Artificial Intelligence In Kidney Transplantation:

prediction of outcome/immunosuppression optimization

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Review

Present and Future Applications of Artificial Intelligence in Kidney Transplantation

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• Artificial intelligence simulates human intelligence in computer systems, replicating the human brain's functions.

 Machine learning (ML) is a subfield of AI that focuses on developing algorithms and models that enable computers to learn from and make predictions or decisions based on large amounts of data without explicit programming.

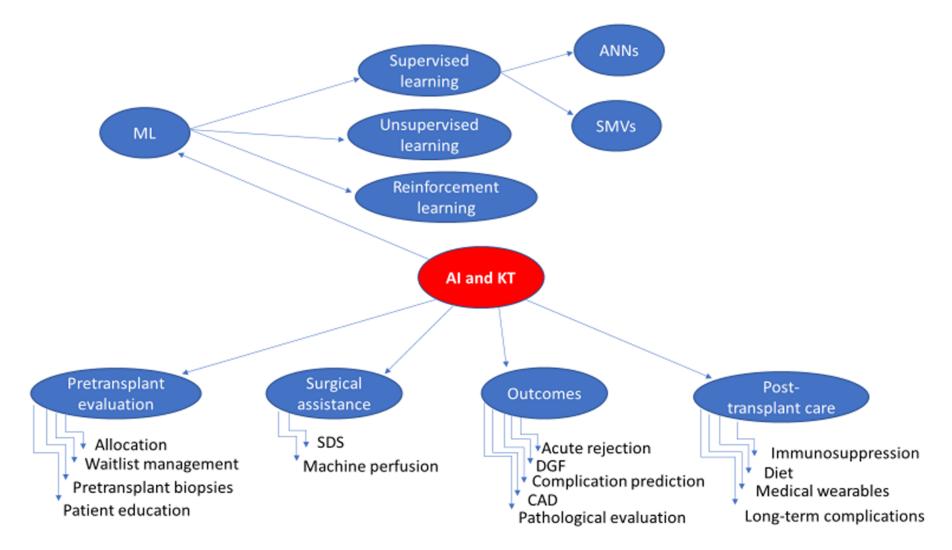


Figure 1. Applications of Artificial Intelligence in Kidney Transplantation. AI: artificial intelligence, KT: kidney transplantation, ML: machine learning, ANNs: artificial neural networks, SVMs: support vector machines, SDS: surgical data science, DGF: delayed graft function, CAD: computer-aided diagnosis.

Why AI in kidney transplantation now?

- Wide adoption of the electronic health record system
- Growing availability of large,
- : demographics, labs, histology, imaging, molecular biomarkers (dd cfDNA, gene expression)

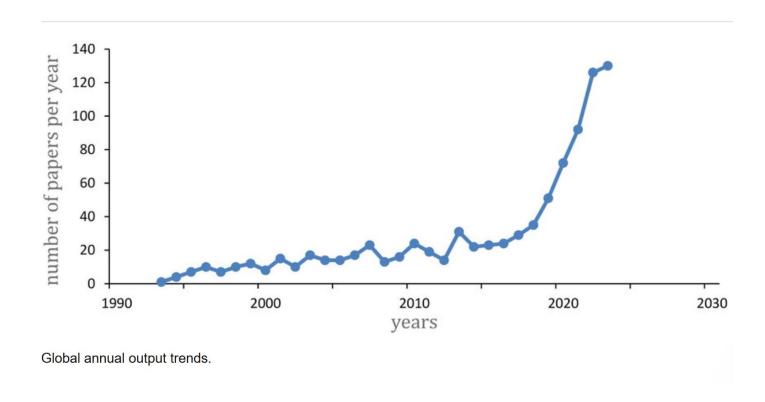
• Complex and interactive clinical features, which conventional statistics can not handle well.

Why AI in kidney transplantation now?

 Advances in ML algorithms (tree ensembles, gradient boosting, neural nets, and reinforcement learning) and interpretability tools.

• Early evidence of improved predictive performance vs traditional risk models in internal cohorts, potential for personalized management.

Artificial intelligence in kidney transplantation: a 30-year bibliometric analysis of research trends, innovations, and future directions



Ying Jia He, et al. Renal Failure, February 202547(1):2458754

Overview of model types and data inputs

• **Data inputs**: donor factors (age, KDPI, cold ischemia time, perfusion data), recipient factors (age, comorbidities, PRA, HLA mismatch), intra-/post-operative data, early post-transplant labs, histology, molecular biomarkers.

Model types:

- Outcome prediction models (e.g., random forests, gradient boosting, Cox-ML hybrids)
- Donor-recipient matching/simulation models
- Immunosuppression optimization models (supervised learning, reinforcement learning, predictive risk scores)
- Multi-modal integrative models (clinical + pathology + molecular)

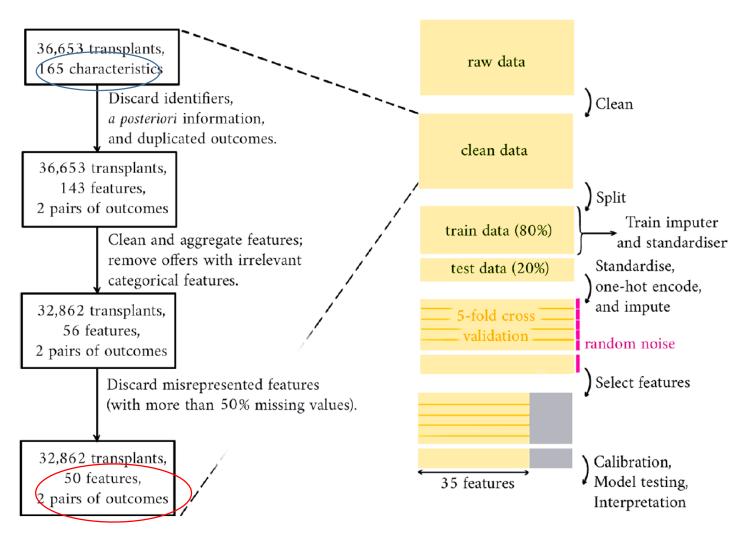


Figure 1. End-to-end data processing pipeline, from raw data to model testing. Data cleaning is detailed on the left. Cross-validation is performed before and after feature selection.

• KDPI,KDRI, EPTS

Prediction of graft survival

- KDRI
- KDPI
- Donor Age
- Donor weight
- Donor hight
- Ethnicity
- Hx of HTN
- Hx of D.M.
- Serum cr
- Cause of Death(CVA..)
- DCD
- HCV status

Kidney Donor Profile Index (KDPI)

The KDPI is a scale from 0-100% that rates how long deceased donor kidneys are expected to last after a transplant.

85% or higher

20%-85%

20%-85%

Estimated Post Transplant Survival (EPTS)

- EPTS estimates post-transplant survival of the transplant recipient.
- The primary purpose is for kidney allocation.
- Recipient age
- Time on dialysis (excluding time before age 18)
- Prior organ transplantation
- Presence of diabetes
- KDRI/KDPI, the EPTS score was developed through statistical analysis of data, specifically large data sets of transplant recipient outcomes.

EPTS Calculator

- EPTS is a numerical measure combining four recipient parameters (candidate's age
- and time on dialysis,
- current diagnosis of diabetes
- prior solid organ transplants)
- to predict post-transplant survival and aid the allocation of donor kidneys
- The current allocation system assigns priority to the top 20% of kidneys (as denoted by KDPI < 20) to patients with an EPTS of ≤20.

Artificial intelligence assisted risk prediction in organ transplantation: a UK Live-Donor Kidney Transplant Outcome Prediction tool

Hatem Ali, Arun Shroff, Tibor Fülöp, Miklos Z. Molnar, Adnan Sharif, Bernard Burke, Sunil Shroff, David Briggs & Nithya Krishnan

THIS STUDY ADDS:

- The development of the UK-LTOP model using artificial intelligence to predict living-donor kidney transplant outcomes in the UK, showcasing superior discriminative performance and calibration compared to existing models.
- Insights into the **challenges of creating a universal risk calculator** for organ transplantation due to significant differences between healthcare systems in the USA and the UK.
- Evidence that machine learning techniques can effectively use regional transplant registry data to predict transplantation outcomes, potentially applicable across Europe.

- The data source was the United Kingdom Transplant Registry (UKTR) database.
- From 1 January **2007** to 1 December **2022**, all **living-donor kidney** transplant recipients listed in the UKTR database were included.
- Patients were monitored up until 31/05/2023.
- The maximum follow-up period was 16 years post-transplant.
- Recipients under 18 years old, ABO-incompatible recipients, recipients with positive crossmatch (by flow cytometry) transplants, or those who had missing survival data were excluded.

Results

- After applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the total number of patients included in the analysis was 12,661 (8,863 patients in the training dataset and 3,798 patients in the validation dataset).
- The hierarchy of selection of the cohort study is demonstrated in Figure 1.
- The total number of independent variables available before transplant was 42.
- After applying feature engineering and RFE, the independent variables used for our models were further reduced to 22.

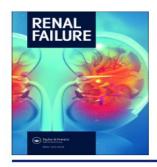
- Discriminative performance
- The XGBoost had the highest concordance index (0.72), followed by the random survival forest (0.71).

• The optimal decision tree had the lowest concordance (0.70).

Re-evaluating the UK-LTOP performance on different subgroups

• UK-LTOP gave a concordance index of 0.70 for the more deprived subgroup of patients and a concordance index of 0.74 for the less deprived subgroup.

- Results for overall graft survival
- We conducted a reiteration of the XGBoost model, altering the measured outcome to overall graft failure instead of death-censored graft failure.
- In the test group, the **concordance index yielded a value of 0.72**, while the IBS stood at 0.09.
- The AUC exhibited a range from 0.70 to 0.76.



