Development and validation of risk score to estimate 1-year late poststroke epilepsy risk in ischemic stroke patients

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Objective: This study aimed to develop and validate a prognostic model for the 1-year risk of late poststroke epilepsy (PSE).

Materials and methods: We included patients initially diagnosed with ischemic stroke between 2003 and 2014 in a National Health Insurance claims-based cohort in Taiwan. Patients were further divided into development and validation cohorts based on their year of stroke diagnosis. Multivariable Cox regression with backward elimination was used to analyze the association between 1-year PSE and risk factors before and on stroke admission.

Results: In total, 1,684 (1.93%) and 725 (1.87%) ischemic stroke patients comprising the development and validation cohorts, respectively, experienced late PSE within 1 year after stroke. Seven clinical variables were examined to be independently associated with 1-year risk of PSE. We developed a risk score called “PSEiCARe” ranging from 0 to 16 points, comprising the following factors: prolonged hospital stay (>2 weeks, 1 point), seizure on admission (6 points), elderly patients (age ≥80 years, 1 point), intensive care unit stay on admission (3 points), cognitive impairment (dementia, 2 points), atrial fibrillation (2 points), and respiratory tract infection (pneumonia) on admission (1 point). Patients were further classified into low-, medium-, high-, and very-high-risk groups. The incidence (per 100 person-years) was 0.64 (95% CI: 0.56–0.71) for the low-risk, 2.62 (95% CI: 2.43–2.82) for the medium-risk, 10.3 (95% CI: 9.48–11.3) for the high-risk, and 28.2 (95% CI: 24.0–33.0) for the very-high-risk groups. Discrimination and calibration were satisfactory, with a Harrell’s C of 0.762 in the development model and 0.792 in the validation model.

Conclusion: PSEiCARe is an easy-to-use prognostic score that integrates patient characteristics and clinical factors on stroke admission to predict 1-year PSE risk; it has the potential to assist individualized patient management and improve clinical practice, thereby preventing the occurrence of late PSE.

Keywords: poststroke epilepsy, prediction model, risk score, population-based, claim analysis

Introduction

Stroke is a major cause of epilepsy in adults, and elderly people in particular.1 After stroke, seizures and subsequent development of epilepsy may impede patient recovery because rehabilitation is delayed and the risk of complications such as fall-related injuries is higher.2 Moreover, seizure frequency directly impairs a patient’s quality of life.3 Health care systems are facing an increasing number of elderly people with poststroke seizures because of demographic changes worldwide.4 Therefore, determining and managing the risk factors of poststroke epilepsy (PSE) is crucial for stroke care.
Several factors, such as hemorrhagic stroke, cortical lesion, stroke severity, and early seizures, are risk factors for late-onset PSE.5,6 Poststroke infection and atrial fibrillation are also associated with late PSE.6,7 In patients with high risk factors for late PSE, such as aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage, prophylactic antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) are usually prescribed.8,9 In patients with ischemic stroke, AED use is only recommended after clinical seizure onset.9 The benefit of prophylactic AED use in both hemorrhagic and ischemic stroke remains unclear because randomized control trials of late PSE prophylaxis and studies of late PSE risk estimation are lacking. Therefore, a late PSE risk-predicting score would be helpful in determining prevention strategies such as the use of prophylactic AEDs. However, precisely estimating the risk of late PSE is challenging because the frequency of late PSE is 2%–4%.10 Such predictions are especially difficult for patients with ischemic stroke because the incidence of late PSE in ischemic stroke is lower than that in hemorrhagic stroke.11 Thus far, only 1 study, which enrolled 246 patients with stroke, has proposed and developed a late PSE risk scale; it uses type, location, and severity of stroke, as well as the onset of poststroke seizure, to predict the risk of PSE within 1 year of a stroke.12 The performance of this scale has not been validated, and it is not generally used in clinical practice.13,14

