



# Comparison of the predictive value of different assessment times in the severity and prognostic outcomes of CTSI in patients with acute pancreatitis: a systematic review and meta-analysis

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## Abstract

**Background** Acute pancreatitis (AP) necessitates accurate severity and prognosis assessment. While the Computed Tomography Severity Index (CTSI) is widely used, its time-dependent predictive value remains unclarified. This meta-analysis compares the predictive efficacy of CTSI across assessment times for AP outcomes.

**Methods** Systematic searches were performed in PubMed, Cochrane, Embase, and Web of Science. Literature was collated by using EndNote 20. Methodological quality was assessed using QUADAS-2. Bivariate meta-analyses were conducted with Stata 16 and Meta-Disc 1.4.

**Results** Analysis of 28 studies ( $n=5,419$ ) revealed significant time-dependent variations: CTSI achieved optimal sensitivity for severity prediction at  $\leq 48$  h (0.84, 95%CI 0.78–0.89) with specificity 0.79 (0.76–0.82), and peak sensitivity for organ failure at  $\leq 48$  h (0.90, 0.82–0.95) though with moderate specificity (0.52, 0.48–0.57). Mortality prediction showed the highest sensitivity at  $\leq 72$  h (0.89, 0.74–0.97), despite suboptimal specificity (0.65, 0.61–0.68). Pancreatic necrosis detection demonstrated superior accuracy at  $> 72$  h (sensitivity 0.91, 0.84–0.95; specificity 0.82, 0.79–0.85). The pooled area under the receiver operating characteristic curve values with 95% CI for overall predictive performance were: severity, 0.85 (0.82–0.88); organ failure, 0.86 (0.82–0.88); mortality, 0.85 (0.81–0.88); and pancreatic necrosis, 0.94 (0.99–0.96).

**Conclusion** CTSI exhibits distinct temporal predictive patterns:  $\leq 48$  h assessments optimise early evaluation of severity/organ failure,  $\leq 72$  h scans best predict mortality, while delayed imaging ( $> 72$  h) maximises pancreatic necrosis accuracy at the expense of clinical timeliness. Future research must standardise imaging timepoints, integrate CTSI with physiological biomarkers, and develop dynamic assessment models to resolve discrepancies in anatomical-pathophysiological prognostic factors in AP management.

**Keywords** Acute pancreatitis · Computed tomography severity index · Prognosis · Meta-analysis

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## Introduction

Acute pancreatitis (AP) is an inflammatory disorder of the pancreas characterised by premature activation of pancreatic enzymes, leading to autodigestion, oedema, haemorrhage, and pancreatic tissue necrosis [1]. Globally, AP affects 13–45 individuals per 100,000 annually, with mortality rates reaching 1.6 per 100,000 [2, 3]. Approximately 15–20% of patients progress to severe acute pancreatitis (SAP), defined by persistent organ failure ( $\geq 48$  h) under the Revised Atlanta Classification [4], and SAP mortality remains alarmingly high (10–30%) [5]. Adverse outcomes such as pancreatic necrosis, systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS), and multi-organ failure are key

determinants of poor prognosis [6]. For instance, pancreatic necrosis occurs in 20–40% of SAP cases. Patients with pancreatic necrosis account for over 70% of all AP-related mortality cases, with infected necrosis being the primary cause of death [7, 8]. Organ failure increases the risk of mortality by 5- to 10-fold [9]. The guidelines [10, 11] recommend that prognosis be determined by assessing organ failure and SIRS within the 48 h after admission. These underscore the critical need for early risk stratification to guide timely interventions, optimize resource allocation, and enhance survival [12].

Several prognostic tools have been developed to assess the severity of AP and its outcomes. The Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation-II (APACHE-II) score, a multi-organ dysfunction assessment, provides dynamic risk stratification, with an area under the receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC) of 0.82–0.88 for mortality prediction [13]. However, its reliance on 24-hour data collection limits practicality in rapid triage [14]. The Ranson Criteria, introduced in 1974, evaluates 11 clinical and laboratory parameters within 48 h, demonstrating moderate accuracy (AUC: 0.70–0.85) but requiring prolonged data collection [15]. In contrast, imaging-based systems, such as the Balthazar Score and its evolution, the Computed Tomography Severity Index (CTSI), provide morphologic insights into pancreatic inflammation and necrosis. CTSI integrates pancreatic inflammation grading (0–4) and necrosis extent (0–6), demonstrating moderate predictive accuracy for AP severity assessment [16, 17]. However, CTSI's reliance on contrast-enhanced computed tomography (CECT) raises concerns about radiation exposure and renal risks [18, 19]. Though validated in critical care, the Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) score lacks specificity for AP. Despite advancements, consensus on the optimal timing for CTSI assessment remains elusive, as early imaging may underestimate necrosis, while delayed scans risk clinical deterioration [20, 21].

As for the temporal relationship between CTSI assessment and its predictive accuracy, evidence-based clinical guidelines [11] recommend that initial CT assessment be performed in AP patients to confirm severity, with the optimal timing no earlier than 72 to 96 h post-symptom onset (GRADE 1 C, strong consensus). Existing studies have shown that CTSI, performed 72 h after admission of patients with AP, demonstrated a strong ability to predict pancreatic necrosis (AUC=0.879; 95% CI, 0.77–0.96) [22]. However, because pancreatic morphological changes may manifest late, earlier CT scanning may have limited utility [23]. By contrast, emerging evidence [24] suggests that prompt CT evaluation (within 48 h of symptom onset) enables quantitative assessment of extrapancreatic necrosis volume and pancreatic tissue damage, thereby preventing

missed opportunities for critical early intervention windows. This temporal discordance underscores the need for standardised assessment windows, particularly given the emergence of quantitative imaging biomarkers that map time-dependent diagnostic trajectories [24]. Our systematic review aims to resolve these discrepancies by synthesising evidence on optimal CTSI evaluation timelines for predicting multidimensional outcomes.

## Methods

This systematic review adhered to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [25]. The study protocol was prospectively registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO) under registration (Registration ID: CRD42024574245).

## Search strategy

We conducted comprehensive literature searches in PubMed, Cochrane Library, Embase, and Web of Science from the database inception through March 1st, 2025. Only literature published after 2000 was included, with full search syntax detailed in Table S1.

## Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The following inclusion criteria were defined: (1) Studies in which patients were definitely diagnosed with AP. The diagnosis of AP required at least 2 of the following 3 criteria: typical acute epigastric pain with or without back radiation; a serum amylase or lipase level at least 3 times the upper limit of normal; and imaging findings consistent with AP. (2) Studies reporting CTSI or Modified CTSI (MCTSI). (3) Studies on at least one of the following outcomes: severity, mortality, organ failure, and pancreatic necrosis. (4) Studies on at least one of the following outcomes: severity, mortality, organ failure, and pancreatic necrosis. AP severity was classified as mild, moderate, or severe according to the 2012 Revised Atlanta Classification. Data on SAP were included in this study. Deaths occurred during hospitalisation. According to the modified Marshall scoring system, organ failure was defined as three organ systems with scores of 2 or more: respiratory, cardiovascular, and renal. Pancreatic necrosis was determined by CECT, which showed absent pancreatic parenchymal enhancement, and was confirmed. (5) Studies mentioning the time of CT evaluation. (6) Studies providing sensitivity, specificity, the gold standard, and the number of negative and positive cases.

