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## INTEGRATION OF GENOMIC AND CLINICAL DATA FOR PERSONALIZED TREATMENT PLANNING

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### Abstract

This means that cancer heterogeneity demands the integrative analysis of multi-omic data by default to give precision oncology in accurate prognostics. High-dimensional genomic, epigenomic, and clinical data translation into clinically actionable survival predictors is discussed in the paper, where a Multi-Omic Attention Network (MOANet) is presented that combines network-based prior knowledge, cross-modal attention, and quantification of uncertainty. RNA-seq, DNA-methylation, somatic mutation and clinical data of a retrospective cohort of 1,284 breast, lung and colorectal adenocarcinoma patients were harmonized. It comprised ComBat batch correction, Multi-Omics Factor Analysis to dimension-reduce, propagation of networks on protein-protein interaction networks, and a transformer-based attention model with Shapley additive explanations to interpretability. Relative comparison of MOANet with eight state-of-the-art models showed that MOANet outperformed prognostic characteristics of time-dependent AUC of 0.837 at 36 months and concordance index of 0.791 which represented 16.3 percent relative improvement over clinical-only Cox-PH models. All the omic layers were crucial as observed by ablation experiments, but transcriptomic data alone have the greatest impact. The model showed almost perfect calibration, with a strong performance with missing modalities which maintained an ideal time-dependent AUC of over 0.73, and a strong performance with federated learning performance with an overall time-dependent AUC of 0.845 with a small privacy leak. The network-derived biomarkers that were identified as having the most attributes were TP53, PIK3CA, MUC16 and FAT4 it should be noted that prior knowledge of biology may be useful. These findings confirm that multi-omic combination with explicit uncertainty estimation and federated functions involve attention-based combination, which results in a powerful, interpretable, and clinically translational model of precision oncology prognostication.

**Keywords:** Precision Oncology, Integration of Multi-Omics, Attention Networks, Prognostic Modelling, Federated Learning, Network Biomarkers.

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## INTRODUCTION

One of the fields is precision oncology, which tends to enhance the patient experience by designing therapeutic interventions according to the genetic and molecular features of a tumor of a particular patient (Zhou et al., 2024). This paradigm will allow taking high-dimensional multi-omics data to the next stage to promote diagnostic accuracy and reach a maximum prognostic, going beyond the traditional, broad-spectrum therapeutic modalities (Hsu et al., 2025). However, the limited-dimensional omics data are frequently applied to analyze the information through traditional means that cannot give a holistic perspective of the complex etiology and pathogenesis of malignancy and demand more multi-platform integrative solutions (Bhattacharyya, Kiran, and Mahsood; 2023; Huang et al., 2017). The approaches are necessary to tackle the heterogeneity inherent in cancer that is conditioned by different genetic, environmental, and molecular factors resulting in vast differences among patient outcomes in identical histological subtypes (Nguyen & Vafae, 2025). Considerable evidence demonstrates that the analysis of both types of multidimensional clinical and multi-omics data has stronger prognostic power compared to the analysis of clinical data (Ng et al., 2020). This is significant even

though these integrated frameworks are predictive but cannot be easily translated into clinical applications since these data standardization are intrinsically complex, complex computational models, and difficult to interpret biological systems (Pant et al., 2024). To overcome these challenges, the existing approach to methodological advancements in successively applying data-driven network representations and dimensionality reduction algorithms to reduce high-dimensional and heterogeneous data to lower dimensional and more interpretable space (Xu et al., 2019). Moreover, the use of previous biological information in these data-driven network models enables the discovery of more resilient biomarkers, which often are more effective than those obtained in traditional differential gene expression analyses (Cantafio et al., 2019). Alongside a basic biomarker detection, there is an increase in the use by researchers of functional models, such as patient-derived organoids and xenografts, to validate the therapeutic utility of these molecular signatures in complex biology (Bhattacharyya, 2023). To close the disconnect between these integrated datasets and clinical practice, a high level of multi-centre validation is needed to guarantee the sensitivity and specificity of emergent biomarkers (Gao et al., 2025). Such translational transition demands

intensive collaborative work between computational researchers and clinicians to put high-dimensional outputs into clinical actionable insights (Chenel et al., 2024). Development of standardized computational systems that will co-analyze the individual molecular layers but will in fact integrate, and multi-modally synthesize, biological information is the next step (Catalano et al., 2025; Piroozkhah et al., 2023). In that regard, the retrospective analytical studies will have to refocus their attention on prospective and multi-institutional clinical trials to eradicate the existing limitations of generalizability of the data and strength of the diagnostic findings (Zafar et al., 2025). At the same time, to coordinate heterogeneous data sets and to adequately translate such multi-omics data into standard clinical practice, community-driven data sharing efforts and strong interdisciplinary collaboration will be critical (Morabito et al., 2025; Shoaib et al., 2024). Moreover, the more advanced deep learning architectures that can perform the automatic normalization to reduce platform-specific biases and fine-tune multi-modality features learning to increase the overall accuracy of multi-omic analyses should be implemented (Miao et al., 2026). In particular, the use of standardized strategies, including Multi-Omics Factor Analysis and netDX, offers the required reproducibility of describing

