Assessing the validity of adult-derived prognostic models for primary sclerosing cholangitis outcomes in children

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Author's Contributions:

All authors participated in study design, data abstraction, and authoring of the manuscript. Dr. Deneau additionally performed the statistical analysis.

Abstract:

Background:

Natural history models for primary sclerosing cholangitis (PSC) are derived from adult patient data, but have never been validated in children. It is unclear how accurate such models are for children with PSC.

Methods:

We utilized the pediatric PSC consortium database to assess the Revised Mayo Clinic, Amsterdam-Oxford and Boberg models. We calculated the risk stratum and predicted survival for each patient within each model using patient data at PSC diagnosis, and compared it to observed survival. We evaluated model fit using the c-statistic.

Results:

Model fit was good at one year (c-statistics 0.93, 0.87, 0.82) and fair at ten years (0.78, 0.75, 0.69) in the Mayo, Boberg and Amsterdam-Oxford models, respectively. The Mayo model correctly classified most children as low risk, whereas the Amsterdam-Oxford model incorrectly classified most as high risk. All of the models underestimated survival of patients classified as high risk. Albumin, bilirubin, AST and platelets were most associated with outcomes. Autoimmune hepatitis was more prevalent in higher risk groups, and over-weighting of AST in these patients accounted for the observed vs. predicted survival

Conclusion:

All three models offered good short-term discrimination of outcomes but only fair long-term discrimination. None of the models account for the high prevalence of features of autoimmune hepatitis overlap in children and the associated elevated aminotransferases. A pediatric-specific model is needed. AST, bilirubin, albumin and platelets will be important predictors, but must be weighted to account for the unique features of PSC in children.

Introduction:

Several natural history models have been derived from clinical data in adult populations with primary sclerosing cholangitis (PSC) (1-10). No consensus exists regarding the optimal model (11), and none have been validated for use in children. Important clinical differences exist between pediatric and adult-onset PSC patients. At PSC diagnosis, dominant strictures are present in 4% of children (12, 13), compared to 45% of adults (14). Similarly, cholangiocarcinoma is rare in pediatric-onset PSC, occurring in 1% of children by 10 years (12, 13), compared to at least 7-13% of adults (15-17). A small duct phenotype is present in 20% of children (12, 13), but only 10% of adults (18, 19). Features of autoimmune hepatitis overlap with PSC are present in over 33% of children (12, 13), but only 7% of adults with PSC (20, 21). With these clinical differences, it is unclear how well risk models derived from adult patient data are generalizable to children.

The most widely-used model to estimate transplant-free patient survival is the Revised Natural History Model for PSC, from a group at the Mayo Clinic (the "Mayo model") (5). It estimates survival with native liver for up to four years, and is available as an online calculator tool (22). A subsequent risk model from five European centers was created by Boberg et al. to more accurately estimate one-year survival to inform immediate transplant listing decisions (the "Boberg model") (6). The most recent Amsterdam-Oxford model (the "A-O model") included the largest model creation and validation cohorts to date, and had an added strength of originating from population-based data (10). It estimates survival with native liver out to 15 years, and is also available online (23). Characteristics of these models and their creation and validation cohorts are described and are compared to the Pediatric PSC Consortium in **Table 1**. We aimed to test the predictive utility of the Mayo, Boberg and A-O prognostic models for PSC using data from the Pediatric PSC Consortium, a large, multicenter cohort of children with PSC (12).

Methods:

We previously reviewed medical records on all known PSC patients at 36 different institutions throughout Europe, North America, the Middle East, and Asia (12). The PSC diagnosis was based on a cholestatic laboratory profile and either cholangiography showing multifocal stricturing and segmental dilations of the biliary tree and/or liver biopsy showing periductal, concentric fibrosis, fibro-obliterative cholangitis, or primary ductular involvement (11). Patients with abnormal cholangiograms were labeled as large duct PSC. Patients with normal cholangiograms but abnormal liver biopsy were labeled as small duct PSC. Autoimmune hepatitis (AIH) was diagnosed in patients who met a 'probable' or 'definite' score on the simplified AIH criteria that have been validated in children (24). We collected demographics, laboratory, histopathology, cholangiography and endoscopy data at liver disease diagnosis, as well as the presence of an esophageal variceal bleeding history. Alkaline phosphatase values were normalized for age. Complete data was present in 670/781 patients (86%). To account for missing data, we performed multivariate imputation using iteratively chained equations, combining the results of 10 imputed data sets. We validated the models using this imputed data set.

