Review Article

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Advancements in Liquid Biopsy and Molecular Diagnostics for Early Disease Detection: A Review of Clinical Utility and Implementation

Othman Yahya Alyahyawy[1], Mohammed E Masri[2], Badr Essa Masri[3], Shorog Yousif Abdalgdoos[4], Mayasim Abdullah Tilmisani[5], Mohammed Ahmed Almaghrabi[6], Nessren Yousef Basyoni[7], Soa'ad Masoud Alsulami[4], Sami Saeed Emam[8], Mohammed A A Alghamdi[4]*, Atif A Alsehimi[4] and Essa Yahya Alfaifi[4]

[1]*Department of Medical Laboratory Technology (MLT), Faculty of Applied Medical Sciences, King Abdulaziz University, Rabigh, Saudi Arabia*

[2]*Senior Specialist in Laboratories and Blood Banks, Regional laboratory Jeddah, Saudi Arabia*

[3]*Medical Laboratory Specialist, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia*

[4]*Medical Laboratory Technologist, King Abdulaziz University Hospital- Jeddah, Saudi Arabia*

[5]*Medical Laboratory Technician, King Abdulaziz University Hospital- Jeddah, Saudi Arabia*

[6]*Nursing Specialist (BSN), King Abdulaziz University Hospital, Saudi Arabia*

[7]*Laboratory Technician, King Abdulaziz University Hospital- Jeddah, Saudi Arabia*

[8]*Medical Laboratory Technologist, King Abdulaziz University Medical Services Centre- Jeddah, Saudi Arabia*

***Corresponding author:** Mohammed AA Alghamdi, Medical Laboratory Technologist, King Abdulaziz University Hospital- Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

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ABSTRACT

The paradigm of oncological diagnostics has undergone a transformative shift with the emergence of liquid biopsy as a non-invasive alternative to traditional tissue biopsies. This review evaluates the current state of liquid biopsy technologies, focusing on their capacity to detect circulating tumor cells (CTCs), circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), and exosomes for early-stage disease identification. Through an analysis of recent clinical breakthroughs, this paper examines how molecular diagnostics provide real-time insights into the genomic landscape of malignancies, facilitating precision oncology and personalized treatment strategies. The integration of advanced platforms, including microfluidic systems and artificial intelligence, has significantly enhanced the sensitivity and specificity of biomarker detection, particularly in complex cancers such as pancreatic, breast, and hepatocellular carcinoma. Despite these technological revolutions, the clinical implementation of liquid biopsy faces substantial hurdles related to standardization, cost-effectiveness, and the biological complexity of early-stage tumors. This paper synthesizes evidence from leading longitudinal studies and clinical reviews to determine the efficacy of these tools in improving patient survival rates through timely intervention. The findings suggest that while liquid biopsy represents the future of cancer screening, its widespread clinical utility depends on overcoming existing technical dilemmas and establishing robust diagnostic frameworks. Ultimately, the synthesis of molecular insights with traditional imaging and clinical data remains the most viable path toward achieving high-accuracy early detection.

Keywords: Liquid Biopsy; Circulating Tumor DNA; Precision Oncology; Early Detection; Molecular Diagnostics; Artificial Intelligence

Abbreviations: CTCs: Circulating Tumor Cells; EVs: Extracellular Vesicles; PDAC: Pancreatic Ductal Adenocarcinoma; CA19-9: Carbohydrate Antigen 19-9; HCC: Hepatocellular Carcinoma; AFP: Alpha-Fetoprotein; AI: Artificial Intelligence; ML: Machine Learning; NGS: Next-Generation Sequencing; AUC: Area Under the Curve; CHIP: Clonal Hematopoiesis of Indeterminate Potential; MCED: Multi-Cancer Early Detection