Exclusion criteria comprised: (1) duplicate publications or irrelevant content; (2) preclinical studies using animal/cell models; (3) non-original research (reviews, meta-analyses, conference abstracts, case reports, guidelines, or commentaries); (4) insufficient data for constructing  $2 \times 2$  contingency tables (true positives, false positives, true negatives, false negatives); (5) inaccessible full-text articles.

### Literature screening

In this study, two researchers independently used EndNote 20 to screen the literature. A third researcher makes the judgment in the event of any dispute. The screening process mainly consisted of two steps. First, an initial screening was performed by the titles and abstracts of the retrieved studies to exclude those that did not meet the criteria. Second, after the initial screening, the literature was then screened in full text, and the full texts of the screened articles were downloaded. The final inclusion of studies was decided based on the screening results.

### Data extraction

Two researchers independently collected data from eligible studies. Disagreements were resolved by discussion with a third researcher. For studies that met the inclusion criteria, data extracted mainly included the first author, year of publication, study design, country, type of evaluation, time of evaluation, diagnostic criteria, aetiology, age, gender (female/male), sample size, and outcome.

### Quality assessment

Two researchers used the revised Quality Assessment of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies (QUADAS-2) [26] to independently assess the methodological quality and potential bias of the selected studies. If necessary, a third researcher will join to make a final judgment. Disagreements in the quality assessments were resolved through discussion. The QUADAS-2 tool consists of 4 main components: patient selection, index test, reference standard, flow, and timing. Risk of bias includes patient selection, index test, reference standard, flow, and timing. Clinical applicability includes patient selection, index tests, and reference standards. Each item was categorised as high (risk), low (risk), or unclear (risk).

### Statistical analysis

Stata 16 and Meta-Disc 1.4 were used for the meta-analysis. Sensitivity, specificity, the gold standard, and the number of negative and positive cases were provided in the included

studies. Then, true positives, false positives, true negatives, and false negatives were calculated from a  $2 \times 2$  table of diagnostic tests. If only the ROC curves were available, Origin software (version 2021) was used to extract the sensitivity and specificity at the optimal thresholds, which were then used to calculate true positives, false positives, true negatives, and false negatives. Diagnostic accuracy was evaluated using sensitivity, specificity, positive likelihood ratio (PLR), negative likelihood ratio (NLR), diagnostic odds ratio (DOR), ROC curve, area under the curve (AUC), and 95% confidence interval (CI) under a random-effects model. Publication bias was assessed using the Deeks funnel plot asymmetry test. The stability of the results was assessed by sensitivity and specificity analyses. Possible sources of heterogeneity were explored by meta-regression and subgroup analyses. Heterogeneity was assessed using the I<sup>2</sup> statistic and the corresponding chi-square test, with a random-effects model required for I<sup>2</sup> values greater than 50% and a fixed-effects model for values below 50%. I<sup>2</sup> > 50% and  $p < 0.1$  indicated significant heterogeneity.

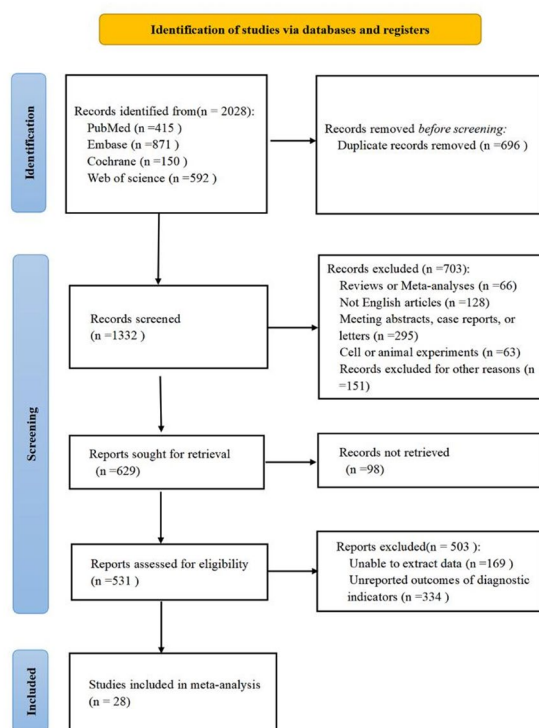
## Results

### Search results

The systematic search across four databases initially yielded 2,028 records. After duplicate removal and title/abstract screening, 629 full-text reports were assessed for eligibility. Of these, 28 studies [14, 16, 22, 27–51] met the inclusion criteria for meta-analysis. The primary reasons for exclusion during full-text review were irretrievable data and unreported outcome indicators. The detailed selection process is illustrated in the PRISMA flow diagram (Fig. 1).

### Characteristics of the included studies

A total of 28 studies were included in this study, which contained data on 5,419 patients with AP. The included studies were published between 2003 and 2023. The 28 studies included 14 retrospective studies [27–31, 33, 41–45, 47, 49, 50], 12 prospective studies [14, 16, 22, 34–37, 39, 40, 46, 48, 51], and 2 cohort studies [32, 47]. 8 studies [29–32, 41, 43, 44, 47] were from China, 9 studies [22, 34, 35, 37–40, 42, 46] from India, 3 studies [28, 33, 36] from Turkey, 2 studies [14, 48] from the USA, 1 studies [27] from France, 1 studies [16] from Spain, 1 studies [50] from Belgium, 1 studies [51] from Greece, 1 studies [49] from Japan, and 1 studies [45] from Korea. 18 CTSI-assessed studies [14, 16, 22, 27, 28, 32, 34, 36, 43–51] and 10 MCTSI-assessed studies [29–31, 33, 35, 37, 39–42] were included. Of these, 3 studies [48–50] were assessed within 24 h, 5 studies [14,



**Fig. 1** Flowchart of study selection

28, 29, 32, 35] within 48 h, 7 studies [16, 33, 34, 41, 43, 47, 51] within 72 h, and 13 studies [22, 27, 30, 31, 36–40, 42, 44–46] after 72 h. The age range of patients was  $53.1 \pm 27.7$  years. 18 studies [14, 22, 29, 30, 32, 33, 35, 37, 38, 41, 43–46, 48–51] reported severity, 18 studies [14, 16, 22, 28, 30, 33, 34, 37, 38, 40–42, 44–46, 48–50] reported mortality, 18 studies [16, 22, 27, 29–32, 34, 36, 37, 39, 40, 42, 43, 45–47, 51] reported organ failure, and 7 studies [14, 22, 29, 30, 39, 45, 46] reported pancreatic necrosis. The main characteristics of the included studies are shown in Table 1.

