



REVIEW

Systematic review: risk prediction models for recurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma after liver transplantation

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SUMMARY

Recurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) after liver transplantation (LT) is a significant clinical problem associated with poor surgical outcomes. This study aims to summarize the current evidence on risk prediction models of HCC recurrence after LT. PubMed and EMBASE were searched to May 25, 2019, for relevant articles. Studies originally designed to develop or validate a risk prediction model for HCC recurrence after LT were included. Two independent authors summarized the study characteristics and evaluated the risk of bias and applicability concerns in the included studies. From 26 included studies, 18 original risk prediction models were determined, but only five models were externally validated. The average number of predictors involved in the construction of risk models was three. The most frequently employed predictors were alpha-fetoprotein, tumor size, vascular invasion, tumor number, tumor differentiation, and neutrophil-lymphocyte ratio. Most studies showed good discriminatory performance (AUC >0.75). The overall quality of the included studies was generally low. Most of the original models lacked the highly recommended external and prospective validation in diverse populations. The AFP model was the well-validated preoperative risk model that can stratify patients into high- and low-risk groups.

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Key words

hepatocellular carcinoma, liver transplantation, prediction, prognosis, recurrence, risk prediction model

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Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), the most common primary liver cancer, is a significant health challenge for doctors and patients worldwide. According to the World Health Organization, more than one million patients are expected to die because of liver cancer within the next decade [1]. Liver transplantation (LT) is

the best therapeutic modality in a group of HCC patients with underlying cirrhosis. However, the recurrence of HCC is a significant clinical problem for 8–30% of all patients who have undergone LT [2,3].

The development of post-LT HCC recurrence appears to be multifactorial, with numerous pre-, peri-, and post-transplant predictors. Several studies have attempted to outline the role of these various predictors

to develop risk prediction models for HCC recurrence after LT. The risk prediction models have potential applicability for individual-based stratification and can be used to develop therapeutic algorithms, to guide treatment decisions, and to advise patients. This study provides the first comprehensive review of risk scoring systems originally designed to predict HCC recurrence in patients who had undergone LT.

Materials and methods

This study was performed in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) checklist [4], the Checklist for Critical Appraisal and Data Extraction for Systematic Reviews of Prediction Modelling Studies (CHARMS) [5], and the Transparent Reporting of a Multivariable Prediction Model for Individual Prognosis or Diagnosis (TRIPOD) guidelines [6] where they were applicable. The PRISMA checklist is available in the Supporting Information (Table S1). Patient informed consent and ethical approval were not required, because all data were extracted from online articles. The systematic literature review was performed according to a priori established study protocol.

Search strategy

Two independent researchers (AA and XW) performed an electronic bibliographic search of PubMed and EMBASE without time restrictions, using a combination of the following keywords: HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma, liver cancer, hepatoma, recurrence, relapse, model, score, nomogram, risk, prediction, prognosis, and liver transplantation. The complete search strategies are presented in the Supporting Information (Data S1). Only studies of humans and studies published in English were considered for inclusion. We then scanned references from the links of related studies in PubMed to identify articles that fulfilled the inclusion criteria. To identify additional relevant studies, we performed another manual screening for the bibliographies of the involved studies and related reviews. Studies that were published as abstracts were excluded from the analysis. The last search date was May 25, 2019.

Inclusion criteria

The studies were included on the basis of the following predefined criteria: (i) Original research article published in a peer-reviewed journal; (ii) only articles with

participants who had undergone LT; (iii) studies that confirmed that HCC was pathologically diagnosed after LT; (iv) studies that identified risk factors for developing post-LT HCC recurrence and constructed or validated a risk prediction model at the individual level; (v) studies that provided a risk measure of HCC recurrence using a combination of two or more risk factors to predict the risk of post-LT recurrence; and (vi) studies that defined the recurrence of HCC after LT as a primary outcome. Studies were excluded if they were originally designed to predict overall survival rather than recurrence or if they were in the form of a conference report or abstract.

Data extraction and quality assessment

After the inclusion of the studies, data were extracted independently by two authors (AA and XW). The obtained data included the first author name, publication year, study region, study period, study type (including study design and whether the study was conducted in multiple centers or a single center), number of patients, study outcome, area under curve (AUC)/C-statistic or net reclassification index (NRI), calibration, accuracy measures, standard selection criteria, and the underlying etiology of the liver disease. We then classified studies into the following types according to the Transparent Reporting of a Multivariable Prediction Model for Individual Prognosis or Diagnosis (TRIPOD) guidelines[6]: development only (1a), development and validation using resampling (1b), random (2a) or nonrandom (2b) split-sample development and validation, development and validation using separate data (3), or validation only (4). The level of evidence was estimated according to the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) criteria [7]. The risk of bias (ROB) and applicability concerns of development and validation studies were estimated based on the Prediction Study Risk of Bias Assessment Tool (PROBAST) [8], a novel assessment tool for ROB, which had been precisely designed for systematic reviews of prediction studies. This newly launched tool has three separate domains: participant selection, predictors, and outcome, with 23 signaling questions that classify ROB into high, low, or unclear. It also assesses the applicability of a model. Other extracted data included the presentation method of the final risk prediction model, the model type (preoperative, postoperative, or general), assessment methods of involved risk factors, risk factors involved in the final model, and risk factors

considered by the univariate analysis but not included in the final model. In case of any discrepancy, an agreement was obtained via discussion with senior authors (ZS, XX).

