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Quantitative Epileptiform Burden and Electroencephalography Background Features Predict Post-traumatic Epilepsy

Yilun Chen, MS1, **Songlu Li, MS**1, **Wendong Ge, PhD**2, **Jin Jing, PhD**2, **Hsin Yi Chen, BS**1, **Daniel Doherty, BA**1, **Alison Herman, BA**1, **Safa Kaleem, MD, MHS**3, **Kan Ding, MD**4, **Gamaleldin Osman, MD**5, **Christa B. Swisher, MD**3, **Christine Smith, MD**6, **Carolina B. Maciel, MD**1,6, **Ayham Alkhachroum, MD**7,8, **Jong Woo Lee, MD, PhD**9, **Monica B. Dhakar, MD**10, **Emily J. Gilmore, MD, MS**1, **Adithya Sivaraju, MD**1, **Lawrence J. Hirsch, MD**1, **Sacit B. Omay, MD**11, **Hal Blumenfeld, MD, PhD**1, **Kevin N. Sheth, MD**1, **Aaron F. Struck, MD**12,13, **Brian L. Edlow, MD**2, **M. Brandon Westover, MD, PhD**2, **Jennifer A. Kim, MD, PhD**¹

^{1.} Department of Neurology, Yale School of Medicine, New Haven, CT, USA

- ^{2.} Department of Neurology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA
- ^{3.} Department of Neurology, Duke University School of Medicine, Durham, NC, USA
- 4. Department of Neurology, UT Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA
- 5. Department of Neurology, Henry Ford Health System, Detroit, MI, USA
- 6. Department of Neurology, University of Florida College of Medicine, Gainesville, FL, USA
- 7. Department of Neurology, University of Miami Miller School of Medicine, Miami, FL, USA
- 8. Department of Neurology, Jackson Memorial Hospital, Miami, FL, USA
- 9. Department of Neurology, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA
- ^{10.} Department of Neurology, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA
- 11. Department of Neurosurgery, Yale School of Medicine, New Haven, CT, USA

^{12.} Department of Neurology, University of Wisconsin-Madison School of Medicine and Public Health, Madison, WI, USA

13. William S Middleton Memorial Veterans Hospital, Madison, WI, USA

Abstract

Background: Post-traumatic epilepsy (PTE) is a severe complication of traumatic brain injury (TBI). Electroencephalography aids early post-traumatic seizure diagnosis, but its optimal utility

COMPETING INTERESTS Nothing to report.

Corresponding Author: Jennifer A. Kim, MD, PhD, Department of Neurology, Yale School of Medicine, P.O. Box 208018, New Haven, CT 06520, USA. jennifer.a.kim@yale.edu; Tel: (203)-785-7171. **CONTRIBUTORS**

YC, JAK, MBW, and EJG contributed to the study design. SL, HYC, DD, AH, SK, KD, GO, CBS, CS, CBM, AA, JWL, MBD, EJG, AS, LJH, SBO, HB, KNS, AFS, BLE, MBW, and JAK contributed to data acquisition. YC, SL, WG, JJ, MBW, and JAK contributed to data analysis. YC, JAK, EJG, HB and MBW contributed to drafting and revising the manuscript. All authors contributed to editing and approval of the manuscript.

for PTE prediction remains unknown. We aim to evaluate the contribution of quantitative electroencephalograms to predict first-year PTE $(PTE₁)$.

Methods: We performed a multicenter, retrospective case-control study of TBI patients. 63 PTE₁ patients were matched with 63 non-PTE₁ patients by admission Glasgow Coma Scale score, age, and sex. We evaluated the association of quantitative electroencephalography features with $PTE₁$ using logistic regressions and examined their predictive value relative to TBI mechanism and Computed Tomography abnormalities.

Results: In the matched cohort (n=126), greater epileptiform burden, suppression burden and beta variability were associated with 4.6 times higher $PTE₁$ risk based on multivariable logistic regression analysis (area under the receiver-operating-characteristic curve, AUC [95% CI], 0.69 [0.60–0.78]). Among 116 (92%) patients with available Computed Tomography reports, adding quantitative electroencephalography features to a combined mechanism and Computed Tomography model improved performance (AUC [95% CI], 0.71 [0.61–0.80] vs 0.61 [0.51– 0.72]).

Conclusions: Epileptiform and spectral characteristics enhance covariates identified on TBI admission and Computed Tomography abnormalities in $PTE₁$ prediction. Future trials should incorporate quantitative electroencephalography features to validate this enhancement of PTE risk stratification models.

