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 Prediction of Local Control for Colorectal Liver Metastases Treated with Radiotherapy using a Radiomic
 Artificial Intelligence Model
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35 Abstract 36 **Background and Purpose** Prognostic assessment of local therapies for colorectal liver metastases (CLM) is essential for guiding 37 38 management in radiation oncology. Existing models using clinicopathological variables have limited 39 accuracy. Computed tomography (CT) contains liver texture information which may be predictive of 40 metastatic environments. We sought to build an automated system to predict progression-free survival 41 using CT radiomics and artificial intelligence (AI) modelling. 42 43 **Materials and Methods** 44 Liver CT scans and outcomes for N=97 CLM patients treated with radiotherapy were retrospectively 45 obtained from Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center. A survival model was built by extracting 108 radiomic features from liver and tumor CT volumes for a random survival forest (RSF) to predict local 46 progression. Accuracies were measured by concordance indices (C-index) and integrated Brier scores 47 48 (IBS) with 4-fold cross-validation. This was repeated with different liver segmentations and radiotherapy 49 clinical variables as inputs to the RSF. Predictive features were identified by perturbation importances. 50 51 Results 52 The AI radiomics model achieved a C-index of 0.68 (CI: 0.62 - 0.74) and IBS below 0.25. The most 53 predictive radiomic feature was gray tone difference matrix strength (importance: 1.90 CI: 0.93 – 2.86) 54 and most predictive treatment feature was maximum dose (importance: 3.83, CI: 1.05 - 6.62). The clinical data only model achieved a similar C-index of 0.62 (CI: 0.56 - 0.69), suggesting that predictive 55 signals exist in radiomics and clinical data. 56 57 58 **Conclusions** 59 The AI model achieves good prediction accuracy for progression-free survival of CLM, providing support 60 that radiomics or clinical data combined with machine learning may aid prognostic assessment and 61 management. 62

64 Keywords:

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Radiomics, Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, Computer Vision, Survival Analysis,

1. Introduction:

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69 Patients with colorectal cancer develop colorectal liver metastases (CLM) in approximately 50% of cases 70 [1] with 40% recurring within 12-months. Surgery is the standard of care for patients that present with liver-limited resectable CLM, with reported 5-year survival ranging from 28-58% [2]. Non-surgical liver-71 72 directed local therapy for CLM, such as thermal ablation, can be effective, but is invasive [3]. External 73 beam radiation therapy (EBRT) has emerged as an alternative, non-invasive approach for localized 74 therapy of CLM in patients who are ineligible for other treatment options. Numerous clinical factors have 75 been shown to influence the local control of CLM associated with EBRT, including dose delivered to the 76 lesion and the size of the lesion [4]. Prognosis of local tumor control is essential to determine appropriate 77 treatment for CLM. The goal of this work was to build a predictive model utilizing quantitative 78 information from radiomic features contained in computed tomography (CT) scans combined with 79 machine learning methods to predict local control outcomes in CLM. 80 81 Several models have been published for predicting clinical outcomes in CLM patients. A common 82 approach is utilizing multivariate Cox proportional hazard regression using clinically relevant variables 83 and selecting high hazard ratio variables for a scoring system [5-13]. Fong et al. [6], for instance, utilized 84 5 clinicopathological variables (node-positive primary, interval from primary to metastases, number of 85 hepatic tumors, if largest hepatic tumor >5cm, and carcinoembryonic antigen level > 200ng/ml) for their 86 scoring system. Wang et al. [14] evaluated the accuracy of 9 different survival prediction scoring systems 87 with 6 of the scoring systems resulting in a concordance index (C-index) crossing below the 0.50 threshold in its 95% confidence interval. A C-index crossing 0.50 would indicate prediction no better than 88 89 random chance. 90 91 There are limitations with these scoring systems, namely that scoring systems require manual 92 thresholding, and that other data, such as CT imaging, may provide features that can be utilized for 93 outcome prediction. We aim to address these gaps by building a survival prediction model from two 94 motivating ideas: the usage of CT radiomic imaging data and modelling time-dependent survival with 95 machine learning. 96 97 CT has been standard of care for characterizing tumor response and radiomics is an emerging field that 98 shows promise in analyzing complex details in CT scans. Radiomic features are computed textural 99 attributes of which quantitatively characterize shape, intensity statistics, and gray-level relationships

within the anatomy of interest. Specific to liver metastases, Fiz et al. [15] report 32 different studies up to

June 2020 evaluating the association of radiomics to overall survival, tumor size, or response evaluation

criteria, however the studies assess for association and did not measure predictive accuracy. Ganeshan et al. [16] observed that intensity and entropy of a liver CT volume of CLM patients significantly changed after contrast injection, indicating that radiomics can capture textural changes from enhancement. Miles et al. [17] investigated radiomics in relation to CLM survival by computing intensity and uniformity features from a CT liver volume and observing that textural uniformity was significantly associated with increased survival. Creasy et al. [18] and Simpson et al. [19] also observed that increased homogeneity in liver CT volumes were associated with increased risk of hepatic recurrence.