### Quality assessment of the selected studies

QUADAS-2 was used to assess methodological quality. For risk of bias, on patient selection, there were 7 studies [14, 16, 22, 27, 29, 32] with low risk, 2 studies [41, 43] with high risk, and 19 studies [28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 36–40, 42, 44–51] with unclear risk. On the index test, there were 18 studies [14, 22, 27, 31, 32, 34, 35, 38, 41–48, 50, 51] with low risk, 5 studies [28, 37, 39, 40, 49] with high risk, and 5 studies [16, 29, 30, 33, 36] with unclear risk. On reference standard, there were 12 studies [14, 22, 27, 31, 32, 38, 40, 41, 43, 44, 48, 50] with low risk, 4 studies [16, 36, 45, 47] with high risk, and 12 studies [28–30, 33–35, 37, 39, 42, 46, 49, 51] with unclear risk. On flow and timing, there were 14 studies

[14, 16, 22, 27–29, 31, 32, 34, 35, 41, 43, 47, 48] with low risk, 8 studies [30, 38, 40, 42, 45, 49–51] with high risk, and 6 studies [33, 36, 37, 39, 44, 46] with unclear risk. For clinical applicability, regarding patient selection, except for two studies [42, 44] with high risk, the remaining 26 studies [14, 16, 22, 27–40, 42, 44–51] had a low risk. On the index test, 25 studies [14, 22, 23, 26, 28–37, 39–41, 43–50] had a low risk, 1 study [43] had a high risk, and 2 studies [16, 39] had an unclear risk. Of the reference standard, 24 studies [14, 22, 27, 29, 31–44, 46–51] had a low risk, 1 study [28] had a high risk, and 3 studies [16, 30, 45] had an unclear risk. The specific evaluation results are shown in Fig. 2.

### Outcome indicators

#### Predictive performance for severity

Subgroup analyses were performed according to the CTSI evaluation time, divided into four time periods:  $\leq 24$  h,  $\leq 48$  h,  $\leq 72$  h, and  $> 72$  h. A total of 18 studies provided data on the prediction of AP severity by CTSI, with a pooled sensitivity of 0.76 (95% CI: 0.67–0.83), a pooled specificity of 0.80 (95% CI: 0.73–0.86), and a pooled AUC of 0.85 (95% CI: 0.82–0.88); pooled PLR was 3.90 (95% CI: 2.88–5.28); pooled NLR was 0.29 (95% CI: 0.22–0.40); and pooled DOR was 13.26 (95% CI: 8.60–20.46) (Fig. 3A; Table 2).

In the study on severity, CTSI evaluation time  $\leq 24$  h ( $n=3$ ) had a sensitivity of 0.81 (95% CI: 0.72–0.88) and a specificity of 0.76 (95% CI: 0.70–0.81); evaluation time  $\leq 48$  h ( $n=4$ ) had a sensitivity of 0.82 (95% CI: 0.69–0.90) and a specificity of 0.78 (95% CI: 0.68–0.85); evaluation time  $\leq 72$  h ( $n=4$ ) had a sensitivity of 0.56 (95% CI: 0.48–0.64) and a specificity of 0.86 (95% CI: 0.84–0.88); and evaluation time  $> 72$  h ( $n=7$ ) had a sensitivity of 0.69 (95% CI: 0.56–0.79) and a specificity of 0.83 (95% CI: 0.73–0.90). The evaluation time  $\leq 48$  h had the highest sensitivity for predicting severity, while the highest specificity was observed in the  $\leq 72$  h subgroup (Table 2). There was a statistically significant difference in the prediction of severity at  $\leq 24$  h compared with  $\leq 72$  h ( $p < 0.01$ ), and at  $\leq 48$  h compared with  $\leq 72$  h and  $> 72$  h ( $p < 0.05$ ).

#### Predictive performance for mortality

A total of 18 studies provided data on the prediction of mortality by CTSI, with a pooled sensitivity of 0.84 (95% CI: 0.71–0.92), pooled specificity of 0.71 (95% CI: 0.59–0.81), pooled AUC of 0.85 (95% CI: 0.81–0.88); pooled PLR was 2.93 (95% CI: 2.06–4.16); pooled NLR was 0.22 (95% CI: 0.12–0.42); and pooled DOR was 13.34 (95% CI: 6.07, 29.31) (Fig. 3B; Table 2).

**Table 1** Basic characteristics of the included studies

No.	Author	Year	Study design	Country	Evaluation	Eval-uation time	Diagnostic criteria	Etiology	Age (Mean±SD)	Gender (Female/Male)	Sam-ple size	Outcome
1	Tortum et al. [28]	2023	Retrospective	Turkey	CTSI	≤48 h	Serum amylase/lipase levels	–	60.50±6.75	162/78	240	Mortality
2	Luo et al. [29]	2023	Retrospective	China	MCTSI	≤48 h	The 2012 AP Grading and Classification System	Gallstone 43.09%; Hyperlipidemic 22.04%; Alcoholic 13.82%; Unknown 21.05%	47.45±2.74	90/214	304	Severity, organ failure, pancreatic necrosis
3	Zhao et al. [30]	2022	Retrospective	China	MCTSI	>72 h	The guidelines for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Acute Pancreatitis revised in 2019 by the Pancreatic Surgical Science Section of the Chinese Medical Association Surgery Branch; the modified Marshall scoring system; death during hospitalization	Gallstone 54.23%; Hyperlipidemic 24.30%; Alcoholic 4.58%; Other 21.48%	54.05±22.96	123/161	284	Severity, mortality, organ failure, pancreatic necrosis
4	Alberti et al. [16]	2021	Prospective	Spain	CTSI	≤72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system; CECT	Gallstone 47.7%; Hyperlipidemic 39.6%; Alcoholic 17.4%; Idiopathic 22.1%; Post ERCP 4%; Other 6%	–	57/92	149	Mortality, organ failure
5	Liu et al. [31]	2021	Retrospective	China	MCTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta	Gallstone 45.8%; Hyperlipidemic 40.6%; Alcoholic 3.2%; Post ERCP 5.8%; Other 4.5%	48.70±14.70	47/108	155	Organ failure
6	Çakar et al. [36]	2020	Prospective	Turkey	CTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta	Gallstone 51.5%; Hyperlipidemic 15.1%; Alcoholic 6.1%; Post ERCP 5.1%; Unknown 22.2%	51.50±11.50	37/62	99	Organ failure
7	Gezer et al. [33]	2020	Retrospective	Turkey	MCTSI	≤72 h	2012 revised Atlanta	Gallstone 57.5%; Alcoholic 7.6%; Hyperlipidemic 8.8%; Other 5.1%; Unknown 21%	55.00±17.00	46/34	80	Severity, mortality
8	Peng et al. [32]	2020	Cohort	China	CTSI	≤48 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Gallstone 43.7%; Hyperlipidemic 22.0%; Alcoholic 7.4%; Trauma 0.6%; Postoperative state 1.6%; Unknown 24.6%	50.00±16.00	113/196	309	Severity, organ failure