INTRODUCTION

Post-traumatic epilepsy (PTE) is a devastating consequence of traumatic brain injury (TBI). Early stratification of PTE risk in TBI patients would facilitate targeted enrollment into anti-epileptogenesis treatment trials.¹

While electroencephalography (EEG) is recommended to detect early post-TBI electrographic seizures $(ESZs)²$ whether and how it benefits later PTE prediction remains unclear.^{1,3,4} Early investigations suggest that classifying post-TBI (<3 month) EEG into normal/abnormal may not differentiate PTE risk.³ Recently, we found that the presence of epileptiform abnormalities (EAs, i.e., ESZs, sporadic epileptiform discharges [EDs], lateralized or generalized periodic discharges [LPDs, GPDs], lateralized rhythmic delta activity [LRDA]) and focal polymorphic slowing <1 month post-TBI is associated with firstyear PTE (PTE₁).¹ Yet, accessible quantitative EEG (QEEG) tools^{5–8} remain unexplored in quantifying abnormalities¹ relevant to PTE₁.

Here, we propose a quantification scheme to automatically calculate QEEG characteristics 14 days post-TBI. We aim to evaluate the contribution of quantitative epileptiform and spectral features to $PTE₁$ prediction beyond covariates identifiable on TBI admission and initial Computed Tomography (CT) head abnormalities.^{1,9–11}

METHODS

In this case-control study, we collected data from nine centers of the Critical Care EEG Monitoring Research Consortium: Yale School of Medicine (New Haven, CT), Brigham and Women's Hospital (Boston, MA), Duke University Medical Center (Durham, NC), Emory

School of Medicine (Atlanta, GA), Henry Ford Health System (Detroit, MI), Massachusetts General Hospital (Boston, MA), University of Florida Health (Gainesville, FL), University of Miami School of Medicine/Jackson Memorial Health System (Miami, FL), and UT Southwestern Medical Center (Dallas, TX) between 2012 and 2019. The Institutional Review Board per center approved the study protocol (IRB#: 1405014045) and granted consent waivers because the study was retrospective.

Participants

TBI patients were included retrospectively if age 18 years, no seizure/epilepsy history, EEG monitoring data 14 days post-TBI, and 12 -month follow-up or developed PTE₁. Patients were excluded per signal quality inspection (Online Supplemental Methods I). Amongst included patients, one-to-one case-control (PTE_1 vs non- PTE_1) match was performed based on admission Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) score, age, and sex (Online Supplemental Methods II).

Outcome and Exposures

We defined PTE₁ according to our prior publication¹ as an unprovoked seizure $1-12$ months post-TBI. Eligible patients in this study commonly had protracted hospital courses. Hence a seizure >7 days post-TBI but during the acute hospitalization was likely provoked by subsequent complications.11 EEGs (21 channel, 10–20 system) were recorded for clinical indication.

Predictors

We recorded from CT reports the presence of intraparenchymal, subdural, subarachnoid, epidural hemorrhage (IPH, SDH, SAH, EDH), and skull fracture; and from EEG reports the presence of EA (i.e., ESZs, EDs, LPDs, GPDs, LRDA), generalized rhythmic delta activity (GRDA), suppression, focal slowing, and generalized slowing.

For QEEG analysis, we split each patient's EEG into non-overlapping, one-hour windows of homogeneous duration (Online Supplemental Methods I). Each feature per patient was represented by the maximum (EA, GRDA burden) or median (spectra) values across all windows. We matched outputs from two algorithms for ESZ ("SPaRCNet"⁸, Persyst14^{®6}) and ED (SpikeNet⁷, Persyst14^{®5}) detection to reduce false-positive rates, and computed ESZ and ED presence.^{1,12} We analyzed EA burden ("SPaRCNet"⁸; hourly % EA presence), GRDA burden, suppression burden (hourly % signal with amplitude<3 μ V lasting 0.5 seconds), global delta (1–4Hz), theta (4–8Hz), alpha (8–13Hz), and beta (13–20Hz) powers, theta/alpha/beta-over-delta ratios, power asymmetry (absolute hemispheric difference over global power), and power variability (hourly interquartile range) (Persyst 14^{\circledR}).

Statistical Analysis

Univariable and multivariable (forward-selection algorithm applied) logistic regressions were used to evaluate the association of unmatched covariates and QEEG features with PTE₁. To combat overfitting, ridge logistic regressions trained and tested via 8-fold nested cross-validation were applied to compare predictive values of different feature

sets (Mechanism+CT, Mechanism+CT+QEEG, Mechanism+CT+EEG-report; Online Supplemental Methods III). Evaluation metrics were calculated by concatenating test sets.

