Supplementary Data

Supplementary Appendix 1

Predictors Used in the Prognostic Algorithm

Several non-dynamic (baseline or static) and dynamic (longitudinal) predictors were considered during model building and are described below.

Non-dynamic predictors

Baseline predictors we considered were the International Mission for Prognosis and Analysis of Clinical Trials in TBI (IM-PACT) core model prognostic score of unfavorable outcome (a score that contains information on patient's admission motor Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS), pupillary reactivity, and age); Marshall Computed Tomography (CT) scan classification (I, II, III, IV, diffuse injury; V, evacuated mass lesion; VI, nonevacuated mass lesion), presence of subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH), presence of epidural hematoma (EDH), presence of hypotension, the Injury Severity Score (ISS), and the first intracranial pressure (ICP) value recorded. Other variables collected on admission such as presence of hypoxia, glucose, and hemoglobin, were excluded from the analyses because they were not available for many patients.

Dynamic predictors

We considered the following physiological variables recorded during the first 24 h after intensive care unit (ICU) admission: ICP,

Supplementary Table S1. Univariate ICP/MAP/CPP Dynamic Predictors of Unfavorable 6-month GOS

 ${}^{a}ICP$ = intracranial pressure; MAP = mean arterial pressure; CPP = cerebral perfusion pressure.

^bClusters are generated via k-means, using three types of distance-measures: Euclidean distance, correlation distance, and cosine distance. Membership is a binary variable that indicates membership or non-membership to a specific cluster.

The area is calculated using the trapezoid rule.

^dFunctional Principal Component Analysis (FPCA) scores after applying FPCA to each physiological variable. GOS, Glasgow Outcome Score.

 ${}^{a}ICP$ = intracranial pressure; MAP = mean arterial pressure; CPP = cerebral perfusion pressure.

^bCorrelations between ICP and MAP in the same time interval are computed every 10/25 min, where the range of MAP is at least 10 mm Hg.

c Correlations between ICP and MAP for an ICP time interval that starts 36 sec later than a MAP time interval are computed every 10/25 min, where the

range of MAP is at least 10 mm Hg.
dRenyi entropy defined as: $R_L^{\alpha} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \log \left(\sum_{\pi_k \in S_L} P(\pi_k)^{\alpha} \right)$, where $P(\pi_k)$ is the probability of the ICP/CPP sequence π_k , L indicates the length of the sliding window and α is the selector of probabilities. A ICP/CPP sequence is determined by concatenating ordered 5-min averaged ICP and CPP values in a sliding window.

 $\text{SaO}_2 = \text{oxygen saturation of arterial blood}; \text{ETCO}_2 = \text{end-tidal CO}_2.$

ICP transition rates of a two-state continuous-time Markov chain, of moving from a low or normal to a high ICP state and vice versa, adjusted by number of hours that $SaO₂$, ETCO₂, MAP, and temperature were abnormal; for ICP transition rate from high to low ICP, also adjusted by whether patient had surgery for increased ICP and whether they received mannitol or barbiturates to decrease ICP.

MAP, mean arterial pressure; FPCA, ; MFPCA, .

MAP, cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP), $SaO₂$, temperature, end-tidal $CO₂ (ETCO₂)$, partial pressure of oxygen in arterial blood (PaO₂), and partial pressure oxygen of carbon dioxide in the arterial blood $(PaCO₂)$. For ICP, MAP, and CPP, we calculated several summary measures per subject in different time intervals, including means, standard deviations, correlations, areas under the curve, duration of increased ICP episodes, and membership to clusters of signals.¹⁻⁴ For $SaO₂$, temperature, and ETCO₂, we calculated the number of hours that the variable was outside a specific threshold, and included these summarized physiological data as covariates in adjusted ICP transition rates from a two-state continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC) model. In addition, we considered the best motor GCS achieved in the first 24 h post-ICU admission, an indicator of whether a patient had surgery done for increased ICP, and an indicator of whether a patient received either barbiturates or mannitol to decrease ICP.