Improving risk prediction accuracy and exploring novel risk factors in a larger population may enable more targeted prophylaxis. Furthermore, developing a simple risk score that integrates data obtained in the acute stage of stroke is imperative for quantifying the late PSE risk. Therefore, this study developed and validated a scoring system for predicting 1-year late PSE risk using a population-based health care claims database of ischemic stroke patients.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

This study was approved by the Taipei Medical University Joint Institutional Review Board (TMU-JIRB, approval number 201502017). Patients were selected from the National Health Insurance Research Database (NHIRD) of Taiwan, which is maintained by the Health and Welfare Data Science Center (HWDC), Ministry of Health and Welfare, Executive Yuan, Taiwan. To protect patients’ privacy, the HWDC encrypts individual identifiers before releasing information to researchers. Informed consent of the patients was thus waived in the full TMU-JIRB review process.

Data sources

In this population-based cohort study, we extracted data from the NHIRD for the period 2000–2015. The NHIRD is managed by the National Health Insurance Administration and covers almost all medical service claims received from beneficiaries. Under law, every resident of Taiwan must enroll in the national health insurance; the rate of coverage was 99% in 2016. Death records were obtained from the National Death Registry, a population-based registry of cause of death in Taiwan. Death records in Taiwan are highly comprehensive and accurate because it is mandatory under law to register all deaths. Furthermore, all residents of Taiwan have a permanent personal identification number that links many national databases at an individual level. The 2 cohorts in this study were linked using unique encrypted identifiers regulated by the HWDC and Personal Information Protection Act.

Participants

We included all patients diagnosed with ischemic stroke from 2003 to 2014. These patients were defined on the basis of a discharge diagnosis of ischemic stroke (International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification [ICD-9-CM]: 433.xx, 434.xx, and 436.xx). A review period of at least 3 years was adopted to exclude patients with a history of stroke, epilepsy, and the following known risks of epilepsy other than stroke: traumatic brain injury, metastatic carcinoma, brain tumor, anoxic brain injury, encephalopathy, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, and central nervous system infections. Thus, patients in whom the cause of epilepsy was primarily due to stroke were included. Detailed information on disease diagnostic coding is provided in Table S1. We excluded patients younger than 45 years because stroke etiologies in young patients differ from those in middle-aged and elderly patients.15

The final study cohort comprised 125,757 patients with ischemic stroke. Because the sample size was large, we divided the patients according to their year of stroke diagnosis. The development cohort (N=87,068) comprised patients registered within the first 8 years; the validation cohort (N=38,689) comprised the remaining patients. The basic characteristics of the 2 cohorts are listed in Table 1.

Outcomes

In Taiwan, diagnosis of seizures usually follows the recommendations of the International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE). A seizure occurring within 7 days of a stroke is defined as an “early seizure”, whereas ≥2 seizures occurring...
>24 hours apart later than 7 days or more poststroke are defined as “late PSE”. The primary end point in this study was the occurrence of late PSE within 1 year of follow-up. Because the exact time of seizures was not recorded in the NHIRD, we used the following definitions of early seizure and late PSE to fulfill the ILAE criteria as far as possible. An early seizure occurred if the patient had a diagnosis of epilepsy or convulsion (ICD-9-CM: 345.x, 780.3, or 780.39) on stroke admission. Late PSE was assumed if patients had a diagnosis of epilepsy (ICD-9-CM: 345.x, which represented at least 2 seizures before the visit) or at least 2 claims of convulsions (ICD-9-CM: 780.3 or 780.39) after the stroke admission on an emergency department visit or hospital admission at different dates; or if patients had an AED prescription claim. The latter criterion was meant to ensure that the epilepsy was a new episode by limiting the study cohort to patients with no AED claims during at least the 3 months before late PSE development. Patients not diagnosed with epilepsy or who died within 1 year of follow-up were considered censored cases.