Data synthesis

Considering a large number of prediction models and heterogeneity in characteristics of the included studies, we selected a narrative synthesis of results supported by tables, with characteristics listed for every included study. The discriminatory performance of a risk prediction model for HCC recurrence after LT was measured using the AUC/C statistics or NRI. This indicator shows how well the model differentiates between patients with high and low risk of HCC recurrence after LT. AUCs, NRI, calibration and accuracy measures (sensitivity, specificity, negative and positive predictive values) of development and validation cohorts were reported if the data were available in the published papers. AUCs range from 0.5 (poor discrimination) to 1 (perfect discrimination) [9,10]. Based on the population characteristics of

the validation cohort, the *C*-statistic of the same prediction model can vary greatly, especially because of the heterogeneity of the population from which the predictors of the risk prediction model were derived [11]. An AUC of >0.75 is considered an indicator of good discriminatory performance [12]. The NRI is a statistical measure used to evaluate whether a new risk model can provide clinically relevant improvements in the discriminatory performance of an old model [13].

Results

Study selection

Our search strategy identified a total of 257 records. After the removal of duplicates ($n = 105$) and exclusion at the title and abstract level ($n = 71$), 81 papers were qualified for full-text evaluation. After full-text review, 55 articles were excluded for the following reasons: The primary outcome was not HCC recurrence after LT ($n = 47$); the risk score was unavailable ($n = 6$); or the model only predicted survival after HCC recurrence

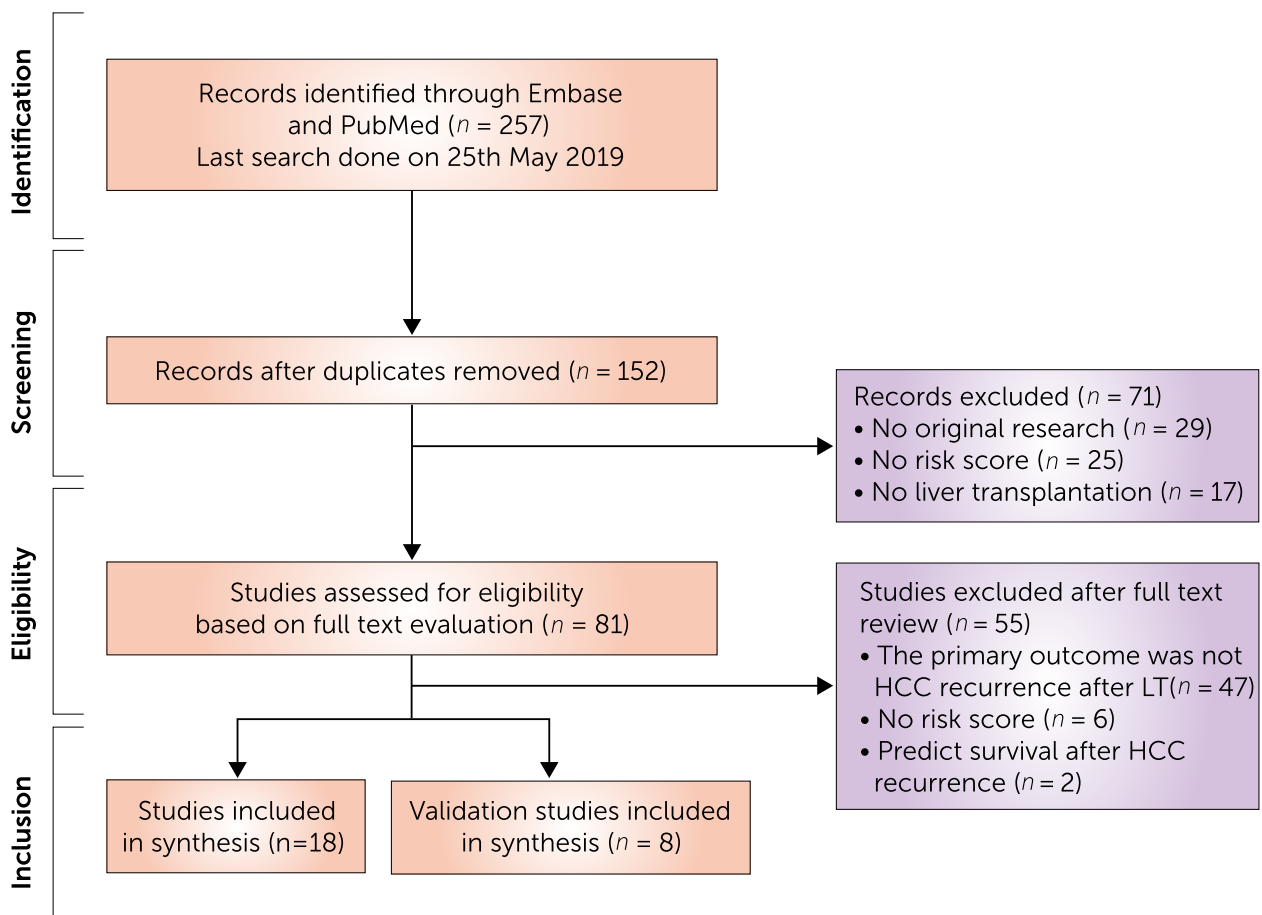


Figure 1 Preferred reporting items for systemic reviews and meta-analysis (PRISMA) flowchart.

($n = 2$). This left 26 studies [14–39] for inclusion in the final analysis, including 18 original risk prediction models and eight validation studies. The details of the selection procedure are described in Fig. 1.