Table 1 (continued)

No.	Author	Year	Study design	Country	Evaluation	Eval-uation time	Diagnostic criteria	Etiology	Age (Mean±SD)	Gender (Female/Male)	Sam-ple size	Outcome
9	Chitram-balam et al. [34]	2020	Prospective	India	CTSI	≤72 h	2012 revised Atlanta	–	38.68±11.94	12/108	120	Mortality, organ failure
10	Chatterjee et al. [35]	2020	Prospective	India	MCTSI	≤48 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Alcoholic 58.6%; Gallstones 20.7%; Hyperlipidemic 1.1%; Drug-induced 5.7%; Hypercalcemia 3.4%; Pancreas division 3.4%; Uncontrolled diabetes, 3.4%; Idiopathic 1.1%; Pancreatic duct obstruction 1.1%; Hydatid cysts 1.1%	37.72±12.6	12/75	87	Severity
11	Jain et al. [37]	2019	Prospective	India	MCTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Alcoholic 98%; Idiopathic 2%	42.06±13.27	0/50	50	Severity, mortality, organ failure
12	Hagjer & Kumar [22]	2018	Prospective	India	CTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system; CECT	Alcoholic 45%; Gallstone 40%; Idiopathic 15%	37.17±11.77	19/41	60	Severity, mortality, organ failure, pancreatic necrosis
13	Vaidya et al. [38]	2018	Cohort	India	CTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Alcoholic 84%; Gallstone 13%; Idiopathic 3%	40.16	6/49	55	Severity, mortality
14	Kumar & Griwan [39]	2018	Prospective	India	MCTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Gallstone 74%; Alcoholic 18%; Traumatic 2%; Idiopathic 6%	48.42±15.25	33/17	50	Organ failure, pancreatic necrosis
15	Sahu et al. [40]	2017	Prospective	India	MCTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system; CECT	Alcoholic 50.0%; Gallstone 25.0%; Idiopathic 22.0%; Other 3.0%	36.60±9.80	24/36	60	Mortality, organ failure
16	Yang et al. [41]	2016	Retrospective	China	MCTSI	≤72 h	Chinese guideline for diagnosis and treatment of acute pancreatitis; Atlanta Classification of Acute Pancreatitis	–	44.00±17.75	142/184	326	Severity, mortality
17	Qiu et al. [43]	2015	Retrospective	China	CTSI	≤72 h	2012 revised Atlanta	Gallstone 65%; Alcoholic 5.2%; Hyperlipidemic 14.2%; Unknown and idiopathic 15.6%	57.00±17.30	441/468	909	Severity, organ failure

Table 1 (continued)

No.	Author	Year	Study design	Country	Evaluation	Evaluation time	Diagnostic criteria	Etiology	Age (Mean ± SD)	Gender (Female/Male)	Sample size	Outcome
18	Meyri-gnac et al. [27]	2015	Retrospective	France	CTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta	Gallstone 34%; Alcoholic 22%; Ampullary tumors 8%; Post ERCP 5%; Other 1%; Unknown 26%	55.30 ± 19.00	104/160	264	Organ failure
19	Sharma et al. [42]	2015	Retrospective	India	MCTSI	>72 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Alcoholic 50.5%; Gallstone 34.3%; Idiopathic 11.4%; Other 3.8%	40.60 ± 12.99	40/65	105	Mortality, organ failure
20	Xu et al. [44]	2014	Retrospective	China	CTSI	>72 h	the International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification code for AP (577.0); the Atlanta	Gallstone 35.8%; Alcoholic 27.6%; Gallstone+alcohol 21.4%; Post ERCP 6.6%; Other or unknown 8.6%	51.20 ± 12.30	61/196	257	Severity, mortality
21	Chen et al. [47]	2013	Retrospective	China	CTSI	≤72 h	the Atlanta	Gallstone 66.0%; Alcoholic 6.8%; Hyperlipidemia 10.1%; Idiopathic 16.1%; Other 1.0%	53.60 ± 16.60	222/275	497	Organ failure
22	Khanna et al. [46]	2013	Prospective	India	CTSI	>72 h	the Atlanta	Gallstone 61.1%; Alcoholic 18%; Idiopathic 12.5%; Hyperlipidemia 2.8%; post ERCP 2.8%; Traumatic 2.8%	40.50 ± 14.50	35/37	72	Severity, mortality, organ failure, pancreatic necrosis
23	Park et al. [45]	2013	Retrospective	Korea	CTSI	>72 h	CECT; organ failure (transient or persistent) and/or local complications; the most extreme laboratory value or clinical measurement	Alcoholic 49.8%; Gallstone 29.0%; Hyperlipidemic 1.3%; Idiopathic 16.2%; Cancer 3.6%	52.00 ± 17.00	87/216	303	Severity, mortality, organ failure, pancreatic necrosis
24	Bollen et al. [48]	2012	Prospective	USA	CTSI	≤24 h	2012 revised Atlanta; the modified Marshall scoring system	Gallstones 30%; miscellaneous (e.g., hypertriglyceridemia, hereditary, and post-endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography) 24%; alcohol 21%; idiopathic 17%; drug-induced 8%	56.00 ± 17.50	66/84	159	Severity, mortality
25	Imamura et al. [49]	2010	Retrospective	Japan	CTSI	≤24 h	the Atlanta	Alcoholic 42%; Gallstone 23%; Idiopathic 20%; Postoperative 5%	53.00 ± 17.00	37/85	122	Severity, mortality

Table 1 (continued)

No.	Author	Year	Study design	Country	Evaluation	Evaluation time	Diagnostic criteria	Etiology	Age (Mean $\pm$ SD)	Gender (Female/Male)	Sample size	Outcome
26	Papachristou et al. [14]	2010	Prospective	USA	CTSI	$\leq 48$ h	CECT; the presence of organ failure for more than 48 h	Gallstone 36%; Idiopathic 27%; Alcoholic 14%; post ERCP 14%; Hyperlipidemia 4%; Other 5%	52.35 $\pm$ 18.75	90/95	185	Severity, mortality, pancreatic necrosis
27	De Wael et al. [50]	2007	Retrospective	Belgium	CTSI	$\leq 24$ h	the International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification code for AP (577.0).	Alcoholic 50%; Gallstone 20%; Hyperlipidemia (15%); Traumatic 5%; Unknown 10%	50.00 $\pm$ 17.70	12/28	40	Severity, mortality
28	Chatzicostas et al. [51]	2003	Prospective	Greece	CTSI	$\leq 72$ h	the Atlanta	Gallstone 60.3%; Alcoholic 5.1%; Others (hyperlipidemia, pancreatic malignancy, pancreas division) 6.4%; Unknown 28.2%	63.80 $\pm$ 17.00	36/42	78	Severity, organ failure

CTSI computed tomography severity index, MCTSI modified computed tomography severity index, SD standard difference