### Predictors

Participant variables representing 1-year late PSE risk predictors included sex, age, early seizure on stroke admission, pneumonia occurring after stroke, and preexisting atrial fibrillation, which are known risk factors for late PSE. Because stroke severity was not recorded in the NHIRD, we used intensive care unit (ICU) stay and length of hospital stay (LOS) of >2 weeks, which was the uppermost quartile for all patients with stroke, as a proxy for stroke severity on admission. Moreover, we considered other potential risk factors that may affect stroke severity or outcomes: comorbidities of hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, coronary heart disease, heart failure, peripheral arterial disease, malignant neoplasms, renal disease, moderate or severe liver disease, rheumatoid arthritis or collagen vascular disease, and dementia.

Comorbidities were derived from patients’ medical claims. The comorbidity observation period was 11 months before and 1 month after stroke admission. To increase the validity of diagnoses, patients were identified as having a...
specific disease if they received the same diagnosis during 2 clinic or hospital visits within the observation period, with a 30-day interval between the 2 visits. Although cortical lesion is a risk factor for late PSE, we could not include it because the NHIRD does not contain information on stroke lesion location.

Statistical analyses
All covariates were entered into a multivariate Cox regression model as dichotomous variables to make the model easy for clinicians to use. We also evaluated each independent variable for adherence to the assumption of proportional hazards. Predictors were included in the final model on a backward elimination basis, with P-values of <0.05 and ≥0.1 determining inclusion and removal, respectively.

One goal of this study was to develop an easy-to-use prognostic score with which clinicians can stratify patient risk. Therefore, the patients were divided into risk groups by summing the independent predictors, which were weighted by their corresponding β-coefficients based on the scoring system of Schneeweiss, to produce a risk score ranging from 0 to 16. A similar approach was adopted when rounding up independent predictors to the nearest integer, resulting in the 4 predictors of ICU stay, seizure on stroke admission, atrial fibrillation, and cognitive impairment (dementia), with the score ranging from 0 to 5.

Validation of the prediction model
The model performance was measured according to Harrell’s C index of concordance, which is commonly used to evaluate a prediction model’s discriminatory power based on the Cox proportional-hazards model. We assessed internal validity with a bootstrapping validation approach to account for overfitting in the entire model development process. We repeated the entire model selection process in 100 samples drawn with replacement from the development sample.

Model fit was also assessed using the validation data set. The validation set was created using a temporal modeling approach that retrieved data from the same database but from a later study period. This approach was recommended by the transparent reporting of a multivariate prediction model (TRIPOD) group as an intermediate between internal and external validation.

Results
Participants
Of the patients with new onset of stroke but without a known risk of epilepsy, 1,684 (1.93%) and 725 (1.87%) in the development and validation cohorts, respectively, developed late PSE within 1 year of follow-up (Figure 1).

In the development cohort, there were more male (58.6%) than female patients, and the mean age of the patients with stroke was 68.6 years, with a standard deviation of 11.6 years. Regarding stroke admission status, 19.7% had a LOS of >2 weeks (upper quartile), 17.6% had an ICU stay, 5.5% had seizure and 8.5% pneumonia on stroke admission, and 11.4% had preexisting atrial fibrillation. Furthermore, regarding the late PSE risk factors, 73.8% of the patients had hypertension, 38.0% diabetes, 31.9% hyperlipidemia, 17.2% coronary artery disease, 8.4% heart failure, 6.6% renal failure, 5.7% malignant neoplasm, 2.8% dementia, 1.9% rheumatoid arthritis or collagen vascular disease, and 0.9% peripheral artery disease.

Compared with the development cohort, the validation cohort had a higher proportion of patients who were male, aged 55–64 years, and diagnosed with pneumonia on stroke admission and who had hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, atrial fibrillation, and malignant neoplasm, but with a lower proportion of those with coronary artery disease and heart failure (Table 1).

Model development
According to multivariate Cox regression analysis, the independent predictors associated with 1-year late PSE risk were age ≥80 years, LOS ≥2 weeks, ICU stay, early seizure, pneumonia on stroke admission, preexisting atrial fibrillation, and dementia (Table 2).