Characteristics of development and validation studies

The characteristics of the 18 original risk prediction models and their validation studies are presented in Tables 1 and 2. Only seven studies came from hepatitis B virus (HBV) epidemic regions, while the remaining studies ($n = 11$) originated in western countries, where hepatitis C virus (HCV) is the most common cause of HCC. Only one of the 18 studies reported on younger patients [31]. The study periods had very long time intervals, ranging from 1981 to 2016. The population size greatly differed among studies and ranged from 75 to 3276 patients. Fifteen of the 18 original risk models reported a 5-year recurrence rate as the primary outcome. Two studies reported a three-year recurrence rate [19,25], and one study presented a two-year recurrence rate [16].

The AUC/C statistics were described in most studies except nine [15,25,30–36]. The NRI was described in six studies [20,26,33–35,39] to quantify how well a new model can reclassify patients with HCC recurrence compared with Milan criteria; however, the 95% CI was not provided except in Rhu et al.'s study [35]. Most models showed good discriminatory performance with AUC/C statistics >0.75 either in the development or validation cohorts. Only in nine risk prediction models were the AUC/C statistics < 0.75 either in development or validation cohorts, indicating modest discriminatory performance [14,17,20–22,26,28,29,31]. Of the 18 original risk prediction models, calibration was reported in only five studies [14,16,21,23,26] and was presented as a curve in two studies, as a Hosmer–Lemeshow statistic in another two studies, or as a chi-squared test in only one study. Sensitivity and specificity were reported in six risk prediction models and ranged from high sensitivity (100%) and low specificity (7%) in Chan et al.'s model [29] to low sensitivity (26.1%) and high specificity (91.8%) in Lai et al.'s model [22].

The presentation and assessment methods of the risk factors involved in the final models and the risk factors that were considered by the univariate analysis but were not involved in the final risk scores are described in Table 3. Half the original risk models were presented in a point-based format without any available online calculation tools. The majority of the models were

constructed based on traditional risk factors of HCC recurrence, including alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) [14–22,24], tumor size [15,16,18,24,26,28–30], vascular invasion [18,20,24,27,29–31], tumor number [15,18,26–28], and tumor differentiation [16,24,29,30]. Other risk models were derived using a combination of these well-known predictors with other serological biomarkers, such as the neutrophil-lymphocyte ratio (NLR) [18,22,24,27], fibrinogen levels [17,25], and cholesterol [24]. The average number of predictors involved in the construction of risk models was three.

Only five of the 18 original risk scores were validated [20,26,28,29,31]. The AFP model [26] was the most validated risk model in five studies, followed by Decan et al.'s model [28] in four studies, Mehta et al.'s model [20] in two studies, and Iwatsuki et al.'s model [31] in two studies. No considerable difference was observed in the NRI of the AFP model of Duvoux et al. [26], which ranged between 0.02 in Rhu et al.'s study [35] from Korea and 0.06 in the study of Piñero et al. [33] from Latin America. The other characteristics of the validation studies are illustrated in Table 2.

Quality assessment

Among the 26 included studies, 25 were retrospective cohort studies except for Halazun et al.'s prospective study [18]. The level of evidence according to GRADE criteria showed that all studies of the included original risk models were classified as low quality (Table 1). The PROBAST tool was used to evaluate the ROB and applicability concerns in the involved risk prediction models and their validation studies (Table 4). Overall, only eight of the 26 studies were considered with low ROB and applicability concerns [18,20,22,24,26,28,34,39]. For the patient selection domain, 18 of the 26 studies clearly defined the inclusion and exclusion criteria for study participants [16–23,25–28,31,33–35,37,39]. The remaining studies either did not offer detailed data for this domain, or they were unclear or had a smaller sample size; thus, the ROB and applicability concerns were reported as high or unclear. The determination of outcome without a knowledge of predictor information was not clearly reported in 12 of the 18 the original risk models; thus, this domain was assessed as unclear. For the analysis domain, the majority of the studies had no missing data except the study of Ling et al. [16], which was handled appropriately. However, the analysis domain was reported as low in 12 of the 26 included studies, either because the predictor selection was based on univariable analysis and/or the complexities of the

Table 1. Characteristics of the original risk prediction models.