Artificial intelligence (AI) methods have shown potential in survival prediction in previous studies [20, 21]. AI, specifically machine learning, initializes models with parameters that can be optimized as more training data is available. This allows for the initialization of complex model architecture which may be more suitable to model interdependent variables than a linear models used for previous scoring systems.

We set out to evaluate, as a proof of concept, whether an automated prediction system can predict progression-free survival for liver metastasis patients treated with RT. To do this, we programmed a machine learning pipeline by implementing existing radiomic libraries to extract features from liver volumes that were manually segmented by radiation oncologists. We then implemented known machine learning models to be trained with the radiomic data and validated it with known patient recurrence outcomes.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Data Collection and Equipment:

This retrospective analysis was approved by the institutional review board with a waiver of informed consent at Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center (MSK) (New York, NY). The MSK database was queried to obtain pre-treatment CT scans data for patients receiving radiation treatment for CLM between February 2006 to February 2019. Liver and gross tumor volumes (GTV) were segmented by radiation oncologists at MSK, as part of standard of care. This created volume subsets of liver volumes only, GTV only, and liver and GTV volume for radiomic analysis. The MSK database was also queried to obtain dosimetric treatment parameters and right-censored time-to-event data for the outcome of progression in the treated tumor (local progression).

2.2 Image Analysis

The task for the AI model was to predict the primary endpoint, defined as time from CLM radiation therapy until local tumor progression. To accomplish this, an AI survival prediction model, visualized in

Figure 1, was developed, consisting of an offline training component and a real-time prediction component. The input to the training component is a set of liver CT scans. Radiomic features are extracted from the liver and/or tumor volumes and used to train a survival model, which learns to predict a survival time interval for the patients in the training dataset. After the model is trained, new patient CT scans can be used as an input to the finalized model to compute a real-time survival prediction. The training stage contains three main components: radiomic feature extraction, feature selection, and random survival forest modelling. The AI model was programmed in Python, utilizing the PyRadiomics [22] and PySurvival libraries [23]. Concordance indices were programmed in R with the Hmisc library [24].

2.3 Radiomic Feature Extraction

In the first stage, 108 radiomic features were computed for a liver volume extracted from a CT scan. This includes computations related to shape, intensity statistics, gray-level co-occurrence matrices, gray level run-length matrices, gray level dependence matrices, and gray tone difference matrices. A full list of radiomic features is available in Supplementary Table S1. The majority of radiomic features follow the Image Biomarker Standardisation Initiative (IBSI) guidelines. Deviations from IBSI are listed in Supplementary Table S2. A set of radiomic features was computed for each lesion. Lesions were grouped together so that when they are shuffled into validation sets that no patient will have lesions both in the training and validation subset. An example of predictive radiomic features and associated outcomes is displayed in Figure 2.

2.4 Feature Selection

Retaining all 108 radiomic features would likely result in overfitting due the dimensionality of the feature space being too large for the sample size [25]. Redundant features were removed using a variance inflation factor threshold of 10 as an indicator of collinearity [26]. We then ranked remaining features using the hazard ratios predicted for each variable in a Cox proportional hazards model (CPH) [27], removing features until the ratio of features to samples was less than 1:10.

2.5 Random Survival Forest Model

To predict survival from the filtered feature set, the random survival forest (RSF) algorithm was used [28]. The algorithm creates ensemble decision tree with nodes representing features with a threshold value. The features used and the threshold values are iteratively optimized to maximize the log-rank statistic between two child nodes. The full algorithm is listed in Supplementary Equation S3. A template RSF was instantiated using the PySurvival library [23] and then hyperparameters of number of trees, maximum number of patients for a terminal node, and maximum depth were optimized with a gridsearch

algorithm. After optimization, feature importances were computed by error rates between the perturbed and unperturbed model for that feature.

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2.6 Validation and Statistical Analysis

- 174 A 4 k-fold cross-validation scheme was used to provide multiple estimates of the performance of the 175 model. The data was partitioned into 4 subsets of equal size and proportion of recurrences. The survival
- model was built by performing feature selection, training the RSF model, and hyperparameter
- optimization on 3 of the subsets and then evaluated with the remaining subset. This was repeated 4 times
- 178 with a different testing subset. The concordance index (C-index), computed by Somers' Dxy rank
- 179 correlation [29], and integrated Brier score (IBS) were averaged over 4 k-folds with confidence intervals
- computed by using the standard error of the distribution of C-indices. One limitation of this method is that
- the sample size may not allow larger k-fold splits for a more accurate measurement of the confidence
- interval [30]. All analysis was programmed with Python.