We calculated survival probabilities for each child using the equations derived from the Mayo (5), Boberg (6) and A-O (10) risk models **(Appendix, Supplemental Digital Content, http://links.lww.com/MPG/B735).** We did not validate other models because they necessitated access to original histopathology (1, 4), full images from cholangiography studies (7, 9), or included subjective assessments of organomegaly (2, 3, 8) that were not included in our dataset, and none are widely used. To generate observed survival probabilities, we created a retrospective cohort of all patients and followed them from time of PSC diagnosis to endpoints of liver transplantation or death from liver disease. Person-time was censored at the date of the last known clinical encounter. We used the Kaplan-

Meier method to calculate rates of survival each year after diagnosis. The endpoints of each model were somewhat different, with the Mayo model derived to predict only a risk of dying with a horizon of 4 years, and with liver transplant treated as if the patient would die within one year. The Boberg model was designed to predict one-year transplant-free survival, and the A-O model offered predictions for 10+ years. For uniformity in assessing multiple models, and to extrapolate longer-term prediction capability, we kept patients in their initial risk strata and observed survival out to ten years regardless of each model's original intent.

We evaluated the ability of each model to yield accurate survival probabilities for a given patient graphically, by comparing overlaid plots of observed and calculated survival probabilities. We plotted the Kaplan-Meier curve of observed outcomes alongside the annual predicted probabilities of survival for each risk group. For the plots of predicted survival, we calculated the median of the annual survival probabilities of each patient within each risk group, and connected these with straight lines (25, 26). The utility of risk score cutoffs specified by the adult models to stratify patients into distinct groups (e.g. "low" and "high" risk) with distinct observed survival probabilities was assessed using the logrank test. The logrank test is used to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the risk groups in the probability of an event (transplant or death) at any time point (27). Discriminatory ability of the models was assessed with the concordance statistic (c-statistic). The c-statistic was calculated by comparing observed and expected survival between every possible pairing of two of the 781 patients in the cohort (1 vs. 2, 1 vs. 3, … , 780 vs. 781). The c-statistic is the percentage of all 609,180 of these possible pairings that the model "guessed" correctly (assigned a worse predicted survival to the patient with the worst observed survival) (28). The c-statistic ranges from 0.5 (no discrimination, e.g. random risk stratification using a coin toss) to 1.0 (perfect discrimination), with values of 0.8 or higher generally regarded as "good discrimination" (29). We created time-truncated datasets to each

of one through ten years of follow-up and assessed the c-statistic for each time point to follow the accuracy of each model out to longer and longer prediction windows.

We broke down the median risk score in each risk group for the Mayo and A-O models and calculated the proportion of the risk score attributable to each individual predictor. We compared three or more groups of continuous variables using the Kruskal-Wallis test. All calculations were done using Stata version 13.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX). The protocol of the study was approved by the institutional review and/or research ethics board of each collaborating institution.

Results:

The Revised Mayo Clinic Model:

The Mayo model was designed to report four-year outcomes. Overall, the Mayo model offered good discrimination of four-year outcomes with a c-statistic of 0.83. Predicted vs. observed survival with native liver (SNL) was similar in low, medium and high risk groups at one-year (99 vs. 99, 97 vs. 98, and 80 vs. 79%, respectively), but more disparate at four years (98 vs. 96, 89 vs. 79, and 33 vs. 47%, respectively). The low, medium and high risk cutoffs created three distinct populations of patients with progressively worse outcomes, logrank p<0.001 between all groups as shown in **Figure 1**. Most children were correctly stratified into the low risk group.