Introduction

The detection of cancer at its earliest stages remains the most significant challenge in modern oncology, as late-stage diagnoses frequently correlate with poor prognosis and limited therapeutic options [1]. While traditional tissue biopsy has long served as the gold standard for diagnosis, its inherent limitations, including invasiveness, procedural risks, and the inability to capture the full spectrum of tumor heterogeneity, have necessitated the development of more dynamic diagnostic tools [2]. Liquid biopsy has emerged as a revolutionary methodology in this context, offering a minimally invasive approach to sample biological fluids such as blood, urine, or saliva to gain molecular insights into a patient's health status [3]. These biological samples contain diverse tumor-derived materials, such as circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), circulating tumor cells (CTCs), and extracellular vesicles, which provide a comprehensive view of the genomic and proteomic alterations driving disease progression [4].

The clinical utility of liquid biopsy extends beyond simple detection, encompassing the monitoring of treatment response, the identification of minimal residual disease, and the tracking of clonal evolution over time [5]. Recent advancements in high-throughput sequencing and digital polymerase chain reaction have drastically improved the detection limits of these markers, allowing for the identification of genetic mutations even at extremely low concentrations in the peripheral blood [6]. Furthermore, the integration of microfluidic technologies and artificial intelligence (AI) has optimized the isolation and analysis of biomarkers, paving the way for automated and highly accurate diagnostic platforms [7,8]. Despite these successes, the transition from bench to bedside is complicated by the low abundance of biomarkers in early-stage asymptomatic patients and the need for standardized protocols across different clinical settings [9]. This review aims to provide a comprehensive analysis of the technological advancements and clinical implementation of liquid biopsy in the contemporary medical landscape. It explores the diverse range of biomarkers utilized in molecular diagnostics and evaluates their performance in various solid tumors, including breast, pancreatic, and bladder cancers [10-12]. By examining the intersection of liquid biopsy with imaging and AI, this paper highlights the potential for a multi-modal diagnostic approach to redefine cancer screening [13]. As molecular diagnostics continue to evolve, understanding the balance between technological capabilities and clinical dilemmas is essential for establishing liquid biopsy as a standard of care in precision medicine [14].

Research Objectives

The primary objective of this review is to evaluate the technological advancements in liquid biopsy and their clinical utility for the early detection of diseases, specifically focusing on various cancer types. A secondary objective is to analyze the molecular diagnostic components, such as ctDNA, CTCs, and exosomes, to determine their efficacy in providing accurate genomic landscapes. Furthermore, this research seeks to explore the role of emerging technologies, including microfluidics and artificial intelligence, in enhancing the sensitivity of biomarker detection. Finally, the paper aims to identify the current challenges and dilemmas in clinical implementation, proposing future directions for the standardization and widespread adoption of liquid biopsy in precision oncology.

Literature Review

The evolution of liquid biopsy represents a significant paradigm shift in the field of precision oncology, transitioning from static tissue analysis to dynamic blood-based monitoring [4]. Historically, cancer diagnosis relied heavily on surgical biopsies, which often failed to represent the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of the tumor [2]. Liquid biopsy addresses these shortcomings by providing a holistic view of the tumor burden through the analysis of circulating biomarkers shed into body fluids [3]. Among these biomarkers, circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) is perhaps the most widely studied, as it carries the same genetic mutations, epigenetic changes, and chromosomal rearrangements found in the primary tumor [15]. The ability to detect ctDNA allows clinicians to identify oncogenic drivers and track molecular resistance before it becomes clinically apparent through imaging [5].

Circulating tumor cells (CTCs) represent another critical component of the liquid biopsy repertoire, offering insights into the metastatic potential of a tumor [16]. Unlike ctDNA, which provides fragmented genetic information, CTCs are intact cells that can be subjected to functional assays, transcriptomic analysis, and even the development of cell-derived xenografts [17]. However, the extreme rarity of CTCs in the blood—often as few as one cell per billion blood cells—requires highly specialized enrichment techniques [6]. Recent breakthroughs in microfluidic technology have revolutionized this process, utilizing the physical and biochemical properties of CTCs to isolate them with high purity and efficiency [7]. These microfluidic platforms allow for the high-throughput processing of blood samples, significantly reducing the time and cost associated with CTC analysis [18].

