



Prognostic risk scores for liver transplantation: game changers or statistical artworks?

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Several prognostic liver transplant-related risk scores for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) have been developed in recent years. The most prominent scores, displayed in *Table 1*, are based exclusively on HCC-related variables (1-6). Given that non-HCC-related variables can also influence post-transplant outcomes, Goldberg *et al.* sought to develop a continuous risk score predicting post-transplant survival for patients using both HCC- and non-HCC-related variables (1). Their LiTES-HCC score, recently published in the *Journal of Hepatology*, was developed by analyzing national registry (OPTN/UNOS) data of 6,502 adult HCC patients that received a deceased-donor liver transplant. The score comprised eleven variables and two interaction terms (*Table 1*) and showed similar performance to the Metroticket and HALT-HCC at 5- and 10-years post-transplant.

Although this well-designed study shows the LiTES-HCC score can estimate post-transplant survival quite well, the development of yet another prognostic post-transplant score calls into question the utility of such algorithms: in what capacity can they be used to augment clinical decision-making?

To address this question, the core principles of liver transplantation should be outlined. Generally, liver transplantation should offer equal or superior survival outcomes to any other curative-intent treatment. However,

given the scarcity of suitable grafts, listing does not guarantee receipt of a life-saving transplant. Hence, decisions must be made to select only those whom will benefit most from liver transplantation (2). For patients with end-stage liver disease, treatment options short of liver transplantation are limited, justifying the risk of becoming ineligible for transplant while waiting. The decision of transplantation in HCC patients is more complex, given that selection must be based on not only expected transplant-related survival but also cancer recurrence and how such oncologic outcomes compare to alternative treatment options (2,3). This complexity gap can potentially be bridged by risk models, guiding patient selection and prioritization. Nonetheless, before these models can be applied to clinical practice, several methodological concerns must be considered.

Each scientific study is designed with a particular hypothesis and aim, specifying the target population and outcome of interest. This clarifies to whom and in what setting the study inferences apply. However, in the absence of clear inclusion/exclusion criteria, inferences may be incorrectly extrapolated to larger populations than targeted by the study. For example, the LiTES-HCC score's study included waitlisted HCC patients, but not those with a waiting time of <6 months (1). Though the rationale for exclusion is described, it presents critical information about applicability. Inclusion/exclusion criteria aid in making study

Table 1 Prognostic risk scores for liver transplantation

Risk model	Study setting & period	Population [†]	Exclusion	Primary outcome	Variables included in the final risk model
AFP (2012)	Multicenter, France (1988–2001)	Adult HCC patients diagnosed before listing that underwent primary LT and survived at least 90 days	Tumour venous involvement on pre-operative imaging, incidental HCC	HCC recurrence	AFP at listing, largest diameter of tumour at listing, and tumour number at listing
Metrotick 2.0 (2018)	Multicenter, Italy (2000–2013)	Adult HCC patients that underwent DBD LT	Any kind of preoperative portal vein thrombosis, incidental HCC	HCC-specific survival	Pretransplant AFP, the largest tumour diameter (cm) and tumour number summed
Metrotick 2.0 + mRECIST (2020)	Multicenter, Italy (2000–2015)	Adult HCC patients that underwent DBD LT and received neoadjuvant treatment	Any kind of preoperative portal vein thrombosis, incidental HCC	HCC-specific survival	Pretransplant AFP, the largest tumour diameter (cm) and tumour number summed, and radiological assessment
MORAL (2017)	Single center, United States (2001–2012)	Adult HCC patients that underwent LT and survived at least 90 days	Preoperative signs of sepsis, on steroids preoperatively, HIV, no HCC evidence on explant pathology	HCC recurrence	Pre-Moral: preoperative NLR, maximum preoperative AFP, and largest tumour size preoperatively Post-Moral: tumour grade, presence of vascular invasion, largest tumour size, and tumour number, all on explant
HALT-HCC (2018)	Single center, United States (2002–2014)	Adult HCC patients that underwent primary LT	None specifically stated	Overall survival	TBS (consisting of maximum tumour diameter and tumour number), pre-transplant AFP, and MELD-Na
RETREAT (2017)	Multicenter, United States (2002–2012)	Adult HCC patients, preoperatively always within Milan criteria, with MELD exception that underwent LT	Patients downstaged to Milan criteria, incidental HCC	HCC recurrence	AFP at transplant, presence of microvascular invasion on explant, and the sum of the number and largest diameter (cm) of viable tumours on explant
LITES-HCC (2021)	Multicenter, United States (2002–2018)	Adult HCC patients with ≥6 months of waiting time that underwent DDLT	HCV LT pre-2014, incidental HCC	Overall survival	Age, pre-transplant bilirubin, pre-transplant CKD, pre-transplant INR, diabetes, liver disease etiology, the difference between total tumour diameter at waitlisting and transplant, the difference between pre-transplant and waitlisting AFP, pre-transplant location, pre-transplant ventilation, the interaction between diabetes and age, and the interaction between CKD and NASH