Author, year	Study region	Study period	Study type	No. of patients	Outcomes	NRI [†] or AUC/C statistics (95%CI)	Calibration	Accuracy (%)	Standard selection criteria	Etiology (%)	TRIPOD level*	GRADE score
Ma, 2019 [14]	China	1995–2016	Observational retrospective Single center	183(D) 147(V)	5-Y RFS, OS	0.67 (0.55–0.79) 0.85 (0.74–0.96)	χ^2 , P = 0.459	–	Milan, UCSF	HBV (81.6) Others (18.4)	2a	Low
Shimamura, 2019 [15] (5–500 rule)	Japan	1998–2009	Observational retrospective Multicenter	965	5-Y RR, OS	NA	–	–	Milan	HCV (60.3) HBV (29.2) Others (10.5)	1a	Low
Ling, 2018 [16]	China	2010–2015	Observational retrospective Multicenter	673(D) 337(V)	1,2 Y RR And CR	0.77 (0.74–0.80) 0.77 (0.73–0.80) 0.76 (0.69–0.83) 0.86 (0.82–0.90) 0.84 (0.75–0.93)	Curve (D)	–	Milan, Hangzhou	HBV (100?)	2a	Low
Jiang, 2018 [17]	China	2003–2009	Observational retrospective Multicenter	119(D) 109(V)	5-Y RFS, OS	0.82 (0.73–0.91) 0.70 (0.60–0.80)	–	SS 77.0 SP 62.5(V)	Milan, Hangzhou	HBV (100?)	3	Low
Halazun, 2017 [18] (MORAL score USA)	USA	2001–2012	Observational prospective Single center	339	5-Y RFS	0.82 (0.77–0.88) (pre) 0.88 (0.83–0.93) (post) 0.91 (0.87–0.95) (general)	–	–	Milan, UCSF	HCV (69.3) HBV (15.3) Alcohol (11.8) Others (3.6)	1a	Low
Feng, 2017 [19]	China	2009–2013(D) 2005–2008(V)	Observational retrospective Single center	117(D) 51(V)	0.5,1,2, 3-Y RFS	0.77 (0.65–0.89) (D) 0.84 (0.72–0.97) (V)	–	–	Milan?	HBV (100)	3	Low
Mehta, 2016 [20] (RETREAT score)	USA	2002–2012	Observational retrospective Multicenter	721(D) 340(V)	1,2,5-Y RR, OS	0.77 (0.71–0.82) (D) 0.82 (0.77–0.86) (V) 1-Y [†] 0.40 5-Y [†] 0.31	–	–	Milan	HCV (58) HBV (18.3) Alcohol (10.1) NASH (7.0)	3	Low
Piñero, 2016 [21]	Argentina	2005–2011	Observational retrospective Multicenter	87	5-Y RR, OS	0.74 (0.58–0.88)	H-L, P = 0.96	SS 62 SP 82 PPV 0.43 NPV 0.90	Milan, UCSF, up-to-7	HCV (41.1) HBV (11.6) Alcohol (19.7) Others (27.6)	1b	Low
Lai 2016 [22] (TRAIN score)	Italy Belgium	2000–2012(D) 2005–2014(V)	Retrospective Multicenter	179(D) 110(V)	5-Y RR, ITT-S	0.58 (0.37–0.79) (D) 0.59 (0.37–0.81) (V)	–	SS 26.1 SP 91.8	Milan	HCV (47.1) HBV (11.6) Others (41.3)	3	Low
Lee, 2016 [23] (MORAL score Korea)	Korea	2001–2013(D) 2003–2013(V)	Observational retrospective Multicenter Medical records In milan = 361	Out milan 92(D) 113(V)	1,5-Y RR, OS	0.83 (0.73–0.92) (D) 0.80 (0.72–0.88) (V)	Curve	–	Milan	HBV (87.8) HCV (6.9) Alcohol (2.1) Others (3.2)	1b	Low
Agopian, 2015 [24]	USA	1984–2013	Observational retrospective Multicenter database	865	1,3,5-Y RFS, OS	0.79 (0.75–0.83) (pre) 0.85 (0.82–0.89) (post)	–	–	Milan, UCSF	HCV (58) HBV (16) Alcohol (9) Others (71)	3	Low

Table 1. Continued.

Author, year	Study region	Study period	Study type	No. of patients	Outcomes	NRI [†] or AUC/C statistics (95%CI)	Calibration	Accuracy (%)	Standard selection criteria	Etiology (%)	TRIPOD level*	GRADE score
Li, 2015 [25]	China	2003–2010	Observational retrospective Multicenter	102	1,3-Y RFS	0.66 (0.60–0.71)	–	SS 55.3 SP 70.3	Milan	HBV (87.8) Others (12.2)	1a	Low
Duvoux, 2012 [26] (AFP model)	France	1988–2001(D) 2003–2004(V)	Observational retrospective Multicenter databank	537(D) 435(V)	5-Y RR, OS	0.70 (0.63–0.76) 0.11 [†]	H-L, P = 0.78	SS 53.4 SP 81.6	Milan	Virus (50.9) Alcohol (35.6) Others (13.5)	3	Low
Wang, 2011 [27]	China	2003–2009	Observational retrospective Single center	101	5-Y RFS, OS	0.78 (0.69–0.88)	–	–	Milan, UCSF, Hangzhou	HBV (100)	1a	Low
Decaens, 2010 [28]	France	1988–1998(D) 1999–2001(V)	Observational retrospective Single center	328(D) 140(V)	5-Y RFS	0.65 (0.59–0.71)	–	–	Milan	Virus (57.7) Alcohol (31.6) Others (10.7)	3	Low
Chan, 2008 [29]	USA	2001–2005(D) 1996–2000(V1) 2002–2005(V2)	Observational retrospective Multicenter	116(D) 31(V1) 41(V2)	5-Y RR	0.91(D) 1.00 (V1) 0.95 (V2)	–	SS 100 SP 27 PPV 30 NPV 70 (D), SS 100 SP 7 PPV 60 NPV 40 (V1), SS 75 SP 11 PPV 43 NPV 57 (V2)	NA	HCV (62.1) HBV (18.1) Alcohol (16.4) Others (3.4) (D)	3	Low
Parfitt, 2007 [30]	UK	1985–2003	Observational retrospective Single center	75	3,5,8-Y RFS, RR	–	–	SS = 55%, SP = 98%	Milan, UCSF	HCV (42.7) HBV (17.3) Alcohol (21.3) Others (18.7)	1a	Low
Iwatsuki, 2000 [31]	USA	1981–1998	Observational retrospective Single center	344	5-Y RFS	NA	–	–	NA	HCV (47.5) HBV (21.8) Others (30.7)	1a	Low

AUC, area under the curve; CI, confidence interval; CR, cumulative recurrence; D, development cohort; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; H-L, Hosmer Lemeshow C test; ITT-S, intention-to-treat survival; NA, not available; NPV, negative predictive value; NRI, net reclassification index; PPV, positive predictive value; pre, preoperative, post, postoperative; RFS, recurrence-free survival; RR, recurrence rate; SP, specificity; SS, sensitivity; UCSF, University of California, San Francisco; V, validation cohort.

