



Neuroendocrine hepatic metastatic disease: the surgeon's perspective

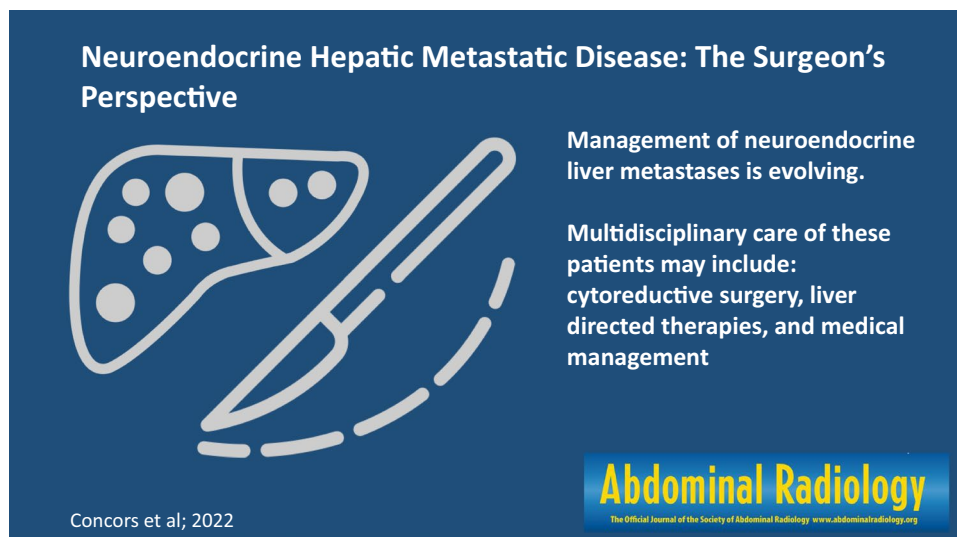
Seth J. Concors¹ · Jessica E. Maxwell¹

Received: 15 January 2022 / Revised: 15 March 2022 / Accepted: 28 March 2022 / Published online: 27 April 2022
© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2022

Abstract

Neuroendocrine tumors are a rare subset of tumors that are increasing in incidence over the last 4 decades. These tumors occur along the gastrointestinal tract and bronchopulmonary tree and frequently metastasize. Up to 90% of patients with gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumors develop liver metastases (NeLM) during their clinical course. The development of NeLM and their appropriate management has a profound impact on patient morbidity and mortality. Workup of NeLM involves biopsy to define tumor grade, cross-sectional imaging to delineate the distribution and number of metastases, and hormonal studies to determine tumor functionality. Depending on these three factors, a combination of cytoreductive surgery, liver-directed therapies, and medical management—with cytostatic and cytotoxic chemotherapies, is utilized. The multidisciplinary management of patients with NeLM should carefully consider all these factors.

Graphical Abstract



Keywords Neuroendocrine tumors · Liver · Metastatic · DOTATATE · Hepatectomy · Cytoreduction

Introduction

Neuroendocrine tumors (NETs) are a group of cancers originating from organs with high density of neuroendocrine cells, with highest frequency in the gastrointestinal tract and bronchopulmonary tree, respectively [1–3]. The overall incidence of NETs has increased over the last 4 decades, from 1.09 per 100,000 persons in 1973 to 6.98 per 100,000

✉ Jessica E. Maxwell
JMaxwell@MDAnderson.org

¹ Division of Surgery, Department of Surgical Oncology, MD Anderson Cancer Center, 1515 Holcombe Blvd., Houston, TX 77030, USA

persons in 2012 [2]. Several large population-based studies have suggested that rather than a true increase in incidence of NET, the increased diagnosis of these rare tumors may be due to increased incidental detection [4]. Tumors of gastroenteropancreatic origin frequently present with liver metastases at the time of diagnosis, between 35 and 95% in large series [2, 5–7]. Primary site of origin impacts the observed rates of these metastases; in retrospective series from specialized centers, approximately 80–90% of patients with small bowel NETs have liver metastases, compared to 60–70% with pancreas NETs [3, 6, 8]. Higher grade, based on KI-67 and/or mitotic count, is associated with risk of metastasis and overall survival [2, 9–12]. T classification, tumor differentiation, and nodal status also influence rates of metastasis [9, 13, 14].

The presence of neuroendocrine liver metastases (NeLM) can be associated with hormonal symptoms and significantly impacts survival. Five-year survival for patients with liver metastases is 13–54% compared to 75–99% without [15, 16]. Appropriate management of NeLM involves consideration of medical therapies (including cytostatic and cytotoxic agents) in combination with liver-directed therapy and/or surgical resection. Surgical resection, for the properly selected patient, represents the only possible cure for patients with NeLM. However, for those patients who do not have a resectable pattern of disease and those with recurrent disease, the optimal treatment paradigm is controversial. Given the complexity of these patients' management, multidisciplinary review at a high-volume center is suggested.

Evaluation of the patient with neuroendocrine liver metastases

There are three key factors in the surgical evaluation of a patient with NeLM: tumor pathology (grade and differentiation), assessment of the anatomic distribution and volume of disease, and determination of tumor hormonal status.