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Ablation analysis was performed to investigate the performance of the model when adjustments to individual components were made. First, we defined 11 different feature sets:

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- 1. Non-imaging and non-treatment clinical data: baseline patient variables not related to treatment information or tumor geometry from CT imaging.
- 2. Treatment clinical data: variables related to treatment parameters, including dosimetric variables.
- 190 3. Imaging clinical data: variables related to tumor geometry measured in CT imaging.
- 4. All pre-treatment clinical data: All clinical data except treatment clinical data. This represents
 variables that are not based on physician judgment for treatment planning.
 - 5. All clinical data: The union feature sets 1-3.
 - 6. Radiomics: tumor volume: radiomic features computed from the tumor volume only.
 - 7. Radiomics: liver parenchyma: radiomic features computed from the liver parenchyma only.
- 196
 Radiomics: liver parenchyma + tumor: radiomic features computed from the union of the tumor
 volume and liver parenchyma.
- 198
 9. Treatment clinical data and radiomics from liver parenchyma + tumor: the union of feature sets 2.
 199
 And 8.
- 200 10. Non treatment clinical data and radiomics from liver parenchyma + tumor: the union of feature sets 4. And 8.
 - 11. All clinical data and radiomics from liver parenchyma + tumor: the union of feature sets 5. And 8.

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Category	Variables
Imaging Clinical Data	Number of lesions at radiotherapy
	Other sites at radiotherapy
	Lesion dimension 1
	Lesion dimension 2
	PTV (cm ³)
Treatment Clinical Data	Biologically effective dose (Gy)
	Minimum dose for planning target volume (cGy)
	Maximum dose (cGy)
	Dose for 95% of target volume (% of intended
	prescribed dose)
	Systemic treatment before radiotherapy
	Lines of chemotherapy
	Hepatic arterial infusion pump before
	radiotherapy
	Reirradiation
	Surgery before radiotherapy
	Ablation before radiotherapy
	Yttrium-90 embolization before radiotherapy
	Arterial embolization before radiotherapy
Other Clinical Data	Primary tumor subsite
	Metastasis at diagnosis
	Number of liver lesions at diagnosis
	Other sites at diagnosis
	Liver location
	Carcinoembryonic antigen
	Kirsten rat sarcoma virus mutation

Table 1: The categorization of clinical variables to imaging, treatment, and other (non-imaging and non-treatment) clinical variables. The goal of this categorization was to observe if different subsets of clinical data performed better at prediction progression in the absence of other subsets.

Each feature set was used to build a RSF survival model with feature selection, without feature selection, and with a CPH model with gridsearch optimization of the regularization parameter. The goal was to evaluate the performance of radiomics compared to clinical data, whether the combination of both enhance performance, whether different radiomic volumes are more predictive, whether the lack of feature selection will result in overfitting, and whether using a CPH model is sufficient.

3. Results

The query resulted in obtaining CT imaging with intravenous contrast and chart data for N=97 patients, with 129 lesions identified. Of the 129 lesions, 55 resulted in local progression, 67 in no progression, and 7 undetermined. The baseline distribution of clinical variables is summarized in Supplementary Table S4 (grouped by lesion) and Supplementary Table S5 (grouped by patient). The mean freedom from local progression was 10.5 months. Dosage and fractions are summarized in Supplementary Table S6. Liver metastases were treated with total dose range of 24Gy-80Gy (mean: 52.6Gy) and number of fractions from 3-50 (mean: 8.6). The averaged cross-validation accuracies are summarized in Table 2. Samples of the predicted survival and IBS curves compared to ground truth are visualized in Figure 3. Feature importance computation results are summarized in Tables 4-6. The final models were uploaded to a public repository linked in Supplementary Table S7.

	Concordance Index	Integrated Brier Score		
Input Features	(95% CI)	(95% CI)		
(No Feature Selection, Local Progression as	(No Feature Selection, Local Progression as Outcome)			
Other Clinical Data	0.64 [0.54, 0.75]	0.18 [0.15, 0.22]		
Imaging Clinical Data	0.66 [0.61, 0.71]	0.17 [0.14, 0.20]		
Treatment Clinical Data	0.69 [0.62, 0.77]	0.17 [0.14, 0.20]		
All Pre-treatment Clinical Data	0.63 [0.55, 0.71]	0.22 [0.19, 0.25]		
All Clinical Data	0.67 [0.58, 0.75]	0.16 [0.15, 0.18]		
Radiomics: Tumor Volume	0.64 [0.52, 0.76]	0.18 [0.17, 0.18]		
Radiomics: Liver Parenchyma	0.61 [0.53, 0.69]	0.21 [0.19, 0.23]		
Radiomics: Liver Parenchyma + Tumor	0.66 [0.58, 0.74]	0.20 [0.17, 0.22]		
Treatment Clinical Data + Radiomics from				
Liver Parenchyma and Tumor	0.66 [0.59, 0.73]	0.19 [0.18, 0.21]		
All Pre-treatment Clinical Data + Radiomics				
from Liver Parenchyma and Tumor	0.66 [0.55, 0.77]	0.21 [0.17, 0.25]		