Serum albumin and aspartate aminotransferase levels made up the majority of the risk score for each patient, whereas total bilirubin, patient age, and variceal hemorrhage history contributed very little to the risk score, as shown in **Supplemental Figure 1 (Supplemental Digital Content, http://links.lww.com/MPG/B735)**. Each of the predictor variables varied significantly between groups as shown in **Supplemental Table 1 (Supplemental Digital Content, http://links.lww.com/MPG/B735)**. Inflammatory bowel disease was most

prevalent in low vs. medium and high risk groups: 80 vs. 73 vs. 52%, while autoimmune hepatitis was least prevalent in low vs. medium and high risk groups: 29 vs. 39 vs. 52%, respectively (both p<0.001). Large duct disease was distributed evenly among risk groups.

The Amsterdam-Oxford Model:

The A-O model was designed to report fifteen-year outcomes, but we had inadequate pediatric follow-up data to this time point and so followed it to a maximum of ten years. Overall, the A-O model offered fair discrimination of ten-year outcomes with a c-statistic of 0.69. Predicted vs. observed SNL was similar in low, low-intermediate, and medium risk groups, but disparate in the high risk group at one-year (100 vs. 99, 100 vs. 98, 100 vs. 97, 96 vs. 90%, respectively), five years (97 vs. 97, 96 vs. 94, 94 vs. 89, 83 vs. 66%, respectively) and ten years (88 vs. 93, 84 vs. 84, 76 vs. 74, 61 vs. 34%, respectively). The low, low-intermediate, medium and high risk cutoffs created four distinct populations of patients with progressively worse outcomes, log-rank p<0.001 between all groups as shown in **Figure 2**. The original model stratified 16, 34, 34 and 16% of adult patients as low, low-intermediate, medium and high risk, respectively. Children were stratified with 19, 9, 14 and 57% falling into these respective groups, over-classifying most as high risk.

Serum aspartate aminotransferase levels and platelet count made up the majority of the risk score for each patient, whereas total bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, and albumin contributed little to the risk score, as shown in **Supplemental Figure 2 (Supplemental Digital Content, http://links.lww.com/MPG/B735)**. Age and large duct phenotype were similar in all risk groups, whereas all of the laboratory-based predictors were significantly different as shown in **Supplemental Table 2 (Supplemental Digital Content, http://links.lww.com/MPG/B735)**. Inflammatory bowel disease was equally prevalent in

lower risk groups: 84 vs. 77 vs. 80 vs. 74%, respectively, while autoimmune hepatitis was more prevalent in higher risk groups: 17 vs. 31 vs. 37% vs. 38%, respectively.

The Boberg model:

The Boberg model was designed to report one-year outcomes. The Boberg model provided excellent discrimination of one-year outcomes, with a c-statistic of 0.87, making it generally accurate at predicting if an individual patient would require liver transplantation or not on the basis of his or her laboratory studies. The patient's bilirubin (median 0.6 [IQR 0.4-1.2]) made up the majority of the prognostic score, accounting for 80%. Serum albumin (median 4 [IQR 3.6-4.4]) and patient age (median 12y [IQR 8-15]) accounted for 10% each. The model was overly pessimistic in predicting SNL for the group however. We observed 24 deaths or liver transplants in the first year after diagnosis, whereas the Boberg model predicted that over 170 would have occurred. The observed vs. predicted SNL at one year was 98% vs. 78%, respectively.

Model Comparison:

We assessed the performance of each model to discriminate outcomes at each of one to ten years after diagnosis, even though this was beyond the intended window for the Mayo and Boberg models. This is shown in **Figure 3**. The Mayo model was excellent at predicting need for transplant at one year, outperforming the other models (c-statistic 0.93 vs. 0.87 vs. 0.82 for the Mayo, Boberg and A-O models, respectively). Despite the Mayo score being designed for outcomes up to four years, and the Boberg model designed for outcomes at one year, use of either score as a predictor outperformed the A-O model at every time point cutoff through ten years. AST, platelet count, bilirubin and albumin were most associated with outcomes and accounted for the bulk of each risk score, where used in each model. Overall the Mayo model provided the best discrimination at all points in follow-up.

Discussion:

We used a large dataset of pediatric-onset PSC cases to assess the validity of prognostic and risk stratification tools created for adult PSC patients. We showed that the Mayo model offered the best discrimination of outcomes up to ten years. The Mayo and A-O models accurately estimated SNL in patients for 4-5 years after diagnosis. The Mayo model provided the best stratification to low, medium and high risk groups. A large source of inaccuracy of the models appeared to be weighting of AST that did not take into account the high prevalence of autoimmune hepatitis in children.