Area Under the receiver-operating-characteristic Curve (AUC), accuracy (optimal operating point), odds ratio (OR), and calibration error were evaluated (Online Supplemental Methods IV). P=0.05 was the significance threshold. 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) were generated by bootstrapping (n=1000). Analysis was performed using R3.6.1.

RESULTS

205 of 279 eligible patients with high-quality EEG were included. 63 $PTE₁$ patients were matched with 63 non-PTE₁ patients (Online Supplemental Table $S1-2$). 116 (90%) matched patients had CT reports.

TBI Mechanism, CT and QEEG Predictors of PTE¹

We used univariable logistic regression to assess potential covariates, including QEEG features, that predict PTE_1 risk independent of matched variables (Table 1; Figure 1A-B; Online Supplemental Figure S1). For TBI mechanism, penetrating injury was associated with an *increased* odd of $PTE_1 (OR=6.20, P=0.03)$ compared to acceleration/deceleration. For CT abnormalities, SDH (OR=3.34, P=0.01) and skull fracture (OR=2.48, P=0.03) were *positively* associated with PTE₁ risk (n=116; Online Supplemental Table S3). For QEEG, ESZ presence (OR=2.79, P=0.02), greater EA burden (OR per 10%-increase $[OR_{10%}] = 1.15, P=0.01; Figure 1A), LRDA burden (OR_{10%} = 1.13, P=0.02), and delta$ asymmetry ($OR_{10\%}=1.29$, P=0.047) were associated with *increased* odds of PTE₁. Nonepileptiform GRDA burden^{1,13} (OR_{10%}=0.77, P=0.01) was *negatively* associated with PTE₁. QEEG findings generally agreed with EEG-report results (EA, OR=2.29, P=0.03; focal slowing, OR=2.18, P=0.04) except for ED presence (significant in EEG-report¹ [OR=2.91, P=0.02] but non-significant in QEEG analysis) (Online Supplemental Table S3).

To examine whether QEEG predicts $PTE₁$ risk independent of significant covariates, we applied a forward-selection algorithm on QEEG features with P<0.1 in univariable analysis to construct a multivariable QEEG-only model, and then step-wise added penetrating injury, SDH, and skull fracture. EA burden $(aOR_{10\%}=1.17, P<0.01)$, suppression burden $(aOR_{10%}=1.41, P=0.03)$, and beta variability $(aOR=16.17, P=0.03)$ jointly predicted PTE₁ with an AUC of 0.69 (95% CI, 0.60–0.78; Figure 1C). The association of forward-selected QEEG features with PTE_1 remained significant relative to penetrating (n=126), and more importantly, relative to all penetrating, SDH, and skull fracture (n=116; Online Supplemental Table S4).

Benefits of QEEG in PTE1 Prediction

To avoid overfitting in small-sample cohort, we leveraged nested cross-validation and regularization (e.g., ridge) techniques to evaluate the additive benefits of QEEG beyond TBI mechanism and CT abnormalities in PTE_1 prediction (n=116). Compared to the Mechanism+CT ridge regression, Mechanism+CT+QEEG demonstrated improved discrimination (Test AUC, 0.71 [0.61–0.80] vs 0.61 [0.51–0.72]) with a comparable calibration error (0.08 [0.04–0.15] vs 0.06 [0.02–0.12]) (Figure 1C-D; Online Supplemental

Table S5). Per feature importance measures (Figure 1E), CT abnormalities (skull fracture, SDH) were the most important positive predictors, followed by QEEG epileptiform (ESZ presence, GPD burden, EA burden) and spectral (suppression burden, beta variability) features. Penetrating injury also had strong positive importance. Consistent with logistic regression, GRDA burden had strong *negative* importance. A ridge algorithm utilizing EEG-report abnormalities, instead of QEEG, (AUC [95% CI], 0.65 [0.54–0.75]; Online Supplemental Table S5) demonstrated modest, but less robust improvement upon the Mechanism+CT model.

DISCUSSION

We demonstrate that EA burden, suppression burden, and beta variability combined enhance PTE1 risk stratification in this case-control cohort. Furthermore, QEEG provides added benefit in PTE_1 prediction beyond TBI mechanism and CT abnormalities, especially given our data suggesting potential collinearity between penetrating and skull fracture (Online Supplemental Table S4). Taking a PTE1 rate at 9.8% amongst moderate-to-severe TBI patients,10 our Mechanism+CT ridge model would identify patients with 15% $PTE₁$, similar to the previously reported 1-year rates using clinical covariates.¹⁴ Our mechanism+CT+QEEG model increases this $PTE₁$ identification nearly 2-fold to 27%; reducing the enrollments for anti-epileptogenesis trials by 50% (Online Supplemental Table S6).

