaluation venue [31].

The significance of digital pathology beyond the mere substitution of glass slides with digital pictures, with the ability to transform pathology workflows and rethink the profession of pathology [32–34]. Despite substantial automation in other laboratory medicine departments, such as chemistry, the field of anatomy and pathology has remained largely unchanged for decades, relying on human evaluation of tissue processing and glass slide preparation by pathologists. This method is labor-intensive, protracted, costly, and prone to many human mistakes throughout execution. Digitalization may facilitate the creation of a more rapid and efficient process. It offers flexibility in the workplace and working hours for pathologists, together with the capability for doing image analysis, so augmenting the significance of pathology diagnosis for patient treatment. It facilitates seamless integration with laboratory information systems, enhancing accessibility to pathology findings for the whole clinical team.

A digital pathology process is particularly advantageous in multicenter healthcare systems, where several sites may be integrated into a unified system. It facilitates the provision of countrywide specialist pathology services (e.g., neuropathology) from a single or limited number of sites. A further benefit is the capacity to reallocate cases across several locations and modify workloads in response to fluctuations in demand and particular situations, such as illness or maternity leave. It may also be beneficial in certain situations, such as the current COVID-19 epidemic. Another benefit is the decreased time required for diagnosis, since digital slides eliminate the requirement to verify the slide's identification with the patient's ID, and the reduction in mistake rates resulting from case mix-ups.

5. Advanced sequencing and molecular examination

The potential of genomic pathology lies in the expectation that the cost of sequencing the human genome would decrease, therefore integrating into essential components of healthcare—encompassing illness diagnosis and treatment, as well as prevention, risk reduction, and health preservation. The transformative invention that enabled this is NGS. Genomic data are being included in the pathology reports of several malignancies, including colorectal, breast, and lung cancers, among others [35].

The direct examination of the human genome initiated a new epoch in diagnostics and medical care. The successful conclusion of the first Human Genome Project, along with several variables, facilitated the

emergence of genomics as a transformative development in patient care [36,37]. This encompasses the swift and substantial enhancement of NGS technology, the unparalleled progress in bioinformatics and computational capabilities, as well as the markedly reduced cost of sequencing daily. It is expected that within a few years, NGS technology will be routinely used not just in large hospitals but also in all non-hospital healthcare facilities [38,39].

The progression of NGS is compelling, demonstrating the impact of disruptive innovation. Initially, a few big manufacturers developed high-throughput equipment; however, many are now transitioning to tiny Personal Genome Machine (PGM) sequencers, which are smaller, more cost-effective, and provide rapid turnover rates, although with restricted data throughput [40–42]. Innovative technologies, exemplified by those created by Oxford Nanopore Technologies, provide much smaller and more economical sequencing devices that are both rapid and portable [43].

A recent review [35] elegantly underscores that genomic pathology entails disruption in two dimensions: firstly, it substitutes a multitude of laboratory tests (biochemistry, microbiology, and molecular pathology), which necessitate costly and specialized instruments along with a high degree of expertise, with a singular, cost-effective technology platform known as NGS. It will also transform the existing paradigm of the clinical laboratory as a diagnostic service, ushering in a new age of preventative and primary care pathology.

Although NGS represents a novel technology, PCR exemplifies an established technology that has seen transformative modifications leading to disruptive innovation. Several novel techniques using the fundamental PCR concept with substantial changes, such as quantitative real-time PCR evaluation, and electronic droplet PCR, have been developed in recent years [2].

Disruptive innovation may arise from the development of an innovative technology or a transformative alteration of an existing technology. PCR exemplifies this, including the emergence of several novel techniques that use the fundamental PCR concept with substantial alterations, including quantitative real-time PCR analysis and digital droplet PCR.