All Clinical Data and Radiomics from Liver		
Parenchyma + Tumor	0.64 [0.60, 0.68]	0.19 [0.16, 0.22]
(With Feature Selection, Local Progression a	as Outcome)	
Other Clinical Data	0.66 [0.56, 0.76]	0.19 [0.16, 0.22]
Imaging Clinical Data	0.61 [0.56, 0.66]	0.17 [0.14, 0.19]
Treatment Clinical Data	0.72 [0.64, 0.79]	0.18 [0.15, 0.21]
All Pre-treatment Clinical Data	0.65 [0.58, 0.72]	0.21 [0.18, 0.24]
All Clinical Data	0.62 [0.56, 0.69]	0.19 [0.16, 0.22]
Radiomics: Tumor Volume	0.58 [0.51, 0.84]	0.19 [0.16, 0.24]
Radiomics: Liver Parenchyma	0.66 [0.60, 0.72]	0.20 [0.18, 0.22]
Radiomics: Liver Parenchyma + Tumor	0.68 [0.62, 0.74]	0.20 [0.16, 0.25]
Treatment Clinical Data + Radiomics from		
Liver Parenchyma and Tumor	0.73 [0.64, 0.82]	0.18 [0.15, 0.20]
All Pre-treatment Clinical Data + Radiomics		
from Liver Parenchyma and Tumor	0.66 [0.57, 0.75]	0.20 [0.17, 0.23]
All Clinical Data and Radiomics from Liver		
Parenchyma + Tumor	0.69 [0.65, 0.74]	0.23 [0.21, 0.26]
With Cox Proportional Hazards Model		
Other Clinical Data	0.53 [0.50, 0.56]	0.20 [0.18, 0.22]
Imaging Clinical Data	0.56 [0.45, 0.67]	0.25 [0.22, 0.28]
Treatment Clinical Data	0.50 [0.48, 0.52]	0.24 [0.20, 0.28]
All Pre-treatment Clinical Data	0.54 [0.48, 0.60]	0.19 [0.15, 0.23]
All Clinical Data	0.57 [0.48, 0.66]	0.21 [0.16, 0.26]
Radiomics: Tumor Volume	0.47 [0.42, 0.52]	0.22 [0.17, 0.27]
Radiomics: Liver Parenchyma	0.49 [0.42, 0.56]	0.24 [0.22, 0.26]
Radiomics: Liver Parenchyma + Tumor	0.43 [0.40, 0.46]	0.25 [0.21, 0.29]
Treatment Clinical Data + Radiomics from		
Liver Parenchyma and Tumor	0.53 [0.45, 0.61]	0.19 [0.15, 0.23]
All Pre-treatment Clinical Data + Radiomics		
from Liver Parenchyma and Tumor	0.55 [0.49, 0.61]	0.20 [0.17, 0.23]
All Clinical Data and Radiomics from Liver		
Parenchyma + Tumor	0.58 [0.47, 0.67]	0.22 [0.19, 0.25]

Table 2: A summary of accuracy results for each input combination to the model. The artificial intelligence model achieved good, nonrandom C-indices and feature selection decreased the variance of the cross-validation accuracies.

Nearly all input dataset variations using the AI model resulted in a C-index greater than 0.50 within 95% confidence interval ranges. The highest average prediction accuracy occurred when combining both radiomics of the liver parenchyma and tumor volume with treatment data (C-index: 0.73 [0.64, 0.82]). However, this was not statistically significantly different from models utilizing only clinical data. Utilizing only radiomic data from the liver parenchyma and tumor volume resulted in a C-index of 0.68 [0.62, 0.74]. The IBS of all RSF models were below 0.25, indicating nonrandom prediction [31].

Feature (Treatment Data Only)	Importance Score (95% CI)	
Maximum Dose	10.84 [6.35, 15.34]	
Carcinoembryonic Antigen at Radiotherapy	2.69 [-0.43, 5.81]	
Lines of Chemotherapy	2.53 [1.16, 3.9]	
Pump Before Radiotherapy	-0.81 [-1.57, -0.05]	
Feature (Radiomics on Liver Plus Tumor Volume Only)	1	
Neighborhood Gray Tone Difference Matrix Strength	3.74 [2.25, 5.22]	
Neighborhood Gray Tone Difference Matrix Busyness	3.32 [2.5, 4.15]	
Kurtosis	1.97 [1.58, 2.37]	
Maximum 2D Diameter Slice	1.45 [0.20, 2.69]	
Gray Level Size Zone Matrix Low Gray Level Emphasis	0.33 [-0.75, 1.42]	
Neighborhood Gray Tone Difference Matrix Contrast	0.02 [-0.78, 0.82]	
Skewness	-0.25 [-0.81, 0.31]	
Gray Level Co-occurrence Matrix Cluster Shade	-0.88 [-2.78, 1.01]	
Feature (Treatment Data and Radiomics on Liver Plus Tumor Volume)		
Maximum Dose	3.83 [1.05, 6.62]	
Neighborhood Gray Tone Difference Matrix Strength	1.90 [0.93, 2.86]	
Lines of Chemotherapy	1.36 [0.38, 2.35]	
Gray Level Size Zone Matrix Low Gray Level Emphasis	1.01 [-0.37, 2.39]	
KRAS Mutation	0.65 [0.10, 1.19]	
Carcinoembryonic Antigen at Radiotherapy	0.48 [-1.11, 2.08]	
Gray Level Size Zone Matrix Nonuniformity	0.48 [-0.32, 1.27]	