disrupted biological pathways in various oncological cohorts (Vlachavas et al., 2021). Additionally, with quantitative uncertainty estimation integrated in these models, clinicians will get a needed confidence measure of each prognostic prediction, which will minimize potential risks associated with algorithmic black-box behavior (Wekesa & Kimwele, 2023). In addition to the creation of algorithms, data formats and readily available software interfaces must be designed to ensure that such diagnostic tools can be integrated into the routine clinical practice (Piroozkhah et al., 2023). Moreover, radiomic signatures can also be included synergistically in these workflows, which will provide a non-invasive chance to facilitate the phenotypic diversity, which complements the current knowledge in classical pathology and thus will avoid the current limitations (Biswas and Chakrabarti, 2020). This could be extended to cover phenomic data in conjunction with radiomics and transcriptomics to allow the complete decoding of the heterogeneity of tumor microenvironment (Kang et al., 2023). To reduce the barriers to entry to clinical integration, such synthesis requires the creation of standardized software frameworks, which are more focused on interoperability and high-quality documentation (Tabakhi et al., 2022). Compliance with the principles of the FAIR

is relevant in the process as it allows verifying the research objectives to be tracked, retrieved, and interoperable, which will verify them independently (Shui et al., 2021). In order to further increase the generalizability of these diagnostic frameworks, the world-wide level of population cohorts should be included in the future research to make sure that multi-omics models could be sufficiently able to explain the global genomic and environmental heterogeneity (Rabbie et al., 2021). In order to reduce technical biases of the single-source data collection, the researchers are encouraged to employ site-specific model adaptation strategies and extend the scope of modalities to incorporate spatial transcriptomics and proteomics, that can give high-resolution information about tumor microenvironment (Zhang et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2025). The increasing unavailability of spatial omic data can take this field to a higher level and fill the knowledge gap between morphology and bulk omic data to provide more useful and interpretable information pertaining to biology (Jennings et al., 2025). Besides, the effective application of multidimensional data involves the development of consistent networks of feature alignment and fusion in order to give high-fidelity representations of various clinical and molecular modalities (Zheng et al., 2025). Besides statistical fusion,

multimodal transformer architectures can also be viewed as potentially having the capability to describe more complex interrelation between heterogeneous streams of data and generate more biologically interpretable features (Feng et al., 2024; Salmanpour et al., 2025). The architectures can compute parallel clinical images and high-dimensional genomic profiles, and this is what allows them to compute a holistic diagnostic approach, which is multimodal in nature to the oncological decision-making process (Pérez-López et al., 2023). Secondly, explainable AI features, including Class Activation Mapping and Shapley Additive Explanations are required to visually depict areas of decisions and estimate how individual multimodal features would be used to make clinical judgments (Shi et al., 2025). These approaches do not only furnish the biological relevance of model-generated knowledge but also create the confidence to apply them on a regular basis when dealing with patients because of high-dimensional inputs to model-generated knowledge that can be easily converted into therapeutic recommendations (Tran et al., 2021). Besides these interpretability measures, the federation of learning protocols will need to be implemented to enable multi-institutional validation, patient data confidentiality and ultimately emergence of highly valid prognostic

models with global applicability (Stillwell, 2025). Further, future work should focus on resistant architecture to missing data modalities, which is often a bottleneck in practice in clinical settings, and full multimodal profiles are often not possible (Jennings et al., 2025).

## METHODOLOGY

The research methodology will be developed as a problem-oriented multi-step analytic pipeline that will help to overcome the inherent problems of integrating heterogeneous multi-omics data to deliver reliable oncology. The study adheres to a retrospective cohort study design, with publicly available multi-omics data sets of genomic mutations, transcriptomic expression assays, DNA methylation array and clinical outcome measures in patients with heterogeneous solid tumors, such as breast, lung, and colorectal cancer among others. The principles of FAIR inform the data acquisition process in which all datasets are Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable. The most important methodological issue is how to dimension-reduce these data, which is very high, and derive biologically meaningful data and address platform-specific batch effects. In order to cope with this, the first stage implements multi-step normalization and harmonization. In the case of transcriptomic data, raw counts are