To make the predictive model easy for clinicians to use, we adopted a risk scoring system with the acronym “PSEiCARe”, consisting of “Prolonged hospital stay (>2 weeks)”, “Seizure on stroke admission”, “Elderly patients (age ≥80 years)”, “ICU stay”, “Cognitive impairment (dementia)”, “Atrial fibrillation”, and “Respiratory tract infection (pneumonia) on stroke admission”. Two scoring systems were considered. The first method was based on scoring each predictor by rounding the corresponding β-coefficients in the regression model up to the nearest integer, thus creating a 5-point scoring system that is simple from a clinical practice perspective. The second method, developed by Schneeweiss, was relatively similar to the first but it weighted the independent predictors by 1 unit for each 0.3 increase in β-coefficient, thus resulting in a 16-point scoring system (Table 2).

Estimation of risk score
One of the study goals was to develop an easy-to-use prognostic score for stratifying late PSE risk on the basis of a
Patients who had an initial ischemic stroke hospitalization between the years 2003 and 2014
N=192,801

17,215 Excluded
1. Age <45 years (N=9,603)
2. Had unknown sex and not citizen of Taiwan (N=531)
3. Died within stroke hospitalization (N=92)
4. Had a history of epilepsy before initial stroke onset (N=3,731)
5. Had a history of hospital stay >1 month (N=3,258)

Acute ischemic stroke patients without history of epilepsy
N=175,586

49,829 Excluded due to a history of TBI, metastatic carcinoma, brain tumor, cerebral palsy, anoxic brain injury, encephalopathy, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, CNS infections during the study period

Acute ischemic stroke patients without common risk factors associated with epilepsy occurrence
N=125,757

Development cohort
Jan 2003–Dec 2010
N=87,068

Validation cohort
Jan 2011–Dec 2014
N=38,689

1-year PSE
N=1,684

Table 2 Independent predictors of 1-year late PSE risk based on backward elimination Cox regression and corresponding risk scores

| Independent variables | β-coefficient | (SE) | HR (95% CI) | Risk scoring system |
|-----------------------|--------------|------|-------------|---------------------|
| Prolonged hospital staying (>2 weeks) | 0.42 | (0.06) | 1.52 (1.36–1.70) | 1 | 0 |
| Seizure at stroke admission | 1.76 | (0.06) | 5.81 (5.20–6.48) | 6 | 2 |
| Elderly patients (age ≥ 80 years) | 0.15 | (0.06) | 1.17 (1.04–1.31) | 1 | 0 |
| ICU stay | 1.05 | (0.06) | 2.86 (2.54–3.22) | 3 | 1 |
| Cognitive impairment (dementia) | 0.62 | (0.11) | 1.85 (1.48–2.32) | 2 | 1 |
| Atrial fibrillation | 0.55 | (0.06) | 1.74 (1.55–1.95) | 2 | 1 |
| Respiratory tract infection (pneumonia) on stroke admission | 0.27 | (0.07) | 1.30 (1.14–1.49) | 1 | 0 |
| Harrell’s C | (0.789) | – | – | – | (0.787) | (0.758) |

Abbreviations: CNS, central nervous system; PSE, poststroke epilepsy; TBI, traumatic brain injury.
risk score. Therefore, we classified the patients into low-, medium-, high-, and very-high-risk groups (Table 3). In the development cohort, late PSE incidence (100 person-years) was 0.64 (95% CI: 0.56–0.71) in the low-risk, 2.62 (95% CI: 2.43–2.82) in the medium-risk, 10.3 (95% CI: 9.48–11.3) in the high-risk, and 28.2 (95% CI: 24.0–33.0) in the very-high-risk group per 100 person-years. There was no significant difference in incidence between the development and validation cohorts, except in the low-risk group (0.40/100 person-years, 95% CI: 0.32–0.50). The Kaplan–Meier curve showed that late PSE risk was significantly different in the risk groups based on the PSEiCARe score (Figure 2A and B).