Renal Failure

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Improved survival prediction for kidney transplant outcomes using artificial intelligence-based models: development of the UK Deceased Donor Kidney Transplant Outcome Prediction (UK-DTOP) Tool

Hatem Ali, Arun Shroff, Karim Soliman, Miklos Z. Molnar, Adnan Sharif, Bernard Burke, Sunil Shroff, David Briggs & Nithya Krishnan

Table 1. Baseline characteristics and factors included in the final model: a comparison between the training and the validation groups.

| | Training group ($n=23,770$) | Test group $(n=5943)$ |
|---|-------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Recipient factors | | |
| Cause of renal failure: n (%) | | |
| Diabetes/hypertension: | 5463 (22.98%) | 1340 (22.55%) |
| Glomerulonephritis/vasculitis: | 4768 (20.06%) | 1175 (19.77%) |
| Cancer: | 127 (0.53%) | 39 (0.66%) |
| Congenital: | 4707 (19.80%) | 1148 (19.32%) |
| Unspecified: | 8566 (36.04%) | 2211 (37.20%) |
| Vascular: | 139 (0.58%) | 30 (0.50%) |
| Recipient age: mean (standard deviation): | 51.18 (13.50) | 51.15 (13.40) |
| Pediatric at registration: n (%) | | |
| No: | 18,958 (79.76%) | 4768 (80.23%) |
| Unknown: | 4728 (19.89%) | 1154 (19.42%) |
| Yes: | 84 (0.35%) | 21 (0.35%) |
| Recipient weight in kg: mean (standard deviation): | 77.24 (21.97) | 77.43 (20.86) |
| Missing data (n%): | 93 (<1%) | 257 (4.32%) |
| Recipient height in cm: mean (standard deviation): | 169.59 (22.20) | 170.63 (31.65) |
| Missing data (n%): | 5189 (21.80%) | 1256 (21.13%) |
| Recipient body mass index in kg/m ² : mean (standard deviation): | 26.73 (4.78) | 26.70 (4.72) |
| Missing data (n%): | 5316 (22.36%) | 1283 (21.58%) |
| Recipient ethnicity: n (%) | | |
| White: | 17,221 (72.45%) | 4305 (72.44%) |
| Asian: | 3539 (14.89%) | 869 (14.84%) |
| Black: | 2035 (8.56%) | 515 (8.67%) |
| Other: | 775 (3.26%) | 200 (3.37%) |
| Not reported: | 200 (0.84%) | 54 (0.91%) |
| Naiting time in days: mean (standard deviation): | 1005.717 (857.78) | 979.74 (805.95) |
| Missing data (n%): | 118 (<1%) | 24 (<1%) |
| Dialysis at registration: n (%): | | |
| Hemodialysis: | 11,468 (48.37%) | 2861 (48.28%) |
| Peritoneal dialysis: | 4069 (17.16%) | 995 (16.79%) |
| Not on dialysis: | 8018 (33.82%) | 2033 (34.31%) |
| Unknown: | 153 (0.65%) | 37 (0.63%) |

| Graft number: n (%) | | |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|
| One: | 20,401 (85.82%) | 5154 (86.72%) |
| Two: | 2834 (11.92%) | 678 (11.41%) |
| Three: | 463 (1.95%) | 103 (1.73%) |
| More than three: | 70 (0.31%) | 8 (0.13%) |
| Donor factors | 70 (0.5170) | 0 (0.1370) |
| Donor age: mean (standard deviation): | 49.41 (16.14%) | 49.77 (15.99) |
| Donor height in cm: mean (standard deviation): | 170.30 (11.78) | 170.18 (12.03) |
| Donor weight in kg: mean (standard deviation): | 78.04 (18.65) | 77.86 (18.53) |
| -Missing data $(n\%)$: | 22 (<1%) | 8 (<1%) |
| Donor body mass index in kg/m²: mean (standard deviation): | 26.66 (5.44) | 26.62 (5.47) |
| -Missing data $(n\%)$: | 185 (<1%) | 45 (<1%) |
| Donor urine output in the last 24h in milliliters: mean (standard deviation): | 2800.30 (1678.61) | 2785.45 (1629.68) |
| -Missing data (n%): | 8502 (35.76%) | 2131 (35.85%) |
| Donor urine output in the last hour in milliliters: mean (standard deviation): | 112.68 (111.10) | 111.68 (119.35) |
| -Missing data $(n\%)$: | 518 (2.1%) | 140 (2.3%) |
| Donor creatinine in mmole/litre: mean (standard deviation): | 81.38 (55.18) | 81.83 (56.58) |
| -Missing data (n%): | 1091 (4.5%) | 260 (4.3%) |
| Donor history of hypertension: <i>n</i> (%) | 1091 (4.5%) | 200 (4.5%) |
| No: | 16,987 (71.63%) | 4205 (70.97%) |
| Yes: | 6300 (26.57%) | 1620 (27.34%) |
| Unknown: | 483 (2%) | 118 (1.69%) |
| Donor history of smoking: <i>n</i> (%) | 463 (2%) | 110 (1.09%) |
| No: | 10,552 (44.50%) | 2633 (44.44%) |
| Yes: | 12,984 (54.75%) | 3254 (54.92%) |
| Unknown: | | |
| | 178 (0.75%) | 38 (0.64%) |
| Donor amount of smoking: mean (standard deviation) Transplant factors | 16.36 (12.64) | 16.33 (12.46) |
| ! | | |
| HLA A mismatch: n (%) | 4670 (10 600/) | 1105 (19 500/) |
| 0: 1: | 4679 (19.69%) | 1105 (18.59%) |
| 1: 2: | 11,496 (48.38%) | 2912 (49%) |
| | 7538 (31.72%) | 1916 (32.24%) |
| Unknown: | 57 (0.21%) | 10 (0.17%) |
| HLA B mismatch: n (%) | 2006 (16 440/) | 010 (15 210/) |
| 0: | 3906 (16.44%) | 910 (15.31%) |
| 1: | 15,433 (64.95%) | 3920 (65.96%) |
| 2: | 4,374 (18.41%) | 1103 (18.56%) |
| Unknown: | 57 (0.21%) | 10 (0.17%) |
| HLA DR mismatch: n (%) | 10.007 (42.400/) | 3530 (43 540/) |
| 0: | 10,097 (42.49%) | 2528 (42.54%) |
| 1: | 11,605 (48.84%) | 2883 (48.51%) |
| 2: | 2011 (8.46%) | 522 (8.78%) |
| Unknown: | 57 (0.21%) | 10 (0.17%) |
| Match points: mean (standard deviation): | 6.01 (2.37) | 5.97 (2.38) |
| -Missing data $(n\%)$: | 162 (<1%) | 30 (<1%) |
| Matchability band: mean (standard deviation): | 103.44 (105.21) | 105.63 (105.84) |
| -Missing data (n%): | 162 (<1%) | 30 (<1%) |
| Calculated reaction frequency: mean (standard deviation): | 21.88 (34.25%) | 20.58 (19.74%) |

Results

- Following the application of the inclusion and exclusion criteria,
 29,713 patients in total (23,770 in the training dataset and 5943 in the test dataset) were included in the study.
- The number of independent variables available before transplant was 91.
- After RFE and feature engineering, the independent variables used in our models were further condensed to 26.

- Results for the supervised learning methods
- Discrimination: The random survival forest and the XGBoost obtained the highest concordance indices (0.74).
- The concordance was lowest (0.70) for the optimal decision tree.
- The AUC was highest for the XGBoost model.

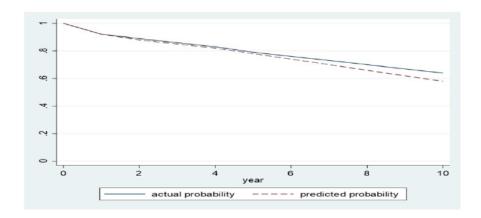


Figure 2. Actual survival probabilities were calculated using the Kaplan-Meier survival product estimator; then the average of these values was calculated at each time point. The average actual survival probabilities were plotted against the equivalent predicted probabilities at different time points.

Table 3. Comparison between the UK-DTOP and the UK-KDRI in terms of AUC score at different time points.

| Year | UK-KDRI | UK-DTOP |
|---------|---------|---------|
| Year 1 | 0.59 | 0.72 |
| Year 2 | 0.61 | 0.73 |
| Year 3 | 0.61 | 0.74 |
| Year 4 | 0.60 | 0.74 |
| Year 5 | 0.60 | 0.75 |
| Year 6 | 0.60 | 0.75 |
| Year 7 | 0.62 | 0.76 |
| Year 8 | 0.63 | 0.75 |
| Year 9 | 0.62 | 0.75 |
| Year 10 | 0.64 | 0.73 |

The bold values are the highest values among in the comparison.

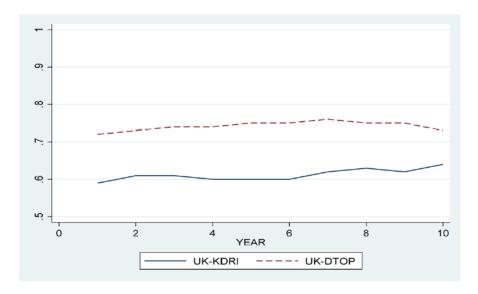


Figure 3. Comparison between the UK-DTOP and the UK-KDRI in terms of AUC over time.