Gray Level Co-occurrence Matrix Cluster Shade	0.17 [-0.98, 1.32]
Pump Before Radiotherapy	-0.08 [-1.21, 1.04]
Skewness	-0.29 [-0.73, 0.15]

Table 4: The feature importances for the random survival forest model utilizing treatment data only, radiomics data only, or the combination of both. Maximum dose was observed to be the most predictive feature, significantly with more information gain than any other treatment feature. Gray tone difference matrix computations were the most predictive when only using radiomics data. Both gray tone difference matrices and maximum dose features resulted in high predictive value in the combined model. However, the importance of maximum dose was decreased compared to when using only treatment data, indicating that the model is still able to predict survival with the remaining radiomic features.

The most predictive radiomic feature was the neighboring gray tone difference matrix (NGTDM) strength. The most predictive clinical variable was maximum dose, significantly greater than any other clinical variable.

4. Discussion

The goal of the study was to develop a method utilizing radiomics and machine learning to predict time until local progression of CLM patients. The IBS of every dataset combination was below the threshold of 0.25, indicating that the predictions by the RSF model is non-random and information-gaining [31]. This suggests that there is predictive texture within the liver parenchyma and tumor volume that may be investigated further to understand structural changes that affect prognosis. This is consistent with Simpson et al. [19], who observed that radiomic features were associated with recurrence and are potentially reflective of tissue abnormalities that create a metastatic environment.

There are several opportunities we aimed to address to improve on existing methods. First, the CPH model in theory is parameterized with lower complexity than RSF and may be unable to capture nonlinear dependencies [32]. However, from our results, this is indeterminate as the although the CPH did not significantly perform better than random chance, there was a wide confidence interval to overlap with the RSF model. When assessing performance with IBS, the CPH model was not greater than the 0.25 threshold for only the combined radiomics and clinical subsets. Recent studies modelling survival with radiomics show no significant difference between CPH and RSF models [33, 34]. Comparison of our model may require a larger sample size and to evaluate the feature selection and optimization methods other studies have used. Secondly, existing studies performing linear mapping of hazard ratios to

prediction scores and may oversimplify nonlinear dependencies between variables, particularly when relying on rounding to integer scores. Thirdly, there may be predictive information missed if only analyzing clinicopathological variables. As tumor progression results in changes in tissue, there may be observable structural changes in the liver associated with survival.

Most prior studies reported a C-index lower than 0.60 when tested on external datasets, with one model by Wang et al. achieving a C-index of 0.64 [14]. However, we did not have access to all variables used, which is required for a fairer comparison between manual scoring systems and automated RSF methods in future studies.

The radiomic model from the union of the liver parenchyma and tumor with feature selection enabled achieved a C-index (95% CI) of 0.68 (0.62 - 0.74). Utilizing tumor or liver parenchyma volumes only performed within the same confidence interval range. This suggests that both the liver parenchyma and tumor contain textural features predictive of local control. As the radiomic features are computed as a single point-data aggregate characteristic value for the volume, it is difficult to localize the exact regions of abnormal texture. Future studies that isolate patches of the liver can be conducted to localize regions with abnormal radiomic values.

Without feature selection, there was a larger variance across the cross-validation folds. This is likely due to overfitting as the number of input variables defines the dimensionality in the optimization problem for the machine learning model. The optimized solution may be too specific to the training data, resulting in lower testing accuracy.

Utilizing only clinical data did not result in a statistically significant decrease in accuracy than with radiomics alone. In the combined mode, the two most predictive features were similarly maximum dose with a feature importance score (95% CI) of 3.83 (1.05 – 6.62) and NGTDM strength with a feature importance score (95% CI) of 1.90 (0.93 – 2.86). Moreover, the feature importance (95% CI) of maximum dose decreased from 10.84 (6.35, 15.34) in the treatment data only model to 3.83 (1.05, 6.62) in the combined model, indicating that the radiomic features contribute to prediction even when treatment data is available. There are variables similar to maximum dose, such as dose covering 95% of the planning target volume, that were removed by the feature selection algorithm due to collinearity. It should be noted that dosage is increased for tumors that may have shown radioresistance, hence some expert prior knowledge is required for this variable whereas the radiomic features are dependent only on the image.