[†], based on the total cohort, or development cohort only if there is a separate validation cohort. AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; cm, centimeter; CKD, chronic kidney disease; DBD, donation after brain death; DDLT, deceased donor liver transplant; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; INR, international normalized ratio; LT, liver transplantation; NASH, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; MELD, Model for End-Stage Liver Disease; MELD-Na, Model for End-Stage Liver Disease-sodium; TBS, tumour burden score.

results more relevant and clinically applicable. However, if overabundant or erroneously applied, inferences may only apply to a superselected population with limited to no external and real-life applicability. Similarly, due to healthcare-related changes and modifications to organ allocation policies, studies spanning a lengthy period or using outdated data may reduce both model performance and clinical applicability.

The study's outcome of interest dictates the stage of patient care where the results may offer clinical guidance. For the LiTES-HCC score, post-transplant survival was chosen, highlighting that the outcome prediction only applies to patients who are fortunate to be allocated a liver graft. This omits patients who drop out of the waitlist due to tumour progression, deterioration, or death—occurring in 20–30% of waitlisted HCC patients (1,4,5). Studying patients' outcomes after transplantation, the intended treatment, is referred to as a per-protocol analysis (6). Accordingly, the prognostic information from such a model only applies to HCC patients who are able to receive a transplant. Therefore, if the risk score is used to select or prioritize patients, the expected benefit of treatment initiation (here, a favorable survival) may be overestimated as the score assumes a patient will survive long enough to receive a transplant. Whereas in reality, some patients will die or experience tumour progression outside of transplantable criteria before being able to benefit from a transplant and drop out from the waitlist. It is conceivable that another treatment may have prolonged their survival, albeit less than a successful transplantation. Such alternative treatments have no associated waitlist mortality and can be performed shortly after treatment decision (e.g., liver resection). Consequently, the estimated average survival of an alternative treatment is guaranteed. A risk score that can compare expected outcomes of liver transplantation with alternative treatments would require an intention-to-treat analysis. In contrast to the per-protocol analysis, the outcome is not only based on a guaranteed receipt of the originally allocated treatment but also considers waitlist dropouts, a scenario that is unfortunately relatively common (6). Meaning, if a patient has a LiTES-HCC score predicted 5-year post-transplant survival of 100%, but a 50% chance of waitlist dropout before transplant receipt, the intention-to-treat analysis would take this into account and would predict that the estimated average 5-year survival rate after liver transplant listing would be closer to 50%. Then, the benefit of an alternative treatment with an estimated 5-year survival of 70% could outweigh that of listing for a liver

transplant. When considering tumour recurrence as the outcome of interest, a per-protocol analysis is obligatory, as recurrence cannot occur before a treatment has been applied. This, in turn, automatically excludes the use of the risk model as a pre-transplant selection tool. In conclusion, if one wants to use a transplant-related prognostic risk score for liver transplant eligibility or allocation purposes and to compare the estimated outcomes with alternative treatments, an intention-to-treat survival analysis should be applied. If interested in post-treatment outcomes such as recurrence or the effectual treatment-related survival, a per-protocol analysis will suffice, with the understanding that the model is precluded from serving as a decision tool for determining transplant eligibility or allocating grafts. *Figure 1* illustrates the models mentioned above and how they, based on their study design, can be applied in a clinical setting (1,7–12).

The framework of a risk model will ultimately consist of several predefined variables. Consequently, the rationale for selecting such variables is crucial. For transplantation, variables can be collected at listing, during listing, at transplant/waitlist dropout, per-operatively, and post-operatively. Only those timepoints most relevant to the outcome of interest should be considered. Meaning, if one wants to predict post-transplant survival, variables at all time points up to and including the transplantation itself, the starting point of measuring the outcome of interest, can be collected. However, suppose the aim is to predict survival rates for all patients listed for transplantation. In that case, the starting point of the outcome of interest will be listing and should only include variables at listing. The variables collected at these different time points should be literature-based or informed by clinical experience, and associated with the outcome of interest. Importantly, the total set of variables chosen may ultimately determine the model's external utility since center/region-specific variables may be unavailable at other centers. More specific variables, the more powerful but also less generalizable the results may become, highlighting the potential for overfitting. On the other hand, less specific variables, the less robust but more generalizable the results may become, emphasizing model parsimony.