[†]NRI.

*Types of prediction model studies according to the TRIPOD guidelines. 1a, development only; 1b, development and validation using resampling; 2a, random split-sample development and validation; 2b, nonrandom split-sample development and validation; 3, development and validation using separate data; and 4, validation study.

Table 2. Characteristics of validation studies of original risk prediction models.

Original model study	Validation study	Study region	Study period	Study type	No. of patients	Etiology (%)	Outcomes	NRI [†] or AUC/C statistics (95%CI)
Duvoux 2012 [26]	Duvoux 2012 [26]	France	2003–2004	Observational retrospective Multicenter	435	Virus (50.9) Alcohol (35.6) Others (13.5)	5-Y RR, OS	0.15 [†]
	Varona 2015 [32]	Spain	1996–2012	Observational retrospective Single center	109	HCV (48) Alcohol (45) Others (7)	1, 3, 5, 10, and 15-Y survival	NA [†]
	Piñero 2016 [33]	Latin America	2005–2011	Observational retrospective Multicenter	327	HBV (28.7) HCV (27.2) Alcohol (17.7) Others (26.4)	1, 3, 5-Y RR, OS	0.06 [†]
	Notarpaolo 2017 [34]	Italy	2002–2010	Observational retrospective Multicenter	574	HCV (58.7) HBV (24) Alcohol (11.7) Others (5.6)	5-Y RR, OS	0.03 [†]
	Rhu 2018 [35]	Korea	2007–2015	Observational retrospective Single center	400	HBV (83.8) HCV (10.2) Alcohol (4) Others (2)	5-Y RR, OS	0.02 [†] (0.01–0.02)
Decaens 2010 [28]	Decaens 2010 [28]	France	1988–1998(D) 1999–2001(V)	Observational retrospective Multicenter	328(D) 140(V)	Virus (57.7) Alcohol (31.6) Others (10.7)	5-Y RR, RFS	0.65 (0.59–0.71)
	Marelli 2008 [36]	UK	1988–2006	Observational retrospective Single center	100	HCV (44) HBV (24) Alcohol (15) Others (17)	3 months, 1, 3, 5-Y RFS, OS	NA
	Costentin 2017 [37]	France	2003–2005	Observational retrospective Multicenter	321	Virus (61.8) Alcohol (28.8) Others (9.4)	5-Y RR	0.75 (0.69–0.81)
	Fernández 2018 [38]	Spain	2006–2015	Observational retrospective Single center	105	HCV (39) HBV (16.2) Alcohol (15.2) Others (2)	5-Y RR, RFS	0.67 (0.48–0.87)
Chan 2008 [29]	Chan 2008 [29]	USA	1996–2000(V1) 2002–2005(V2)	Observational retrospective Multicenter	31(V1) 41(V2)	NA	5-Y RR	1.00 (0.0–0.98) (V1) 0.95 (0.89–0.98) (V2)
	Costentin 2017 [37]	France	2003–2005	Observational retrospective Multicenter	321	Virus (61.8) Alcohol (28.8) Others (9.4)	5-Y RR	0.67 (0.61–0.97)
	Fernández 2018 [38]	Spain	2006–2015	Observational retrospective Single center	105	HBV (16.2) Alcohol (15.2) Others (2)	5-Y RR, RFS	0.81(0.65–0.98)

Table 2. Continued.

Original model study	Validation study	Study region	Study period	Study type	No. of patients	Etiology (%)	Outcomes	NRI [†] or AUC/C statistics (95%CI)
Mehta 2016 [20]	Mehta 2016 [20]	USA	2002–2012	Observational retrospective Multicenter	340	HCV (58) HBV (18.3) Alcohol (10.1) Others (13.6)	1, 2, 5-Y RR, OS	0.82 (0.77–0.86)
	Mehta 2018 [39]	USA	2012–2014	Observational retrospective Multicenter	3276	HCV (62.8) HBV (5.5) Alcohol (7.3) Others (24.4)	1, 3-Y RR, OS	0.75 (0.71–0.79) 1-Y [†] 0.17 3-Y [†] 0.28
Iwatsuki 2000 [31]	Iwatsuki 2000 [31]	USA	1981–1998	Observational retrospective Single center	344	HCV (47.5) HBV (21.8) Others (30.7)	5-Y RFS	NA
	Costentin 2017 [37]	France	2003–2005	Observational retrospective Multicenter	365	Virus (61.8) Alcohol (28.8) Others (9.4)	5-Y RR	0.71 (0.65–0.77)

AUC, area under the curve; CI, confidence interval; D, development cohort; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; NA, not available; NRI, net reclassification index; RFS, recurrence-free survival; RR, recurrence rate; V, validation cohort.

[†]NRI.

data were not sufficiently clarified, except in 14 studies [15,18,20,22–24,26,28,29,33–35,37,39].