AST level contributed the largest variance explained in calculating risk scores in the Mayo and A-O model, and in stratifying patients into higher risk groups. AST rises with extensive fibrosis and cirrhosis. Indeed, the AST to Platelet ratio index (APRI) is a useful surrogate marker of hepatic fibrosis in many liver diseases (30-32), including PSC (33, 34). While an important predictor of disease progression, the Mayo and A-O models do not take into account the high prevalence of features of AIH overlap in children. At least one third of children with PSC are affected with AIH (12) compared to 0-5% of the adult cohorts (5, 6, 10) used to create these models. The median AST at diagnosis in children with PSC-AIH overlap was 290 U/L, yet most of these children had an uncomplicated clinical course, with a five-year SNL of 90% (12). The large number of children with marked elevations of AST that are unrelated to fibrosis, and which do not imply a negative prognosis, is the largest source of inaccuracy in prediction and risk stratification in these models.

It may seem remarkable that the models provide reasonable discrimination of outcomes at all, given the derivation and validation cohorts range in median age from 36-45 years old, and the median child in our cohort is only 12. Despite differing prevalence of complications at diagnosis of PSC, disease progression to new adverse liver events is similar between children and adults, occurring consistently in approximately 4% of patients each year. Cholangiocarcinoma is more common in adult patients however, who may have decades of disease duration and potential for hepatobiliary inflammation to progress to dysplasia and cancer. The higher rate of cholangiocarcinoma in adults (and their associated high mortality) is likely a large source of inaccuracy when pediatric data are entered into these models. There are no known differences in the underlying pathogenesis of PSC in children as compared to adults. Other than patient age, the laboratory markers and phenotypic features included in each of the adult models have generally been shown to be useful predictors in children (12,

13). It is likely that an optimized pediatric-specific model will include many of the same predictors, but will apply different weights to each. Bilirubin, platelet count and serum albumin are strong candidates for a pediatric model.

The strength of this study was the large size of the validation cohort we utilized. The Pediatric PSC Consortium is the largest cohort of pediatric-onset PSC patients, and includes a diverse mix of secondary and tertiary referral centers. The weakness of the study is the retrospective nature of the Pediatric PSC Consortium data. This prevented a standardized diagnostic and therapeutic algorithm for each patient, and misclassification bias may be present. While we were able to evaluate the most popular and user-friendly risk stratification models, were unable to evaluate all existing prognostic models due to lack of original histopathology and cholangiography data, and lack of subjective assessments of organomegaly in all patients.

In conclusion, we used the Pediatric PSC Consortium dataset to evaluate the validity of adult-derived prognostic models to predict clinical outcomes in children. The best discrimination, prediction and risk-stratification was provided by the Mayo model. None of the models accounted for the high prevalence of features of autoimmune hepatitis overlap in children and the associated elevations of aminotransferase levels that are unrelated to cirrhosis. Total bilirubin, albumin and platelet count are strong candidates for inclusion into a future pediatric-specific model. Weighting of predictors to account for the unique biochemical profile of children, is likely to yield more useful and accurate predictions and risk-stratification for pediatric-onset PSC.