Beyond DNA and cells, exosomes and other extracellular vesicles (EVs) have gained prominence as stable carriers of proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids [19]. Exosomes are secreted by both healthy and malignant cells, but tumor-derived exosomes carry specific molecular signatures that can be used for early detection and monitoring [10]. The lipid bilayer of exosomes protects their cargo from enzymatic degradation in the bloodstream, making them highly reliable biomarkers for molecular diagnostics [15]. Furthermore, the analysis of exosomal RNA and proteins provides a more comprehensive picture of the tumor microenvironment than ctDNA alone [17]. Integrating multi-omic data from ctDNA, CTCs, and exosomes is increasingly viewed as the most effective strategy for enhancing the diagnostic power of liquid biopsy [9].

The clinical application of liquid biopsy has shown particular promise in cancers with high mortality rates and subtle early symptoms, such as pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) [20]. Pancreatic cancer is often diagnosed at an advanced stage, making the search for reliable early-detection markers a high priority [11]. Research has identified carbohydrate antigen 19-9 (CA19-9) as a useful anchor marker, but its sensitivity is often insufficient when used in isolation [20]. Combining CA19-9 with ctDNA or protein panels has been shown to improve detection rates, although challenges remain in distinguishing early-stage cancer from benign conditions like chronic pancreatitis [11]. Similarly, in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), liquid biopsy markers such as ctDNA methylation and microRNA profiles are being evaluated for their ability to complement traditional alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) testing and ultrasound screening [21].

In breast cancer management, liquid biopsy is being utilized to detect minimal residual disease and predict recurrence long before clinical symptoms emerge [10]. The detection of ctDNA after surgery or chemotherapy serves as a powerful indicator of treatment efficacy, allowing for the early escalation or de-escalation of therapy [5]. For bladder cancer, liquid biopsy of urine provides a truly non-invasive means of monitoring for tumor recurrence, potentially reducing the need for frequent and invasive cystoscopies [12]. These advancements illustrate the broad utility of molecular diagnostics across different anatomical sites and disease stages [19]. The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) has further catalyzed the growth of liquid biopsy by enabling the analysis of complex, high-dimensional datasets [8]. AI algorithms can identify subtle patterns in fragmentomics, methylation signatures, and protein expression that would be impossible for human analysts to discern [13]. These computational tools are particularly valuable in early screening, where the signal-to-noise ratio is often very low [8]. By combining AI-enhanced liquid biopsy with radiological imaging, clinicians can achieve a more nuanced understanding of tumor biology and patient prognosis [13]. This multi-modal approach is expected to become the cornerstone of future diagnostic frameworks [14].

Despite the rapid technological progress, several dilemmas persist regarding the clinical implementation of liquid biopsy [9]. One of the primary concerns is the lack of standardized pre-analytical and analytical protocols, which can lead to variability in results across different laboratories [1]. Issues such as blood collection tubes, transport times, and DNA extraction methods all influence the quality of the final data [18]. Moreover, the high cost of next-generation sequencing (NGS) remains a barrier to widespread population-based screening [5]. There is also the risk of "over-diagnosis," where liquid biopsy may detect tiny, indolent lesions that might never have progressed to clinical disease, leading to unnecessary patient anxiety and intervention [9]. The future of molecular diagnostics lies in the development of "hot topics" such as single-cell sequencing and the exploration of novel biofluids [14]. Single-cell analysis of CTCs allows researchers to understand the clonal evolution of cancer and how specific cells develop resistance to therapy [17]. Furthermore, researchers are exploring the use of saliva, cerebrospinal fluid, and pleural effusions as sources of biomarkers for specific types of cancer, such as glioblastoma or lung cancer [3,16]. These innovations suggest that liquid biopsy will continue to evolve from a specialized research tool into an indispensable part of routine clinical practice [4]. The ultimate goal is to create a seamless diagnostic pathway that integrates molecular insights with clinical care to improve patient outcomes globally [19].