In the study on mortality, it was shown that the sensitivity of CTSI evaluation time  $\leq 72$  h ( $n=4$ ) was 0.90 (95% CI:0.72–0.97) with a specificity of 0.56 (95% CI:0.34–0.76); the sensitivity of evaluation time  $\leq 48$  h ( $n=2$ ) was 0.85 (95% CI:0.70–0.94) and a specificity of 0.77 (95% CI:0.73–0.82); the sensitivity for evaluation time  $\leq 24$  h ( $n=3$ ) was 0.81 (95% CI:0.63–0.93) and a specificity of 0.66 (95% CI:0.60–0.71); the sensitivity was 0.79 (95% CI:0.48–0.94) and the specificity was 0.74 (95% CI:0.72–0.77) for evaluation time  $> 72$  h ( $n=9$ ). The highest sensitivity for predicting mortality was observed at evaluation times  $\leq 72$  h, and the highest specificity was observed at evaluation times  $\leq 48$  h (Table 2). No statistically significant difference in mortality prediction was found in patients with AP in either comparison ( $p > 0.05$ ).

### Predictive performance for organ failure

A total of 18 studies provided data on the prediction of organ failure by CTSI, with a pooled sensitivity of 0.84 (95% CI: 0.70–0.92), a pooled specificity of 0.75 (95% CI: 0.63–0.83), a pooled AUC of 0.86 (95% CI: 0.82–0.88); pooled PLR was 3.30 (95% CI: 2.30–4.72); pooled NLR was 0.22 (95% CI: 0.12–0.40); and pooled DOR was 14.99 (95% CI: 7.48, 30.04) (Fig. 3C; Table 2).

In studies on organ failure, it was shown that the sensitivity of CTSI evaluation time  $\leq 48$  h ( $n=2$ ) was 0.90 (95% CI:0.82–0.95), with a specificity of 0.52 (95% CI:0.48–0.57); the sensitivity of evaluation time  $> 72$  h ( $n=11$ ) was 0.86 (95% CI:0.63–0.95) and specificity was 0.73 (95% CI:0.60–0.82); and the sensitivity for assessment time  $\leq 72$  h ( $n=5$ ) was 0.74 (95% CI:0.56–0.86) and specificity was 0.84 (95% CI:0.61–0.95). Organ failure outcomes were not analysed for the  $\leq 24$  h subgroup because no studies reported CTSI assessments at this early time point. Among the results, evaluation  $\leq 48$  h had the highest sensitivity for predicting organ failure, and evaluation  $\leq 72$  h had the highest specificity (Table 2). There was a statistically significant difference in the prediction of organ failure at  $\leq 48$  h compared with  $\leq 72$  h and  $> 72$  h ( $p < 0.05$ ).

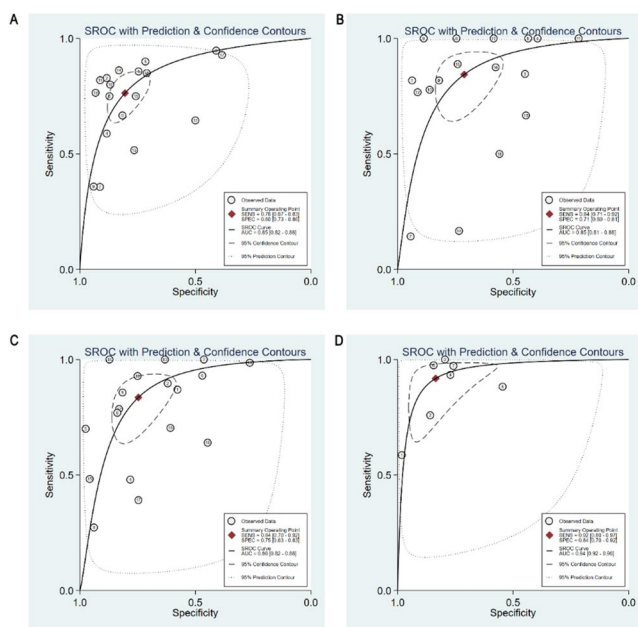
### Predictive performance for pancreatic necrosis

With 7 studies providing data on the prediction of pancreatic necrosis by CTSI, the pooled sensitivity was 0.92 (95% CI: 0.80–0.97), the pooled specificity was 0.84 (95% CI: 0.70–0.92), the pooled AUC was 0.94 (95% CI: 0.92–0.96); pooled PLR was 5.57 (95% CI: 3.04–10.20); pooled NLR was 0.10 (95% CI: 0.04–0.24); and pooled DOR was 56.75 (95% CI: 23.79, 135.37) (Fig. 3D; Table 2).

In the study on pancreatic necrosis, it was shown that the sensitivity of CTSI evaluation time  $> 72$  h ( $n=5$ ) was



**Fig. 2** Risk of bias graph (A); Risk of bias summary (B)



**Fig. 3** SROC curve of the CTSI for predicting severity (A), mortality (B), organ failure (C), and pancreatic necrosis (D) in AP

0.93 (95% CI:0.81–0.98) with a specificity of 0.78 (95% 0.68–0.86); the sensitivity of evaluation time  $\leq 48$  h ( $n=2$ ) was 0.80 (95% CI:0.68–0.89) and specificity was 0.90 (95% CI:0.87–0.93). Similarly, no pancreatic necrosis data were available for  $\leq 24$  h analyses since no studies performed CTSI evaluations at this timepoint. That is, evaluation time  $> 72$  h had the highest sensitivity for predicting pancreatic necrosis, and evaluation time  $\leq 48$  h had the highest specificity (Table 2). There was a statistically significant difference in the prediction of pancreatic necrosis at  $\leq 48$  h compared to  $> 72$  h ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### Subgroup analysis of CTSI versus MCTSI

Subgroup analyses comparing the diagnostic performance of CTSI and MCTSI across outcomes are presented in Table 3. For severity prediction, MCTSI demonstrated higher sensitivity (0.82 vs. 0.74) and diagnostic odds ratio (DOR 17.62 vs. 12.31) than CTSI, with comparable pooled AUC (0.87 vs. 0.84). Mortality prediction revealed superior sensitivity for MCTSI (0.87 vs. 0.82) and significantly higher AUC (0.89 vs. 0.82). Notably, MCTSI achieved higher specificity in pancreatic necrosis detection (0.91 vs. 0.78) despite lower sensitivity (0.73 vs. 0.97), reflecting its omission of contrast-dependent necrosis grading. For organ failure, MCTSI maintained robust early sensitivity ( $\leq 48$  h: 0.90) comparable to CTSI. Critically, MCTSI showed non-inferior pooled accuracy for key outcomes (severity AUC 0.87, mortality AUC 0.89), while enabling reduced contrast exposure—a finding supporting its safety advantages in clinical implementation.