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Figure 1. Observed vs. Predicted survival with native liver by risk group in the Mayo model
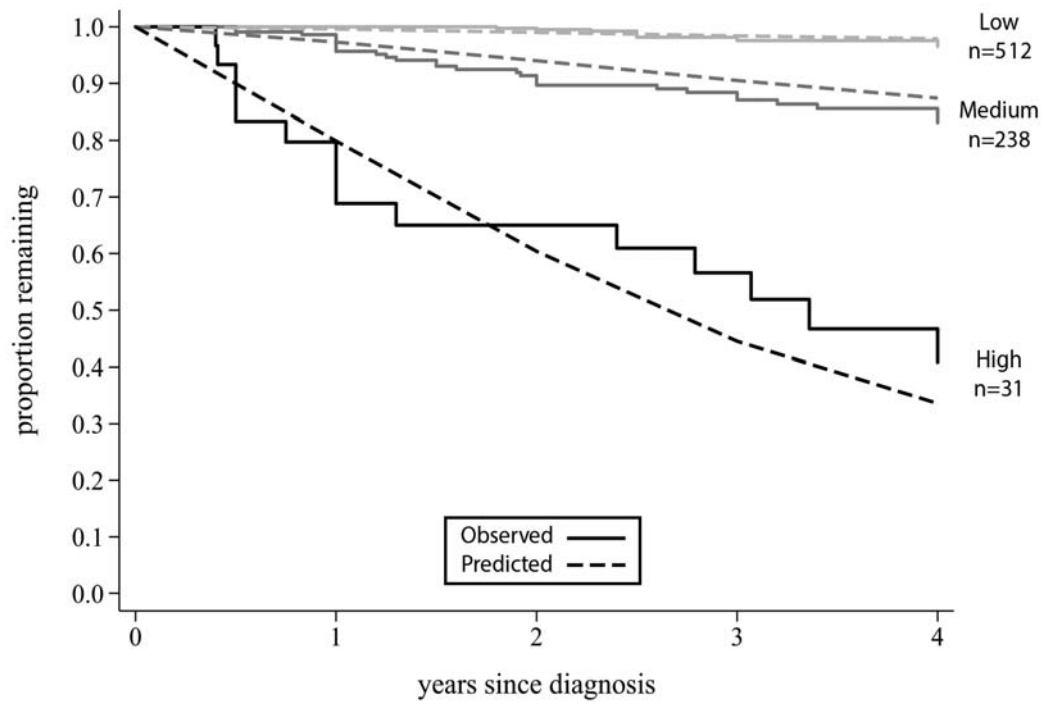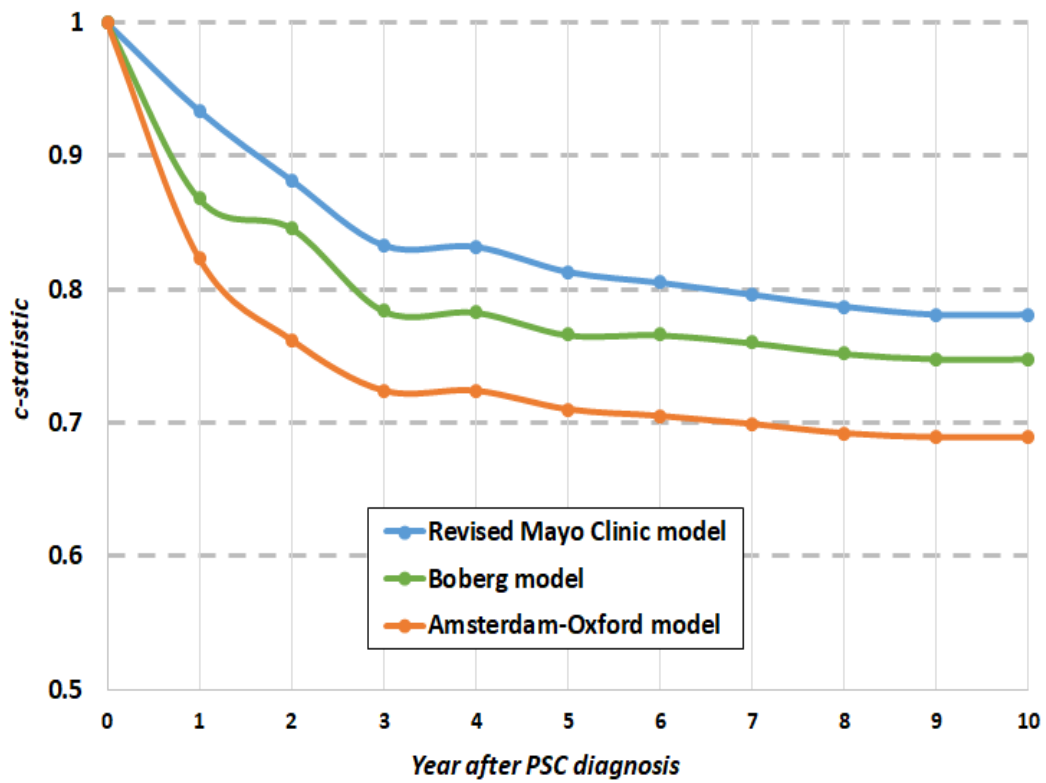
Figure 2: Observed vs. Predicted survival with native liver by risk group in the Amsterdam-Oxford model
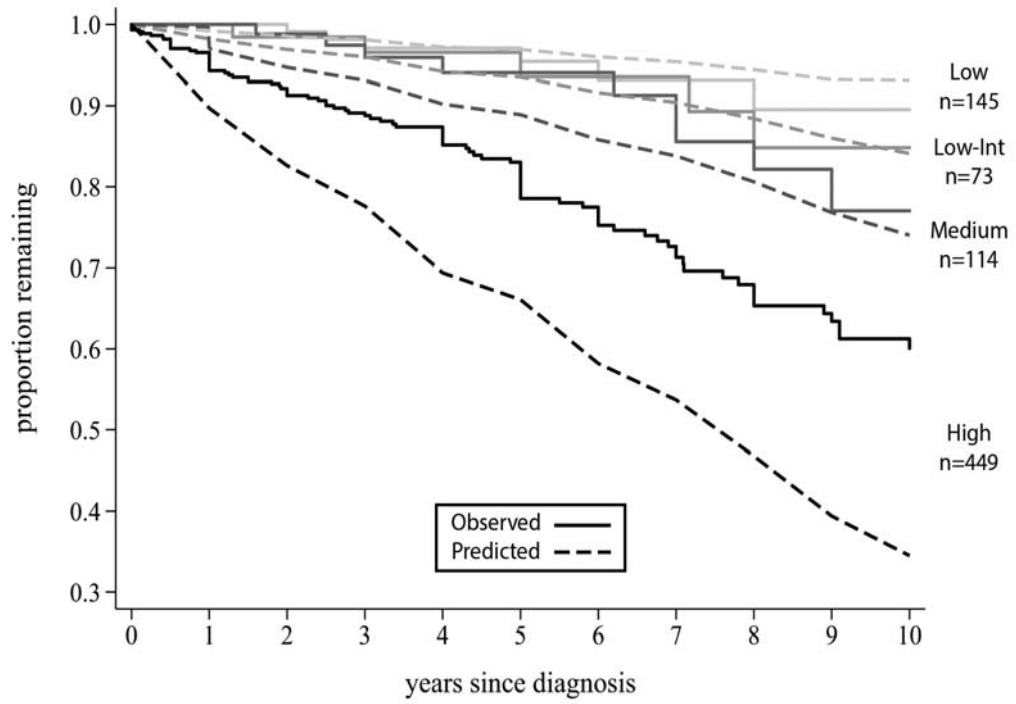
Figure 3: Comparison of model fit at annual time points after PSC diagnosis, extrapolated to 10 years