6. Point-of-care testing and transformative developments in clinical biochemistry

Instances of innovative disruption involve the use of dry chemistry reagents in chemistry analyzers inside core laboratories and point-of-care tests (POCT) [44-47]. The latter is characterized as an examination conducted in proximity to the patient during the session. These are often conducted by a nurse, eliminating the requirement for a laboratory technician, and hence providing fast access to findings for prompt, informed decision-making on patient care. The number of point-of-care tests (POCT) is expanding, including pregnancy tests, blood glucose measurement via glucometers, and cardiac biomarker assessments, among others. Point-of-care testing (POCT) exhibits the characteristic attributes of a disruptive innovation, namely reduced cost, expedited execution, and enhanced ease of use, although with diminished accuracy relative to conventional laboratory assessments. Handheld analyzers for whole blood testing exemplify a revolutionary technology applicable to point-of-care testing, including home usage [48].

The transition from labor-intensive manual labs to fully automated chemical analyzers exemplify effective disruptive innovation. We are currently integrating increasingly sophisticated technologies in the chemistry central laboratory, incorporating mobile general-purpose dual-arm robots that represent a new frontier for automation. These robots can do certain repetitive activities more quickly, economically, and precisely than humans. They may be used to conduct complex multi-step assays such as the ELISA, or enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay [49].

Disruptive developments involve the application of matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time of flights (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry as a clinical instrument for pathogen detection [2]. A novel disruptive invention, collaboratively created by Google and Novartis, has a glucose-sensing electrode with telemetry that enables the monitoring of glucose levels from ocular tears and their transmission to distant devices [50]. The adoption of disposable electronics exemplifies a disruptive breakthrough in point-of-care testing (POCT). One instance of this is the digital pregnancy assessment, “FirstResponse™ Pregnancy Pro,” which utilizes wireless technology to connect through Bluetooth to a cellphone [51]. Another instance is

the “health” sensor, a compact portable device capable of conducting several laboratory tests with a single drop of blood [2].

Disruptive developments also include the development of robotic instruments for automated blood collection [52]. These devices can replace conventional blood collection methods in clinical labs, therefore conserving financial resources, labor, and time. It may enhance workflow in hospitals as well as private clinics, particularly those using POCT technology for rapid findings [53].

7. Deep learning as well as artificial intelligence in clinical laboratory science

The application of artificial intelligence, characterized as the utilization of computer systems to execute tasks typically necessitating human intelligence, represents a significant disruptive innovation poised to revolutionize the future of pathology as well as laboratory medicine, particularly as the field shifts from a reactive to a proactive approach in the forthcoming years [54]. Recent data indicates that artificial intelligence constitutes a disruptive innovation that may replace (or more accurately, augment) the principles of molecular pathology. The prospective use of artificial intelligence in laboratory science has been extensively examined [55]. The use of artificial intelligence in laboratory settings is predicated on the capacity of computer systems to identify and comprehend intricate and non-linear relationships. Due to their distinct cognitive processes compared to humans, they possess superior capabilities in developing diagnostic and prognostic models or algorithms, hence enhancing analytical proficiency beyond human capacity.

Figure 1 illustrates a diagrammatic portrayal of the potential transformative impact of artificial intelligence on pathology practice. Pathology pictures may be processed by deep learning, artificial intelligence, as well as machine learning technologies, facilitating the creation of pixel-pipeline-based workflows and diagnostic, prognostic, or predictive algorithms [56]. Previous research has shown that computer algorithms can evaluate a range of quantitative characteristics from pathology slides and develop a prediction model for cancer intensity [57]. Recent research indicates that deep learning may surpass human visual assessment in the Gleason score of prostate cancer [58]. Deep learning exhibits superior sensitivity and specificity relative to trained pathologists, marking a significant advancement in computer-assisted diagnosis [59]. Recent research demonstrated a positive prognostic value of 72 percent and a negative predictive accuracy of 97 percent for breast cancer detection [60]. Deep learning algorithms have been shown to reliably predict estrogen receptor status in breast cancer [55]. Moreover, researchers have created instruments capable of identifying morphologically analogous characteristics in unannotated slides (properties not manually designated by the pathologist) [61]. This will provide exponential capacity to traverse millions of saved unannotated photos [59].