Tumor histopathology, specifically tumor grade and Ki-67, significantly impacts management. The WHO has updated the classification of neuroendocrine neoplasms starting in 2017 to differentiate between neuroendocrine tumors (well differentiated, G1, 2, or 3) and neuroendocrine carcinomas (poorly differentiated G3). Neuroendocrine carcinomas are associated with an aggressive phenotype and early, wide-spread metastases [17]. Suspicion of high-grade NET based on clinical features or imaging characteristics necessitates biopsy and histologic confirmation. Poorly differentiated tumors are initially managed with cytotoxic chemotherapy. Patients with well-differentiated G3 tumors may be candidates for resection of their primaries or metastases, but a period of observation of biology prior to proceeding to the operating room is often employed. In

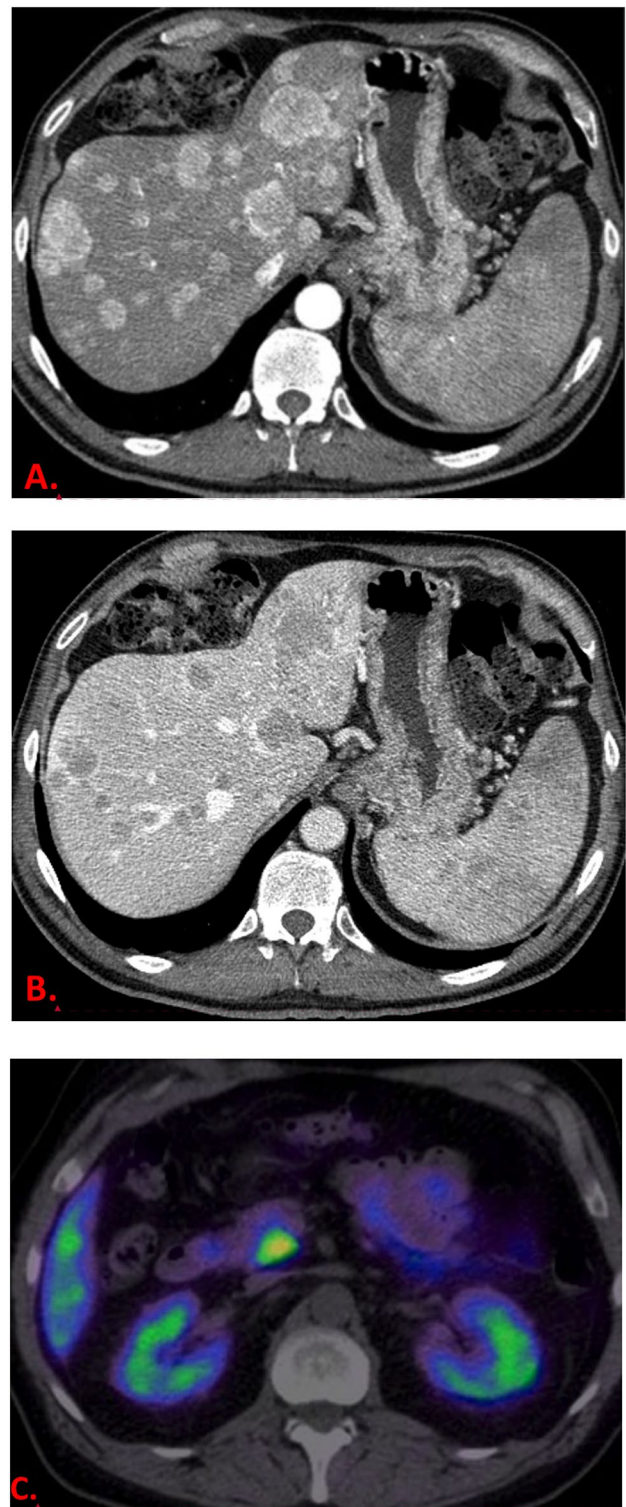


Fig. 1 Representative images of NeLM on CT in Arterial (A) and Portal Venous (B) phase as well as (C). DOTATATE scan demonstrating avidity in uncinate, which is physiologic

patients with well- or moderately differentiated grade 1 or 2 tumors, NeLM biopsy is controversial. In those patients with previously resected primary tumors, histologic examination of the primary tumor can provide important biologic insight. However, in the setting of synchronous presentation, where the diagnosis is otherwise apparent, biopsy may not be required [5, 15, 18]. If the primary site is unknown or grade is in question, imaging-guided liver biopsy, upper and lower endoscopy to identify the primary tumor, or endoscopic ultrasound guided biopsy may be indicated [18, 19].

Surgical evaluation of NeLM by cross-sectional imaging determines the extent of disease and in turn resectability. Contrast-enhanced CT scan or MRI provides vital information on tumor location, size, proximity to key vascular structures, and volumetry. MRI, particularly with hepatobiliary phase after intravenous gadoxetate disodium contrast injection, is very accurate in identifying NeLM [20, 21]. Somatostatin receptor imaging, specifically, gallium-68 DOTATATE, is highly sensitive and specific for NeLM and can serve as an important adjunct to CT or MRI for preoperative planning if hepatic lesions are indeterminate [22, 23]. It is not used as a stand-alone modality prior to an operation. DOTATATE imaging identifies previously occult hepatic lesions, and assesses somatostatin receptor positivity (which has implications for medical management), in addition to identifying unknown primary tumors [24]. National Comprehensive Cancer Network guidelines recommend combined contrast-enhanced cross-sectional imaging with DOTATATE [19]. Comparative studies between CT, MRI, and DOTATATE imaging exist; however, the choice of imaging modality depends largely on institutional/individual experience, ease of access, and cost [25]. In patients with suspected G2 and G3 NETs, particularly those with KI-67 > 12%, and neuroendocrine carcinomas, 18F-FDG PET/CT offers clinical prognostic ability—with 18F-FDG PET avidity reflecting more aggressive biology[26]. Representative images of NeLM on CT are shown in Fig. 1.

Assessment of liver volumetry—and in turn assessment of future liver remnant after potential resection, is vital. Future liver remnant of 20, 30, and 40% is needed for patients with normal livers, those who are undergone prolonged chemotherapy and cirrhotic patients[27, 28].

