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1 **Communication and psychosocial outcomes 2-years after severe traumatic brain injury:**

2 **Development of a prognostic model**

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 Objective: To examine predictive factors underlying communication and psychosocial
5 outcomes at 2-years post-injury. Prognosis of communication and psychosocial outcomes
6 following severe traumatic brain injury (TBI) is largely unknown yet is relevant for clinical
7 service provision, resource allocation and managing patient and family expectations for
8 recovery. Design: A prospective longitudinal inception design was employed with
9 assessments at 3 months, 6 months, and 2-years. Participants: The cohort included 57
10 participants with severe TBI. Setting: Subacute and post-acute rehabilitation. Main Outcome
11 Measures: Preinjury/Injury measures included age, gender, education years, GCS & PTA.
12 The 3-month and 6-month data points included speech, language and communication
13 measures across the ICF domains and measures of cognition. The 2-year outcome measures
14 included conversation, perceived communication skills and psychosocial functioning.
15 Predictors were examined using multiple regression. Interventions: Not applicable. Results:
16 The cognitive and communication measures at 6 months significantly predicted conversation
17 measures at 2 years and psychosocial functioning as reported by others at 2 years. At 6
18 months, 69% of participants presented with a cognitive-communication disorder (FAVRES).
19 The unique variance accounted for by the FAVRES measure was 7% for conversation
20 measures and 9% for psychosocial functioning. Psychosocial functioning at 2 years was also
21 predicted by pre-injury/injury factors and 3-month communication measures. Pre-injury
22 education level was a unique predictor accounting for 17% of the variance and processing
23 speed/memory at 3 months uniquely accounted for 14% of the variance. Conclusion:
24 Cognitive-communication skills at 6 months are a potent predictor of persisting
25 communication challenges and poor psychosocial outcomes up to 2 years after a severe TBI.

26 Findings emphasise the importance of addressing modifiable cognitive and communication
27 outcomes variables during the first 2 years following severe TBI to maximise functional
28 patient outcomes.

29 Key words: Traumatic brain injury, prognosis, communication, cognition, outcomes.

30 Abbreviations: Boston Naming Test-2 (BNT-2), Frenchay Dysarthria Assessment-2 (FDA-2),
31 Functional Assessment of Verbal Reasoning and Executive Strategies (FAVRES), Glasgow
32 Coma Scale (GCS), La Trobe Communication Questionnaire (LCQ), Measure of Support in
33 Conversation (MSC), Measure of Participation in Conversation (MPC), Post-Traumatic
34 Amnesia (PTA), Sydney Psychosocial Reintegration Scale (SPRS), Traumatic Brain Injury
35 (TBI), Western Aphasia Battery-Revised (WAB-R), World Health Organization –
36 International Classification of Functioning (WHO-ICF).

37

38 Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is a major cause of death, disability, and economic burden^{1,2}.
39 The estimated global prevalence of TBI is between 55.5-69 million¹⁻³ and global annual costs
40 are projected at \$US400 billion⁴. Longer-term health outcomes following severe TBI are
41 concerning with significant reports of disability, impacts on daily life, dissatisfaction with life
42 and disengagement with work and community⁵. Factors associated with long-term health
43 outcomes are numerous; however, duration of post-traumatic amnesia (PTA), as a proxy of
44 injury severity, is one of the strongest known predictors of global outcomes⁶, return to
45 productivity^{7,8} and treatment costs⁹. Multiple neuropsychological variables are also
46 implicated in the recovery process from a TBI¹⁰. It is evident that enduring global functional
47 challenges are experienced by adults with TBI, and that injury severity and the cognitive
48 neuropsychological profile of the individual are useful predictors of global outcomes. The
49 contribution of predictors specifically to communication and psychosocial outcomes after
50 TBI is not clearly established.