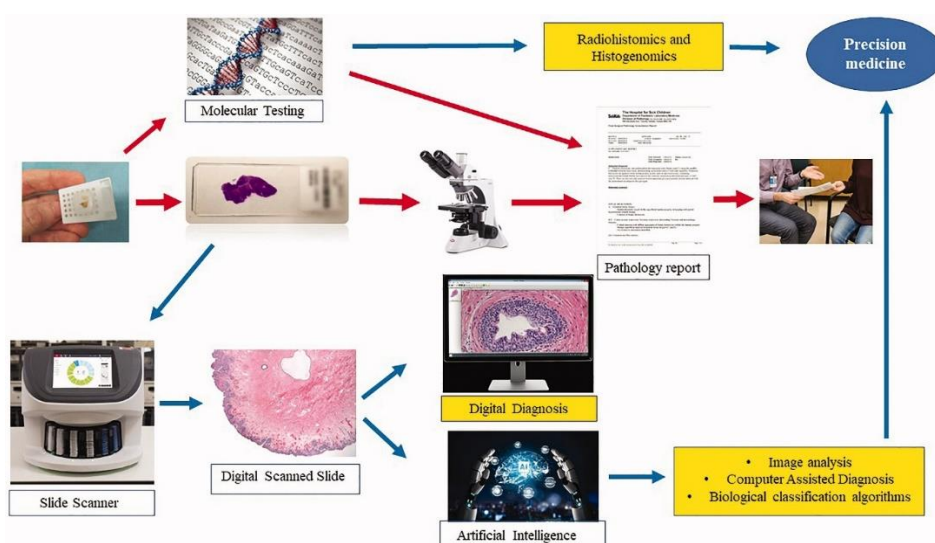


Figure 1. Artificial intelligence may be used for big-data statistics in chemistry, hematology, as well as several other laboratory medicine disciplines, as discussed in other sources [55]. “

8. Conclusions

Disruptive innovations provide solutions with alternative standards or novel value propositions. They signify a new approach to diagnostics. They possess significant potential to transform the standard of care, enhancing and expediting treatment while also making it more economically accessible. We are at a distinctive period, marking the conclusion of the first phase of integrating interdisciplinary disruptive methodologies in pathology as well as laboratory medicine.

We are certain that novel technologies will have a more significant influence on medical laboratories in the coming decades than sustaining advances. They will eventually result in reduced costs for clinical laboratory inspections without sacrificing performance. A transparent discussion and a multidisciplinary strategy are essential to address the issues associated with the deployment of disruptive developments in laboratory medicine.