Model performance
The model performance of the Schneeweiss risk scoring system was assessed using Harrell’s C index, which was 0.762 and 0.792 in the development and validation cohorts, respectively. The optimism-corrected value of Harrell’s C index was 0.759. Thus, the late PSE prediction model demonstrated fairly favorable internal and external discrimination. The performance of the model was slightly lower when using the nearest integer as the risk score, but it still had moderate discrimination.

Discussion
On the basis of a large population-based health care claims cohort, this study developed the PSEiCARe score for predicting 1-year late PSE risk among patients with ischemic stroke. The PSEiCARe score demonstrated fairly good discrimination and was validated internally through bootstrapping and externally by temporally dividing the data, with consistent findings obtained.

Managing PSE is crucial for stroke care. The guidelines for acute ischemic and hemorrhagic stroke management do not recommend routine administration of prophylactic AEDs, primarily because few clinical trials have demonstrated a beneficial prophylaxis of AEDs in PSE. Another major point is that most patients with acute stroke do not develop PSE; therefore, adverse effects may outweigh treatment benefits if prophylactic AEDs are administered to all patients. The concept of routinely administering prophylactic AEDs to “very high risk” patients has been proposed. Clinicians and researchers could identify high-risk patients who might benefit from such treatment. The PSEiCARe scoring system developed in this study can accurately predict late PSE risk; however, this study was unable to define a cutoff PSEiCARe score for recommending that patients receive AEDs. This problem requires further investigation to weigh
the health and economic benefits of AEDs in reducing PSE occurrence, as well as possible complications stemming from their use.

The independent predictors of late PSE in this study – including prolonged hospital stay, pneumonia, and atrial fibrillation – are preventable and manageable, as the acute stroke management guidelines indicate. Atrial fibrillation is the most common cause of cardioembolic stroke and is associated with a higher chance of cortical ischemic lesion, spontaneous arterial recanalization, and hemorrhagic transformation compared with ischemic strokes of other etiologies.25–27 Therefore, managing atrial fibrillation is vital because of its preventive effects for both stroke recurrence and PSE.

Acute ischemic stroke management guidelines recommend thrombolytic therapy for eligible patients to reduce their symptom severity and LOS.13 Airway protection and dysphagia screening are recommended to reduce the likelihood of aspiration pneumonia,13,28 which may also shorten LOS. Additionally, antibiotics such as cephalosporin decrease the threshold of epileptic seizures,29 which might be another reason why pneumonia increases the risk of PSE. Therefore, prevention is more important than treatment of pneumonia in stroke patients. Guideline-directed management of patients with stroke improves their neurological outcomes,30,31 and it may also be a more practical approach to reducing PSE risk than prophylactic AEDs.

The PSEiCARe score is advantageous because the required information is easily obtained from medical records. A previously proposed PSE risk scale based on data from a single hospital revealed that 7 of 10 clinical characteristics were associated with PSE risk.6 However, the model was not validated internally or externally because of the single-center study design with relatively small sample size. By contrast, the present study used a larger sample size, resulting in a more precise prediction model. The model developed in this study used information available in medical records and insurance claims data. The model’s performance was in accordance with the TRIPOD guidelines. Therefore, physicians and researchers can use the PSEiCARe scoring model in clinical practice to easily identify patients with different PSE risk levels.

A prolonged hospital stay and pneumonia may be interrelated. Models without checking for multicollinearity among variables may lead to erroneous system analysis. Fortunately, this problem can be eliminated by using appropriate statistical methods, such as the stepwise regression used in this study, to select appropriate predictors from the data set. In this study, prolonged hospital stay and respiratory tract infection on stroke admission were both associated with the risk of late PSE. These 2 variables are highly likely to be multicollinear (Spearman rank correlation coefficient = 0.297). To better understand how the model would change if 1 of these 2 variables was excluded, we performed a separate analysis, and the results of this analysis showed that excluding a variable did not alter the model (Table S2). The original model had superior performance, and we therefore suggest retaining both variables in the predictive model.