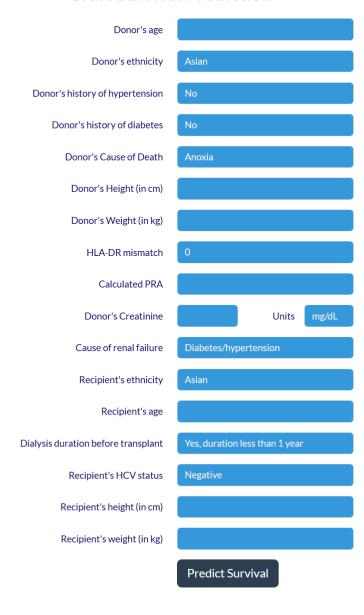
Table 4. Evaluation of the AUC scores at different time points across the more deprived and the less deprived groups.

| | Most deprived deprived | |
|----------|------------------------|----------------------|
| | group | Least deprived group |
| 1 year | 0.74 | 0.70 |
| 2 years | 0.75 | 0.73 |
| 3 years | 0.76 | 0.72 |
| 4 years | 0.76 | 0.73 |
| 5 years | 0.75 | 0.73 |
| 6 years | 0.76 | 0.74 |
| 7 years | 0.76 | 0.73 |
| 8 years | 0.76 | 0.73 |
| 9 years | 0.77 | 0.73 |
| 10 years | 0.76 | 0.72 |

https://dtop.organpredict.ai/datainput

Deceased Donor Kidney Transplant

Graft Survival Prediction



Prediction of Model Survival Probabilities

| Time (years) | Probability (%) |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 1 | 96.8 |
| 2 | 94.0 |
| 4 | 87.7 |
| 6 | 80.1 |
| 8 | 74.1 |
| 10 | 66.7 |
| 12 | 59.4 |
| 14 | 52.4 |

Back to Input Form

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- The concern that the **calculator might inherently favor recipients** with **better prognostic** profiles, such as **younger**, **non-diabetic individuals**, touches on the critical issue of fairness and equity in **organ allocation**.
- The UK-DTOP model aims to **improve predictive accuracy of transplant outcomes**, informing but not dictating decisions.

• To avoid biases and ensure equity, the model should be integrated within a framework respecting justice and broader allocation criteria, including urgency and waiting time.

•

- Regarding donor factors, we identified five distinct donor clusters, each with unique characteristics impacting graft survival outcomes:
- Cluster 1: Comprised younger donors with the best physiological profiles, averaging 44.83 years in age, lower BMI, and lower creatinine levels.
- The primary cause of death was **cerebrovascular incidents**, indicating **fewer complications due to the sudden nature** of these events.

- Cluster 2:
- Slightly older donors with an average age of 49.20 years and higher BMI values, presenting a more varied health landscape.
- This cluster had more donors who died from anoxia, indicating specific organ viability challenges needing tailored management.

- Cluster 3:
- Consisted of the oldest donors with significant health challenges, the highest BMI and creatinine levels, and a substantial proportion of DCD donors.
- Cerebrovascular deaths were common, requiring specialized transplant strategies due to compounded medical complexities.

- Cluster 4:
- Nearly half of the donors were DCD, facing challenges with rapid organ retrieval.
- Similar to Cluster 3, this cluster had **elevated BMI and creatinine** levels, **necessitating careful handling** and innovative transplant approaches.

- Cluster 5:
- Featured the most challenging donor profiles with the highest average age, BMI, and creatinine levels.
- It had the lowest matchability due to significant HLA mismatches and the highest percentage of DCD donors.
- Donors often had histories of diabetes, liver disease, and smoking, requiring rigorous pre-transplant assessments and highly customized post-transplant care to optimize outcomes.

- The identification of a fifth cluster indicates variations in donor and transplant characteristics that the KDRI's quartile system does not capture.
- By identifying this extra group, our model enhances donor assessment precision, potentially leading to more accurate matching between donors and recipients.



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journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/trre



Review article



The comparative performance of models predicting patient and graft survival after kidney transplantation: A systematic review

Joris van de Klundert ^{a,*}, Francisco Perez-Galarce ^{b,f}, Marcelo Olivares ^c, Liset Pengel ^d, Annelies de Weerd ^e

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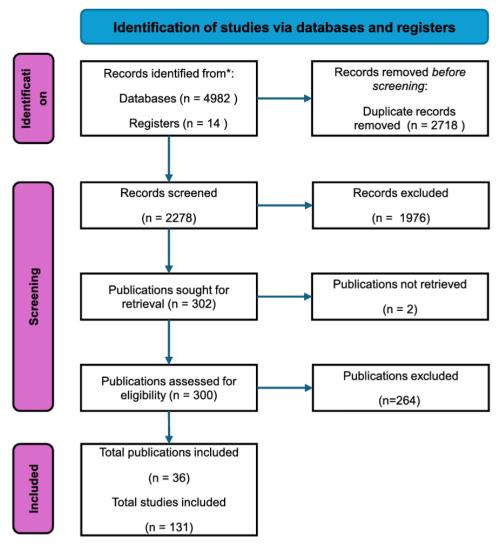


Fig. 1. Prisma flow chart.

| Authors | Publication year | Title | Recruitment Years | | Study Site(s) | |
|---|---------------------|--|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|--|
| L. Fritsche, J. Hoerstrup, K. Budde, P. Reinke, HH. Neumayer, U. Frei and A. Schlaefer | 2005 | Accurate prediction of kidney allograft outcome based on creatinine course in the first 6 months posttransplant | 1901 | 2004 | Germany | |
| R. S. Lin, S. D. Horn, J. F. Hurdle and A. S. Goldfarb-Rumyantzev | 2008 | Single and multiple time-point prediction models in kidney transplant outcomes | 1995 | 2002 | USA | |
| A. Akl, A. M. Ismail and M. Ghoneim | 2008 | Prediction of graft survival of living-donor kidney transplantation: nomograms or artificial neural networks? | 1976 | 2007 | Egypt | |
| F. Reinaldo, M. A. Rahman, C. F. Alves, A. Malucelli and R. Camacho | 2010 | Machine learning support for kidney transplantation decision making | No Informatoon | No Informatoon | Brazil | |
| H. Tang, M. R. Poynton, J. F. Hurdle, B. C. Baird, J. K. Koford and A. S. Goldfarb-Rumyantzev | 2011 | Predicting three-year kidney graft survival in recipients with systemic lupus erythematosus | 1905 | 2002 | USA | |
| A. H. Hashemian, B. Beiranvand and M. Rezaei | 2013 | Comparison of artificial neural networks and cox regression models in prediction of kidney transplant survival | 2001 | 2012 | Iran | |
| D. M. Ataliah and A. I. Eldesoky | 2014 | One-year renal graft survival prediction using a weighted decision | 2000 | 2009 | Egypt | |
| M. Fouad, M. Ellatif, M. Hagag and A. | 2015 | tree classifier Prediction of long term living donor kidney graft outcome: | 1976 | 2007 | Egypt | |
| Ald L. Shahmoradi, M. Langarizadeh, G. Pourmand and A. Borhani | 2016 | Comparison between rule based decision tree and linear regression Comparing Three Data Mining Methods to Predict Kidney Transplant Survival | 2007 | 2013 | Iran | |
| K. D. Yoo, J. Noh, H. Lee, D. K. Kim, G. S. Lim, Y. H. Kim, et al. | 2017 | A Machine Learning Approach Using Survival Statistics to Predict Graft Survival in Kidney Transplant Recipients: A Multicenter Cohort Study | 1997 | 2012 | Korea | |
| M. Z. Molnar, D. V. Nguyen, Y. Chen, V. Ravel, E. Streja, M. Krishnan, | 2017 | Predictive Score for Posttransplantation Outcomes | 2001 | 2006 | USA | |
| et al. L. Tapak, O. Hamidi, P. Amini and J. Poorolajal | 2017 | Prediction of Kidney Graft Rejection Using Artificial Neural Network | 1994 | 2011 | Iran | |
| M. Nematollahi, R. Akbari, S. Nikeghbalian and C. Salehnasab | 2017 | Classification Models to Predict Survival of Kidney Transplant Recipients Using Two Intelligent Techniques of Data Mining and Logistic Regression | 2008 | 2012 | Iran | |
| Z. Hassani and N. Emami | 2013 | Prediction of the Survival of Kidney Transplantation with imbalanced Data Using Intelligent Algorithms | 2006 | 2010 | Iran | |
| K. Topuz, F. D. Zengul, A. Dag, A. Almehmi and M. B. Yildirim | 2018 | Predicting graft survival among kidney transplant recipients: A Bayesian decision support model | 2004 | 2015 | USA | |
| D. M. Atallah, M. Badawy, A. El-Sayed and M. A. Ghoneim | 2019 | Predicting kidney transplantation outcome based on hybrid feature selection and KNN classifier | 1976 | 2017 | Egypt | |
| D. M. Atallah, M. Badawy and A. El- Sayed | 2019 | Intelligent feature selection with modified K-nearest neighbor for kidney transplantation prediction | 1906 | 2019 | Egypt | |
| E. S. Pahl, W. N. Street, H. J. Johnson and A. I. Reed | 2020 | A predictive model for kidney transplant graft survival using machine learning | 1995 | 2005 | USA | |
| S. Bae, A. B. Massie, B. S. Caffo, K. R. Jackson and D. L. Segev | 2020 | Machine learning to predict transplant outcomes: helpful or hype? A national cohort study | 2005 | 2017 | USA | |
| S. A. A. Naqvi, K. Tennankore, A. Vinson, P. C. Roy and S. S. R. Abidi | 2021 | Predicting Kidney Graft Survival Using Machine Learning Methods: Prediction Model Development and Feature Significance | 2000 | 2017 | USA | |
| S. Senanayake, S. Kularatna, H. Healy, N. Graves, K. Baboolal, M. P. Sypek | 2021 | Analysis Study Development and validation of a risk index to predict kidney graft | 2007 | 2017 | Australia and | |
| and A. Barnett N. Taherkhani, M. M. Sepehri, R. | | survival: the kidney transplant risk index Determining the Level of Importance of Variables in Predicting | | | New Zealand | |
| Khasha and S. Shafaghi C. L. Ramspek, M. El Moumni, E. Wali, | 2021 | Ridney Transplant Survival Based on a Novel Ranking Method Development and external validation study combining existing | 1987 | 2018 | USA | |
| M. B. A. Heemskerk, R. A. Pol, M. J. Crop, et al. | 2021 | models and recent data into an up-to-date prediction model for evaluating kidneys from older deceased donors for transplantation | 2006 | 2018 | Netherlands an USA | |
| S. Badrouchi, A. Ahmed, M. M. Bacha, E. Abderrahim and T. Ben Abdallah | 2021 | A machine learning framework for predicting long-term graft survival after kidney transplantation Dynamic prediction of renal survival among deeply phenotyped | 1906 | 2019 | Tunesia | |
| Marc Raynaud et al | 2021 | kidney transplant recipients using artificial intelligence: an observational, international, multicohort | 2000 | 2016 | Global | |
| S. cerqueira, M. R. Campelos, A. Leite, E. J. Solteiro Pires, L. T. Pereira, H. Diniz, et al. | 2022 | study How can we predict the kidney graft failure of Portuguese patients? | 2013 | 2018 | Portugal | |
| F. X. Paquette, A. Ghassemi, O. Bukhtiyarova, M. Cisse, N. Gagnon, A. Della Vecchia, et al. | 2022 | Machine Learning Support for Decision-Making in Kidney Transplantation: Step-by-step Development of a Technological Solution | 2000 | 2019 | USA | |
| L. Shahmoradi, A. Borhani, M. Langarizadeh, G. Pourmand, Z. A. Fard and S. Rezayi | 2022 | Predicting the survival of kidney transplantation: design and evaluation of a smartphone-based application | No Informatoon | No Informatoon | Iran | |
| J. Rad, K. K. Tennankore, A. Vinson and S. S. R. Abidi | 2022 | Extracting Surrogate Decision Trees from Black-Box Models to Explain the Temporal Importance of Clinical Features in Predicting Kidney Graft Survival | 2000 | 2014 | USA | |