### Meta-regression

Univariate meta-regression analyses were conducted to investigate potential sources of heterogeneity in severity, mortality, and organ failure. For severity, country could be a significant influence on the presence of heterogeneity in sensitivity ( $p < 0.05$ ), while age could be a potential source of heterogeneity in specificity ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 4A); for mortality and organ failure, year, country, sample size, evaluation, and age were not found to be possible factors contributing to heterogeneity (Fig. 4B, C).

### Sensitivity analysis and publication bias

After conducting separate sensitivity analyses of the CTSI to predict AP severity, mortality, organ failure, and pancreatic necrosis (Fig. S1–S4), the results showed that the sensitivities were relatively stable. No significant changes were observed when each study was excluded individually; the results indicated that sensitivities remained relatively stable. This suggests that any particular study did not significantly affect the overall results.

Deeks’ funnel plot asymmetry test was used to assess the publication bias of more than 10 studies. The results of the Deeks’ funnel plot asymmetry test were not significant for studies on AP severity ( $p=0.397$ ) and organ failure ( $p=0.757$ ), indicating no significant publication bias ( $p > 0.05$ ). For the study on mortality, there was a possibility of publication bias ( $p=0.009$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. S5).

**Table 2** Results of univariate meta-regression and subgroup analyses of CTSI predicting severity, mortality, organ failure, and pancreatic necrosis

Outcome	Evaluation time	Studies (n)	Sensitivity(95%CI)	Specificity (95%CI)	PLR(95%CI)	NLR(95%CI)	DOR(95%CI)
Severity	≤24 h	3	0.81(0.72–0.88)	0.76(0.70–0.81)	2.86(1.32–6.19)	0.27(0.17–0.43)	13.98(6.00–32.58)
	≤48 h	4	0.82(0.69–0.90)	0.78(0.68–0.85)	3.67(2.76–4.87)	0.23(0.14–0.39)	15.90(9.90–25.53)
	≤72 h	4	0.56(0.48–0.64)	0.86(0.84–0.88)	4.78(1.79–12.78)	0.31(0.12–0.80)	17.33(7.68–39.10)
	>72 h	7	0.69(0.56–0.79)	0.83(0.73–0.90)	4.09(2.35–7.13)	0.38(0.25–0.56)	10.88(4.43–26.73)
	Combined	18	0.76(0.67–0.83)	0.80(0.73–0.86)	3.90(2.88–5.28)	0.29(0.22–0.40)	13.26(8.60–20.46)
Mortality	≤24 h	3	0.81(0.63–0.93)	0.66(0.60–0.71)	2.22(1.32–3.76)	0.35(0.09–1.40)	6.15(1.21–31.25)
	≤48 h	2	0.85(0.70–0.94)	0.77(0.73–0.82)	5.37(0.44–66.15)	0.19(0.09–0.38)	58.63(21.90–156.92)
	≤72 h	4	0.90(0.72–0.97)	0.56(0.34–0.76)	2.05(1.28–3.28)	0.17(0.06–0.51)	11.83(3.46–40.38)
	>72 h	9	0.79(0.48–0.94)	0.74(0.72–0.77)	3.40(1.90–6.10)	0.27(0.09–0.78)	12.50(3.27–47.78)
	Combined	18	0.84(0.71–0.92)	0.71(0.59–0.81)	2.93(2.06–4.16)	0.22(0.12–0.42)	13.34(6.07–29.31)
Organ failure	≤48 h	2	0.90(0.82–0.95)	0.52(0.48–0.57)	1.89(1.61–2.20)	0.20(0.11–0.37)	10.00(4.89–20.46)
	≤72 h	5	0.74(0.56–0.86)	0.84(0.61–0.95)	4.74(1.85–12.10)	0.31(0.19–0.51)	15.23(5.69–40.73)
	>72 h	11	0.86(0.63–0.95)	0.73(0.60–0.82)	3.12(2.15–4.53)	0.20(0.07–0.55)	15.64(4.98–49.11)
	Combined	18	0.84(0.70–0.92)	0.75(0.63–0.83)	3.30(2.30–4.72)	0.22(0.12–0.40)	14.99(7.48–30.04)
Pancreatic necrosis	≤48 h	2	0.80(0.68–0.89)	0.90(0.87–0.93)	10.90(1.30–91.79)	0.14(0.01–3.05)	83.60(30.71–227.58)
	>72 h	5	0.93(0.81–0.98)	0.78(0.68–0.86)	4.32(2.82–6.64)	0.08(0.03–0.26)	51.24(13.75–190.93)
	Combined	7	0.92(0.80–0.97)	0.84(0.70–0.92)	5.57(3.04–10.20)	0.10(0.04–0.24)	56.75(23.79–135.37)

CTSI computed tomography severity index, PLR Positive Likelihood Ratio, NLR Negative Likelihood Ratio, DOR Diagnostic Odds Ratio

**Table 3** Sensitivity, specificity, positive likelihood ratio, negative likelihood ratio, diagnostic odds ratio, and AUC of CTSI or MCTSI for predicting severity, mortality, organ failure, and pancreatic necrosis

Outcome	Evaluation type	Studies (n)	Sensitivity(95%CI)	Specificity (95%CI)	PLR(95%CI)	NLR(95%CI)	DOR(95%CI)	AUC(95%CI)
Severity	CTSI	12	0.74 (0.65–0.81)	0.81 (0.72–0.88)	3.91 (2.63–5.83)	0.32 (0.23–0.43)	12.31 (6.83–22.19)	0.84 (0.80–0.87)
	MCTSI	6	0.82 (0.60–0.93)	0.80 (0.64–0.90)	4.04 (2.51–6.48)	0.23 (0.11–0.48)	17.62 (10.62–29.24)	0.87 (0.84–0.90)
Mortality	CTSI	12	0.82 (0.59–0.94)	0.70 (0.54–0.82)	2.72 (1.76–4.21)	0.25 (0.10–0.63)	10.68 (3.58–31.85)	0.82 (0.78–0.85)
	MCTSI	6	0.87 (0.75–0.93)	0.74 (0.56–0.86)	3.30 (1.86–5.87)	0.18 (0.09–0.35)	18.34 (7.01–47.97)	0.89 (0.86–0.91)
Organ failure	CTSI	11	0.78 (0.57–0.90)	0.78 (0.62–0.88)	3.53 (2.10–5.94)	0.29 (0.15–0.56)	12.28 (5.10–29.59, 10.59)	0.85 (0.81–0.88)
	MCTSI	7	0.90 (0.73–0.97)	0.69 (0.53–0.81)	2.86 (1.89–4.33)	0.15 (0.06–0.40)	19.24 (6.62–55.90)	0.85 (0.82–0.88)
Pancreatic necrosis	CTSI	4	0.97 (0.91–0.99)	0.78 (0.74–0.82)	3.86 (2.27–6.54)	0.06 (0.02–0.22)	65.42 (12.24–349.66, 24.66)	
	MCTSI	3	0.73 (0.61–0.82)	0.91 (0.89–0.94)	8.23 (3.13–21.69)	0.32 (0.18–0.56)	37.30 (13.90–100.09, 90.09)	