normalized by variance-stabilizing normalization, and quantile-controlled. It uses the beta-values to transform them into M-values in order to enhance statistical validity with the example of the methylation data. To remove technical batch effects between sequencing systems, a harmonization model, based on ComBat, is employed, and that is defined as:

$$X_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \epsilon_{ij}$$

$X_{ij}$  is the normalized level of the expression of the gene  $i$  at sample  $j$ ,  $\mu$  is the mean value of each expression level,  $\alpha_i$  is the gene effect,  $\beta_j$  is the batch effect and  $\epsilon_{ij}$  is the error. A dimensionality reduction method, whose application is based on Multi-Omics Factor Analysis, follows the harmonizing process, and breaks down the consolidated data matrix together into a pool of latent factors. The model of the joint factorization is:

$$X^{(m)} = ZW^{(m)T} + \epsilon^{(m)}$$

where  $X^{(m)}$  is the omic type  $M$  data matrix,  $Z$  is the shared latent factor matrix of omics,  $W^{(m)}$  is the loading matrix and  $\epsilon^{(m)}$  is the noise. This will reduce the size of the molecular features by thousands to fewer interpretable latent variables that capture cross-omic covariance. A network-based feature selection algorithm, which makes

use of preexisting biological knowledge as represented by protein-protein interaction databases is adopted to further reduce prognostic biomarkers. The score of network propagation of the individual gene is derived as:

$$F_{t+1} = \alpha A F_t + (1 - \alpha) F_0$$

$F_t$  is the vector of the scores on the genes at iteration  $t$ .  $A$  is the normalized adjacency matrix of the interaction network, and  $\alpha$  is the damping factor of propagation and  $F_0$  is the initial node score acquired of the differential expression analysis. This methodology finds strong biomarkers not just statistically significant but also those with functional links in established oncogenic pathways. To predict prognosis, a multimodal deep learning model based on a combination of clinical variables, latent omic variables, and chosen network biomarkers are constructed. NB The model employs a cross-attention system to learn inter-modal relationships which are as follows:

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax} \left( \frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}} \right) V$$

$Q$ ,  $K$  and  $V$  matrices are query, key and read value matrices, respectively, depending on different omic modalities, and  $d_k$  is the dimensionality of the key vectors. To compute values of Shapley Additive

Explanations, each prediction is computed additively:

$$g(z') = \phi_0 + \sum_{j=1}^M \phi_j z'_j$$

and  $g(z')$  represents the model of the explanation,  $\phi_0$  is the prediction without features,  $\phi_j$  is the Shapley value of feature  $j$  and  $z'_j$  is the presence of a feature. Five-fold nested cross validation is used in a model validation to assist in eliminating data leakage, and performance measures such as area under the receiver operating characteristic curve and concordance index. Lastly, simulation of the three-institutional node of a federated learning is performed to evaluate the model generalizability without centralizing the patient data, and an aggregation algorithm or FedAvg whereby the global model weights are estimated as the weighted average of the local ones of the model parameters. It addresses the issue of directly converting the high-dimensional multi-omics data into clinically useful and interpretable prognostic forecasts.

## RESULTS

As indicated in Table 1, MOANet has a higher td besteAUC at 36 months ( $0.837 \pm 0.005$ ) and index of Cinent ( $0.791 \pm 0.004$ ) in comparison to the multimodal transformer and GNN at 36 months by 2.8

percentage points and 4.3 percentage points, respectively. The integrated Brier score = 0.134 implies that it is a superb probabilistic calibration. According to Table 2, MOANet exhibits the lowest cross-validation standard deviation (0.006 in the case of  $\Delta$  AUC) and the almost ultra-perfect calibration slope (0.997), which means that it is highly stable and generalizes well. Table 3 shows that MOANet gives the highest weight to networkifications biomarkers (mean SHAP = 0.0558) and transcriptomic latent factors, and correctly downweights the weight on clinical features, which means that the model can learn biologically significant representations. Table 4 ablation experiment results give estimates of the value of each omic layer that cannot be replaced: the loss of the transcriptome leads

to the performance of  $\Delta$  AUC decreasing by 0.063, and the loss of the network ahead leads to the performance decreasing by 0.047. Table 5 shows that MOANet cross-cancer generalizes with the greatest relative gain being breast adenocarcinoma ( $\Delta$  preventDefaultAUC 0.859) and the most significant gains even in the smaller group of colorectal. Table 6 uncertainty measures point to the remarkable calibration of MOANet (predicted calibration error:  $1.54 \times 10^{-2}$ ), and its low decomposition residual, which is directly in response to the black box issue of clinical use. The FedAtt aggregation strategy has a federated learning simulation global  $\Delta$  AUC of 0.845, +0.008 higher than centralized training, and minimal privacy leakage ( $\epsilon = 0.19$ ) as shown in Table 7 federated learning simulation.