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Table 1 (continued)

| Authors | Publication year | Title | Recruitment Ye | ears | Study Site(s) |
|--|---------------------|---|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| P. Moghadam and A. Ahmadi | 2022 | A machine learning framework to predict kidney graft failure with class imbalance using Red Deer algorithm | 1994 | 2011 | Iran |
| A. Atapour and M. Sattari | 2022 | Identifying the Factors Affecting the Survival Rate of Kidney Transplant Patients in Isfahan Using Classification Techniques | 1992 | 2020 | Iran |
| M. Nemati, H. Zhang, M. Sloma, D. Bekbolsynov, H. Wang, S. Stepkowski and K. S. Xu | 2023 | Predicting kidney transplant survival using multiple feature representations for HLAs | 1987 | 2016 | USA |
| W. Li, L. Li and B. C. Astor | 2023 | A comparison of two approaches to dynamic prediction: Joint modeling and landmark modeling | No Informatoon | No Informatoon | USA |
| G. Mulugeta, T. Zewotir, A. S. Tegegne, L. H. Juhar and M. B. Muleta | 2023 | Classification of imbalanced data using machine learning algorithms to predict the risk of renal graft failures in Ethiopia | 2015 | 2022 | Ethiopia |
| A. Truchot, M. Raynaud, N. Kamar, M. Naesens, C. Legendre, M. Delahousse, et al | 2023 | Machine learning does not outperform traditional statistical modeling for kidney allograft failure prediction | 2005 | 2014 | France |
| B. J. Chalissery and V. Asha | 2023 | An Optimized Survival Prediction Method for Kidney Transplant Recipients | 1987 | 2023 | USA |

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Table 3} \\ \textbf{Comparative Analysis for subgroup of studies reporting on GG and DCGF.} \\ \end{tabular}$

| | Large Dataset - U | Large Dataset - UNOS | | | | Smaller Dataset Rest of the World | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------|----|--------|-----------------------------------|---------|------------------|------------|---------|----|--------|------|---------|
| | Num. of articles | 6 | | | _ | _ | | Num. of articles | 7 | | | _ | _ | |
| | Num. of studies | 23 | | | _ | | | Num. of studies | 22 | | | _ | _ | |
| | | paired t-t | est | | sign t | est | | | paired t-t | est | | sign t | test | _ |
| | | Dif | p-value | n | pos | neg | p-value | | Dif | p-value | n | pos | neg | p-value |
| | ANN - DT | 0.005 | 0.384 | 8 | 5 | 2 | 0.453 | ANN - DT | -0.001 | 0.886 | 5 | 1 | 4 | NA |
| Classication | ANN - LR | 0.007 | 0.444 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 0.375 | ANN - LR | 0.077 | 0.021 | 5 | 4 | 1 | NA |
| (AUC) | Boost - RSF | -0.003 | 0.173 | 18 | 6 | 11 | 0.332 | Bayes - LR | 0.033 | 0.012 | 9 | 8 | 1 | 0.039 |
| | Cox - R(S)F | -0.009 | 0.197 | 8 | 1 | 7 | 0.070 | KNN - SVM | 0.097 | 0.003 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 0.031 |
| | RSF - SVM | 0.022 | 0.072 | 11 | 10 | 1 | 0.012 | LR - SVM | 0.002 | 0.948 | 6 | 2 | 2 | NA |
| | Num. of articles | 3 | | | | | | Num. of articles | 4 | | | | | |
| | Num. of studies | 10 | | | | | | Num. of studies | 27 | | | | | |
| | | paired t-t | est | | sign t | est | | | paired t-t | est | | sign t | test | |
| Discrimination | | Dif | p-value | n | pos | neg | p-value | | Dif | p-value | n | pos | neg | p-value |
| (C-index) | Boost - Cox | 0.008 | 0.000 | 9 | 9 | 0 | 0.004 | Cox - DT | 0.045 | 0.036 | 8 | 7 | 1 | 0.070 |
| | Boost - RSF | 0.009 | 0.001 | 9 | 9 | 0 | 0.004 | Cox - RSF | 0.002 | 0.607 | 23 | 10 | 13 | 0.678 |
| | Cox - RSF | 0.002 | 0.210 | 10 | 7 | 3 | 0.344 | Cox - SVM | 0.103 | 0.000 | 23 | 22 | 0 | 0.000 |
| | | | | | | | | RSF - SVM | 0.096 | 0.000 | 23 | 21 | 1 | 0.000 |
| | Num. of articles | 3 | | | | | | Num. of articles | 2 | | | | | |
| | Num. of studies | 3 | | | | | | Num. of studies | 20 | | | | | |
| Calibration | | | | | | | | | paired t-t | est | | sign t | test | |
| (Brier score) | | | | | | | | | Dif | p-value | n | pos | neg | p-value |
| | | | | | | | | Boost - RSF | 0.004 | 0.098 | 8 | 5 | 3 | 0.727 |
| | p-value < 0.05 | p-value < | 0.10 | | | | | | | | | | | |

Models of this type are found to outperform the classical Cox models and RSF models for the C-index in the large UNOS/ SRTR data set, but the two other comparisons with RSF yield no significant differences in performance.

Moreover, the three comparisons between **RSF and Cox find no significant performance** differences.

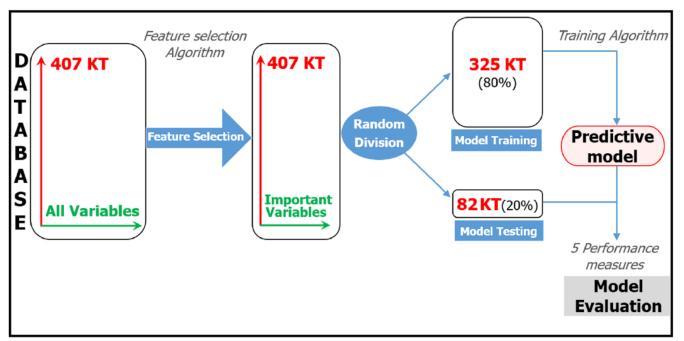
scientific reports



OPEN Predicting long-term outcomes of kidney transplantation in the era of artificial intelligence

Samarra Badrouchi^{1,2,3⊠}, Mohamed Mongi Bacha^{1,2,3}, Abdulaziz Ahmed⁴, Taieb Ben Abdallah^{1,2,3} & Fzzedine Abderrahim^{1,2}

Scientific Reports | (2023) 13:21273 |



KT: Kidney transplantation

Figure 1. Process followed to develop a predictive model.

- Samarra Badrouchi et al. used five training algorithms: Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGB), K Nearest Neighbors (KNN), DT, Logistic Regression (LL).
- The ability to quickly and accurately predict 5-year graft survival using early, simple, noninvasive, and easy-to-collect variables suggests that machine learning has the potential to improve the prediction of renal transplantation prognosis and to aid in healthcare decision-making.