References

1. Ibrahim R, Pasic M, Yousef GM. Omics for personalized medicine: defining the current we swim in. *Expert Rev Mol Diagn*. 2016;16(7):719–722.
2. Rifai N, Topol E, Chan E, et al. Disruptive innovation in laboratory medicine. *Clin Chem*. 2015;61(9):1129–1132.
3. Koboldt DC, Steinberg KM, Larson DE, et al. The next-generation sequencing revolution and its impact on genomics. *Cell*. 2013;155(1):27–38.
4. Murphy MJ. Automation in UK clinical biochemistry. *Ann Clin Biochem*. 2013;50(Pt 3):285–286.
5. Jonsson B. Disruptive innovation and EU health policy. *Eur J Health Econ*. 2017;18(3):269–272.
6. Galea S. Will disruptive innovation in health care improve the health of populations? *Milbank Q*. 2018;96(4):619–622.
7. Bower JL, Christensen CM. Disruptive technologies: catching the wave. *Harv Bus Rev*. 1995;73(1):43–53.
8. Hwang J, Christensen CM. Disruptive innovation in health care delivery: a framework for business-model innovation. *Health Aff*. 2008;27(5):1329–1335.
9. Christensen CM, Bohmer R, Kenagy J. Will disruptive innovations cure health care? *Harv Bus Rev*. 2000;78(5):102–112.
10. Christensen CM. The encyclopedia of human-computer interaction. 2nd ed. Aarhus, Denmark: Interaction Design Foundation.
11. Team M. What is disruptive innovation: MJV technology & innovation; 2019.
12. Wilson R, Godfrey CM, Sears K, et al. Exploring conceptual and theoretical frameworks for nurse practitioner education: a scoping review protocol. *JBIR Database System Rev Implement Rep*. 2015;13(10):146–155.
13. Hooker RS, Moloney-Johns AJ, McFarland MM. Patient satisfaction with physician assistant/associate care: an international scoping review. *Hum Resour Health*. 2019;17(1):104.
14. Kleinpell RM, Grabenkort WR, Kapu AN, et al. Nurse practitioners and physician assistants in acute and critical care: a concise review of the literature and data 2008–2018. *Crit Care Med*. 2019;47(10):1442–1449.
15. Polinski JM, Barker T, Gagliano N, et al. Patients' satisfaction with and preference for telehealth visits. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2016;31(3):269–275.
16. Medicine JH. Coronavirus (COVID-19) information and updates; 2020.
17. Alert C. Health Canada/Santé Canada; 2020.
18. Tantibanchachai C. Researchers use machine learning to predict heart damage in COVID-19 patients. Baltimore (MD): Johns Hopkins University; 2020.
19. Bradley R, Harnett J, Cooley K, et al. Naturopathy as a model of prevention-oriented, patient-centered primary care: a disruptive innovation in health care. *Medicina*. 2019;55(9):603.
20. Dodd GD, 3rd, Restauri NL, Kondo KL, et al. Driving innovation in radiology: a summary of the 2015 intersociety committee summer conference. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2016;13(12 Pt A):1477–1482.