Cardiac involvement in metastatic NET predicts poor survival and does not follow a predictable clinical course [1, 29]. Manifesting as right ventricular failure or valvular dysfunction, carcinoid heart disease is thought to be due to progressive deposition of endocardial fibrous tissue [29]. Given this, transthoracic echocardiography and cardiology evaluation for valvular dysfunction are key in preoperative evaluation of these patients [29].

Chromogranin A, pancreastatin, and urinary 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA) are helpful biomarkers in metastatic NET and are used for prognostication and surveillance. Chromogranin A is the most commonly utilized test, with serum level correlating with disease burden and overall survival [30, 31]. Its levels can be affected by several common conditions and factors—renal dysfunction, hypertension, proton pump inhibitors, or a recent meal. For these reasons, it is being reconsidered as a standard part of the NET workup and surveillance strategy at numerous centers. Pancreastatin, a byproduct of chromogranin A cleavage, is not affected by the same factors as CgA and is thus considered a higher yield biomarker in NET. Its levels correlate with tumor burden, and levels may have utility in predicting recurrence, overall, and progression-free survival [32]. Serum serotonin and 5-HIAA are additional markers which may help in the clinical workup of the primary tumor once the diagnosis is confirmed, but have poor correlation with tumor burden and play a more dominant role in monitoring known disease[33]. Urinary 5-HIAA levels are also often obtained in the workup of carcinoid syndrome. For pancreas NET, hormonal evaluation should be guided by clinical symptoms and may include the evaluation of serum

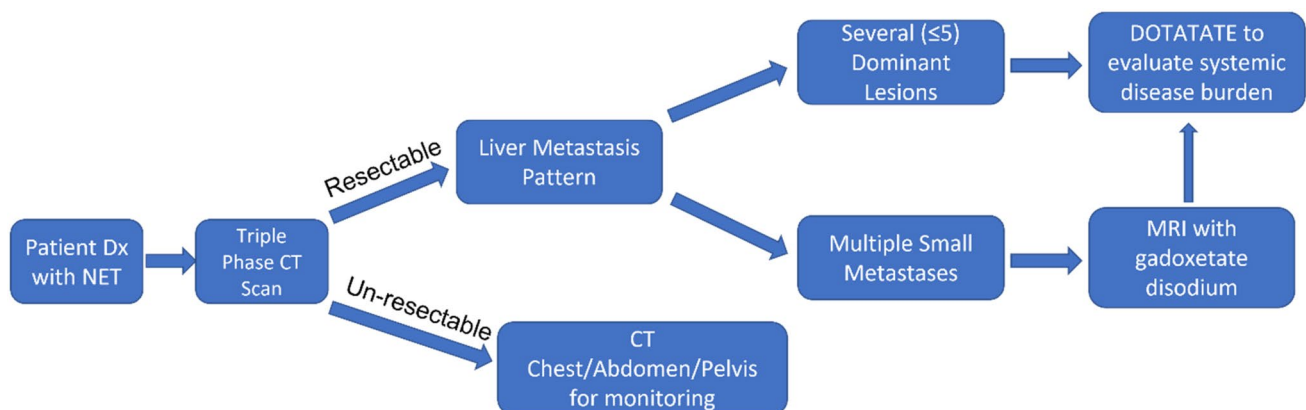


Fig. 2 Proposed imaging algorithm

gastrin, insulin, glucagon, VIP, somatostatin, or pancreatic polypeptide [15, 34, 35].

Our Approach Careful appraisal of cross-sectional imaging is key to the surgical evaluation of these patients. In our practice, a liver-protocol CT is the imaging study of choice, followed by MRI for better delineation of indeterminate lesions. For both studies, synoptic templated reporting of each NeLM, including degree of steatosis, tumor location, size, and % change of NeLM is extremely useful. Broad terms such as “multiple” or “innumerable” are imprecise, and our preference is to avoid their use, supplanting a more thorough reporting of lesions. Despite the large number of lesions which may be present, a careful accounting of each lesion—particularly in patients who are surgical candidates—is vital to ensure thorough intraoperative evaluation. This approach to reporting may differ from other hepatic malignancies due to the difference in surgical strategy. In NeLM, great emphasis is placed on parenchymal sparing approaches (i.e., individual treatment of each metastasis versus anatomic resection of multiple hepatic segments) and thus an accounting of each lesion is crucial to determining resectability.