Despite the observed accuracy of the model, further validation with a diverse patient population from different centers for instance is required to evaluate generalizability. With more samples, 5 k-fold or 10 k-fold cross validation may be conducted to have more testing sets so that accuracy evaluation has more statistical power with less aggressive feature selection [35]. As the samples are limited to patients treated with primary or adjuvant RT, future studies may include patients before and after radiotherapy, as texture in CT scans may change after treatment. Another exclusion is of patients who are deceased, and we were unable to evaluate the effect of death on the recurrence prediction model, which may require reparameterization with competing risks. With sufficient data, deep learning with convolutional neural networks is another potential method to predict survival and has been used previously to predict response to chemotherapy for CLM [36]. However, deep learning models are more difficult to interpret than radiomic features due to the multiple layers of matrix convolutions.

It has been a reported challenge of radiomics that these is no standardized cutoff or clinical interpretation

It has been a reported challenge of radiomics that these is no standardized cutoff or clinical interpretation of features [15]. For instance, high skewness indicates that the intensities are not symmetrically distributed. This may indicate inhomogeneous interactions of electromagnetic radiation with the liver tissue, but the cause of the inhomogeneity is not well understood. Hence, the features determined to be predictive require future studies to understand how they are related to pathophysiology of metastases.

In this work, we have developed a time-dependent tumor progression prediction model for CRM treated with primary or adjuvant RT utilizing radiomic features from CT scans and an AI random survival forest. The model was able to achieve good C-indices utilizing radiomic features from the liver parenchyma and tumor volume or with treatment data. As a proof of concept, this study provides support that radiomic AI methods may be further developed to aid in prognostic decision making in radiation oncology. Radiomic features determined to be predictive may be investigated in the future to understand structural changes reflected in radiomic observations in the CT scan to provide new directions for clinician analysis of liver texture.

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340	Institutes of Health.

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Supplementary Material:

Supplementary Table S1: List of Radiomic Features

Feature Category	Features
First Order Statistics	Energy
	Total Energy
	Entropy
	Minimum
	10th Percentile
	90th Percentile
	Maximum
	Mean
	Median
	Interquartile Range
	Range
	Mean Absolute Deviation
	Robust Mean Absolute Deviation
	Root Mean Squared
	Standard Deviation
	Skewness
	Kurtosis
	Variance
	Uniformity
3D Shape	Mesh Volume
	Voxel Volume
	Surface Area
	Surface Area to Volume Ratio
	Sphericity
	Compactness
	Spherical Disproportion
	Maximum 3D Diameter
	Maximum 2D Diameter (Axial)
	Maximum 2D Diameter (Coronal)
	Maximum 2D Diameter (Sagittal)

	Major Axis Length
	Minor Axis Length
	Least Axis Length
	Elongation
	Flatness
Gray level Co-occurrence	Autocorrelation
Matrix	Joint Average
	Cluster Prominence
	Cluster Shade
	Cluster Tendency
	Contrast
	Correlation
	Difference Average
	Difference Entropy
	Difference Variance
	Difference Average
	Joint Energy
	Joint Entropy
	Informational Correlation
	Inverse Difference Moment
	Inverse Difference Moment Normalized
	Inverse Difference
	Inverse Difference Normalized
	Inverse Variance
	Maximum Probability
	Sum Average
	Sum Entropy
	Sum of Squares
Gray Level Size Zone Matrix	Small Area Emphasis
	Large Area Emphasis
	Gray Level Non-Uniformity
	Gray Level Non-Uniformity Normalized
	Size-Zone Non-Uniformity
	Size-Zone Non-Uniformity Normalized

	Zone Percentage	
	Gray Level Variance	
	Zone Variance	
	Zone Entropy	
	Low Gray Level Zone Emphasis	
	High Gray Level Zone Emphasis	
	Small Area Low Gray Level Emphasis	
	Small Area High Gray Level Emphasis	
	Large Area Low Gray Level Emphasis	
	Large Area High Gray Level Emphasis	
Gray Level Run Length	Short Run Emphasis	
Matrix	Long Run Emphasis	
	Gray Level Non-Uniformity	
	Gray Level Non-Uniformity Normalized	
	Run Length Non-Uniformity	
	Run Length Non-Uniformity Normalized	
	Run Percentage	
	Gray Level Variance	
	Run Variance	
	Run Entropy	
	Low Gray Level Run Emphasis	
	High Gray Level Run Emphasis	
	Short Run Low Gray Level Emphasis	
	Short Run High Gray Level Emphasis	
	Long Run Low Gray Level Emphasis	
	Long Run High Gray Level Emphasis	
Gray Level Dependence	Small Dependence Emphasis	
Matrix	Large Dependence Emphasis	
	Gray Level Non-Uniformity	
	Dependence Non-Uniformity	
	Dependence Non-Uniformity Normalized	
	Gray Level Variance	
	Dependence Variance	
	Dependence Entropy	
	· I · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

	Low Gray Level Emphasis
	High Gray Level Emphasis
	Small Dependence Low Gray Level Emphasis
	Small Dependence High Gray Level Emphasis
	Large Dependence Low Gray Level Emphasis
	Large Dependence High Gray Level Emphasis
Neighboring Gray Tone	Coarseness
Difference Matrix	Contrast
	Busyness
	Complexity
	Strength

Supplementary Table S1: A list of radiomic features extracted from a liver volume. The features include computations related to the statistics, shape, and gray-level relationships of the image.