21. Gabril MY, Yousef GM. Informatics for practicing anatomical pathologists: marking a new era in pathology practice. *Mod Pathol*. 2010;23(3):349–358.
22. Evans AJ, Chetty R, Clarke BA, et al. Primary frozen section diagnosis by robotic microscopy and virtual slide telepathology: the University Health Network experience. *Semin Diagn Pathol*. 2009;26(4):165–176.
23. Evans AJ, Chetty R, Clarke BA, et al. Primary frozen section diagnosis by robotic microscopy and virtual slide telepathology: the University Health Network experience. *Hum Pathol*. 2009;40(8):1070–1081.
24. Niazi MKK, Parwani AV, Gurcan MN. Digital pathology and artificial intelligence. *Lancet Oncol*. 2019;20(5):e253–e261.
25. Griffin J, Treanor D. Digital pathology in clinical use: where are we now and what is holding us back? *Histopathology*. 2017;70(1):134–145.
26. Williams BJ, Bottoms D, Treanor D. Future-proofing pathology: the case for clinical adoption of digital pathology. *J Clin Pathol*. 2017;70(12):1010–1018.
27. Hart SN. Will digital pathology be as disruptive as genomics? *J Pathol Inform*. 2018;9:27.
28. Vergani A, Regis B, Jocolle G, et al. Noninferiority diagnostic value, but also economic and turnaround time advantages from digital pathology. *Am J Surg Pathol*. 2018;42(6):841–842.
29. Mirham L, Naugler C, Hayes M, et al. Performance of residents using digital images versus glass slides on certification examination in anatomical pathology: a mixed methods pilot study. *CMAJ Open*. 2016;4(1):E88–E94.
30. Yousef GM. Navigation through a new age of digital pathology: promises and challenges. *Can J Pathol*. 2017;9(1):4–6.
31. Fraggetta F, Garozzo S, Zannoni GF, et al. Routine digital pathology workflow: the Catania experience. *J Pathol Inform*. 2017;8:51.
32. Retamero JA, Aneiros-Fernandez J, Del Moral RG. Complete digital pathology for routine histopathology diagnosis in a multicenter hospital network. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*. 2020;144(2):221–228.
33. Stathonikos N, Nguyen TQ, Spoto CP, et al. Being fully digital: the perspective of a Dutch academic pathology laboratory. *Histopathology*. 2019;75(5):621–635.
34. Saffitz JE. Genomic pathology: a disruptive innovation. *Per Med*. 2012;9(3):237–239.
35. Green ED, Watson JD, Collins FS. Human genome project: twenty-five years of big biology. *Nature*. 2015;526(7571):29–31.
36. Collins FS, Morgan M, Patrinos A. The human genome project: lessons from large-scale biology. *Science*. 2003;300(5617):286–290.
37. Diamandis M, White NM, Yousef GM. Personalized medicine: marking a new epoch in cancer patient management. *Mol Cancer Res*. 2010;8(9):1175–1187.
38. Pasic MD, Samaan S, Yousef GM. Genomic medicine: new frontiers and new challenges. *Clin Chem*. 2013;59(1):158–167.
39. Hwang SM, Lee KC, Lee MS, et al. Comparison of ion personal genome machine platforms for the detection of variants in BRCA1 and BRCA2. *Cancer Res Treat*. 2018;50(1):255–264.
40. Zopf A, Raim R, Danzer M, et al. Introduction of the hybcell-based compact sequencing technology and comparison to state-of-the-art methodologies for KRAS mutation detection. *Biotechniques*. 2015;58(3):126–134.
41. Kumar KR, Cowley MJ, Davis RL. Next-generation sequencing and emerging technologies. *Semin Thromb Hemost*. 2019;45(7):661–673.
42. Technologies OO. Oxford nanopore technologies; 2020 November 25.
43. Lanevski A, Kramer JW. Comparison of two dry chemistry analyzers and a wet chemistry analyzer using canine serum. *Vet Clin Pathol*. 1996;25(1):10–13.
44. Flatland B, Breickner LC, Fry MM. Analytical performance of a dry chemistry analyzer designed for in-clinic use. *Vet Clin Pathol*. 2014;43(2):206–217.
45. Goble JA, Rocafort PT. Point-of-care testing. *J Pharm Pract*. 2017;30(2):229–237.