Discussion

Since the revolution of the Milan criteria in 1996, it has been considered a benchmark for the selection of HCC candidates for LT [40–42]. However, the limitations on the tumor metrics render the Milan criteria very restrictive, and some HCC candidates with a potentially good prognosis lose the opportunity to benefit from LT. Thus, new criteria (e.g., UCSF [43], Hangzhou [44], and up-to-seven criteria [45]) have been proposed and validated to expand the pool of HCC candidates with a similar prognosis to that of the Milan criteria [46]. However, this expansion usually occurs at the expense of HCC recurrence. So several risk models have been developed to predict HCC recurrence in patients who have undergone LT.

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first comprehensive systematic review of risk prediction models for HCC recurrence after LT. A total of 26 studies, including 18 original risk prediction models, were evaluated. The construction of models depends on applying multivariate analysis if the variables have significant results according to the univariate analysis ($P < 0.05$). The conversion of continuous variables into categorical variables was observed in many studies, which may have resulted in information loss and reduced statistical power to detect an association between the risk factors and study outcome. Thus, converting continuous variables into categorical variables should not be performed except for convincing reasons, and if the conversion is inevitable, then the cutoff values should be applied.

To make clear recommendations for the selection of the most appropriate risk prediction model, we should take into account the study design, overall quality, simplicity, and external validation and how well a predicted probability of HCC recurrence matches the observed risk at the individual level (Table 5). The estimation of risk prediction models should not be limited only to ROC analysis, but other measures (e.g., calibration and accuracy) should also be evaluated. In our analysis, although eight risk models [14,16–20,24,29] showed a good discriminatory performance (AUC >0.80), the calibration was observed only in five risk models. The results also showed that 13 of the original risk models [14–19,21–25,27,30] lacked either internal or external validation, so they cannot be recommended in clinical practice even if they have a good quality and good

Table 3. Model presentation, type, assessment, and risk factors that were included or considered in the construction of predictive models.

Author, year	Model presentation	Model type	Assessment	Risk factors		Factors considered by univariate analysis but not included in the final model
				Total no.	Factors included in the final model	
Ma, 2019 [14]	Equation	General	Pathology Serology	3	Serum AFP, sum of largest tumor size and number and salvage LT	Age, platelet count, graft (g)/ESLW, Milan, UCSF criteria
Shimamura, 2019 [15] (5-5-500 rule)	Equation	Preoperative	Radiology Serology	3	AFP, tumor size and nodule number	NA
Ling, 2018 [16]	Nomogram	General	Pathology Serology	4	AFP, differentiation, total tumor size and CIT	Tumor number, corticosteroid usage/donor: age, anti-Hbc, DWIT, anhepatic time, ABO incompatible
Jiang, 2018 [17]	Equation	Preoperative	Serology	2	Serum AFP and fibrinogen	Age, TTV
Halazun, 2017 [18] (MORAL score USA)	Point-based model	Preoperative Postoperative General	Pathology Radiology Serology	3 3 6	AFP, NLR, largest tumor size) AND/OR (vascular invasion, largest tumor size, tumor number	TTV, tumor no. on radiology, tumor necrosis
Feng, 2017 [19]	Point-based model	Postoperative	Pathology	3	AFP, CK19, GPC3	MVI, histological grading
Mehta, 2016 [20] (RETREAT score)	Point-based model	General	Pathology Serology	3	Serum AFP, sum of largest tumor size and number and MVI	Tumor differentiation, wait time
Piñero, 2016 [21]	Point-based model	Preoperative	Radiology Serology	2	Serum AFP and Up-to-7 imaging criteria	Waiting list, UCSF, Milan, MVI, tumor differentiation
Lai, 2016 [22] (TRAIN score)	Equation	General	Pathology Radiology Serology	4	AFP slope, mRECIST-PD, NLR and WT	NA
Lee, 2016 [23] (MORAL score Korea)	Equation	Preoperative	serology	2	AFP, PIVKA-II	Largest tumor size, tumor number, tumor type

Table 3. Continued.

Author, year	Model presentation	Model type	Assessment	Risk factors	
				Total no.	Factors included in the final model
Agopian, 2015 [24]	Nomogram	General	Pathology Radiology Serology	7	Factors considered by univariate analysis but not included in the final model Age >55-year, hepatitis C, mELD >10 Tumor differentiation, vascular invasion, downstaging, largest tumor diameter. AFP, NLR, and total cholesterol
Li, 2015 [25]	Equation	Preoperative	Radiology Serology	3	Preoperative NLR, vascular invasion HBsAg, plasma fibrinogen and TTV
Duvoux, 2012 [26] (AFP model)	Point-based model	Preoperative	Radiology Serology	3	Underlying cirrhosis, liver disease, preoperative HCC treatment, Milan criteria, tumor location, gamma-glutamyltransferase level, alkaline phosphatase level
Wang, 2011 [27]	Point-based model	Preoperative	Radiology Serology	3	Largest tumor size, AFP, HBV-DNA level Macrovascular invasion, tumor number, NLR
Decaens, 2010 [28]	Point-based model	Preoperative	Radiology Serology	3	Largest tumor diameter, number of nodules and tumor differentiation Underlying cirrhosis and liver disease, gamma-glutamyltransferase level, AFP, alkaline phosphatase, pre- or post-LT HCC treatment, tumor volume, tumor location

Table 3. Continued.