- These variables included, in decreasing order of importance, the following: hypertension, history of red-blood-cell transfusion, early acute kidney injury post-KT, early AR, CMV infection, length of first hospitalisation, MMF therapy, donor's age, three-month estimated GFR, and time on dialysis before KT.
- They included **407 KTs** and divided them into two groups (group A, with a **graft lifespan greater than five years**, and **group B**, with poor **graft** survival).
- Among the **35 AI models developed**, the best model had an **AUC of 89.7%**(Sensitivity: 91.9%; Specificity: 87.5%).

| | Variables | | Group A | Group B | RR | 95% CI | p |
|-----------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|-------|-------------|----------|
| | Age/year (mean) | | 33.4 | 32 | 0.986 | 0.955-1.017 | NS |
| | G 1 (0) | Male | 66.2 | 67.4 | 1 | - | - |
| | Gender (%) | Female | 33.8 | 32.6 | 0.948 | 0.493-1.823 | NS |
| | | No | 39.9 | 32.6 | 1 | - | - |
| | Hypertension (%) | Yes | 60.1 | 67.4 | 1.371 | 0.715-2.631 | NS |
| | | No | 94.7 | 97.8 | 1 | - | _ |
| | Diabetes (%) | Yes | 5.3 | 2.2 | 0.275 | 0.036-2.072 | NS |
| | T. 11 P.(0) | Negative | 97 | 93.5 | 1 | - | _ |
| | Viral hepatits B (%) | Positive | 3 | 6.5 | 2.220 | 0.596-8.271 | NS |
| | T. 11 | Negative | 85.2 | 86.5 | 1 | - | _ |
| | Viral hepatits C (%) | Positive | 14.8 | 13.5 | 0.899 | 0.331-2.443 | NS |
| | | Vascular | 8 | 6 | 1 | - | _ |
| | | Glomerular | 41.3 | 43.5 | 0.649 | 0.240-1.755 | NS |
| | Nephropathy (%) | Tubulo-interstitial | 21.6 | 15.2 | 0.434 | 0.135-1.399 | NS |
| | | Hereditary | 5.8 | 2.2 | 0.230 | 0.026-2.057 | NS |
| | | Undetermined | 23.3 | 26.1 | 0.690 | 0.238-2.007 | NS |
| | | PD | 19.4 | 10.9 | 1 | _ | _ |
| Recipient | Dialysis modality (%) | HD | 74.5 | 87 | 2.082 | 0.792-5.471 | NS |
| • | Dialysis duration/year (Mean) | | 3.5 | 3.7 | 1.001 | 0.994-1.009 | NS |
| | | No | 38.2 | 26.1 | 1 | _ | |
| | Transfusion (%) | Yes | 61.8 | 73.9 | 1.753 | 0.878-3.501 | NS |
| | | Negative | 85.9 | 82.6 | 1 | _ | _ |
| | Cytotoxic antibodies (%) | Positive | 14.1 | 17.4 | 1.280 | 0.565-2.899 | NS |
| | | 0 | 17.5 | 19.6 | 1 | _ | _ |
| | Total HLA MM (%) | 1-2 | 33.5 | 32.6 | 0.868 | 0.360-2.094 | NS |
| | (10) | ≥3 | 49 | 47.8 | 0.870 | 0.380-1.990 | NS |
| | | 0 MM | 34.9 | 32.5 | 1 | _ | _ |
| | HLA- MM A (%) | 1 MM | 56.2 | 47.8 | 1.111 | 0.564-2.190 | NS |
| | | 2 MM | 14.4 | 15.2 | 1.096 | 0.401-2.994 | NS |
| | | 0 MM | 29.4 | 36.9 | 1 | - | |
| | HLA-MM B (%) | 1 MM | 56.2 | 47.8 | 0.676 | 0.344-1.327 | NS |
| | 11111 11111 11 (70) | 2 MM | 14.4 | 15.2 | 0.839 | 0.328-2.150 | NS |
| | | 0 MM | 40.4 | 43.5 | 1 | - | - |
| | HLA-MM DR (%) | 1 MM | 50.7 | 47.8 | 0.878 | 0.461-1.670 | NS |
| | THE THE ST (10) | 2 MM | 8.9 | 8.7 | 0.913 | 0.292-2.852 | NS |
| | Age/year (mean) | 2 11111 | 40.1 | 43.5 | 1.022 | 0.997-1.048 | NS |
| | Tigo, year (mean) | <45 years | 63.2 | 43.5 | 1 | - | - |
| | Age (%) | ≥45 years | 36.8 | 56.5 | 2.229 | 1.198-4.147 | < 0.02 |
| | | Male | 52.9 | 50 | 1 | _ | _ |
| | Gender (%) | Female | 47.1 | 50 | 0.890 | 0.482-1.644 | NS |
| Donor | | M→M | 30.5 | 28.3 | 1 | - | _ |
| | Condon match (%) | F→F | 16.9 | 10.9 | 0.694 | 0.236-2.038 | NS |
| | Gender match (%) Donor → recipient | $F \rightarrow M$ | 35.5 | 36.9 | 1.124 | 0.523-2.417 | NS |
| | * | $M \rightarrow M$ $M \rightarrow F$ | 17.1 | 23.9 | 1.501 | 0.635-3.552 | NS |
| | | Living | 84.8 | 82.6 | 1.501 | 0.033-3.332 | 143 |
| | Donor type (%) | Deceased | 15.2 | 17.4 | 1.171 | 0.519-2.645 | NS |
| | Cold ischemia/hour (mean) | Deceased | 21.8 | 21.4 | 0.981 | 0.856-1.124 | NS NS |
| | Cold ischemia/nour (mean) | <20 h | 36.4 | 25 | 1 | 0.856-1.124 | - |
| | Cold ischemia (%) | | _ | 75 | 0.880 | 0.189-4.085 | NS |
| Procedure | Mann is show is /min () | ≥20 h | 63.6 | | | | |
| | Warm ischemia/min (mean) | <30 min | 38.2 18.6 | 40.2 17.4 | 1.018 | 0.990-1.046 | NS - |
| | | | 1 10.0 | 1/.4 | 1 1 | I - | _ |
| | Warm ischemia (%) | ≥ 30 min | 81.4 | 82.6 | 1.082 | 0.483-2.427 | NS |

| | Variables | | Group A | Group B | RR | 959 | % CI |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------|---------|---------|-------|------|-----------|
| | Industrian (0/) | Yes | 88.9 | 91.3 | 1 | - | |
| | Induction (%) | No | 11.1 | 8.7 | 0.993 | 0.87 | 70-2.662 |
| | Debaland anti-lamah anta (0/) | No | 20.5 | 19.6 | 1 | - | |
| | Polyclonal anti-lymphocyte (%) | Yes | 79.5 | 80.4 | 1.060 | 0.49 | 90-2.294 |
| | A-4: CD2 (0/) | No | 99.2 | 93.5 | 1 | - | |
| | Anti-CD3 (%) | Yes | 0.8 | 6.5 | 8.326 | 1.62 | 29-42.547 |
| | Anti-CD25 (%) | No | 91.4 | 95.7 | 1 | - | |
| Immunosuppressive treatment | Aliu-CD25 (%) | Yes | 8.6 | 4.3 | 0.467 | 0.10 | 08-2.018 |
| Immunosuppressive treatment | Cyclosporine A (%) | No | 43.8 | 54.3 | 1 | - | |
| | Cyclosporine A (%) | Yes | 56.2 | 45.7 | 0.654 | 0.35 | 53-1.211 |
| | Tacrolimus (%) | No | 65.7 | 60.9 | 1 | - | |
| | Tacronnius (70) | Yes | 34.3 | 39.1 | 1.229 | 0.65 | 54-2.309 |
| | A math : | No | 63.4 | 47.8 | 1 | - | |
| | Azathioprine (%) | Yes | 36.6 | 52.2 | 1.893 | 1.02 | 21-3.507 |
| | MMT (0/) | No | 20.8 | 47.8 | 1 | - | |
| | MMF (%) | Yes | 79.2 | 52.2 | 0.286 | 0.15 | 52-0.538 |
| | Length of 1st hospitalization/day | (mean) | 36.4 | 42.3 | 1.009 | 0.99 | 98-1.020 |
| | 3-month eGFR ml/min (mean) | | 71 | 56.7 | 0.977 | 0.90 | 63-0.990 |
| | Number of 1st year readmis- | <3 | 87.3 | 73.9 | 1 | - | |
| | sions (%) | ≥3 | 12.7 | 26.1 | 2.417 | 1.10 | 68-5.001 |
| | Delayed graft function (%) | No | 88.7 | 73.9 | 1 | - | |
| | Delayed grant function (70) | Yes | 11.3 | 26.1 | 2.755 | 1.32 | 22-5.739 |
| | Acute kidney injury (%) | No | 64.8 | 34.8 | 1 | - | |
| | Acute kidney injury (76) | Yes | 35.2 | 65.2 | 3.455 | 1.8 | 14-6.578 |
| Post-KT | Acute rejection (%) | No | 78.4 | 58.7 | 1 | - | |
| POSI-N1 | Acute rejection (%) | Yes | 21.6 | 41.3 | 2.553 | 1.34 | 49-4.833 |
| | Infections (%) | No | 25.8 | 13 | 1 | - | |
| | infections (%) | Yes | 74.2 | 87 | 2.313 | 0. | Don |
| | Urinary tract infection (%) | No | 60.7 | 58.7 | 1 | †- | |
| | Ormary tract infection (70) | Yes | 39.3 | 41.3 | 1.085 | 0. | MM |
| | CMV infection (%) | No | 80.3 | 69.6 | 1 | - | |
| | Civi v iniection (70) | Yes | 19.7 | 30.4 | 1.787 | 0. | 3 M |
| | Surgical complication (%) | No | 82 | 80.4 | 1 | _ | DCF |
| | Sangical complication (70) | Yes | 18 | 19.6 | 1.108 | 0. | DGF |

Table 1. Relative risk of 5-year graft failure in the univariate analysis. *MMF* mycophene human leucocyte antigen, *MM* mismatch, *eGFR* estimated glomerular filtration rate, *CN NS* not significant, *KT* kidney transplantation.

Donor AGE

MMF Therapy

Month eGFR

DGF

NS

NS

NS

NS

NS

< 0.05

< 0.001

NS

0.001

< 0.02

0.007

< 0.001

< 0.005

< 0.02

Number of hospital readmissions during the first year

- donor age;
- MMF therapy;
- 3-month eGFR;
- DGF;
- number of hospital readmissions during the first year.

| Variable | Machine learning | Univariate LR* | Multivariate LR* |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|
| Donor age | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| MMF therapy | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| 3-month eGFR | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Acute rejection | ✓ | ✓ | |
| Acute kidney injury | ✓ | ✓ | |
| CMV infection | ✓ | | |
| Length of the 1st hospitalization | ✓ | | |
| Hypertension | ✓ | | |
| Transfusion | ✓ | | |
| Dialysis duration | ✓ | | |
| Readmissions 1st year | | ✓ | ✓ |
| Delayed graft function | | ✓ | ✓ |
| Azathioprine therapy | | ✓ | |
| HLA MM A | | | |
| HLA MM DR | | | |
| Dialysis modality | | | |
| Proteinuria | | | |

Table 2. Comparison between the results of machine learning and classical statistics. *MMF* mycophenolate mofetil, *eGFR* estimated glomerular filtration rate, *CMV* cytomegalovirus, *HLA* human leucocyte antigen, *MM* mismatch. *Bivariate and multivariate logistic regression (SPSS 25).