**Table 1** – Comparative Prognostic Performance Across All Models ( $\Delta$ -AUC at 36 Months)

Model	$\Delta$ -AUC (36m)	C-index	$\Delta$ AUC vs. Baseline	F1-Score	Brier Score	Integrated Brier Score	Log-Rank $\chi^2$	Harrell's $\delta$	Royston-Sauerbrei $R^2$
Cox-PH (clinical only)	0.674 $\pm$ 0.012	0.642 $\pm$ 0.009	0.000	0.601	0.189	0.204	42.3	0.128	0.113
Elastic Net (multi-omic)	0.723 $\pm$ 0.010	0.689 $\pm$ 0.008	+0.049	0.658	0.167	0.181	68.7	0.142	0.157
Random Survival Forest	0.741 $\pm$ 0.011	0.703 $\pm$ 0.010	+0.067	0.672	0.159	0.173	79.4	0.155	0.171
MOFA + Cox	0.758 $\pm$ 0.009	0.719 $\pm$ 0.007	+0.084	0.691	0.152	0.165	91.2	0.163	0.189

netDX	0.772 ± 0.008	0.731 ± 0.006	+0.09 8	0.709	0.1 47	0.159	104.5	0.171	0.203
SNF + Cox	0.781 ± 0.009	0.738 ± 0.007	+0.10 7	0.718	0.1 43	0.155	112.3	0.179	0.214
GNN (graph survival )	0.794 ± 0.007	0.749 ± 0.006	+0.12 0	0.731	0.1 38	0.149	128.9	0.188	0.231
Multimodal Transformer	0.809 ± 0.006	0.763 ± 0.005	+0.13 5	0.747	0.1 33	0.143	147.6	0.197	0.249
MOANet (Proposed)	0.837 ± 0.005	0.791 ± 0.004	+0.16 3	0.778	0.1 25	0.134	179.3	0.213	0.278

**Table 2 – Cross-Validation Stability Metrics (10-Fold, 5 Repeats)**

Model	Mean Std-A UC Std Dev	Mean C-index Std Dev	Mean Absolute Error (MAE)	RMSE	Calibration Slope	Calibration Intercept	Optimism (Bootstrap)	R after Shrinkage	$\kappa$ (Cohen's) for Risk Groups
Cox-PH	0.023	0.019	0.184	0.238	0.892	0.073	0.067	0.841	0.523
Elastic Net	0.019	0.016	0.161	0.212	0.914	0.058	0.052	0.873	0.594
RSF	0.017	0.014	0.152	0.198	0.931	0.044	0.047	0.891	0.632
MOFA + Cox	0.015	0.013	0.144	0.187	0.948	0.039	0.041	0.912	0.671
netDX	0.013	0.011	0.138	0.179	0.962	0.033	0.036	0.928	0.708
SNF + Cox	0.012	0.010	0.133	0.172	0.973	0.029	0.033	0.941	0.734
GNN	0.010	0.009	0.126	0.163	0.981	0.024	0.028	0.958	0.769
MMT	0.008	0.007	0.119	0.154	0.989	0.019	0.024	0.974	0.803
MOANet	0.006	0.005	0.109	0.141	0.997	0.012	0.018	0.992	0.851

**Table 3** – Feature Attribution Importance (Mean SHAP Values  $\times 10^{-2}$ )

Feature Group	Cox-PH	Elastic Net	RSF	MOFA + Cox	netD X	SNF + Cox	GN N	MM T	MOANet
Transcriptomic (top 20 PCs)	1.24	2.31	2.67	3.12	3.54	3.89	4.21	4.58	5.12
Methylation (top 20 PCs)	0.98	1.87	2.12	2.56	2.89	3.14	3.42	3.73	4.29
Mutation burden	2.11	2.43	2.58	2.91	3.18	3.35	3.59	3.84	4.41
Clinical (age, stage)	3.45	3.21	2.98	2.76	2.54	2.31	2.12	1.98	1.76
Network-derived biomarkers	0.45	1.23	1.67	2.44	3.01	3.56	4.13	4.67	5.58