Author, year	Model presentation	Model type	Assessment	Risk factors		Factors considered by univariate analysis but not included in the final model
				Total no.	Factors included in the final model	
Chan, 2008 [29]	Point-based model	Postoperative	Pathology	4	Largest tumor diameter, bilobar extension, macrovascular invasion, tumor differentiation	multilobulated HCC, total number of tumors, total tumor size
Parfitt, 2007 [30]	Nomogram	Postoperative	Pathology	5	MVI, tumor size, tumor differentiation, microsatellitosis, and giant/bizarre cells	AFP, cryptogenic cirrhosis, OKT3, tumor necrosis
Iwatsuki, 2000 [31]	Point-based model	Postoperative	Pathology	3	Largest tumor diameter, bilobar extension, vascular invasion	HBsAg, HCV, tumor number, vascular invasion, tumor differentiation, cirrhosis

AFP, alpha-fetoprotein; anti-Hbc, hepatitis B core antibodies; CIT, cold ischemia time; CK-19, cytokeratin-19; DWIT, donor warm ischemia time; ESLW, Estimated standard liver weight; GPC3, glypican-3; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; LT, liver transplantation; mRECIST, modified response evaluation criteria in solid tumors; MVI, microvascular invasion; NA, not available; NLR, neutrophil-lymphocyte ratio; TTV, total tumor volume; UCSF, University of California, San Francisco; WT, waiting time.

Table 4. Risk of bias and applicability concerns according to PROBAST.

Study	ROB				Applicability			Overall	
	Participants	Predictors	Outcome	Analysis	Participants	Predictors	Outcome	ROB	Applicability
Ma 2019 [14]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	–
Shimamura 2019 [15]	+	+	?	+	+	+	?	?	?
Ling 2018 [16]	+	+	?	–	+	+	?	–	?
Jiang 2018 [17]	–	?	?	–	–	?	?	–	–
Halazun 2017 [18]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Feng 2017 [19]	+	?	?	–	+	?	?	–	?
Mehta 2016 [20]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Piñero 2016 [21]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	?
Lai 2016 [22]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lee 2016 [23]	–	+	+	+	–	+	+	–	–
Agopian 2015 [24]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Li 2015 [25]	+	+	?	–	+	+	?	–	?
Duvoux 2012 [26]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wang 2011 [27]	+	+	?	–	+	+	?	–	?
Decaens 2010 [28]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Chan 2008 [29]	–	+	+	+	–	+	+	–	–
Parfitt 2007 [30]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	–
Iwatsuki 2000 [31]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	–
Fernández 2018* [38]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	–
Rhu 2018* [35]	+	+	?	+	+	+	?	?	?
Mehta 2018* [39]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Costentin 2017* [37]	+	+	?	+	+	+	?	?	?
Notarpaolo 2017* [34]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Piñero 2016* [33]	+	+	?	+	+	+	?	?	?
Varona 2015* [32]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	–
Marelli 2008* [36]	–	+	?	–	–	+	?	–	–

–, high ROB/high concern regarding applicability; ?, unclear ROB/unclear concern regarding applicability; +, low ROB/low concern regarding applicability; PROBAST, Prediction model Risk Of Bias ASsessment Tool; ROB, risk of bias.

*Only validation study.

discriminatory performance. For that, further validation of these risk models is mandatory, and internal validation should be conducted at least by using bootstrapping techniques. The quality assessment using the PROBAST tool also showed that only six original risk models had a good quality with low ROB and applicability concerns; however, these models were derived from populations where HCV is the predominant cause of HCC, and there was a lack of independent external validation, with the only exception being the AFP model (Table 5). It is noteworthy that the risk of HCC after LT is strongly associated with the HBV viral load. However, there is still controversy about the effect of HCV [47,48]. Although some risk models involve easy-to-measure factors, they are still complex and impractical. For example, the nomogram of Agopian et al. [24] consists of seven risk factors, making it hard to calculate and limiting its clinical use, regardless of the perfect discriminatory performance (AUC = 0.85). The risk

prediction model should also be derived from a representative sample size to effectively reflect actual clinical practice. Our review showed that three prediction models were based on a small sample size (<100 participants) [21,29,30]. Even if these models showed good discrimination, their results should be interpreted with caution, because a small sample size can maximize sampling error and does not reflect clinical reality. So the design of any future risk prediction model must balance all these factors.

The AFP model was developed in a French cohort of 537 patients and was validated internally and externally in four studies [32–35], with a total of 1845 patients distributed among diverse populations and having different HCC causes. This made it the best-validated prediction model, with a good discriminatory performance and overall quality. NRI calculation was performed either in the original or in the validation studies to evaluate the ability of the AFP model to identify patients

Table 5. Recommendations of the well reported and well-validated risk prediction models.

Model	Study type	Predominant Cause of HCC	Overall quality according to PROBAST	Model type	Performance*	TRIPOD level†	Independent external validation in HBV areas (yes/no)	Recommendation
Halazun 2017 [18]	Prospective	HCV	+	Preoperative Postoperative General	0.82 (pre) 0.88 (post) 0.91 (general)	1a	No	Not ready for clinical use and validation is required
Mehra 2016 [20]	Retrospective	"	+	General	0.77 (D) 0.82 (V) 0.75 (EV)	3	No	Recommended in HCV regions/independent external validation is required in HBV regions
Lai 2016 [22]	"	"	+	General	0.58 (D) 0.59 (V)	3	No	Not ready for clinical use and validation is required
Agopian 2015 [24]	"	"	+	General	0.79 (pre) 0.85 (post)	3	No	Not ready for clinical use and validation is required
Duvoux 2012 [26]	"	"	+	Preoperative	0.70	3	Yes	Recommended‡
Decaens 2010 [28]	"	"	+	Preoperative	0.65(D) 0.75(EV)	3	No	Recommended in HCV regions/independent external validation is required in HBV regions
Chan 2008 [29]	"	"	–	Postoperative	0.91(D) 1.00 (V1) 0.95 (V2) 0.67(EV) 0.81(EV)	3	No	Not recommended‡
Iwatsuki 2000 [31]	"	"	–	Postoperative	0.71(EV)	1a	No	Not recommended‡

–, high ROB/high concern regarding applicability; +, low ROB/low concern regarding applicability; †, same to the above cell; D, development cohort; EV, external validation; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; post, postoperative; pre, preoperative; PROBAST, Prediction model Risk Of Bias Assessment Tool.