46. Ferreira CES, Guerra JCC, Shlessarenko N, et al. Point-of-care testing: general aspects. Clin Lab. 2018;64(1):1–9.
47. Kost GJ, Shirey TL. New whole-blood testing for laboratory support of critical care at cardiac transplant centers and US hospitals. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 1990;114(8):865–868.
48. Moreland RB, Choi BI, Geaman W, Gonzalez C, Hochstedler-Kramer BR, John J, Kaindl J, Kesav N, Lamichhane J, Lucio L, Saxena M. Beyond the usual suspects: emerging uropathogens in the microbiome age. Frontiers in Urology. 2023 Jul 26;3:1212590.
49. Charles L, Nelson MKS, Jin RY, et al. Inventor; Abbott Diabetes Care Inc., assignee. Glucose measuring device for use in personal area network. Patent US9730584B2. 2017.
50. Cole LA, Sutton-Riley JM, Khanlian SA, et al. Sensitivity of over-the-counter pregnancy tests: comparison of utility and marketing messages. J Am Pharm Assoc (2003). 2005;45(5):608–615.
51. Balter ML, Leipheimer JM, Chen AI, et al. Automated end-to-end blood testing at the point-of-care: integration of robotic phlebotomy with downstream sample processing. Technology (Singap World Sci). 2018;6(2):59–66.
52. Price CP, Smith I, Van den Bruel A. Improving the quality of point-of-care testing. Fam Pract. 2018;35(4):358–364.
53. Lopes-Júnior LC, Veronez LC. Personalized care for patients with cancer in the precision-medicine era. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health. 2023 Feb 9;20(4):3023.
54. Naugler C, Church DL. Automation and artificial intelligence in the clinical laboratory. Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci. 2019;56(2):98–110.
55. Yousef GM. Artificial intelligence: the best is yet to come. Can J Pathol. 2019;11(3):4.
56. Beck AH, Sangoi AR, Leung S, et al. Systematic analysis of breast cancer morphology uncovers stromal features associated with survival. Sci Transl Med. 2011;3(108):108ra113.
57. Nagpal K, Foote D, Liu Y, et al. Development and validation of a deep learning algorithm for improving Gleason scoring of prostate cancer. NPJ Digit Med. 2019;2:48.
58. Parwani AV. Next generation diagnostic pathology: use of digital pathology and artificial intelligence tools to augment a pathological diagnosis. Diagn Pathol. 2019;14(1):138.
59. Cruz-Roa A, Gilmore H, Basavanahally A, et al. Accurate and reproducible invasive breast cancer detection in whole-slide images: a deep learning approach for quantifying tumor extent. Sci Rep. 2017;7:46450.
60. Hegde N, Hipp JD, Liu Y, et al. Similar image search for histopathology: SMILY. NPJ Digit Med. 2019;2:56.
61. Ngiam KY, Khor IW. Big data and machine learning algorithms for health-care delivery. Lancet Oncol. 2019;20(5):e262–e273.

تأثير تقنيات الأوميكس على الطب المخبري: التحولات في الرعاية الصحية الدقيقة والشخصية

الملخص

الخلفية:

يُحدث دمج تقنيات الأوميكس—الجينوميكس، البروتيوميكس، الميتابولوميكس، والترانسكربتوميكس—في الطب المخبري تحولاً جذرياً في التشخيص الطبي. تعمل هذه التقنيات على تعزيز الطب الدقيق والشخصي من خلال تمكين تصنيف المرضى استناداً إلى ملفاتهم البيولوجية الفريدة، مما يؤدي إلى تطوير استراتيجيات علاجية أكثر فعالية.

المنهجية:

تستعرض هذه المراجعة بشكل منهجي دور تقنيات الأوميكس في الطب المخبري، مع التركيز على تطبيقاتها في التشخيص السريري وإدارة المرضى. تم إجراء بحث شامل في قواعد البيانات العلمية لتحديد الدراسات والابتكارات المتعلقة بتقنيات الأوميكس منذ ظهورها وحتى عام 2023.

النتائج:

كشفت النتائج أن تقنيات الأوميكس تُحسن بشكل كبير من دقة التشخيص وفعالية العلاج، خاصة في علم الأورام، وأمراض القلب، واضطرابات التمثيل الغذائي. على سبيل المثال، ساعدت تقنية التسلسل الجيني المتقدم (NGS) في تحديد الطفرات الجينية المرتبطة بأنواع معينة من السرطان، مما أتاح تطوير علاجات مستهدفة. علاوة على ذلك، أدى دمج الذكاء الاصطناعي مع بيانات الأوميكس إلى تحسين نماذج التنبؤ بالأمراض، مما عزز من تخصيص الرعاية الصحية لكل مريض.

الاستنتاج:

تُعد تقنيات الأوميكس عنصراً أساسياً في تطوير الطب المخبري، حيث توفر قدرات تحويلية تُحسن من نتائج المرضى من خلال خطط علاجية مخصصة. ومع استمرار تطور هذه التقنيات، فإن البحث المستمر والتعاون بين التخصصات المختلفة ضروريان لتحقيق إمكاناتها الكاملة في الممارسات السريرية.

الكلمات المفتاحية:

تقنيات الأوميكس، الطب المخبري، الطب الشخصي، التشخيص الدقيق، التسلسل الجيني المتقدم.