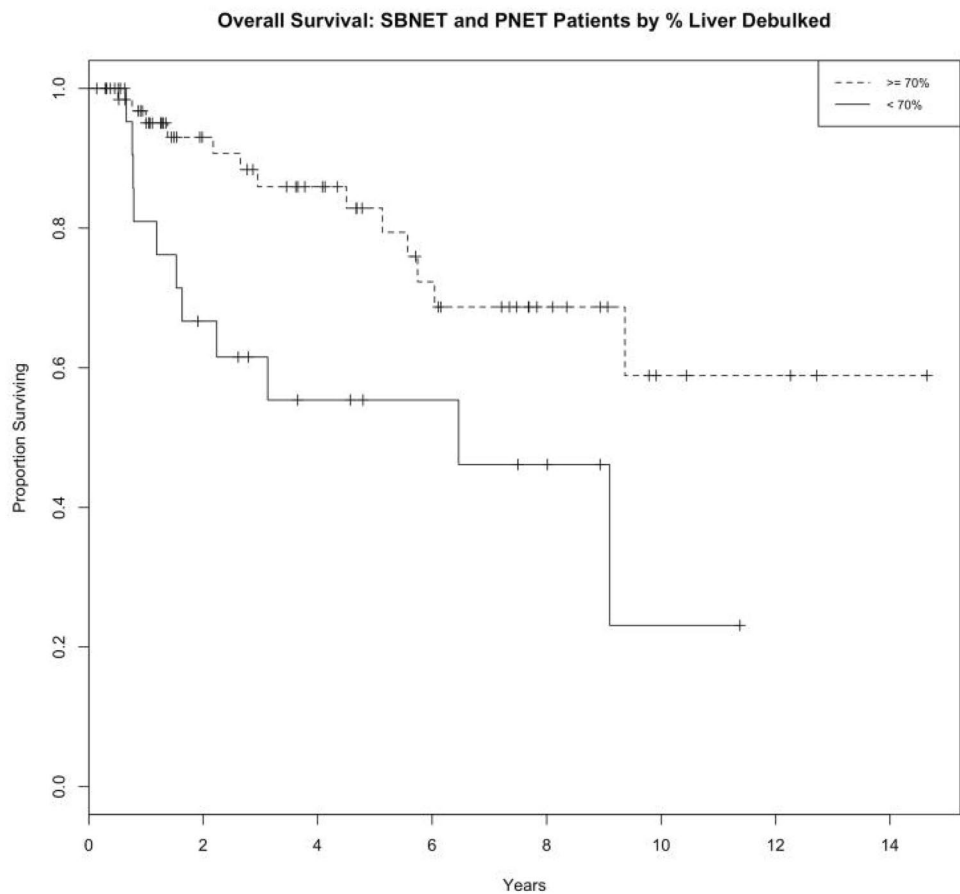
We find DOTATATE is particularly helpful in identifying previously unknown NeLM, as well as occult primaries. It

is not routinely ordered if the patient’s primary tumor has already been resected and preoperative staging prior to liver cytoreduction is of high quality and without suspicious lesions. We scrutinize DOTATATE avidity at the uncinate process and in the tail of the pancreas, as these may represent physiologic findings or accessory spleen, respectively (Fig. 1). Our imaging algorithm is demonstrated in Fig. 2.

Surgical treatment of neuroendocrine liver metastases

Resection of NeLM is the mainstay of treatment for the appropriately selected patient. Surgical resection both decreases tumor-related hormonal burden and improves survival [4, 17]. Retrospective single- and multi-center studies have shown a survival benefit associated with an aggressive surgical approach. In addition, five- and ten-year survival after liver resection for NeLM is 46–86% and 35–79%, respectively [6, 16, 36, 37]. As this evidence is retrospective and limited to highly selected patients, the generalizability of these data remains controversial. Two Cochrane reviews noted no randomized clinical trials exist demonstrating the

Fig. 3 Improved overall survival with $\geq 70\%$ cytoreduction, relative to $< 70\%$. Adapted from Maxwell et al., 2016



survival benefit of NeLM resection, either in terms of complete resection or debulking [38, 39].

Further controversy exists regarding the benefit of non-complete (i.e., cytoreductive/debulking) surgical resection. Retrospective series demonstrate that cytoreduction of 90% or 70% may lead to improvement in symptoms and survival [6, 16, 36, 40–42]. In one contemporary series, 108 patients underwent liver debulking for metastatic pancreas or small bowel NET, both progression-free survival and overall survival were improved in the overall cohort with $\geq 70\%$ cytoreduction, relative to $< 70\%$ (Fig. 3) [43]. Both the North American Neuroendocrine Tumor Society (NANETS) and European Neuroendocrine Tumor Society (ENETS) recommend individualizing treatment, with consideration of cytoreductive surgery [18, 44].

While effective cytoreduction provides the most immediate decrease in tumor burden, it is clear that the majority of patients will recur by 5 years, with a median reported recurrence of 16–20 months [16, 36]. The high rate of recurrence may in part be related to under appreciation of the true burden of disease by preoperative imaging. Elias et al. compared the number of NeLM identified on cross-sectional imaging to those found on final thin-slice pathology and found roughly half were unappreciated preoperatively [45]. Despite near uniform NeLM recurrence, surgical resection improves symptoms and survival and may “reset the clock” in patients’ overall disease course.

Liver transplantation has been performed for diffuse NeLM in highly selected patients [46, 47]. Several guidelines exist to define the role of liver transplantation in NeLM and include previous resection of the primary tumor, low grade tumor (G1/G2), and $< 50\%$ involvement of the liver parenchyma [48]. In one retrospective analysis, 5-year survival of liver transplant for NeLM was 60–80% [49]. Transplant for NeLM has not been widely adopted, likely due to limited organ supply, and remains relegated to highly specialized centers.

Non-surgical liver-directed therapy with ablation and intra-arterial techniques is also utilized for NeLM. Thermal ablation, most commonly microwave or radiofrequency, is most appropriately utilized for lesions < 2 cm with adequate distance from important vasculature [50, 51]. Ablation can be performed percutaneously or laparoscopically and may also be combined with surgical resection when technically feasible. Small series have reported durable tumor control with laparoscopic ablative techniques alone in selected patients—59% 10-year overall survival in a study of 129 patients with 770 tumors [52].

Trans-arterial bland embolization (TAE), chemoembolization (TACE), and radioembolization (TARE) are also utilized in carefully selected patients. Mayo et al., in a propensity matched analysis, demonstrated improved symptomatic control from surgical resection compared

to embolotherapy (combined cohort of TAE, TACE, and TARE) in patients with low volume of disease, or with symptoms related to hormone excess [53]. Intra-arterial therapy is associated with a decrease in tumor burden by approximately 50% and is a good choice for patients with high-volume disease, although the ordering of these therapies among the other choices for metastatic NET and their relative efficacies to one another is unknown. In an attempt to answer the latter question, a multi-center randomized clinical trial (RETNET) is currently ongoing in patients with unresectable NeLM comparing the efficacy of TAE, TACE with conventional injection of lipiodol and TACE utilizing drug-eluting doxorubicin microspheres [54]. The drug-eluting arm of this study has been closed due to 4/10 patients experiencing severe toxicity. Further studies are ongoing combining systemic therapy with TARE in Grade 2 NeLM [55]. Combining or sequencing liver-directed therapy and surgical cytoreduction for NeLM is also frequently performed, though there are no prospective trials examining this approach.