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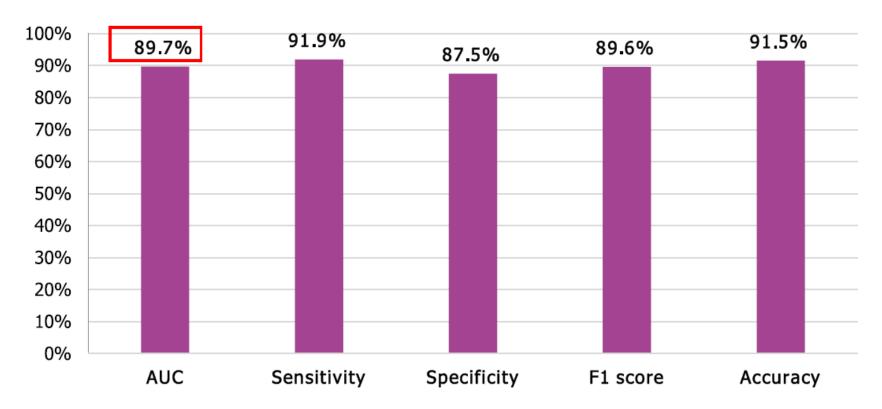


Figure 4. Performance measures of the best model.

Cardiac Risk Stratification in Renal Transplantation Using a Form of Artificial Intelligence

Thomas F Heston, MD a,b,c · Douglas J Norman, MD a,b,c · John M Barry, MD a,b,c · William M Bennett, MD a,b,c · Richard A Wilson, MD a,b,c

Am. J. Cardiol. 1997, 79, 415–417

- Clinical risk factor screening alone identified 95 of 189 patients as high risk.
- These 95 patients underwent thallium-201 stress testing, and 53 had either reversible or fixed defects.
- The other **42 patients were classified as low risk**.
- This algorithm made up the "expert system," and during the 4-year follow-up period had a sensitivity of 82%, specificity of 77%, and accuracy of 78%.
- An artificial neural network was added to the expert system, creating an expert network. Input into the neural network consisted of both clinical variables and thallium-201 stress test data.
- The expert network increased the specificity of the expert system alone from 77% to 90% (p <0.001), the accuracy from 78% to 89% (p <0.005), and maintained the overall sensitivity at 88%
- An expert network based on clinical risk factor screening and thallium-201 stress testing had an accuracy of 89% in predicting the 4-year cardiac mortality among 189 renal transplant candidates.

Key study archetypes and what they show

- Example archetypes to mention
 - DGF and 1-year graft survival prediction using donor/recipient variables plus perfusion data
 - Models incorporating Banff histology features with gene expression for rejection risk
 - Multi-omics augmentation improves risk stratification





Review

The Puzzle of Preimplantation Kidney Biopsy Decision-Making Process: The Pathologist Perspective

Albino Eccher ^{1,*}, Jan Ulrich Becker ², Fabio Pagni ³, Giorgio Cazzaniga ³, Mattia Rossi ⁴, Giovanni Gambaro ⁴, Vincenzo L'Imperio ³ and Stefano Marletta ^{5,6}

Department of Medical and Sciences for Children and Adults, University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, University Hospital of Modena, 41100 Modena, Italy

Expertise, experience, training, and education Histology Multidisciplinary approach and telemedicine networks **Digital Pathology** Clinical and parameters Artificial Intelligence Fast sample protocols New tools **Prognostic** outcome

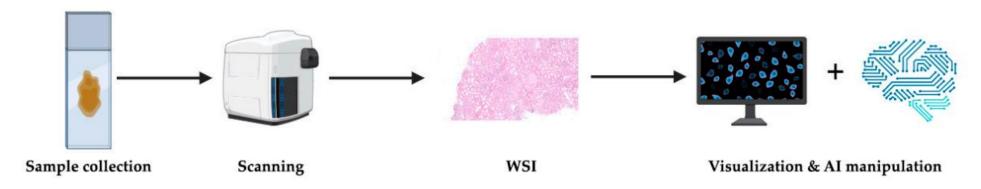


Figure 3. The digital pathology workflow: conventional histological slides are scanned to whole slide imaging (WSI) and then visualized on a computer monitor where they can be freely manipulated (rotated, zoomed in and out, etc. . .) by pathologists, eventually with the support of artificial intelligence (AI) tools.

- The RENFAST (Rapid Evaluation of Fibrosis And vessels Thickness) is an Al-based algorithm developed to recognize interstitial fibrosis and changes in vascular walls.
- This tool was trained on a series of **300 renal biopsies** and achieved **better results** than previously tested software and conventional light microscopy.
- Furthermore, it performed much faster than the evaluation of glass slides, with a **2 min average time** of examination compared to 20 min with classic methods.

- In this view, **novel imaging techniques** coupled with machineperfusion technologies offer the opportunity to **deeply investigate grafts' function** before transplantation in a non-invasive way.
- For instance, a recent study applied magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to kidneys during ex vivo normothermic machine perfusion (35–37 °C).
- The investigators showed how this technique may work as a reliable method for assessing both renal metabolism and physiology, providing clinicians with a realistic picture of critical biological parameters, including microenvironmental oxygen availability, local perfusion flow, and drug distribution, among others.

- Similarly, another work aimed to estimate the oxidative metabolism of renal grafts during ex vivo organ perfusion by a 3-Tesla MRI scanner was able to detect the oxygen-17 isomer.
- The authors elegantly recorded the levels of oxidative metabolism in the organ, with higher rates in the renal cortex and lower in the medulla, likely reflecting its functional quality.
- To note, MRI techniques have been employed for years to indirectly study the functionality of renal tissue. On this tissue, brilliant articles showed the ability of 31P MRI spectroscopy during the cold ischemia period to forecast the likelihood of developing acute tubular necrosis immediately after transplantation.

A Machine Learning Prediction Model for Immediate Graft Function After Deceased Donor Kidney Transplantation

Quinino, Raquel M. MD¹; Agena, Fabiana PhD¹; Modelli de Andrade, Luis Gustavo MD, PhD²; Furtado, Mariane MA³; Chiavegatto Filho, Alexandre D.P. PhD³; David-Neto, Elias MD, PhD¹

Transplantation 107(6):p 1380-1389, June 2023.

January 1, 2010, and December 31, 2019

Variables related to the **donor**, **recipient**, **kidney preservation**, and **immunology** were used.

Popular machine learning algorithms were used: eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost), Light Gradient Boosting Machine, Gradient Boosting classifier, Logistic Regression, CatBoost classifier, AdaBoost classifier, and Random Forest classifier.

Of the **859 patients**, **21.7% (n = 186) had IGF**.

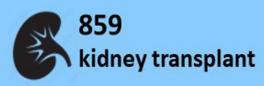
The best predictive performance resulted from the eXtreme Gradient Boosting model (AUC, 0.78; 95% CI, 0.71–0.84; sensitivity, 0.64; specificity, 0.78).

urine output, mean arterial pressure, blood glucose and the administration of high-dose vasopressors were associated with DGF.

A machine learning prediction model for immediate graft function after deceased-donor kidney transplantation



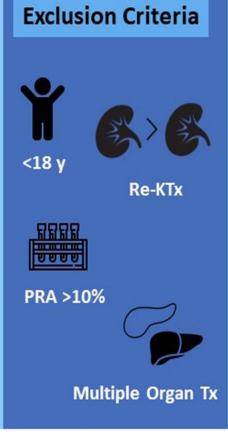
Single center





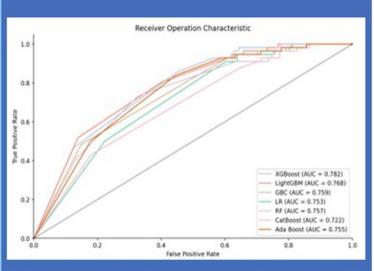


2010-2019



Results 21.6% **Immediate** graft function Slow graft 28.9% function 49.5%





Best performance algorithm: XGBoost

AUC: 0.78 Recall: 0.64 Specificity: 0.77

PPV: 0.44 **NPV:** 0.92



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General review

The impact of artificial intelligence and machine learning in organ retrieval and transplantation: A comprehensive review

David B. Olawade a,b,c,d,* , Sheila Marinze e, Nabeel Qureshi e, Kusal Weerasinghe b, Jennifer Teke b,f

Current Research in Translational Medicine 73 (2025) 103493

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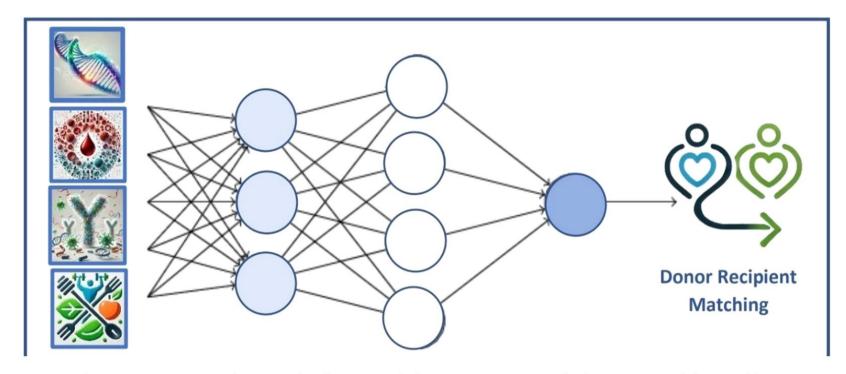


Fig. 1. AI Systems Leveraging Comprehensive Data Analysis to Uncover Patterns and Enhance Donor-Recipient Matching.