488 Supplementary Table S2: Radiomic Deviations from IBSI Standards

Computation	PyRadiomics Implementation	IBSI Guidelines
Binning	Discretizes gray values with fixed bins	Discretizes using fixed bin width
	with edges equally spaced from 0.	equally spaced from minimum of
		resegmentation range
Resampling	Aligns to the corner of the original voxel	Aligns to the center of the image
Gray value rounding	Does not resample to similar resolution if	Resamples to similar resolution if
	original intensity is lower precision	original intensity is lower precision
Mask resampling	Resamples to nearest neighbor	Allows selection of different
		interpolators for resampling

Supplementary Table S2: A list of deviations from the feature extraction guidelines by the Image Biomarker Standardisation Initiative (IBSI).

Supplementary Equation S3: Random Survival Forest Algorithm

- To build a survival tree that predicts survival from an input vector of radiomic features, the following steps are taken:
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- 497 1. Select *N* samples from the dataset.
- 498 2. For each sample i = 1, 2, ... N, initialize a binary decision tree with max depth D.
- 3. At each node, iterate through set of features $X = \{x_1, x_2, ... x_N\}$ and its range of feature values $S = \{S_{min}, S_{max}\}$ to select feature x_i and a threshold split value s_i such that:
- 501

- $L(x_i, s_i) \ge L(x, s) \ \forall \ x \in X, s \in S$
- Where L(x,s) is the log rank test such that
- 504 $L(x,c) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{i,1} Y_{i,1} \frac{E_i}{Y_i}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{Y_{i,1}}{Y_i}\right) (1 \frac{Y_{i,1}}{Y_i}) (\frac{Y_i E_i}{Y_i 1}) E_i}}$
- 505 Where at time t_i , E_i is the number of events at time t_i $E_{i,j}$ is the number of events at a daughter 506 node j, Y_i is the number of patients with an events or at risk at time t_i , and $Y_{i,j}$ is the number of 507 patients with an event or at risk at a daughter node j
- 508 4. Continue to grow children nodes unless the children node has no more than *M* surviving samples, where *M* is a user-defined hyperparameter
- 5. Calculate the cumulative hazard function for the decision tree with the Nelson-Aalen estimator:
- $H_q(t) = \sum_{t_{p,q} \le t} \frac{E_{p,q}}{Y_{p,q}}$
- Where p is a patient in the set of M patients in set $P = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_M\}$, q is a node in the set of N nodes in set $Q = \{q_1, q_2, ..., q_N\}$, $E_{p,q}$ is the number of events at time $t_{p,q}$, and $Y_{p,q}$ is the number of patients with an event or at risk at time $t_{p,q}$.
- 515 6. Repeat steps 1-5 *K* times to create *K* separately initialized trees, where *K* is a user-defined hyperparameter.
- 7. Average the cumulative hazard function over all trees to compute the ensembled cumulativehazard.

520 Supplementary Table S4: Baseline variable distributions by lesion

Characteristics	All lesions (n=129)
Number of patients/lesions	97/129
Sex, n (%)	
Male	83 (64.3)
Female	46 (36.7)
Metastasis at time of diagnosis, n (%)	
M0	40 (30.0)
M1	89 (70.0)
Colorectal Histology, n (%)	
Colon	104 (80.6)
Rectal	20 (15.6)
Undetermined	5 (3.8)
Number of liver lesions at diagnosis, n (%)	
0	5 (3.9)
1	25 (19.4)
2	9 (7.0)
3-5	32 (24.8)
> 5	53 (41.0)
Undetermined	5 (3.9)
Other sites at diagnosis, n (%)	
None	101 (78.3)
Lung	12 (9.3)
Non-regional LN	3 (2.3)
Lung and non-regional LN	4 (3.1)
Other	7 (5.4)
Undetermined	2 (1.6)
RT to other sites, n (%)	
No	75 (58.1)
Before liver RT	28 (21.7)
After Liver RT	21 (16.3)
Before and after liver RT	2 (1.6)
Undetermined	3 (2.3)
RT fraction delivered, Median (IQR)	6 (5-15)
RT dose delivered, Median (IQR)	4500 (3000 - 6000)
Dose Painting - Yes, n (%)	55 (42.6)
Intended Dose Median (IQR)	6000 (4000 - 6750)
Mean RT length ± SD (Days)	11.6 (8.5)
PTV volume (cm3), Median (IQR)	94.4 (39.2 - 174.4)