Our approach Surgical resection is offered to those patients for whom we can safely treat 70% or more of the tumor volume. Small, indeterminate lesions or those few situated near vital structures that could require major hepatectomy are often the types of lesions knowingly left behind. In patients with bilateral metastases, this estimation can be challenging. In retrospective surgical series, this level of debulking often correlates with a median overall hepatic replacement by tumor of 10–20%. Although our goal is typically clearance of all gross disease, a 70% clearance rate may be especially appropriate in patients with functional tumors. Resection alone, or resection with ablation (either intraoperative or percutaneous imaging guided), is used to debulk the liver. Importantly, careful consideration is taken to parenchymal sparing approaches, including enucleation when possible, given the high rate of concomitant micro-metastatic disease among these patients [56] and the near-inevitability of recurrence in a population that frequently succumbs to liver failure.

Medical management and emerging trends

Cytostatic agents and cytotoxic chemotherapy are the first-line medical therapies in patients with unresectable NeLM. Treatment with somatostatin analogues (SSA) is the cornerstone of medical management for metastatic Grade 1 and 2 NETs. The randomized, placebo-controlled PROMID trial demonstrated prolonged time to tumor progression in patients with midgut metastatic NET after administration of long-acting octreotide (66.7% v. 37.2% stable disease at 6 months) [57]. The CLARINET trial

randomized 204 patients with metastatic grade 1 or 2 midgut NETs, demonstrating similar results; progression-free survival was 65.1% in the long-acting octreotide cohort, versus 33.0% in the placebo cohort at 24 months [58]. Regardless of formulation, SSAs provide cytostatic and hormonal disease control.

Cytotoxic therapy differs based on primary site of origin. In patients with high volume, rapidly progressing, or high-grade pancreatic NET disease, cytotoxic chemotherapy with capecitabine/temozolomide is the preferred regimen based on the ECOG 2211 study [59]. Everolimus, an mTOR inhibitor, has also shown to improve progression-free survival in advanced low- or intermediate-grade pancreatic NET [60]. Combined preoperative treatment with fluorouracil, doxorubicin, and streptozocin prior to hepatic resection in metastatic pancreatic NET has also shown to improve overall survival [61]. Tyrosine kinase inhibitors, including sunitinib, have shown efficacy in metastatic pancreas and small bowel NET, with many currently enrolling clinical trials [62, 63].

¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE peptide receptor radionuclide therapy (PRRT) is an emerging therapy, with favorable outcomes particularly in patients with midgut NET who have progressed on SSA therapy. The NETTER-1 trial, evaluating grade 1 and 2 midgut NET with metastatic or locally progressive NET on SSA, demonstrated 18% response rate in the PRRT group compared to 3% with high-dose octreotide. Recent guidelines from NANETS suggest the use of PRRT in progressive small bowel and pancreatic NETs [64]. The NETTER-2 trial is currently enrolling, comparing combined PRRT and long-acting SSA to SSA alone in patients with G2 and G3 advanced gastrointestinal NET.

Conclusion

With increasing frequency and predilection for the development of liver metastasis, more providers will be faced with the management of NeLM. Surgical cytoreduction combined with cytostatic and cytotoxic therapies can provide durable symptom relief and survival benefit. Further research comparing specific liver-directed therapies, and sequencing of medical therapy are ongoing.

Author contributions Seth Concors performed the literature search and data analysis and drafted the work. Jessica Maxwell had the idea for the article and helped draft/critically revise the manuscript.

Funding None.

Data availability Not Applicable.

Code availability Not applicable.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors did not receive support from any organization for the submitted work.

Ethical approval Not applicable.

Consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

References

1. Modlin IM, Lye KD, Kidd M. A 5-decade analysis of 13,715 carcinoid tumors. *Cancer* 2003;97:934–59. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.11105>.
2. Dasari A, Shen C, Halperin D, Zhao B, Zhou S, Xu Y, et al. Trends in the Incidence, Prevalence, and Survival Outcomes in Patients With Neuroendocrine Tumors in the United States. *JAMA Oncol* 2017;3:1335–42. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2017.0589>.
3. Yao JC, Hassan M, Phan A, Dagohoy C, Leary C, Mares JE, et al. One hundred years after “carcinoid”: epidemiology of and prognostic factors for neuroendocrine tumors in 35,825 cases in the United States. *J Clin Oncol* 2008;26:3063–72. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2007.15.4377>.
4. Hallet J, Law CHL, Cukier M, Saskin R, Liu N, Singh S. Exploring the rising incidence of neuroendocrine tumors: A population-based analysis of epidemiology, metastatic presentation, and outcomes. *Cancer* 2015;121:589–97. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.29099>.
5. Howe JR, Cardona K, Fraker DL, Kebebew E, Untch BR, Wang Y-Z, et al. The Surgical Management of Small Bowel Neuroendocrine Tumors: Consensus Guidelines of the North American Neuroendocrine Tumor Society (NANETS). *Pancreas* 2017;46:715–31. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPA.0000000000000846>.
6. Saxena A, Chua TC, Perera M, Chu F, Morris DL. Surgical resection of hepatic metastases from neuroendocrine neoplasms: A systematic review. *Surgical Oncology* 2012;21:e131–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.suronc.2012.05.001>.
7. Fairweather M, Swanson R, Wang J, Brais LK, Dutton T, Kulke MH, et al. Management of Neuroendocrine Tumor Liver Metastases: Long-Term Outcomes and Prognostic Factors from a Large Prospective Database. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2017;24:2319–25. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-017-5839-x>.
8. Garcia-Carbonero R, Capdevila J, Crespo-Herrero G, Díaz-Pérez JA, Martínez Del Prado MP, Alonso Orduña V, et al. Incidence, patterns of care and prognostic factors for outcome of gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumors (GEP-NETs): results from the National Cancer Registry of Spain (RGETNE). *Ann Oncol* 2010;21:1794–803. <https://doi.org/10.1093/annonc/mdq022>.
9. Cai W, Tan Y, Ge W, Ding K, Hu H. Pattern and risk factors for distant metastases in gastrointestinal neuroendocrine neoplasms: a population-based study. *Cancer Med* 2018;7:2699–709. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cam4.1507>.
10. Kim JY, Hong S-M. Recent Updates on Neuroendocrine Tumors From the Gastrointestinal and Pancreatobiliary Tracts. *Archives of Pathology & Laboratory Medicine* 2016;140:437–48. <https://doi.org/10.5858/arpa.2015-0314-RA>.