51 **Communication characteristics across the ICF**

52 Communication problems from TBI can be observed across the World Health Organization –
53 International Classification of Functioning (WHO-ICF) domains of impairment,
54 activity/participation, and environmental functioning. Communication performance after a
55 traumatic brain injury can vary according to a range of factors such as “...communication
56 partners, environment, communication demands, communication priorities, fatigue, physical
57 and sensory issues (e.g., vision, hearing), psychosocial variables, behavioral dyscontrol,
58 emotional variables, and other personal factors”¹¹. Cognitive-communication disorders are
59 the most common type of communication difficulties observed after a traumatic brain injury,
60 identified in up to 85 percent of individuals during early recovery from a severe traumatic
61 brain injury¹². A cognitive-communication disorder is defined as any communication
62 difficulty that results from underlying cognitive impairments with attention, memory,
63 executive function and social cognition^{11,14,15}. Neurologically, these cognitive impairments
64 arise predominantly from fronto-temporal pathology, axonal shearing and white matter
65 connectivity^{4,16}. Communication disorders may also include disorders of language (aphasia),
66 anomia (word-retrieval impairment) and/or motor speech (dysarthria)¹⁷. Such challenges
67 impact key functional and participation outcomes for individuals with TBI including
68 returning to work, independence and participation in social and leisure activities^{18,19}. There is
69 established consensus that global outcome measures fail to adequately capture
70 communication performance across these range of impairments and there is need for
71 inclusion of more nuanced measures in prognostic research²⁰.

72 Communication problems commonly impact everyday discourse activities such as
73 having a conversation and consequently affect participation in everyday interactions. For
74 example, people with a TBI may have difficulty initiating conversation, disinhibiting socially
75 inappropriate or contributing to a conversation, Unsurprisingly, conversations of people with

76 TBI may be perceived as effortful, uninteresting, inappropriate and unrewarding²¹. This can
77 be attributed to the inherent complexity of social interaction and TBI disrupting the
78 interaction between cognition, communication, emotional, physical and personal factors, self-
79 regulation and communication competence²¹⁻²³. The communication environment which
80 includes communication partners can also play a crucial role in the success of post-injury
81 interactions²⁴. Many people with severe TBI have chronic cognitive-communication
82 problems that contribute to poor psychosocial outcomes such as breakdown in family
83 relationship²⁵, loss of friends²⁶, a failure to return to work and social isolation²⁷.

84 **Modelling communication outcomes after TBI**

85 Whilst a handful of studies have examined communication outcomes there is insufficient
86 evidence available for prognosis of communication outcomes after severe TBI due to
87 limitations in existing study designs. For example, age at time of injury and Functional
88 Independence Measure -Motor scores were identified as predictors of communication items
89 in a sample of 292 patients with mild-severe TBI²⁸. In other research, education and TBI
90 severity were identified as the most significant predictive factors of language outcomes in a
91 cohort of 348 acute patients with mild-severe TBI²⁹. The core limitations of these existing
92 studies include insufficient sensitivity to the nuances of communication with use of tools
93 such as the Functional Independence Measure, a narrow focus on the impairment domain of
94 the WHO-ICF and failure to extend beyond the acute period of recovery. Also, there is a need
95 to consider a wider range of variables in multivariate analysis including pre-injury/injury and
96 post-injury variables which have not been included in existing prognostic modelling.

97 **Modelling psychosocial outcomes with inclusion of communication variables**

98 Various outcome measures have been utilised in prognostic models for TBI³⁰ such as the
99 Functional Independence Measure³¹ and the Glasgow Outcome Scale Extended³². Whilst
100 these core outcome measures are highly informative, they are not sensitive to detecting subtle

101 cognitive-communication deficits. Hence, the addition of measures with improved sensitivity
102 to cognitive-communication³³ and nuanced psychosocial outcomes following TBI is
103 warranted. Participation -level outcomes³⁴ and return to work or driving outcomes have also
104 been explored in prognostic modelling and shown to be informative for capturing long-term
105 psychosocial outcomes³⁵. Injury severity has consistently shown to be associated with
106 psychosocial outcomes³⁵ but there is a need to further understand factors influencing
107 psychosocial outcomes following severe TBI. There is a paucity of models including pre-
108 injury and injury variables but also sensitive measures of communication. Such nuanced
109 communication measures at 6 months, in addition to age, years of education and aphasia have
110 been shown to predict psychosocial outcomes at 1 year post-injury¹⁸ but it is unknown if
111 these findings reflect outcomes beyond the first year.