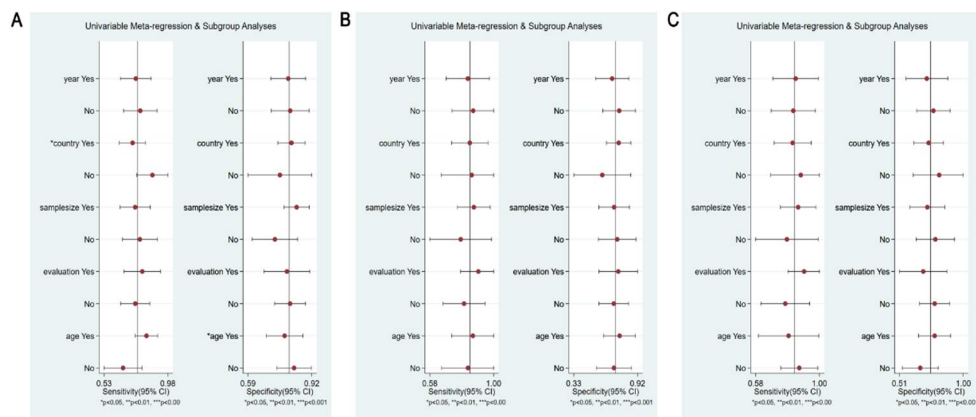
\*CTSI computed tomography severity index, MCTSI modified computed tomography severity index, PLR positive likelihood ratio, NLR negative likelihood ratio, DOR diagnostic odds ratio, AUC area under the curve

## Discussion

This meta-analysis evaluated the predictive performance of the CTSI at different assessment times for severity and prognostic outcomes in AP. Our findings demonstrate that CTSI exhibits time-dependent variations in its predictive efficacy across distinct clinical endpoints, underscoring the importance of optimising imaging timing for specific outcomes. The analysis of 28 studies ( $n=5,419$ ) revealed that CTSI assessment at ≤48 h showed optimal sensitivity (0.84) and specificity (0.79) for predicting AP severity, while

assessment at ≤72 h performed best for mortality (sensitivity: 0.89; specificity: 0.65). Organ failure prediction peaked at ≤48 h (sensitivity: 0.90), whereas pancreatic necrosis was most accurately identified at >72 h (sensitivity: 0.91; specificity: 0.82). These results highlight the dynamic relationship between imaging timing and pathophysiological progression in AP.

**Fig. 4** Univariate meta-regression and subgroup analyses of CTSI predicting severity (A), mortality (B), and organ failure (C) in AP



### CTSI at $\leq 48$ h for severity prediction

The optimal performance of CTSI at  $\leq 48$  h for severity prediction aligns with critical pathophysiological transitions in AP. During this window, SIRS typically peaks, driving early organ failure [4]. While pancreatic necrosis may not yet be radiologically evident [52], CTSI effectively captures peripancreatic complications detectable within 48 h [53], including acute fluid collections (0–30 Hounsfield units) that correlate with evolving SAP risk [54]. This temporal association explains CTSI's balanced sensitivity (0.84) and specificity (0.79) at  $\leq 48$  h, outperforming  $\leq 24$ -hour assessments (sensitivity 0.81, specificity 0.76) where inflammatory evolution remains incomplete. Notably, CTSI's superiority over clinical scores, such as APACHE-II (AUC 0.78 vs. CTSI 0.84) [55], stems from its direct visualisation of local complications. However, its predictive capacity remains secondary to biochemical markers of persistent SIRS at 48 h, which guide current severity classification [11]. This discrepancy may be due to: (1) CTSI's inability to quantify dynamic cytokine cascades driving organ failure [4]; (2) up to 25% of SAP cases lacking radiologically detectable necrosis [55]; and (3) the poor correlation between necrosis development and organ failure timing [55]. Comparative analyses reveal CTSI's practical advantage over Ranson's criteria (AUC 0.94) [14], which requires non-routine laboratory parameters. While no single tool perfectly predicts SAP, CTSI's operational feasibility and spatial resolution make it valuable for early triage when combined with inflammatory biomarkers (e.g., CRP, interleukin-6) [46]. Nevertheless, its reduced sensitivity at  $\leq 72$  h (0.56) suggests limited utility beyond the 48-hour window for severity assessment, likely because necrosis manifests later [52].

### Mortality prediction: $\leq 72$ h as the optimal window

Our meta-analysis identified a  $\leq 72$ -hour CTSI assessment as the most sensitive time window (pooled sensitivity 0.89) for

mortality prediction in AP. This temporal advantage likely stems from CTSI's capacity to capture two critical mortality determinants: [1] early pancreatic necrosis patterns detectable by 72-hour CECT (sensitivity approaching 100% for necrosis detection at 4 days [56]), and [2] evolving organ failure dynamics particularly persistent organ failure ( $>48$  h duration) which increases mortality risk by 3.8-fold [57]. Notably, the observed decline in specificity (0.65 vs. 0.77 at  $\leq 48$  h) suggests compromised differentiation power in later phases, when secondary complications emerge. This finding aligns with SAP management guidelines, which emphasise 72-hour reassessment windows [58], particularly for patients with persistent organ failure and infected necrosis, a subgroup exhibiting mortality rates of 28–39% in our included studies. Cumulative evidence indicates that CTSI ranks lower in predictive accuracy for AP-related mortality compared to Ranson's criteria, APACHE-II, BISAP, and SOFA [41, 46, 58, 59]. Recent proposals for multidimensional risk stratification [14] that incorporate genetic variants (e.g., PRSS1 mutations), metabolic factors (BMI  $>30$ ), and serial biomarker panels (IL-6, D-dimer) may enhance predictive models. Machine learning approaches integrating CTSI with these variables could potentially overcome the current specificity ceiling observed in our analysis.

### Organ failure: early imaging imperative

The meta-analysis revealed that CTSI assessed within  $\leq 48$  h demonstrated superior sensitivity (0.90) but limited specificity (0.52) for predicting organ failure in AP patients. This temporal pattern aligns with the pathophysiological progression of AP, in which early pancreatic necrosis and peripancreatic inflammation (detected by CT) often precede systemic manifestations of organ dysfunction [58, 59]. The observed sensitivity declines beyond 72 h (0.74), with improved specificity (0.69), likely reflecting the delayed onset of definitive systemic complications that correlate better with imaging findings. Current guidelines [60] emphasize avoiding premature severity stratification within

the first 48 h, a recommendation supported by our findings regarding CTSI's evolving predictive characteristics. While CTSI outperforms clinical scoring systems like APACHE-II (cumbersome 12-parameter protocol) [61] and Ranson criteria (limited specificity for persistent organ failure) [60] in early detection, its moderate specificity underscores the need for serial assessments. Notably, the strong association between pancreatic necrosis volume (threshold > 100 mL) and organ failure [24, 31] underscores CTSI's unique advantage in quantifying the anatomical correlates of dysfunction. This temporal precision makes CTSI particularly valuable for initial risk stratification, as early reversal of organ failure within 48 h correlates with an improved prognosis [57]. However, clinicians should interpret  $\leq 48$ -hour CTSI results cautiously in cases of isolated peripancreatic necrosis, as these may disproportionately influence scores despite uncertain clinical significance [62].