Results

The analysis of current literature reveals that liquid biopsy has achieved substantial breakthroughs in identifying various oncogenic markers with high precision [17]. Studies focusing on ctDNA have demonstrated its ability to detect somatic mutations in over 75% of patients with advanced cancers, though sensitivity remains lower in early-stage disease [6]. In the context of pancreatic cancer, longitudinal trajectories of CA19-9, when used as an anchor marker, showed that a significant increase in marker levels often precedes clinical diagnosis by several months, suggesting a window for early intervention [20]. However, the failure of liquid biopsy to become a standard early-detection tool for pancreatic cancer is attributed to the low concentration of tumor-derived materials in the circulation during the initial stages of tumor development [11].

Technological evaluations of microfluidic platforms indicate a marked improvement in the capture rate of CTCs, with some systems achieving over 90% purity and recovery [7]. These platforms facilitate the downstream molecular characterization of single cells, which is essential for understanding tumor heterogeneity and tailoring precision therapies [18]. In breast cancer studies, the presence of ctDNA following curative-intent treatment was highly predictive of future relapse, often providing a lead time of six to twelve months over standard imaging [10]. This predictive power allows for the identification of patients who may benefit from adjuvant therapies before the disease becomes metastatic [5]. In the field of hepatocellular carcinoma, liquid biopsy has shown efficacy in detecting epigenetic alterations, such as DNA methylation, which often occur earlier than genetic mutations [21]. The combination of methylation markers with protein assays has significantly enhanced the area under the curve (AUC) in diagnostic performance compared to AFP alone [21].

Similarly, urinary liquid biopsy for bladder cancer has demonstrated high sensitivity in detecting recurrences, with the potential to replace up to 50% of routine cystoscopies in low-risk patients [12]. These results underscore the versatility of liquid biopsy as a multi-fluid diagnostic tool that can be adapted to various clinical needs [4]. The integration of AI has produced notable results in refining the interpretation of liquid biopsy data [8]. AI-driven models have been able to differentiate between cancer patients and healthy controls with accuracies exceeding 90% by analyzing thousands of genomic

features simultaneously [13]. These models are particularly adept at reducing false-positive rates by filtering out clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP), which is a common source of biological noise in ctDNA assays [17]. Furthermore, the synergy between AI and molecular diagnostics has enabled the development of multi-cancer early detection (MCED) tests, which can screen for multiple types of cancer from a single blood draw [1].

Despite these promising results, the literature highlights a clear "clinical dilemma" regarding the scalability of these technologies [9]. While the technological revolutions are undeniable, the transition to routine screening is hampered by the high cost per test and the complexity of data interpretation [18]. Research indicates that while liquid biopsy is highly effective for monitoring known cancers, its role as a standalone screening tool for the general population requires further validation through large-scale prospective trials [5]. The results suggest that the current strength of liquid biopsy lies in its application to high-risk cohorts and its use as a complementary tool to existing diagnostic modalities [19].

Discussion

The clinical utility of liquid biopsy is rooted in its ability to provide a real-time, non-invasive "molecular snapshot" of the tumor, which is a major advancement over traditional methods [4]. However, the discussion regarding its implementation must balance this potential against the biological and technical challenges identified in the literature [9]. One of the most significant hurdles is the biological variability in biomarker shedding [11]. For instance, certain tumors, particularly those in the central nervous system or early-stage localized lesions, may shed very little DNA into the peripheral blood, leading to false-negative results [16]. This phenomenon necessitates the continued refinement of detection limits and the exploration of alternative biofluids like urine or saliva to increase the diagnostic yield [3,12].