11. Trikalinos NA, Tan BR, Amin M, Liu J, Govindan R, Morgensztern D. Effect of metastatic site on survival in patients with neuroendocrine neoplasms (NENs). An analysis of SEER data from 2010 to 2014. *BMC Endocrine Disorders* 2020;20:44. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12902-020-0525-6>.
12. Ekeblad S, Skogseid B, Dunder K, Öberg K, Eriksson B. Prognostic Factors and Survival in 324 Patients with Pancreatic Endocrine Tumor Treated at a Single Institution. *Clin Cancer Res* 2008;14:7798–803. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-08-0734>.
13. Rindi G, D'Adda T, Froio E, Fellegara G, Bordi C. Prognostic Factors in Gastrointestinal Endocrine Tumors. *Endocr Pathol* 2007;18:145–9. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12022-007-0020-x>.
14. Konishi T, Watanabe T, Kishimoto J, Kotake K, Muto T, Nagawa H. Prognosis and risk factors of metastasis in colorectal carcinoids: results of a nationwide registry over 15 years. *Gut* 2007;56:863–8. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gut.2006.109157>.
15. Frilling A, Modlin IM, Kidd M, Russell C, Breitenstein S, Salem R, et al. Recommendations for management of patients with neuroendocrine liver metastases. *The Lancet Oncology* 2014;15:e8–21. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045\(13\)70362-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045(13)70362-0).
16. Mayo SC, Jong MC de, Pulitano C, Clary BM, Reddy SK, Gambin TC, et al. Surgical Management of Hepatic Neuroendocrine Tumor Metastasis: Results from an International Multi-Institutional Analysis. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2010;17:3129–36. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-010-1154-5>.
17. Sorbye H, Strosberg J, Baudin E, Klimstra DS, Yao JC. Gastroenteropancreatic high-grade neuroendocrine carcinoma. *Cancer* 2014;120:2814–23. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.28721>.
18. Howe JR, Merchant NB, Conrad C, Keutgen XM, Hallet J, Drebin JA, et al. The North American Neuroendocrine Tumor Society Consensus Paper on the Surgical Management of Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *Pancreas* 2020;49:1–33. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPA.0000000000001454>.
19. National Comprehensive Cancer Network. Neuroendocrine Tumors (Version 1.2021) n.d. https://www.nccn.org/professionals/physician_gls/pdf/neuroendocrine.pdf (accessed May 2, 2021).
20. Tirumani SH, Jagannathan JP, Braschi-Amirfarzan M, Qin L, Balthazar P, Ramaiya NH, et al. Value of hepatocellular phase imaging after intravenous gadoxetate disodium for assessing hepatic metastases from gastroenteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumors: comparison with other MRI pulse sequences and with extracellular agent. *Abdom Radiol (NY)* 2018;43:2329–39. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00261-018-1496-1>.
21. Morse B, Jeong D, Thomas K, Diallo D, Strosberg JR. Magnetic Resonance Imaging of Neuroendocrine Tumor Hepatic Metastases: Does Hepatobiliary Phase Imaging Improve Lesion conspicuity and Interobserver Agreement of Lesion Measurements? *Pancreas* 2017;46:1219–24. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPA.0000000000000920>.
22. Sundin A, Arnold R, Baudin E, Cwikla JB, Eriksson B, Fanti S, et al. ENETS Consensus Guidelines for the Standards of Care in Neuroendocrine Tumors: Radiological, Nuclear Medicine and Hybrid Imaging. *NEN* 2017;105:212–44. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000471879>.
23. Tirosh A, Kebebew E. The utility of 68Ga-DOTATATE positron-emission tomography/computed tomography in the diagnosis, management, follow-up and prognosis of neuroendocrine tumors. *Future Oncol* 2018;14:111–22. <https://doi.org/10.2217/fon-2017-0393>.
24. Frilling A, Sotiropoulos GC, Radtke A, Malago M, Bockisch A, Kuehl H, et al. The Impact of 68Ga-DOTATOC Positron Emission Tomography/Computed Tomography on the Multimodal Management of Patients With Neuroendocrine Tumors. *Annals of Surgery* 2010;252:850–6. <https://doi.org/10.1097/SLA.0b013e3181fd37e8>.