### Pancreatic necrosis: delayed imaging advantage

Our meta-analysis reveals CTSI achieves peak diagnostic accuracy for pancreatic necrosis (sensitivity 0.91, specificity 0.82) when assessed > 72 h after symptom onset, substantially outperforming evaluations at  $\leq 48$  h (sensitivity 0.80, specificity 0.90). This temporal divergence aligns with the pathophysiological trajectory of necrotic evolution. Pancreatic necrosis typically becomes radiographically discernible around day 4 post-onset, with progression continuing over the subsequent 48–72 h as mixed parenchymal-peripancreatic necrosis [55, 63]. Early CT imaging ( $\leq 3$ –4 days) demonstrates reduced accuracy in delineating necrosis, while delayed scans (> 5 days) are critical for assessing necrotic demarcation and fluid collections in non-responsive patients [64]. These findings corroborate guideline-endorsed protocols [11] that recommend an optimal initial CT timing of 72–96 h. Our > 72-hour peak accuracy finding robustly supports the guideline's 72–96 h window [11]. Crucially, necrosis becomes radiographically discernible around day 4 (~96 h), suggesting imaging closer to 96 h within this window maximises accuracy. This aligns with delayed scanning (> 5 d) being critical for non-responsive patients [64], thereby specifically endorsing the 96-hour endpoint for definitive necrosis assessment in this cohort. CTSI appeared to maintain superior accuracy in predicting pancreatic necrosis compared to other clinical scoring systems. Papachristou et al. [14] demonstrated that the AUC of the CTSI (0.98; 95% CI: 0.94–1.00) was significantly superior to those of the Ranson (AUC=0.85), BISAP (AUC=0.78), and APACHE-II (AUC=0.72) scores. However, CTSI's inability to quantify systemic inflammation necessitates complementary early clinical assessments (e.g., Ranson's or BISAP) for comprehensive risk stratification [61]. While

APACHE-II and SOFA prioritise critical care monitoring over necrosis prediction [46, 61, 65], CTSI remains the imaging gold standard within its validated temporal window [14]. This evidence supports a staged diagnostic approach: delayed CT (> 72 h) optimises confirmation of necrosis, while early clinical scores guide initial management. Future studies should investigate hybrid models integrating temporal CTSI data with serial biomarker profiles to enhance phase-specific predictive accuracy.

### Addressing safety concerns with MCTSI

While the timing of CTSI assessment is critical for accuracy, its reliance on CECT protocols raises concomitant concerns about cumulative radiation exposure and contrast-induced nephropathy, particularly in patients requiring repeated imaging [66]. These risks underscore the need for alternative scoring approaches that maintain diagnostic efficacy while mitigating safety issues. In this context, MCTSI, which omits necrosis grading and permits non-contrast or abbreviated CECT protocols [67], emerges as a promising strategy. Our meta-analysis included 10 studies using MCTSI (representing 35.7% of included studies), and its pooled diagnostic performance for severity (AUC 0.87, 95% CI 0.84–0.90) and mortality prediction (AUC 0.89, 95% CI 0.86–0.92) was comparable to that of CTSI. Crucially, by eliminating the need for contrast-dependent necrosis assessment, MCTSI reduces the requirement for repeated CECT scans, thereby lowering cumulative radiation dose and minimising the risk of contrast-induced nephropathy, especially in high-risk populations such as those with renal impairment [68]. This advantage is particularly relevant for early assessment windows (e.g.,  $\leq 48$  h), where MCTSI's sensitivity for organ failure (0.90) remains robust. *Future studies should standardise MCTSI protocols to further validate its role in risk reduction.*

### Limitations and future directions

A key strength of this meta-analysis is its comprehensive quantitative synthesis of evidence across multiple CTSI assessment time windows for diverse AP outcomes, providing novel insights into time-dependent predictive performance. However, several limitations warrant consideration. First, the temporal classification of CTSI assessments (e.g.,  $\leq 24$  h,  $\leq 48$  h) inherently introduces temporal heterogeneity, as studies within the same category may differ in the exact timing of imaging (e.g., scans labeled " $\leq 72$  h" could span 48–72 h). This imprecise classification may dilute time-specific accuracy estimates, particularly for outcomes such as pancreatic necrosis, where delayed imaging (> 72 h)

demonstrated superior predictive performance but limits early clinical utility. Second, while CTSI effectively stratifies anatomical severity, its moderate specificity for predicting organ failure (especially at  $\leq 48$  h) highlights challenges in distinguishing transient imaging abnormalities from those that progress to clinical dysfunction. This anatomical-physiological discordance is further evident in mortality prediction, where CTSI's omission of dynamic physiological parameters (e.g., hemodynamic status) poorly aligns with modern multiparameter prognostic frameworks. Third, despite standardized time categories, inter-study variations in imaging protocols (e.g., contrast timing, slice thickness) and CTSI interpretation thresholds may introduce unmeasured heterogeneity. Finally, the analysis did not evaluate synergistic use of CTSI with biochemical markers (e.g., CRP, procalcitonin) or clinical scores (e.g., BISAP), which could enhance early risk stratification.

Future research should prioritize three directions: (1) Prospectively validating standardized imaging timepoints (e.g., 24 h $\pm$ 4 h, 72 h $\pm$ 12 h) to minimize temporal misclassification and establish clinically actionable accuracy thresholds, requiring dedicated studies to explore optimal timing further; (2) Developing integrated models combining CTSI with physiologic parameters (e.g., SOFA scores) and biomarkers to improve specificity for organ failure and mortality; (3) Investigating dynamic CTSI trajectories via serial imaging to better correlate with evolving clinical courses. Additionally, comparative studies evaluating CTSI against emerging imaging biomarkers or revised scoring systems are warranted.

## Conclusion

CTSI exhibits distinct temporal predictive patterns: it demonstrates optimal sensitivity for severity assessment and organ failure prediction when performed early, within 48 h of admission; scans within 72 h best predict mortality, while delayed imaging ( $>72$  h) maximizes pancreatic necrosis accuracy at the expense of clinical timeliness. Future research must standardize imaging timepoints, integrate CTSI with physiological biomarkers, and develop dynamic assessment models to resolve discrepancies in anatomical-pathophysiological prognostic factors in AP.

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**Author contributions** Shan Huang: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Writing- Original draft, Data Curation. Xinwei Liu: Software, Data Curation, Writing- Reviewing and Editing. Longyan Zhu: Formal analysis, Visualization, Investigation. Kun Ai: Validation, Resources, Supervision. All authors commented on previous versions of

the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. Shan Huang and Xinwei Liu have contributed equally to this work and share first authorship.

**Data availability** No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

## Declarations

**Competing interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

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