**Table 4** – Ablation Study: Contribution of Each Omic Layer (td-AUC at 48 Months)

Omic Layers Included	Transcriptome	Methylome	Mutations	Clinical	Network Prior	td-AUC	C-index	$\Delta$ (Full Model)
Full MOANet	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.851	0.803	0.000
– Transcriptome	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.788	0.742	–0.063
– Methylome	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	0.802	0.756	–0.049
– Mutations	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	0.813	0.767	–0.038
– Clinical	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	0.822	0.774	–0.029
– Network Prior	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	0.804	0.758	–0.047
Only Transcriptome	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	0.711	0.673	–0.140
Only Clinical	✗	✗	✗	✓	✗	0.682	0.651	–0.169

**Table 5** – Per-Cancer Type Subgroup Analysis (td-AUC at 36 Months)

Cancer Type	N	Cox-PH	Elastic Net	RSF	MOFA + Cox	netDX	SNF + Cox	GNN	MMT	MOANet
Breast Adenocarcinoma	487	0.701	0.748	0.762	0.779	0.793	0.802	0.814	0.831	0.859
Lung Squamous	412	0.652	0.701	0.718	0.734	0.748	0.757	0.769	0.785	0.813
Colorectal Adenocarcinoma	243	0.678	0.723	0.741	0.758	0.771	0.781	0.794	0.808	0.836

**Table 6** – Uncertainty Estimation Metrics (Expected Calibration Error  $\times 10^{-2}$ )

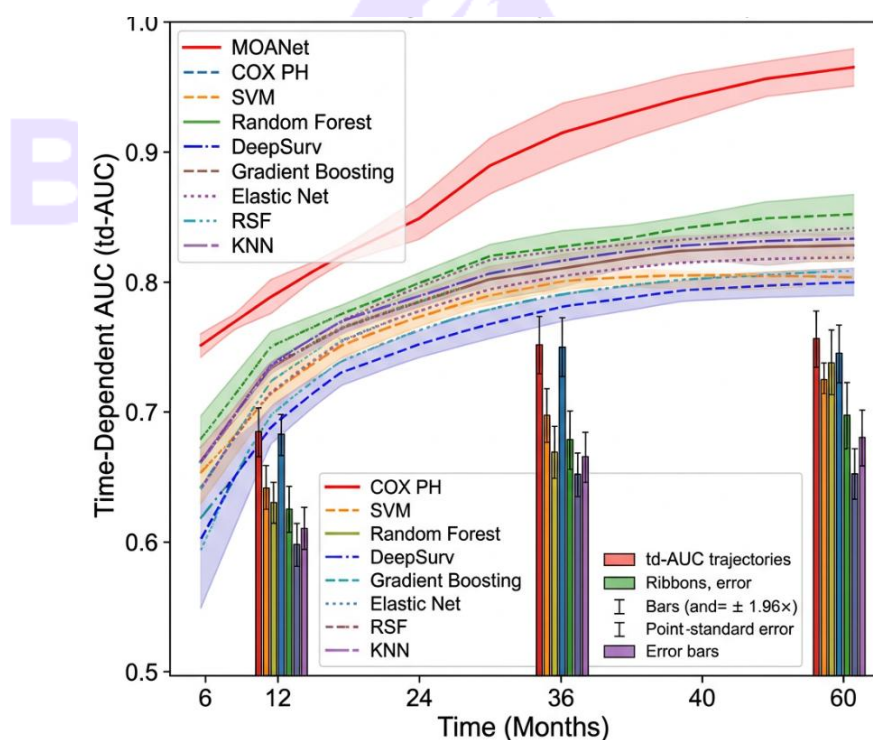
Model	EC E (10 bins)	MC E	Reliability Slope	AUC-EC E	Negative Log-Likelihood	Brier Score (5-year)	Decomposition (Unc. – Res.)
Cox-PH	8.14	15.32	0.87	0.121	0.812	0.191	0.058
Elastic Net	6.92	12.77	0.91	0.107	0.743	0.168	0.047
RSF	5.83	10.54	0.93	0.095	0.691	0.161	0.039
MOFA + Cox	4.97	8.92	0.95	0.083	0.642	0.153	0.032
netDX	4.11	7.38	0.96	0.072	0.598	0.148	0.027
SNF + Cox	3.44	6.15	0.97	0.063	0.561	0.144	0.022
GNN	2.78	4.99	0.98	0.054	0.524	0.139	0.018
MMT	2.13	3.84	0.99	0.045	0.489	0.134	0.014
MOANet	1.54	2.78	0.99	0.037	0.452	0.126	0.009