Table 1
Applications of AI and ML in donor-recipient matching for organ transplantation.

| Aspect | Description | Benefits | Examples | Type of AI Tools and Models |
|--|--|--|---|---|
| Data Integration [27] Predictive Modeling [28] | Combines clinical, genetic, and demographic data from donors and recipients. Uses historical data to predict outcomes such as graft survival and rejection risk. | Enables comprehensive analysis and more precise matching. Enhances decision-making and personalized treatment plans. | AI systems integrating EHRs, genetic profiles, and medical histories for compatibility assessment. ML models predicting the likelihood of organ rejection based on pre- and post-transplant biomarkers. | Natural Language Processing (NLP) for data extraction, Integration platforms using ML algorithms Regression models, Decision trees, Random forests, Neural networks |
| Real-Time Matching [29] Genomic Integration [30] Operational | Continuously updates and analyzes data for real-time donor-recipient matching and organ allocation. Incorporates genomic data to assess immunological compatibility and personalize immunosuppression. Optimizes logistical aspects, including | Reduces waiting times and increases the efficiency of organ allocation. Improves graft survival and reduces adverse reactions. Streamlines workflows and | AI algorithms in platforms like UNOS dynamically prioritizing recipients based on current data. AI analyzing genetic markers to tailor immunosuppressive therapies for individual patients. AI systems forecasting organ demand and | Real-time data processing algorithms, Dynamic prioritization algorithms, rank search algorithms Genomic data analysis tools, Machine learning models for genetic compatibility assessment Predictive analytics platforms, |
| Efficiency [31,32] | scheduling surgeries and managing inventory. | improves resource utilization. | optimizing surgery schedules to minimize cold ischemia time. | Inventory management systems using ML, Scheduling optimization algorithms |

Table 2Applications of AI and ML in image analysis and surgical planning for organ transplantation.

| Aspect | Description | Benefits | Examples | Type of AI Tools and Models |
|-----------------------------------|--|---|--|---|
| Automated Organ Segmentation | AI algorithms segment organs from imaging data such as CT and 18F | Improves accuracy and speed of organ identification and | AI systems segmenting liver from surrounding tissues to assess suitability for | Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Image |
| [51] | FDG PET images. | assessment. | transplantation. | segmentation algorithms |
| Anatomical Feature | AI models identify and annotate | Enhances surgical planning | Identification of blood vessels, nerves, and | Image recognition models, |
| Identification [52] | critical anatomical structures within medical images. | and precision. | tumors in pre-operative imaging for detailed surgical mapping. | Deep learning algorithms |
| Predictive Surgical | ML models analyze pre-operative | Informs surgical decision- | Predictive analytics for assessing risks of | Predictive modeling tools, |
| Outcomes [53] | data to predict surgical outcomes and complications. | making and risk management. | organ rejection or complications based on patient-specific factors. | Statistical analysis software |
| Personalized Surgical Planning | AI creates detailed and personalized surgical plans based on patient data. | Increases the precision and effectiveness of surgical | Customizing surgical approaches in kidney transplants based on anatomical variations | Personalized medicine platforms, AI-driven surgical |
| [43] | surgicui pians based on patient data. | interventions. | and pre-existing conditions. | planning software |
| Real-Time Surgical | AI-driven systems provide real-time | Enhances intraoperative | Augmented reality overlays of critical | Augmented reality (AR) |
| Navigation | guidance during surgeries using | accuracy and reduces the risk | structures during liver transplantation to | systems, Real-time image |
| [47] | augmented reality. | of errors. | guide surgeons. | processing algorithms |
| Minimally Invasive | AI supports the development of | Reduces patient recovery time | AI-guided laparoscopic procedures in organ | Robotic surgery platforms, AI- |
| Surgery | minimally invasive surgical | and minimizes post-operative | transplantation, improving precision and | assisted laparoscopic systems |
| [49] | techniques through detailed | complications. | outcomes. | |
| | imaging. | | | |
| Post-Operative | AI analyzes post-operative imaging | Ensures timely intervention | Monitoring graft health and early detection | AI-based monitoring systems, |
| Monitoring | to monitor organ function and | and better management of | of issues such as thrombosis or rejection | Post-operative imaging |
| [54] | detect complications early. | post-surgical recovery. | using AI analysis of follow-up scans. | analysis tools |
| Training and | AI-driven simulations and training | Improves surgical skills and | Virtual reality simulations for transplant | Virtual reality (VR) training |
| Simulation | programs for surgeons using real | prepares surgeons for complex | surgeons to practice intricate surgical | platforms, AI simulation tools |
| [55] | patient data. | procedures. | techniques. | 1.00 |
| Interoperability and | Integration of AI tools with existing | Streamlines workflow and | AI platforms integrated with hospital EHRs | Interoperability software, Data |
| Data Integration | hospital IT systems and imaging | ensures seamless data sharing | and imaging systems for comprehensive | integration tools using AI |
| [56] | devices. | and usage. | patient data analysis. | |

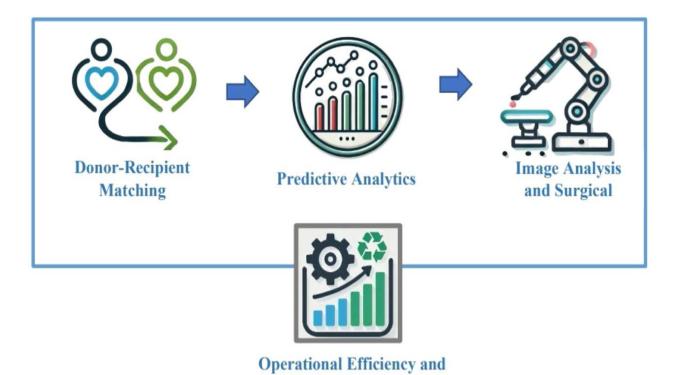


Fig. 2. Applications of AI and ML in organ transplantation.

Resource Optimization

Al in allocation: simulation and policy implications

- Use cases: prioritizing pairs with lower predicted risk, balancing equity and utility.
- Important caution: ensure models do not introduce biases against certain groups

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EXPANDING ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY IN ORGAN TRANSPLANT (D AXELROD AND J SCALEA, SECTION EDITORS)



Technology-Enabled Care and Artificial Intelligence in Kidney Transplantation

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Al-guided immunosuppression optimization

- Personalize induction, maintenance regimens, and trough level targets
- Approaches:
 - Predictive risk modeling to calibrate intensity
 - Reinforcement learning to propose dosing trajectories
 - **Biomarker-driven signals** (e.g., dd-cfDNA, gene expression) guiding de-escalation/escalation
- Outcome signals: balancing rejection risk against infection/toxicity

Journal of Clinical Pharmacy and Therapeutics



ORIGINAL ARTICLE

A novel random forest integrative approach based on endogenous CYP3A4 phenotype for predicting tacrolimus concentrations and dosages in Chinese renal transplant patients

Ningfang Cai MD, Xiujin Zhang BSc, Chao Zheng MD, Lijun Zhu BSc, Minfeng Zhu MD, Zeneng Cheng PhD, Xi Luo PhD

J Clin Pharm Ter.2020 Apr;45(2):318-323.

- Cai et al. evaluated the association between Tacrolimus concentrations and endogenous CYP3A4 phenotype, CYP3A5 genotype and clinical variables in 182 KT recipients using RF algorithms.
- The results suggested that the endogenous CYP3A4 phenotype was the most important biomarker for predicting Tacrolimus concentrations and dose requirements, with the RF models exhibiting high goodness of fit and high predictability.

Prediction of cyclosporine A blood levels: an application of the adaptive-network-based fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) in assisting drug therapy

Pharmacokinetics and Disposition | Published: 06 May 2008

Volume 64, pages 807-814, (2008) Cite this article

Sezer Gören, Adem Karahoca, Filiz Y. Onat & M. Zafer Gören

 They developed their model using data from 138 KT patients and 20 input parameters, concluding that it can serve as a decision support system to assist physicians in determining the optimal therapeutic drug dose in clinical settings.

Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics

Article

Mycophenolic Acid Exposure Prediction Using Machine Learning

Jean-Baptiste Woillard X, Marc Labriffe, Jean Debord, Pierre Marquet

First published: 24 February 2021 | https://doi.org/10.1002/cpt.2216 | Citations: 40

- Their model was trained on 12,877 MPA AUC values from 0
 to 12 h requests, collected from 6884 transplant patients.
- They developed two ML models based on two or three concentrations of MPA measured at least at three sampling times (20 min, 1 and 3 h after dosing).

Their ML models performed better than maximum a posteriori (MAP)
 Bayesian estimation in four independent full pharmacokinetic
 datasets, leading the authors to conclude that they can be used for
 routine exposure estimation and dose adjustment.

• : https://cistem.wustl.edu

An interactive tool, the CISTEM Immunosuppression Complication Risk Rejection Tool, has been made available online for predicting complications based on immunosuppression, utilising data from both donors and recipients.

Multi-modal integration: combining imaging, histology, and molecular data

- Rationale: single data streams may miss signals; integration yields robust risk stratification
- Typical gains: improved early rejection detection and graft function prediction
- Biomarkers: dd-cfDNA, RNA-based signatures, integrated Banff features

Dynamic prediction of renal survival among deeply phenotyped kidney transplant recipients using artificial intelligence: an observational, international, multicohort study



Marc Raynaud*, Olivier Aubert*, Gillian Divard, Peter P Reese, Nassim Kamar, Daniel Yoo, Chen-Shan Chin, Élodie Bailly, Matthias Buchler, Marc Ladrière, Moglie Le Quintrec, Michel Delahousse, Ivana Juric, Nikolina Basic-Jukic, Marta Crespo, Helio Tedesco Silva Jr, Kamilla Linhares, Maria Cristina Ribeiro de Castro, Gervasio Soler Pujol, Jean-Philippe Empana, Camilo Ulloa, Enver Akalin, Georg Böhmig, Edmund Huang, Mark D Stegall, Andrew J Bentall, Robert A Montgomery, Stanley C Jordan, Rainer Oberbauer, Dorry L Segev, John J Friedewald, Xavier Jouven, Christophe Legendre, Carmen Lefaucheur, Alexandre Loupy



- In a large international, multicohort study including 13.608 KT recipients, researchers developed DIPSO, a dynamic, integrative system for predicting outcomes.
- They created deeply **phenotyped cohorts of transplant recipients**, incorporating various data: clinical, histological, **immunologica**l variables and repeated measurements of **eGFR and proteinuri**a to assess long-term allograft survival.
- Their Bayesian model demonstrated high prediction performance (overall dynamic AUC 0.857 [95% CI 0.847–0.866]) and was validated on a large scale, making it a potential tool for decision-making and guiding clinicians in managing KT recipients.