The role of artificial intelligence in this field cannot be overstated, as it provides the computational power necessary to decode the complex information contained within liquid biopsies [8]. By leveraging machine learning, researchers can identify specific "fingerprints" of cancer that might be missed by targeted sequencing approaches [13]. This is especially important in the context of early detection, where the mutation frequency in ctDNA may be as low as 0.01% [6]. AI models can integrate this molecular data with clinical history and imaging findings to create a more robust diagnostic framework [13]. Nevertheless, the "black box" nature of some AI algorithms raises concerns regarding transparency and clinical validation, emphasizing the need for rigorous testing before these tools are used in standard practice [8].

The discussion also highlights a critical need for standardization across the liquid biopsy workflow [18]. Without uniform protocols for sample collection, storage, and analysis, the results of liquid biopsy tests may vary significantly between institutions, undermining their clinical reliability [1]. Efforts toward standardization are currently a "hot topic" in molecular diagnostics, as they are essential for obtaining regulatory approval and ensuring equitable access to these technologies [14]. Furthermore, the high cost of NGS-based liquid biopsies poses a challenge for healthcare systems, particularly in low-resource settings [6]. The development of more cost-effective platforms, such as microfluidic-based protein or RNA assays, may offer a solution to this problem [7].

Clinical dilemmas also arise from the potential for over-diagnosis and the management of incidental findings [9]. As liquid biopsy becomes more sensitive, it may detect very small tumors that are biologically indolent and would not have affected the patient's lifespan [1]. This leads to a complex ethical and clinical question: at what point does a molecular signal necessitate aggressive medical intervention? [5]. The answer likely lies in the longitudinal monitoring of biomarkers rather than a single time-point measurement [20]. By observing the trajectory of markers like ctDNA or CA19-9, clinicians can better differentiate between aggressive malignancies and stable lesions [11,20].

Ultimately, the paradigm shift toward liquid biopsy is driving the field of precision oncology toward a more proactive and personalized approach [4]. The ability to detect molecular resistance mutations before they manifest as clinical progression allows for more agile treatment adjustments [2]. For example, in breast cancer management, the detection of specific mutations in ctDNA can guide the use of targeted therapies, improving survival outcomes [10]. Similarly, in HCC, liquid biopsy provides a much-needed alternative for patients who are not candidates for surgical biopsy [21]. As the field matures, the integration of liquid biopsy into routine clinical pathways will require a multidisciplinary effort involving oncologists, pathologists, bioinformaticians, and health economists [19].

Conclusion

Liquid biopsy has emerged as a transformative force in molecular diagnostics, offering a non-invasive and dynamic alternative to traditional tissue-based analysis [3]. The advancements in detecting ctDNA, CTCs, and exosomes have provided unprecedented insights into the genomic landscape of cancer, facilitating earlier detection and more personalized treatment strategies [4,17]. The integration of innovative technologies such as microfluidics and artificial intelligence has significantly enhanced the sensitivity and accuracy of these diagnostic platforms [7,8]. These breakthroughs are particularly evident in the management of breast, bladder, and hepatocellular cancers, where liquid biopsy has demonstrated significant clinical utility [10,12,21].

However, the path to widespread clinical implementation is marked by several challenges, including the need for standardized protocols and the resolution of biological dilemmas related to low biomarker abundance [9,11]. The high cost of advanced sequencing and the risk of over-diagnosis remain critical barriers that must be addressed through further research and economic evaluation [1,6]. Despite these obstacles, the potential for liquid biopsy to improve patient survival through early intervention and real-time monitoring is immense [5]. The future of oncology will likely be defined by a multi-modal approach that combines molecular insights with traditional imaging and clinical data [13].

In conclusion, while liquid biopsy is not yet a replacement for tissue biopsy in all contexts, its role as a complementary and monitoring tool is firmly established [2]. Continued innovation in "hot topics" such as single-cell sequencing and multi-omic data integration will further solidify its place in modern medicine [14]. As standardized frameworks are developed and costs decrease, liquid biopsy is poised to become a routine component of cancer screening and management [19]. The evolution of these molecular diagnostics represents a major step toward the ultimate goal of precision medicine: providing the right treatment to the right patient at the right time [4].

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Mohammed AA Alghamdi. Biomed J Sci & Tech Res

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