We found that a greater EA burden was associated with $PTE₁$, generating hypotheses on metabolic dysregulation. EA burden post-TBI may increase metabolic demand when there is decreased metabolic supply, leading to a mismatch triggering epileptogenesis. Whether interventions reducing EAs post-TBI prevent metabolic exhaustion and PTE development warrants exploration. The larger delta asymmetry for $PTE₁$ vs Non- $PTE₁$ patients suggests that focal/hemispheric network dysfunction may be relevant as reported previously.^{1,4} Suppression burden predicts PTE1, perhaps reflecting injury severity independent of GCS.

Together, our data highlight the benefits of EEG monitoring for moderate-to-severe TBI patients.^{1,2} With increased post-TBI EEG monitoring, our quantification scheme may reduce the cost of manually reviewing EEG reports without compromising $PTE₁$ prediction accuracy. However, ED algorithms may need further improvement in specificity (Online Supplemental Table S4&7).

Limitations

First, medication and state changes (sleep, awake, sedated) may affect EEG. These differences are highly influenced by TBI severity, and thereby more comparable amongst patients matched by admission GCS. However, the impacts of these and other TBI severity measures (lesion location/type, craniectomy/craniotomy) on QEEG and PTE₁ risk warrant further exploration. Second, our study is retrospective with possible selection bias toward moderate-to-severe TBI patients and/or those at risk for ESZ. Therefore, $PTE₁$ incidences or prediction models here need further refinement to apply to the mild TBI population. Our findings should be validated in prospective studies. Third, some non-PTE₁ patients here might develop >12 -month PTE. If such patients had QEEG similar to those of PTE₁ patients,

their risk for PTE would be underestimated, and so would the contributions of QEEG in PTE prediction. Studies investigating the association of QEEG with PTE latency are warranted. Finally, combining QEEG with *quantitative* neuroimaging data¹⁵ may improve PTE prediction.

In summary, epileptiform and spectral features quantified by QEEG tools enhance covariates identifiable on TBI admission and CT abnormalities in $PTE₁$ prediction. Future largesample, prospective studies should validate our findings and could incorporate QEEG into PTE risk models.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1: Quantitative Electroencephalography (QEEG) Prediction Models for First-year Posttraumatic Epilepsy (PTE1).

(A) % Epileptiform Abnormalities (EAs) for all one-hour windows for all patients (0% corresponds to grey, higher % corresponds to darker red/blue); each block represents an one-hour window; y-axis represents individual patients sorted by total recording duration (top: longest duration). (B) Same as panel A but for % suppression distribution. (C) Area Under the receiver-operating-characteristic Curve (AUC) comparison; AUC for forward-selected QEEG logistic regression (orange): 0.69 (95% CI, 0.60–0.78); test AUC for cross-validated ridge logistic regression based on TBI mechanism and Computed

Tomography (Mechanism+CT, grey): 0.61 (0.51–0.72), and test AUC for cross-validated ridge logistic regression based on TBI mechanism, Computed Tomography, and QEEG (Mechanism+CT+QEEG, green): 0.71 (0.61–0.80); shaded areas represent the bootstrapped (n=1000) 95% confidence intervals. (D) Same as panel C but showing calibration errors for QEEG logistic regression: 0.06 (0.02–0.12), Mechanism+CT ridge regression: 0.06 (0.02– 0.12), Mechanism+CT+QEEG ridge regression: 0.08 (0.04–0.15). (E) Feature importance for Mechanism+CT+QEEG ridge regression; features were sorted by the importance measure; each boxplot visualizes the distribution of penalized coefficients across 8 folds.

Table 1.

Univariable Analysis of QEEG Features Associated With ${\rm PTE}_1$ Development a

Abbreviations: QEEG, quantitative electrocochleography; TBI, traumatic brain injury; PTE1, posttraumatic epilepsy within first-year post-TBI; OR, odds ratio; GCS, Glasgow Coma Scale; ESZ, electrographic seizure; ED, epileptiform discharge; EA, epileptiform abnormality; LPD, lateralized periodic discharge; GPD, generalized periodic discharge; LRDA, lateralized rhythmic delta activity; GRDA, generalized rhythmic delta

 α Predictors were included in forward-selection algorithm if P<0.10

 b Numbers may not sum to 100% due to rounding issue</sup>

 ϵ Odds ratio associated with 10 unit increase of features

activity.