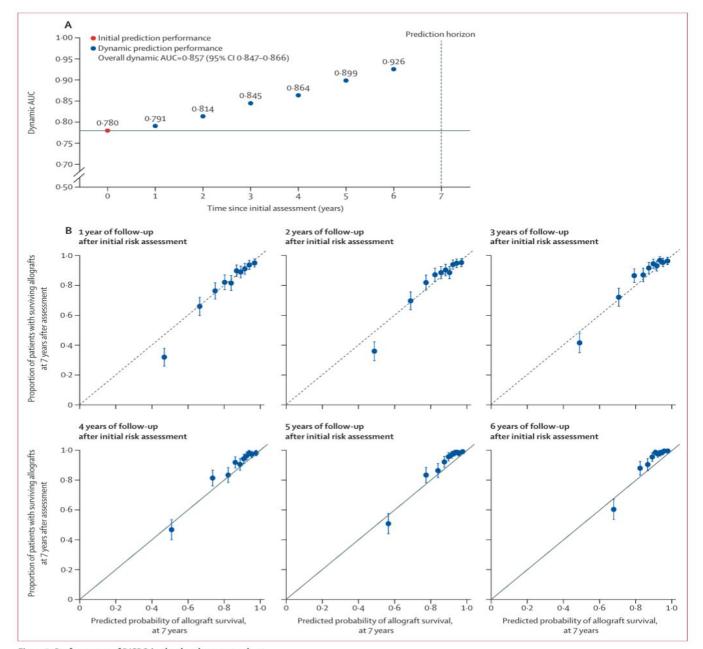


Figure 2: Performance of DISPO in the development cohort

(A) Discrimination—ie, ability to separate patients who lose their allografts from those who do not, according to patient follow-up ranging from 1 to 6 years after initial risk assessment, with a prediction horizon at 7 years after initial risk assessment. We calculated the overall dynamic AUC by averaging dynamic AUCs from 1 year

Take-home messages

Al can augment decision-making in kidney transplantation across prediction, matching, and immunosuppression

- Success hinges on data quality, robust validation, and thoughtful integration into care pathways
- Ethics, equity, and governance are essential for responsible deployment

Al for intraoperative applications

- Al can be used not only in various predictive analyses, but also for high-precision surgical operations.
- Robot-assisted kidney transplantation is a minimally invasive approach to kidney transplantation, and has already achieved good therapeutic results.

- Currently, AI shows great potential in preoperative care, diagnosis, risk prediction, and **surgical optimization**.
- To date, more than **680 robotic-assisted kidney transplants** have been performed in Europe, and **21/27 transplants after living kidney** donation in **Germany** have been performed in the form of **RAKT**.

- From 2011 to 2023, 2,716 donor nephrectomies were performed, of which 1,872 (69%) were performed retroperitoneally using a laparoscopic system, **209 were performed using the da Vinci Xi system robot (8%)**, and the remaining 635 (23%) were *via* a standard open approach.
- The robotic donor nephrectomy technique gave better donor outcomes compared to endoscopic surgery.

Al and postoperative management (integrated management)

• Currently, the DRSA-U-Net denoising algorithm developed by Hang Liu et al. has a high clinical application value by processing MRI images of kidneys, ureters and their surrounding tissues, which can significantly improve the clarity of the images in order to help doctors more accurately assess the occurrence of complications after kidney transplantation.

Hindawi Contrast Media & Molecular Imaging Volume 2022, Article ID 8930584, 7 pages https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/8930584



Research Article

Artificial Intelligence Algorithm-Based MRI in the Diagnosis of Complications after Renal Transplantation

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Contrast Media & Molecular Imaging

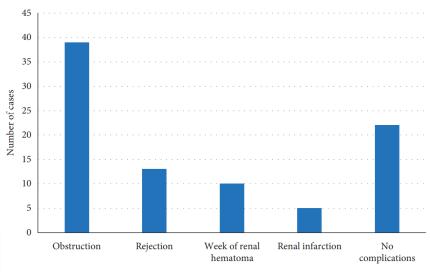


FIGURE 5: Examination results of 89 patients.

 Many researchers began to use portable devices to collect physiological data from patients at home and transmit these data electronically to clinicians, thus enabling remote patient monitoring (RPM). In addition, with the popularity of mobile drug monitoring apps, studies have shown that these apps can significantly reduce the volatility of immunosuppressive drugs such as tacrolimus in patients, especially in the first year of postoperative drug concentration variability, with remarkable clinical results. • The application of this technology not only helps clinicians to better monitor patients' drug responses, but also improves the precision of treatment, thereby effectively reducing the incidence of post-transplant rejection and improving patients' long-term prognosis.

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- An international prospective trial initiated by Philip F Halloran et al. the Trifecta study, explored the application of machine learning at the genetic level, particularly in the molecular diagnosis of renal transplant rejection [34].
- By analyzing the relationship between dd-cfDNA levels and gene expression in renal transplant recipients prior to biopsy, the study demonstrated through multivariate randomized forests and logistic regression that molecular rejection variables are better predictors of dd-cfDNA (%) than histological variables, and that there is a potential to reduce unnecessary biopsies.

- Big data approaches are considered important tools for profiling immune responses during kidney transplantation.
- Konrad Buscher et al. developed a new method based on gene expression profiling, KID9plus3, which is a kidney-specific analysis tool based on gene deconvolution that successfully identifies molecular signatures of renal health states and immune responses, and in further analyses, the investigators applied the PRESTO tool to analyze gene co-regulatory networks in transplanted samples, identifying seven different immune phenotypes that cover different functional states from kidney graft stabilization to rejection and fibrosis, and can provide more sensitive prognostic information than traditional histological diagnosis.

- In particular, in the **graft survival analysis**, using the **KID9plus3** and **PRESTO** methods, **phenotype D** (stable) was found to be associated with better graft survival, whereas **phenotypes A and E** (representing different types of immune responses) showed **poorer graft survival**.
- In addition, LOXL2+ macrophages were identified as a marker of early graft dysfunction and LOXL2 expression was associated with posttransplant fibrosis.
- Immune surveillance after renal transplantation provides important molecular tools and reveals cellular and genetic signatures associated with graft survival, potentially helping the clinic to achieve a more accurate assessment of immune tolerance and personalized treatment.

Virtual Biopsy

 The study by Yoo et al. introduced a novel machine learning-based virtual biopsy system aimed at predicting histological lesions in kidney transplant recipients by utilizing routinely available donor characteristics.

- A comprehensive analysis was performed on 14,032 protocol biopsies collected from 17 international centers, with a focus on the following four key types of renal injury:
- arteriosclerosis, arteriolar hyalinosis, interstitial fibrosis, and tubular atrophy.

• In one study, deep learning algorithms were applied to analyse whole-slide images from 2431 kidneys, allowing for the automated recognition of key renal compartments, such as glomeruli, arteries, and tubules, with a high degree of accuracy(90–96%).

- The model extracted abnormality features like glomerulosclerosis, arterial intimal fibrosis, and interstitial abnormalities, correlating them with pathologists' scores and post-transplant outcomes, including graft loss and renal function.
- This led to the development of a Kidney Donor Quality Score (KDQS), which improved graft survival prediction and could potentially reduce unnecessary organ discard.

| • Their accessibility and practicality for use in predictive modeling. | |
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| | |

 Overfitting is especially prevalent in complex models with a high number of parameters, where the risk of encoding irrelevant information is substantially increased.

 Another major limitation stems from the reliance on retrospective data, which is often sourced from single institutions or homogenous patient populations.

 This can introduce selection bias, as the data may not adequately represent the heterogeneity of the broader population, thereby limiting the model's generalizability.

- This lack of transparency can impede clinical acceptance, as healthcare professionals require clear, interpretable rationales for predictions in order to make informed decisions.
- Furthermore, the **inability to interpret** model decisions **complicates the identification of biases or errors** in the predictions, which can undermine the model's clinical credibility and reliability.
- Ethical concerns, particularly related to bias in training data, further exacerbate these limitations.
- If the datasets used to train ML models are not representative of diverse populations, the resulting models may perpetuate or even exacerbate existing healthcare disparities.

Conclusions

• In conclusion, the integration of AI technologies in kidney transplantation presents a promising avenue for enhancing patient outcomes through improved predictive modelling and personalized treatment strategies.

 As we demonstrated, AI may be an effective tool in predicting the graft survival, immunosuppressive agent dosage estimation, virtual biopsy, or donor-recipient pairing.

•

 Yet, we hypothesize that numerous unknown variables and their hidden interactions, which may be exceptionally challenging to detect using traditional methods, can significantly influence the predictions and treatment outcomes in patients following kidney transplantation.

- In the future, AI has the potential to **empower researchers** to identify and **comprehensively investigate these factors** and their **interactions**.
- However, addressing challenges such as data quality, algorithmic bias, and the need for model interpretability is crucial for the successful implementation of these advanced tools in clinical practice.
- . Continued research and **collaboration among clinicians** and **associate professionals** will be essential to fully realize the benefits of AI in this field.