Table 1: Characteristics of Adult Prognostic Models for Primary Sclerosing Cholangitis

	Mayo Model Kim et al. 2000 (5)	**A-O Model** de Vries et al. 2017 (10)	**Boberg Model** Boberg et al. 2002 (6)	**Pediatric PSC Consortium** Deneau et al. 2017 (12)
Creation Cohort				
Location(s)	four United States referral centers	44 Dutch centers (population-based)	five European referral centers	36 North American, European, Middle East and Asian centers
n	405	692	330	781
age (years)	42	37 [IQR 27-49]	37 (range 13-82)	12
% female	33%	35%	32%	39%
% with IBD	74%	70%	83%	76%
% with AIH	0%	5%	0%	33%
median survival with native liver	not reported	20 years	11.7 years	16 years
Externally Validated?	Yes	Yes	No	
Validation Cohort				
location	King's College hospital London, UK	John Radcliffe hospital Oxford, UK		
n	124	264		
age (median)	36 years	45 years		
% with IBD	71%	74%		
% with AIH	0%	2%		
median survival with native liver	12 years	23 years		
Variables	age at diagnosis albumin AST bilirubin variceal bleeding history	age at diagnosis albumin alkaline phosphatase AST bilirubin large duct phenotype platelets	age at diagnosis albumin bilirubin	
Survival with native liver estimates:	1-4 years	1-15 years	1 year	