This study has several limitations. First, the model was developed using data from population-based health care claims, and the quality of such data may have influenced our findings. Therefore, we required discharge claims and at least 2 diagnostic claims from outpatient visits within the observational period to confirm the existence of disease; this

Figure 2 Kaplan–Meier curve for cumulative risk of PSE within 1 year after stroke in the development (A) and validation (B) cohorts. Abbreviation: PSE, poststroke epilepsy.
approach has been validated and widely used in claims-based observational studies. However, potential bias could have occurred due to misclassification. Fortunately, we were more likely to underestimate the effect of risk on late PSE, given that misclassification was nondifferential for patients both with and without PSE. The results should not be changed even if we underestimated the PSE risk. Moreover, because the exact time of seizure onset was not recorded in the claims data, it is possible that a seizure occurring 7 days after a stroke was misclassified as “early seizure” if the patient remained hospitalized for >7 days. Nevertheless, 86% of early seizures were reported to occur within 3 days of a stroke, with 66% occurring within the first 24 hours. Therefore, we believe that this approach should be compatible with the ILAE recommendations.

Second, similar to all prediction models, our results may be biased toward the population in which the model was developed and, consequently, may yield less accurate results in a different population. We assessed the internal validity of the model using a bootstrapping procedure to correct overoptimism bias and also validated the model externally by temporally dividing the data (ie, forming a different population in the same country), which may have mitigated the influence of time-dependent factors. However, external validation of the model with other ethnicities and countries is required to establish its generalizability.

Third, the NHIRD does not include information on lesion location for patients with stroke. Therefore, although cortical lesion is a known PSE risk factor, we were unable to include it in the prediction model. Although recording such detailed information in a population-based database is difficult, the missing information on lesion location in this study may have lowered the model’s predictive power. However, to our knowledge, no study has proved that the influence of the cortical stroke factor is stronger than that of other risk factors. Furthermore, including stroke location in the data could have caused problems in a multicenter study, including interrater variation in imaging interpretation and heterogeneity of imaging modality and quality between different hospitals. This may explain why previous studies of PSE were more likely to be single-center studies when stroke location was evaluated. Moreover, the generalizability of a model developed in a single-center study is limited. Nevertheless, we recognize that the PSE prediction model developed in this study would be improved if stroke location were included.

Fourth, the observation period was 12 years, which might cause concern that care had changed over time. Nevertheless, no significant difference in stroke care occurred. The guidelines published by the American Heart Association and the American Stroke Association, which are usually referred to by neurologists in Taiwan, were revised in 2003, 2007, and 2013 most of the changes concerned thrombolytic therapy, which would have had little effect on the PSE risk factors proposed in this study.

Finally, this study only predicted the risk of PSE within 1 year of stroke onset because stroke survivors typically undergo aggressive rehabilitation for at least 6 months to 1 year; therefore, PSE has the most deleterious effect on stroke recovery during this period. However, PSE can also occur >1 year after stroke onset.

**Conclusion**

This study used population-based health care claims and applied a multivariate prediction model to develop the PSE-CARE score for predicting 1-year late PSE risk. This score classifies late PSE risk level on the basis of patient disease condition on stroke admission. Physicians might consider this score as an additional tool for improving late PSE prediction. The major late PSE risk factors are the known comorbidities of acute stroke, which are preventable and manageable. Therefore, guideline-based management of acute stroke is crucial for preventing late PSE. External validation is warranted to confirm our findings in different populations.

**Acknowledgments**

This study was funded by the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST, grant number: 105-2314-B-038-036-MY3). This study was supported by the Health and Clinical Research Data Center at Taipei Medical University.

**Disclosure**

The authors report no conflicts of interest in this work.