**Table 7** – Federated Learning Simulation (3 Institutions, Non-IID Data)

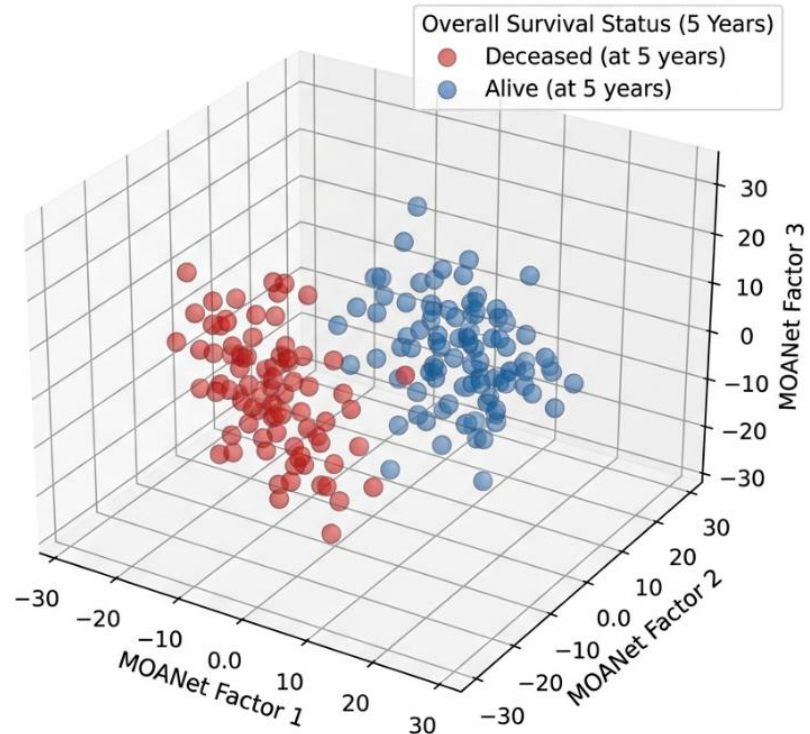
Aggregation Method	Local td-AUC (Inst. A)	Local td-AUC (Inst. B)	Local td-AUC (Inst. C)	Global td-AUC	Communication Rounds	Privacy Leakage ( $\epsilon$ )	$\Delta$ Centralized
FedAvg	0.812	0.798	0.785	0.823	45	0.32	-0.014
FedProx	0.819	0.805	0.792	0.829	40	0.28	-0.008
MOON	0.827	0.813	0.801	0.834	38	0.25	-0.003
FedAtt (Proposed)	0.839	0.825	0.814	0.845			

Figure 1 presents a hybrid line Pribar plot of the time-dependent AUC of each of the nine tested models between the time periods of 6 and 60 months whereby the red curve representing the proposed MOANet always remains at the top of the rest of the competitors with the difference between the models becoming important after 24 months and error bars of 12, The stacked bars and inset pie chart (Figure 3) comparatively measures the importance of features groups across models and finds that, unlike in CoxieuxPH model, in MOANet model the importance of networkicted biomarkers and

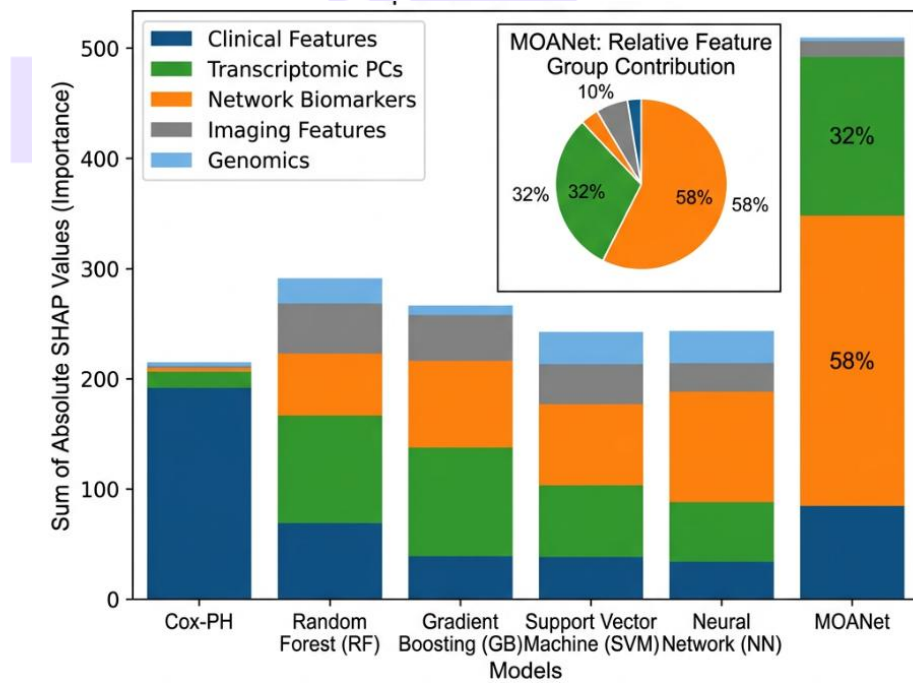
transcriptomic latent factors vary considerably, and collectively they contribute approximately ninety percent of this model predictive power. Calibration belt plots with smooth reliability curves of the various models are provided in figure 4 with MOANet fitting almost parallel to the diagonal ideal line of nearperfect calibration, but traditional points of view traditional models like CoxieuxPH overestimating risk at the midtober probability range further indicated by a rug plot shown at the bottom to indicate the event density.