*Refer to Tables 1 and 2 for other performance measures.

†Types of prediction model studies according to the TRIPOD guidelines. 1a, development and validation using resampling; 2a, random split-sample development and validation; 2b, nonrandom split-sample development and validation; 3, development and validation using separate data; 4, validation study.

‡Please refer to the Tables 1 and 2 and discussion for more details.

with high recurrence compared to Milan criteria, by reclassifying the recurrence and no recurrence subgroups between the Milan criteria and the AFP model. For instance, in the development cohort, the prediction of recurrence was improved significantly by using the AFP model compared with the Milan criteria (NRI = 0.11, $z = 3.28$, $P = 0.001$). However, in the validation cohort, there was no significant difference (NRI = 0.15, $z = 1.92$, $P = 0.055$), probably because of the smaller sample size with fewer events [26]. Likewise, in Notarpaolo et al.'s external validation study [34], by using NRI for recurrence at two years, there was a significant improvement of patients without recurrence compared to the Milan criteria (NRI = 0.14, $z = 6.81$, $P < 0.001$), but the total NRI was not significantly different (NRI = 0.03, $z = 0.43$, $P > 0.05$), because NRI for recurrence was similar for the Milan criteria and the AFP model. Given these good results, we feel that the AFP model deserves further prospective validation in diverse populations.

Generally, risk prediction models can be classified into three categories: preoperative, postoperative, and general models. Our review revealed that nine risk prediction models were based on preoperative data, five models were obtained from postoperative data, and six models were derived from both pre- and postoperative data, so they were considered general risk prediction models (Table 3).

The preoperative risk prediction models are mainly based on radiological and serological predictors, so they offer an adequate candidate selection and provide an approximate estimation of the future risk of developing HCC recurrence, thereby enhancing communication with patients and their relatives. To evaluate the risk of HCC recurrence after LT, we recommend that the assessment of preoperative risk models should be conducted in the context of other expanded selection criteria, which is out of the scope of this study. Also, relying only on pretransplant estimation is not a perfect approach, so it is mandatory to take into consideration both pre- and postoperative predictors, because an underestimation of more than 30% was observed between preoperative radiological and postoperative pathological assessments [20,33,37,49–52].

The postoperative risk prediction models are usually derived from pathological risk factors, while general risk prediction models incorporate both pre- and postoperative risk factors, so they cannot be used as a selection tool for HCC candidates for LT. However, these risk models can be utilized effectively after LT for different aspects, such as determining whether HCC surveillance after LT

is necessary. For example, the RETREAT score is recommended to determine optimal screening intervals as well as to identify patients with a low risk of recurrence, so surveillance for this group is not required. This can reduce the cost and avoid the harmful effects of radiation and contrast [20,42].

The postoperative and general risk prediction models could also potentially affect the use of neoadjuvant therapies and immunosuppressants after LT, not only by identifying patients at high risk for HCC recurrence but also by providing a reference for the predicted probability of HCC recurrence, which is very helpful for designing future clinical trials. In other words, patients with a high risk of post-LT HCC recurrence should be considered for enrollment into clinical trials using post-LT neoadjuvant therapies to decrease the risk of recurrence, instead of waiting to treat patients after they have been already diagnosed with HCC recurrence.

Our study has several advantages. This study is the first systematic review that summarizes the discriminatory performance of the current risk models for the prediction of HCC recurrence after LT. Our search was performed with comprehensive approaches using precise inclusion criteria to identify the potential papers. Two independent authors collected data and evaluated the ROB in the involved studies. However, our review has some limitations, which should also be mentioned. First, the existing differences in study characteristics, populations, and risk factors in the prediction models may lead to high heterogeneity among the included studies. Second, a limited number of validation studies have been conducted to compare multiple risk prediction models in the same cohort. Third, the wide time range of the included studies (1981–2016), in which some novel diagnostic and therapeutic approaches for HCC (e.g., imaging, direct antiviral therapy) have been introduced, probably had a direct impact on survival and recurrence after LT. Fourth, although we have tried to extract all relevant data from the included studies, some missing information was unavoidable. Finally, most risk prediction models were developed based on specific population characteristics, which might not apply to other populations. Thus, these risk models should be validated externally in different populations.

In summary, we found 18 original risk prediction models intended to predict HCC recurrence in patients who had undergone LT. The quality of the studies was generally low, according to GRADE criteria. The most common included risk factors were AFP, tumor size, vascular invasion, tumor number, tumor differentiation, and NLR. Only five risk prediction models were

externally validated. At least eight prediction models showed good discriminatory performance in internal or external validation. The AFP model was the well-validated preoperative risk model that could stratify patients into high- and low-risk groups. Prospective and independent external validation of the current risk prediction models in diverse populations is highly recommended.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Table S1. PRISMA 2009 checklist

Data S1. Search strategies

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