25. Granata V, Fusco R, Setola SV, Castelguidone E de L di, Camera L, Tafuto S, et al. The Multidisciplinary Team for Gastroenteropancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumours: The Radiologist's Challenge. *Radiol Oncol* 2019;53:373–87. <https://doi.org/10.2478/raon-2019-0040>.
26. Panagiotidis E, Alshammari A, Michopoulou S, Skoura E, Naik K, Maragkoudakis E, et al. Comparison of the Impact of 68Ga-DOTATATE and 18F-FDG PET/CT on Clinical Management in Patients with Neuroendocrine Tumors. *J Nucl Med* 2017;58:91–6. <https://doi.org/10.2967/jnumed.116.178095>.
27. Vauthey JN, Chaoui A, Do KA, Bilimoria MM, Fenstermacher MJ, Charnsangavej C, et al. Standardized measurement of the future liver remnant prior to extended liver resection: methodology and clinical associations. *Surgery* 2000;127:512–9. <https://doi.org/10.1067/msy.2000.105294>.
28. Thirunavukarasu P, Aloia TA. Preoperative Assessment and Optimization of the Future Liver Remnant. *Surgical Clinics of North America* 2016;96:197–205. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.suc.2015.11.001>.
29. Castillo JG, Naib T, Zacks JS, Adams DH. Echocardiography in functional midgut neuroendocrine tumors: When and how often. *Rev Endocr Metab Disord* 2017;18:411–21. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s1154-017-9434-z>.
30. Concors SJ, Sinnamon AJ, Ecker BL, Metz DC, Vollmer CM, Fraker DL, et al. The impact of surgery for metastatic pancreatic neuroendocrine tumor: a contemporary evaluation matching for chromogranin a level. *HPB (Oxford)* 2020;22:83–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hpb.2019.05.011>.
31. Arnold R, Wilke A, Rinke A, Mayer C, Kann PH, Klose K, et al. Plasma Chromogranin A as Marker for Survival in Patients With Metastatic Endocrine Gastroenteropancreatic Tumors. *Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology* 2008;6:820–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cgh.2008.02.052>.
32. Tran CG, Sherman SK, Scott AT, Ear PH, Chandrasekharan C, Bellizzi AM, et al. It Is Time to Rethink Biomarkers for Surveillance of Small Bowel Neuroendocrine Tumors. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2021;28:732–41. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-020-08784-0>.
33. Anthony LB, Strosberg JR, Klimstra DS, Maples WJ, O'Doriso TM, Warner RRP, et al. The NANETS Consensus Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Gastrointestinal Neuroendocrine Tumors (NETs): Well-Differentiated NETs of the Distal Colon and Rectum. *Pancreas* 2010;39:767–74. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPA.0b013e3181ec1261>.
34. Foster DS, Jensen R, Norton JA. Management of Liver Neuroendocrine Tumors in 2018. *JAMA Oncology* 2018;4:1605–6. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoncol.2018.3035>.
35. Halfdanarson TR, Strosberg JR, Tang L, Bellizzi AM, Bergsland EK, O'Doriso TM, et al. The North American Neuroendocrine Tumor Society Consensus Guidelines for Surveillance and Medical Management of Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *Pancreas* 2020;49:863–81. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPA.0000000000001597>.
36. Sarmiento JM, Heywood G, Rubin J, Ilstrup DM, Nagorney DM, Que FG. Surgical treatment of neuroendocrine metastases to the liver: a plea for resection to increase survival. *J Am Coll Surg* 2003;197:29–37. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1072-7515\(03\)00230-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1072-7515(03)00230-8).
37. Norlén O, Hessman O, Stålberg P, Akerström G, Hellman P. Prophylactic cholecystectomy in midgut carcinoid patients. *World J Surg* 2010;34:1361–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00268-010-0428-1>.
38. Gurusamy KS, Ramamoorthy R, Sharma D, Davidson BR. Liver resection versus other treatments for neuroendocrine tumours in patients with resectable liver metastases. *Cochrane Database Syst*