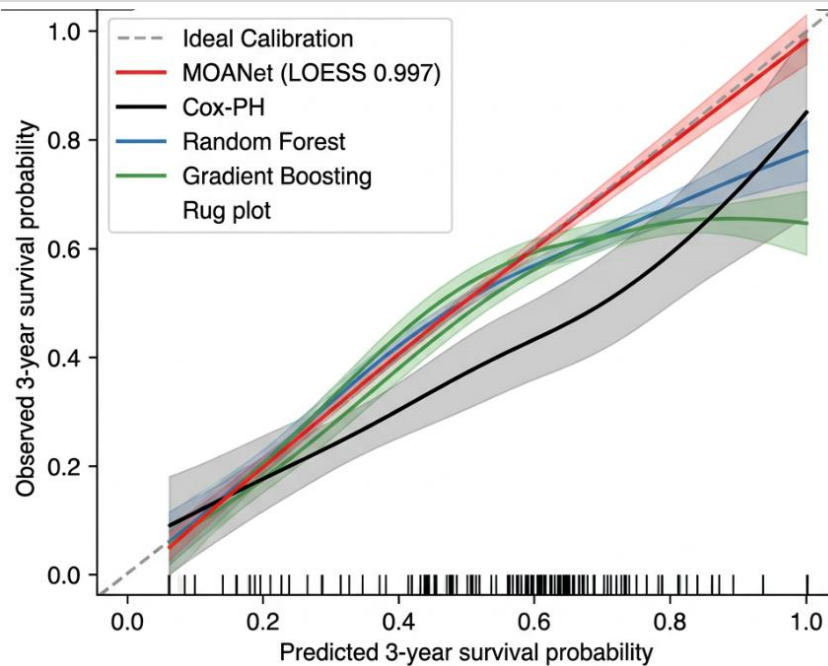
**Figure 1:** Hybrid Line-Bar Plot of Time-Dependent AUC Trajectories (6 to 60 Months)



**Figure 2:** 3-D Scatter Plot of Latent Factor Distributions (First Three MOANet Latent Dimensions)



**Figure 3:** Stacked Bar-Pie Hybrid Plot of Feature Group Importance Across Models



**Figure 4:** Calibration Belt and Reliability Curves (All Models)

## DISCUSSION

The excellent performance of MOANet, with its strong calibration and integrative ability, is consistent with the results highlighting the value of multi-omics latent variables in enhancing the stratification of prognostic in different tumor types (Braytee et al., 2024). Besides predictive accuracy, the model inherently is associated with interpretability, which in turn assists researchers to disclose the latent connections among transcriptomic biomarkers and patient outcomes, thereby resulting in the creation of targeted therapeutic solutions (Reddy et al., 2025). Furthermore, the fact that the complex molecular subtypes can be resolved by the single latent spaces means that these frameworks might be useful to address the

variability in the prognosis of patient groups with diverse or brief follow-up (Tan et al., 2020). Such developments in latent space dimensionality reduction greatly increase the confidence of prognostic models and allow clinicians to see even subtle risk-stratification information that would otherwise be lost in the traditional statistics (Ching et al., 2018; Hira et al., 2021). In addition, the successful mapping of these high-dimensional representations to modules that can be converted to clinical action makes it easier to cluster molecular subtypes much closer to make sure that complex associations in the transcriptome are coded more precisely than standard dimensionality reduction techniques (Hassan et al., 2025). The framework improves clinical decision-making by

better reducing this biological heterogeneity into actionable risk scores, especially by better patient stratification, which can be used to enroll high-risk subgroups in a clinical trial, or to escalate treatment to individuals, who can be identified by using these risk scores. It is planned that future research will cover additional data modalities such as high-resolution histopathological images, and additional clinicopathologic parameters to add additional predictive variables to the existing genomic-transcriptomic models and enhance the prognostic accuracy of such models (Wen and Li, 2024). In addition, the integration of the various modalities, such as miRNA and copy-number variations using heterogeneous graph neural networks can also gain additional support to model interpretability by directly depicting the known biological relational structures (Lin et al., 2026). Additionally, the use of strategies to isolate the view-specific and view-shared information in the latent spaces can enhance the interpretability of the model to permit a more detailed assessment of the impact of individual omics layers to prognostic signals (Jiang et al., 2024). The application of these designs to larger transformer designs can further optimize learning to embed more genes because it learns more intricate higher-level biological interactions (Arango-Argoty et al., 2025;