Supplementary Table S1 displays predictors of 6-month GOS for a single physiological, injury severity, or treatment variable, computed on the full first 24 h-period after ICU admission or on certain periods of time during those first 24 h. Supplementary Table S2 shows predictors that involve 2 or more physiological or treatment variables. In general, predictors displayed in Supplementary Tables S1 and S2 have been previously proposed. $2-7$ For the ICP transition rates of Supplementary Table S2, we fitted regular twostate adjusted CTMC models, that is, we only used the Markov chain portion of the joint model proposed by Rubin and colleagues.⁷

Supplementary References

- 1. Kahraman, S., Dutton, R. P., Hu, P., Aarabi, B., Stein, D. M., and Scalea, T. M. (2010). Automated measurement of ''pressure times time dose'' of intracranial hypertension best predicts outcome after severe traumatic brain injury. J. Trauma 69,110–118.
- 2. Vik, A., Nag, T., Fredriksli, O. A., Skandsen, T., Moen, K. G., Schirmer-Mikalsen, K., and Manley, G. T. (2008). Relationship of ''dose'' of intracranial hypertension to outcome in severe traumatic brain injury. J. Neurosurg. 109, 678–684.
- 3. Kahraman, S., Hu, P., Stein, D. M., Stansbury, L. G., Dutton, R. P., Xiao, Y., Hess, J. R., and Scalea, T. M. (2011). Dynamic threedimensional scoring of cerebral perfusion pressure and intracranial pressure provides a brain trauma index that predicts outcome in patients with severe traumatic brain injury. J. Trauma 70, 547–553.
- 4. Myers, R. B., Lazaridis, C., Jermaine, C. M., Robertson, C. S., and Rusin, C. G. (2016). Predicting intracranial pressure and brain tissue oxygen crises in patients with severe traumatic brain injury. Crit. Care Med. 44, 1754–1761.
- 5. Kalpakis, K., Yang, S., Hu, P. F., Mackenzie, C. F., Stansbury, L. G., Stein, D. M., and Scalea, T. M. (2015). Permutation entropy analysis of vital signs data for outcome prediction of patients with severe traumatic brain injury. Comput. Biol. Med. 56,167–174.
- 6. Guiza, F., Depreitere, B., Piper, I., Van den Berghe, G., and Meyfroidt, G. (2013). Novel methods to predict increased intracranial pressure during intensive care and long-term neurologic outcome after traumatic brain injury: development and validation in a multicenter dataset. Crit. Care Med. 41, 554–564.
- 7. Rubin, M. L., Chan, W., Yamal, J. M., and Robertson, C. S. (2017). A joint logistic regression and covariate-adjusted continuous-time Markov chain model. Stat. Med. 36, 4570–4582.

Pre-Processing and Imputation of Physiological Variables

We removed artifacts and imputed missing data before computing subject features of the 36-sec automated physiological data.

To reduce signal-to-noise ratio and avoid distorted results, we applied repeated median (RM) regression, a fast method that is robust to outliers, capable of tracing trends, trend changes and level shifts, and it is stable with respect to moderate variations in the data.¹ For the RM algorithm, we used a window of width $1 h (100)$ measurements every 36 sec) and we required a minimum of five non-missing observations in that time window to get a smoothed signal. Before applying the smoothing technique, we set to missing artifacts that fell outside of usual ranges of physiological variables, where a sequence of unusual values was not observed.

For the missing data problem, we first imputed intracranial pressure (ICP), mean arterial pressure (MAP), or cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP) based on the relationship between these variables (CPP = MAP-ICP). Secondly, we applied an imputation procedure on the ICP and MAP smoothed data that is similar to the procedure applied by Yamal and colleagues.² Briefly, for each patient we used interpolation to impute intermittent missing data, and for two or more consecutive missing values, we pooled 2 h of self-data before or after missingness and imputed from a normal distribution with mean and standard deviation equal to the mean and standard deviation of the pooled data, respectively. When hourly physiological data were available in periods of missing twice per minute data, the mean of the normal distribution was computed from the hourly data. This last approach was adopted only in subsets of the data where the non-missing 36-sec smoothed data correlated well with the non-missing hourly data. Once ICP and MAP were complete, remaining missing CPP values were calculated from these two.

For temperature, $ETCO₂$, and $SaO₂$, we first categorized the twice per minute smoothed data in normal and abnormal categories, based on pre-specified thresholds. Then, if data were missing between two normal categories, we imputed a normal category; if data were missing between abnormal categories, we imputed an abnormal category; and, when missingness occurred between a normal and an abnormal category (in that order), a normal category was imputed. After applying this procedure, if there were still missing values, we imputed values from the hourly physiological data, only for subsets of the data where the non-missing 36-sec smoothed data correlated well with the non-missing hourly data. We also used hourly $PaCO₂$ and $PaO₂$ as surrogate measures to impute $ETCO₂$ and $SaO₂$, respectively.