- Rev 2009;CD007060. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD007060.pub2>.
39. Gurusamy KS, Pamecha V, Sharma D, Davidson BR. Palliative cytoreductive surgery versus other palliative treatments in patients with unresectable liver metastases from gastro-enteropancreatic neuroendocrine tumours. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2009;CD007118. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD007118.pub2>.
 40. Que FG, Nagorney DM, Batts KP, Linz LJ, Kvols LK. Hepatic resection for metastatic neuroendocrine carcinomas. *The American Journal of Surgery* 1995;169:36–43. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9610\(99\)80107-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9610(99)80107-X).
 41. Scott AT, Breheny PJ, Keck KJ, Bellizzi AM, Dillon JS, O'Dorisio TM, et al. Effective cytoreduction can be achieved in patients with numerous neuroendocrine tumor liver metastases (NETLMs). *Surgery* 2019;165:166–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surg.2018.04.070>.
 42. Glazer ES, Tseng JF, Al-Refaie W, Solorzano CC, Liu P, Willborn KA, et al. Long-term survival after surgical management of neuroendocrine hepatic metastases. *HPB* 2010;12:427–33. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1477-2574.2010.00198.x>.
 43. Maxwell JE, Sherman SK, O'Dorisio TM, Bellizzi AM, Howe JR. Liver-directed surgery of neuroendocrine metastases: What is the optimal strategy? *Surgery* 2016;159:320–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surg.2015.05.040>.
 44. Partelli S, Bartsch DK, Capdevila J, Chen J, Knigge U, Niederle B, et al. ENETS Consensus Guidelines for Standard of Care in Neuroendocrine Tumours: Surgery for Small Intestinal and Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumours. *Neuroendocrinology* 2017;105:255–65. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000464292>.
 45. Elias D, Lefevre JH, Duvillard P, Goéré D, Dromain C, Dumont F, et al. Hepatic Metastases From Neuroendocrine Tumors With a “Thin Slice” Pathological Examination: They are Many More Than You Think *Annals of Surgery* 2010;251:307–10. <https://doi.org/10.1097/SLA.0b013e3181bdf8cf>.
 46. Moris D, Tsilimigras DI, Ntanasis-Stathopoulos I, Beal EW, Felekouras E, Vernadakis S, et al. Liver transplantation in patients with liver metastases from neuroendocrine tumors: A systematic review. *Surgery* 2017;162:525–36. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surg.2017.05.006>.
 47. Mazzaferro V, Pulvirenti A, Coppa J. Neuroendocrine tumors metastatic to the liver: How to select patients for liver transplantation? *Journal of Hepatology* 2007;47:460–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2007.07.004>.
 48. Gangi A, Howe JR. The Landmark Series: Neuroendocrine Tumor Liver Metastases. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2020;27:3270–80. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-020-08787-x>.
 49. Fan ST, Treut YPL, Mazzaferro V, Burroughs AK, Olausson M, Breitenstein S, et al. Liver transplantation for neuroendocrine tumour liver metastases. *HPB* 2015;17:23–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/hpb.12308>.
 50. D'Souza D, Goltzarian J, Young S. Interventional Liver-Directed Therapy for Neuroendocrine Metastases: Current Status and Future Directions. *Curr Treat Options Oncol* 2020;21:52. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11864-020-00751-x>.
 51. Perrodi SF, Renzulli MM, Maurer MH, Kim-Fuchs C, Candinas D, Beldi G, et al. Can Microwave Ablation be an Alternative to Resection for the Treatment of Neuroendocrine Liver Metastases? *Endocrine Practice* 2020;26:378–87. <https://doi.org/10.4158/EP-2019-0394>.
 52. Kose E, Kahramangil B, Aydin H, Donmez M, Takahashi H, Aucejo F, et al. Outcomes of laparoscopic tumor ablation for neuroendocrine liver metastases: a 20-year experience. *Surg Endosc* 2020;34:249–56. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00464-019-06759-1>.
 53. Mayo SC, de Jong MC, Bloomston M, Pulitano C, Clary BM, Reddy SK, et al. Surgery Versus Intra-arterial Therapy for Neuroendocrine Liver Metastasis: A Multicenter International Analysis. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2011;18:3657–65. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-011-1832-y>.
 54. Chen JX, Wileyto EP, Soulen MC. Randomized Embolization Trial for NeuroEndocrine Tumor Metastases to the Liver (RETNET): study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Trials* 2018;19:390. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-018-2782-5>.
 55. Soulen MC, van Houten D, Teitelbaum UR, Damjanov N, Cengel KA, Metz DC. Safety and Feasibility of Integrating Yttrium-90 Radioembolization With Capecitabine-Temozolomide for Grade 2 Liver-Dominant Metastatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *Pancreas* 2018;47:980–4. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPA.0000000000001115>.
 56. Fossmark R, Balto TM, Martinsen TC, Grønbech JE, Munkvold B, Mjønes PG, et al. Hepatic micrometastases outside macrometastases are present in all patients with ileal neuroendocrine primary tumour at the time of liver resection. *Scandinavian Journal of Gastroenterology* 2019;54:1003–7. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00365521.2019.1647281>.
 57. Rinke A, Müller H-H, Schade-Brittinger C, Klose K-J, Barth P, Wied M, et al. Placebo-controlled, double-blind, prospective, randomized study on the effect of octreotide LAR in the control of tumor growth in patients with metastatic neuroendocrine midgut tumors: a report from the PROMID Study Group. *J Clin Oncol* 2009;27:4656–63. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2009.22.8510>.
 58. Caplin ME, Pavel M, Ćwikła JB, Phan AT, Raderer M, Sedláčková E, et al. Lanreotide in Metastatic Enteropancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2014;371:224–33. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1316158>.
 59. Fine RL, Gulati AP, Tsumima D, Mowatt KB, Oprescu A, Bruce JN, et al. Prospective phase II study of capecitabine and temozolomide (CAPTEM) for progressive, moderately, and well-differentiated metastatic neuroendocrine tumors. *JCO* 2014;32:179–179. https://doi.org/10.1200/jco.2014.32.3_suppl.179.
 60. Yao JC, Shah MH, Ito T, Bohas CL, Wolin EM, Van Cutsem E, et al. Everolimus for Advanced Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *N Engl J Med* 2011;364:514–23. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1009290>.
 61. Cloyd JM, Omichi K, Mizuno T, Kawaguchi Y, Tzeng C-WD, Conrad C, et al. Preoperative Fluorouracil, Doxorubicin, and Streptozocin for the Treatment of Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Liver Metastases. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2018;25:1709–15. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-018-6468-8>.
 62. Raymond E, Dahan L, Raoul J-L, Bang Y-J, Borbath I, Lombard-Bohas C, et al. Sunitinib Malate for the Treatment of Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2011;364:501–13. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1003825>.
 63. Grillo F, Florio T, Ferrà F, Kara E, Fanciulli G, Faggiano A, et al. Emerging multitarget tyrosine kinase inhibitors in the treatment of neuroendocrine neoplasms. *Endocr Relat Cancer* 2018;25:R453–66. <https://doi.org/10.1530/ERC-17-0531>.
 64. Hope TA, Bodei L, Chan JA, El-Haddad G, Fidelman N, Kunz PL, et al. NANETS/SNMMI Consensus Statement on Patient Selection and Appropriate Use of ¹⁷⁷Lu-DOTATATE Peptide Receptor Radionuclide Therapy. *Journal of Nuclear Medicine* 2020;61:222–7. <https://doi.org/10.2967/jnumed.119.240911>.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.