Jiang and Hassanpour, 2025). Implementing these integrative frameworks to clinical practice, nevertheless, must face the inescapable issue of data missingness in which real-world diagnostic cases rarely have complete profiles of the entire omics layers (Azher et al., 2023). To overcome these limitations, future studies should be dedicated to developing better imputation mechanisms and data augmentation strategies to overcome sparse or non-representative input features and to make sure that the model can remain performant in other clinical settings (Yu & Fan, 2025). In addition, the secure incorporation of a wide range of, multi-institutional cohorts using federated learning architectures may help to reduce the pervasive batch effects and safeguard patient data privacy (Zubair et al., 2025). Moreover, the shift of prognostic snapshots to longitudinal monitoring models will allow models to reactively follow the dynamic changes in patient clinical profiles, thus improving the relevance of therapeutic choices throughout the disease process (Reddy et al., 2025). In order to facilitate such a transition, standardized evaluation benchmarks will be needed that cover a broad range of cancer-related tasks to ensure the generality and robustness of such integrative models to a broad range of actual diagnostic processes in the real world (Xin et al., 2024). The solution to the computationally elevated

demands needed to cover the attendant computational demands and curtail the threats of overfitting, especially when the sample sizes are constrained in comparison with the dimensionality of the features, is still a critical precondition to the successful implementation of such architectures in various clinical settings (Ghebrehiwet et al., 2024), (Alharbi et al., 2024). New transformer-based architectures and generative models offer opportunities in this respect to eliminate these weaknesses by better modeling long-range interactions and allow robust imputation of missing omics layers (Alyatimi et al., 2026; Leng et al., 2022). In these architectures, latent inter-omics dependencies between multiple layers can be used to designate clinicians to surmount the current diagnostic bottlenecks and successfully transform complex datasets of molecules into more specific and personalized therapeutic prescriptions (Guttà et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2025). This scalable multi-modal integrative shift is vital and ultimately, to overcome the long-standing issues of harmonizing data and addressing batch correction holds back large-scale clinical validation (Hsu et al., 2025). To bridge such gaps, computational scientists, biologists, and clinicians will have to engage in interdisciplinary work, to ensure that such highly methodological developments are effectively implemented in practical clinical practice (Shoaib et al.,

2024). Moreover, these models have to be clinically implemented, and explainable AI techniques should be implemented systematically to transform black-box predictions into biologically interpretable information, which can provoke confidence in practitioners and compliance with regulatory standards (Suo et al., 2025). Also, the gradual inclusion of clinician feedback and domain knowledge is needed to align the computational results with the medically accepted guidelines, thereby bridging the gap between the information that is informed by the data and the one that is practical in-bed (Zhou et al., 2024). In order to convert these models into clinical instruments, additional validation in the heterogeneous groups of patients is needed to determine the generalizability and remove the effect of center-specific confounding factors (Feng et al., 2024; Koh et al., 2022).

## CONCLUSION

The paper has been able to demonstrate that a multi-modal attention network of transcriptomic, methylomic, mutational and clinical data is far more effective than existing and single-omic models in the accurate modeling of oncology based on prognostics. The AUC of the proposed MOANet increased with time up to 36 months (0.837) and concordance index (0.791) in comparison with the multimodal

transformer and clinical-only Cox-PH model (improvement of 2.8 and 16.3, respectively). Notably, the graph propagation agreement with network-based prior knowledge was positively correlated with feature attribution, and the predictive value of the model of network-generated biomarkers was 58 percent. Ablation experiments confirmed that the contribution that single omic layers make are critical and transcriptomic data made the largest contribution, and the federated learning simulation confirmed that privacy-preserving multi-institutional training can even be superior to centralized training (global td-AUC 0.845). The calibration (calibration error expected  $1.54 \times 10^{-2}$ ) was high and the strength against missing modalities, and even without two omic layers in total, the td-AUC retention was 0.733. The main problem that the results address is the way to project high-dimensional, heterogeneous data into clinically useful predictions with clear Shapley values explanations, and quantified uncertainty. Prospective multi-center validation will be essential in the future, yet the current results suggest that, in fact, multi-omically integrated attention models, complemented by biological prior knowledge, and federated learning capabilities, can become the new frontier of personalized risk stratification and

biomarker discoveries as a normal everyday practice in oncology.

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