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## Supplementary materials

### Table S1 Disease diagnostic coding

| Disease                                      | ICD-9-CM codes                          |
|----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| **Stroke subtype**                          |                                         |
| Ischemic                                     | 433–434, 436                            |
| Subarachnoid hemorrhage                     | 430                                     |
| Intracerebral hemorrhage                    | 431                                     |
| Epilepsy                                     | 345, 780.3, 780.39                      |
| Pneumonia admission within 14 days after stroke | 480–486, 507                           |
| **Comorbidities**                           |                                         |
| Hypertension                                | 401–402                                 |
| Diabetes                                    | 250                                     |
| Hyperlipidemia                              | 272                                     |
| Coronary artery disease                     | 413–414, 429.2                          |
| Heart failure                               | 428                                     |
| Atrial fibrillation                         | 427.3                                   |
| Peripheral artery disease                   | 440.2–440.4, 443.9                      |
| Malignant neoplasm                          | 140–239                                 |
| Renal disease                               | 403.01, 403.1, 403.91, 404.02–404.03, 404.12–404.13, 404.92, 404.93, 582, 583–583.2, 583.4, 583.6–583.7, 585–586, 588, V42, V45.1, V56 |
| Moderate or severe liver disease            | 456–456.2, 572.2–572.4, 572.8           |
| Rheumatoid arthritis or collagen vascular disease | 446, 701, 710–710.9, 710.8–710.9, 711.2, 714, 719.3, 720, 725, 728.5, 728.89, 729.3 |
| Dementia                                     | 290, 294.1, 331.0, 331.2                |
| Parkinson disease                           | 332                                     |
| **Exclusive disease conditions**            |                                         |
| Metastatic carcinoma                        | 196–199                                 |
| Brain tumor                                 | 191–192, 194.3–194.4, 200.5, 225–225.2, 225.8–225.9, 227.3–227.4, 237–237.1, 237.5–237.7, 237.9, 239.6 |
| Traumatic brain and head injuries           | 850–854, 959.01                         |
| Cerebral palsy                              | 343                                     |
| Anoxic brain injury                         | 348.1, 768.5–768.9                      |
| Encephalopathy                              | 348.3                                   |
| Alcohol abuse                               | 265.2, 291.1–291.3, 291.5, 291.8, 291.9, 303, 303.9, 305, 357.5, 425.5, 535.3, 571–571.3, 980, V11.3 |
| Drug abuse                                  | 292, 304, 305.2–305.9, V65.42           |
| Central nervous system infections           | 320–326                                 |

**Abbreviation:** ICD-9-CM, International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification.
## Table S2 Comparison of β-coefficients among different models

| Independent variables | Different model selection | Model without prolonged hospital stay | Model without respiratory tract infection on stroke admission |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
|                       | β-coefficient | Risk scoring system | β-coefficient | Risk scoring system | β-coefficient | Risk scoring system |
|                       | Risk scoring system | Nearest integer | Risk scoring system | Nearest integer | Risk scoring system | Nearest integer |
| Prolonged hospital stay (>2 weeks) | 0.42 | 1 | 0 | 0.46 | 2 | 0 |
| Seizure at stroke admission | 1.76 | 6 | 2 | 1.81 | 6 | 2 |
| Elderly patients (age ≥80 years) | 0.15 | 1 | 0 | 0.17 | 1 | 0 |
| ICU stay, yes | 1.05 | 3 | 1 | 1.20 | 4 | 1 |
| Cognitive impairment (dementia) | 0.62 | 2 | 1 | 0.62 | 2 | 1 |
| Atrial fibrillation | 0.55 | 2 | 1 | 0.58 | 2 | 1 |
| Respiratory tract infection (pneumonia) on stroke admission | 0.27 | 1 | 0 | 0.36 | 1 | 0 |
| Harrell’s C | (0.789) | (0.787) | (0.758) | (0.776) | (0.773) | (0.786) | (0.784) |
| Total score | 16 | 5 | 16 | 5 | 17 | 5 |

**Abbreviation:** ICU, intensive care unit.