Supplementary References

- 1. Schettlinger, K., Fried, R., and Gather, U. (2006). Robust filters for intensive care monitoring: Beyond the running median/Robuste filter für intensivmedizinisches monitoring: Mehr als ein gleitender median. Biomed. Tech. 51, 49–56.
- 2. Yamal, J., Rubin, M. L., Benoit, J. S., Tilley, B. C., Gopinath, S., Hannay, H. J., Doshi, P., Aisiku, I. P., and Robertson, C. S. (2015). Effect of hemoglobin transfusion threshold on cerebral hemodynamics and oxygenation. J. Neurotrauma 32, 1239–1245.

Supplementary Appendix 3

Supervised Learning Algorithms used in the Study

Supplementary Table S3 shows a brief description of the supervised learning algorithms applied to the training set of our study to make predictions on the test set.

In particular, the LASSO algorithm is a linear regularization method commonly used to perform model selection for models with many explanatory variables. For a logistic regression model with many explanatory variables. For a logistic regression model
with a binary response y, a vector of covariates $\mathbf{x} = (1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p)$ with a smally response y, a vector of establishes $\mathbf{A} = (1, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p)$
with associated parameter vector $\mathbf{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)$, and N subjects, the LASSO regularization method solves the following problem:

$$
\max_{(\beta_0,\beta)\in\mathbb{R}^{p+1}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N y_i (\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta) - \log \left(1 + e^{\beta_0 + \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta} \right) - \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \right]
$$

where $\sum_{j=1}^{p} |\beta_j|$ is an L_1 penalty term and λ is a tuning parameter that controls the importance of the regularization term. For a sufficient large value of λ , the use of the L_1 penalty term causes that some of the regression coefficients shrink to zero.

More details about the algorithms presented on Supplementary Table S3 can be found in Friedman and colleagues.¹

Supplementary Reference

1. Friedman, J., Hastie, T., and Tibshirani, R. (2001). The Elements of Statistical Learning. Springer: New York, NY.

Algorithm	Description
Decision trees (DT)	Recursively partitions the data space by doing binary splits on variables
Random forests (RF)	Combines a number of decision trees on bootstrapped training samples based on a random sample of predictors.
Support vector machines (SVM)	Finds an optimal hyperplane between two classes using nonlinear boundaries. The feature space is mapped to a higher dimension using a kernel function, the hyperplane is fit in that higher dimension, then mapped back to the original feature space.
Linear discriminant analysis (LDA)/ Quadratic discriminant analysis (ODA)	Uses a linear/quadratic decision functions to classify an observation into a class. It is based on the multivariate normal distribution and Bayes theorem.
Least absolute shrink and selector operator (LASSO)	Linear regularization method that penalizes the absolute magnitude of the coefficients in a model, effectively doing variable selection.
Logistic regression (LR)	Based on the logistic function, a set of predictors are combined linearly using weights or coefficient values to predict a binary response.

Supplementary Table S3. Supervised Learning Algorithms Applied to the TBI Data

Comparison of Baseline Characteristics

^aTwo-sided chi-square or Fisher's exact test p value for categorical variables, and Wilcoxon rank sum test p value for continuous variables.
^bThe p values were computed excluding the 'unknown' category.

GCS, Glasgow Coma Scale; IQR, interquartile range; ICP, intracranial pressure; CT, computed tomography.

Supplementary Table S5. Baseline Characteristics of Patients with Missing GOS and Physiological Data Recorded versus Patients with Recorded GOS and Physiological Data

Twice per minute or hourly physiological data recorded.
^bTwo-sided chi-squared or Fisher's exact test p value for categorical variables, and Wilcoxon rank sum test p-value for continuous variables.
^cThe p values were c

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE S6. SUMMARY OF MODELS DEVELOPED ON PATIENTS WITH TBI TO PREDICT 6-MONTH GLASGOW OUTCOME SCALE Supplementary Table S6. Summary of Models Developed on Patients with TBI to Predict 6-Month Glasgow Outcome Scale

*Maximum sample size considered.

*Maximum sample size considered.
**Model performance or range of model performance for studies with several models or populations.
TBI, traumatic brain injury; AUC, area under the receiving operating characteristic curve; TBI, traumatic brain injury; AUC, area under the receiving operating characteristic curve; C, C-index.**Model performance or range of model performance for studies with several models or populations.