Validation is obligatory in determining any prediction model's performance. After all, a risk score is expected to perform best in the dataset on which it was developed. In developing a model, internal validation is performed, typically through split-sample, cross-validation, or bootstrapping. Though this evaluates the model's performance on data

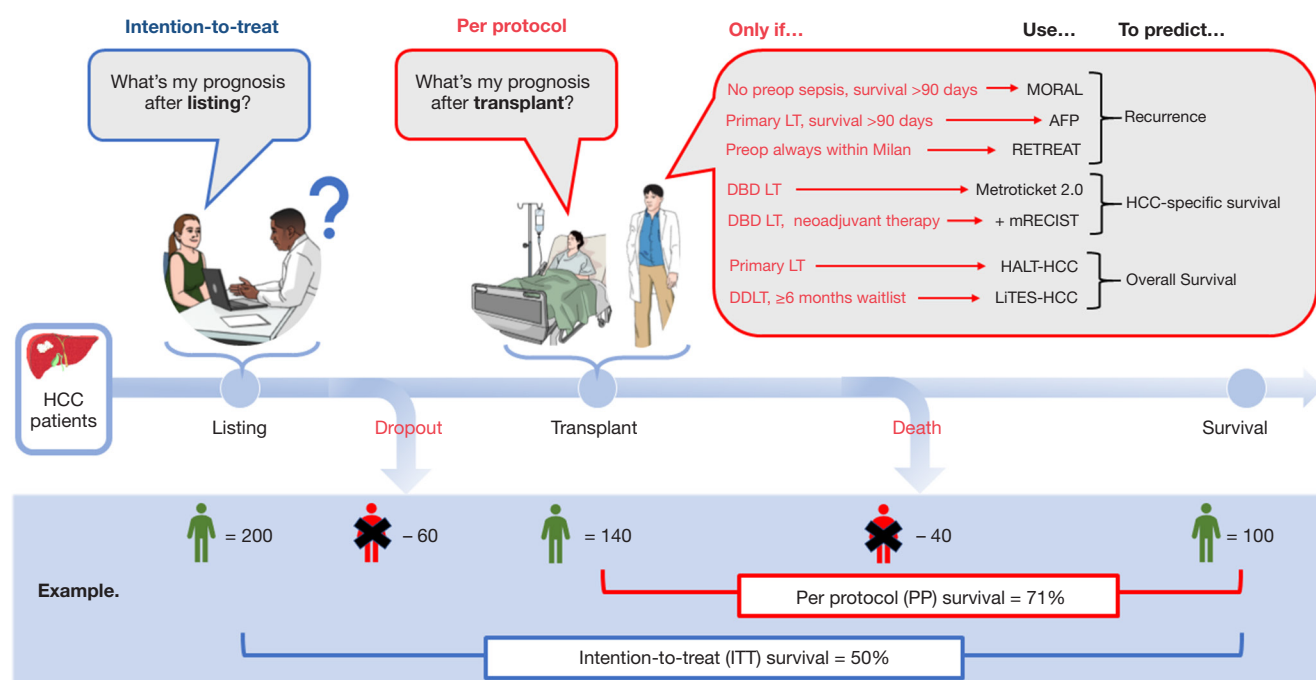


Figure 1 Clinical applicability of liver transplant-related risk scores according to study design. AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; LT, liver transplant; DBD, donor after brain death; DDLT, deceased donor liver transplant.

not used to train/develop the model, it does not supplant the need for external validation, as the validation cohort often bears high resemblance to the development cohort, potentially leading to overly optimistic performance. Moreover, the model's transportability and performance in other similar settings remain to be clarified (13). Therefore, the need for external validation should be stressed in any prediction model's development.

Though the models in *Figure 1* have resulted in furthering our understanding of HCC, none can be used to determine transplant eligibility, allocation prioritization, or to compare their oncologic outcomes with risk models for alternative HCC treatments (1,7-12). Therefore, to increase the relevance of future liver transplant-related survival risk scores, we would like to suggest a more meaningful standardized study design where the analysis is based on the intention-to-treat principle, the variables analyzed are available at the moment of listing, and with an obligatory external validation. This will allow maximizing the models' predictive performance, improve clinical applicability, and enable direct model comparison to allow future refinement.

In conclusion, we read with interest the study of Goldberg *et al.* and want to congratulate the authors for a well-conducted study providing a continuous risk score

for predicting post-transplant survival. Concurrently, we wonder if an intention-to-treat survival analysis with variables (both HCC- and non-HCC-related) at the time of listing would have resulted in a more clinically meaningful and impactful risk score. After all, the current risk score is unsuitable for prioritizing waitlisted patients and only informative for patients already transplanted. Consequently, it risks resulting as an ingenious statistical quality injection to the contemporary literature without offering much in terms of clinical use.

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