Mean D95 ± SD (% of intended dose)	97.7 (11.0)
Reirradiation - Yes, n (%)	8 (6.2)
Surgery before RT, n (%)	91 (70.5)
Systemic before RT, n (%)	126 (97.7)
Pump before RT, n (%)	81 (62.8)
Lines of Chemo, Median (IQR)	3 (2 - 4)
RFA before RT, n (%)	45 (34.9)
RFA to RT lesions - Yes, n (%)	13 (10.1)
Y90 before RT - Yes, n (%)	10 (7.8)
Embolization before RT, n (%)	12 (9.3)
CEA at diagnosis, Median (IQR)	15.7 (3.38 - 176.9)
CEA at RT, Median (IQR)	18.7 (4.8 - 127.2)
Number of liver lesions at RT, n (%)	
1	57 (44.2)
2	43 (33.3)
3	12 (9.4)
≥ 4	16 (12.4)
Undetermined	1 (0.7)
Other sites at RT, n (%)	
None	52 (40.3)
Lung	27 (21.0)
Non-regional LN	10 (7.8)
Lung and non-regional LN	25 (19.3)
Other	15 (11.6)
Mean lesion 1 dimension $2 \pm SD$	35.2 (22.3)
Mean lesion 1 dimension $1 \pm SD$	26.0 (17.9)
Freedom from local progression (FFLP), n (%)	
Progression	55 (42.6)
No progression	67 (52.0)
Undetermined	7 (5.4)
Mean FFLP (months) ± SD	10.5 (0.4)
Any hepatic progression (AHP), n (%)	
Progression	99 (76.8)
No progression	25 (19.4)
Undetermined	5 (3.8)
Mean time to AHP (months) \pm SD	7.3 (7.1)

Abbreviations: LN = lymph node, RT = radiotherapy, PTV = planning target volume, CEA = carcinoembryonic antigen, HAIP = hepatic arterial infusion pump, TARE = transarterial radioembolization. Supplementary Table S4: A table of baseline clinical variables recorded as part of standard of care, with averages computed from the set of variables per lesion. The clinical variables will be utilized alongside computational radiomic features from computed tomography scans as input data to a machine learning model to predict local progression.

532 Supplementary Table S5: Baseline variable distributions by patient

Characteristics	All Patients (n=97)
Sex, n (%)	
Male	63 (64.9)
Female	34 (35.1)
Metastasis at time of diagnosis, n (%)	
M0	31 (32)
M1	65 (67)
Other sites at diagnosis, n (%)	
None	74 (76.3)
Lung	9 (9.3)
Non-regional LN	3 (3.1)
Lung and non-regional LN	4 (4.1)
Other	5 (5.2)
Undetermined	2 (2.1)
RT to other sites, n (%)	
No	57 (58.8)
Before liver RT	23 (23.7)
After Liver RT	13 (13.4)
Before and after liver RT	2 (2.1)
Undetermined	1 (1)
Number of liver lesions at RT, n (%)	
1	56 (57.7)
2	25 (25.8)
3	6 (6.2)
≥4	9 (9.3)
Undetermined	1 (1)
Other sites at RT, n (%)	
None	37 (38.1)
Lung	21 (21.6)
Non-regional LN	8 (8.2)
Lung and non-regional LN	17 (17.5)
Other	14 (14.4)
Freedom from local progression (FFLP), n (%)	
Progression	50 (51.5)
No progression	40 (41.2)
Undetermined	7 (7.2)
Mean time to FFLP (months) \pm SD	10.5 (8.8)

Any hepatic progression (AHP), n (%)	
Progressio	76 (78.4)
No progressio	n 16 (16.5)
Undetermine	5 (5.2)
Mean time to AHP (months) \pm SD	7.4 (6.9)

Abbreviations: LN = lymph node, RT = radiotherapy

Supplementary Table S5: A table of baseline clinical variables recorded as part of standard of care, with averages computed from the set of variables per patient. Lesion-specific variables were excluded.

540 Supplementary Table S6: Dosages and number of fractions to liver metastases

Total Dose (Gy)	Fractions	BED ₁₀ (Gy)	Patient Count
24	1	82	9
24	3	43	1
27	3	51	1
30	3	60	1
30	5	48	8
30	10	39	1
35	3	60	2
36	6	68	1
38	15	48	1
40	5	72	4
45	3	113	5
45	5	86	1
50	5	100	12
50	10	75	1
60	3	180	2
60	5	132	4
60	6	120	2
60	10	96	5
60	15	84	1
67.5	15	98	15
70	10	119	9
75	3	263	1

75	5	188	2
75	15	113	1
75	25	98	5
75	50	86	1
80	10	144	1

Supplementary Table S6: A list of doses to liver metastases, fractions, biologically effective dose (BED), and number of patients treated with the combination.

546	Supplementary Material S7: Link to survival models
547	
548 549	The survival models from the different feature sets are uploaded to an open repository at: https://github.com/ricky-hu/local_control_radiomics_survival_model
550	
551	