112 **Current Study & Aims**

113 The present study was motivated by the need for prognostic models of communication and
114 psychosocial outcomes for TBI that incorporate prospective, longitudinal methodologies
115 extending beyond acute recovery and include nuanced communication measures across the
116 WHO-ICF domains. Such models are required to inform delivery and planning of
117 rehabilitation services. Hence, the primary aim of this study was to develop prognostic
118 models for communication and psychosocial outcomes at 2-years post severe TBI including
119 pre-injury, injury and post-injury variables and communication variables that extend across
120 the WHO-ICF domains.

121 **METHODS**

122 **Study design**

123 A prospective longitudinal cohort design was selected to meet the aims of the study. Data
124 were collected at 3 months post-injury, 6 months post-injury and 2-years post-injury.

125 **Participants**

126 Participants were recruited from three metropolitan Brain Injury Rehabilitation Units in
127 [Redacted for review]. Participants were included in the study if they were aged between 16
128 and 70 years of age, had sustained a severe TBI (Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) score \leq 8
129 and/or post-traumatic amnesia (PTA) duration $>$ 24 hours)³⁶, were no longer in a state of
130 PTA, were medically stable, and spoke English as a language of daily use. Exclusion criteria
131 included history of a previous neurological illness (e.g., dementia) or TBI or if the clinical
132 team deemed the patient unsuitable for the project (medical reasons $n = 1$; other reason $n =$
133 1). Recruitment was conducted over a 21-month period between June 2011 and March 2013.
134 Participants were required to identify a familiar communication partner to participate in
135 selected components of the assessment battery. A flow diagram of the recruitment and
136 retention process is presented in Figure 1.

137 *Figure 1 about here*

138 **Measures**

139 Pre-injury/injury predictor measures

140 Three pre-injury measures were examined in this study: age, gender, and years of education.
141 Measures were initially obtained from patient report and verified with the patient medical
142 record. The lowest GCS and PTA duration were captured as proxy measures of injury
143 severity.

144 **Post-injury predictor measures (3 and 6 months)**

145 The post-injury measures comprised a selection of cognitive tests, and
146 speech/language/communication measures. Three cognitive domains were evaluated: (i)
147 information processing speed using the Symbol Digit Modalities Test³⁷, (ii) verbal and visual
148 memory using the Hopkins Verbal Learning Test³⁸, and the Brief Visuospatial Memory
149 Test³⁹ respectively; and (iii) executive functioning, using three subtests from the

150 Neuropsychological Assessment Battery⁴⁰. For data analysis, the processing speed and
151 memory domains were combined into a single index.

152 The speech/language/communication measures spanned multiple ICF domains.
153 Impairments were evaluated with three tests: Western Aphasia Battery-Revised (WAB-R)⁴¹,
154 the Boston Naming Test-2 (BNT-2)⁴², and Frenchay Dysarthria Assessment-2 (FDA-2)⁴³.
155 Communication at the activity level was evaluated with the Functional Assessment of Verbal
156 Reasoning and Executive Strategies (FAVRES)⁴⁴.

157

158 Post-injury communication outcome measures (2-years)

159 Outcome measures collected at 2-years post-injury included two communication measures
160 that capture participation and environmental domains of functioning: the La Trobe
161 Communication Questionnaire–other report (LCQ-other)⁴⁵ and the Adapted Kagan Rating
162 Scales which include two components; conversation participation (Measure of Participation
163 in Conversation, MPC) and conversation support (Measure of Support in Conversation,
164 MSC)⁴⁶. The MPC and MSC are calculated from a 10-minute unstructured conversation
165 sample between the individual with TBI and a familiar communication partner.

166

167 Post-injury outcome psychosocial measures (2-years).

168 The Sydney Psychosocial Reintegration Scale – 2 other report⁴⁷ was selected as the
169 psychosocial outcome measure at 2 years.

170

171 An overview of the measures is provided in Table 1. All measures were delivered using
172 standardised administration and scoring guidelines and have published evidence of adequate
173 test reliability.

174

Table 1 about here

175 **Procedure**

176 Participants were assessed at 3 months (if enrolled) and/or six months, and two-years post
177 injury. Assessments were conducted in entirety by one of two registered speech pathologists
178 (EE & BK) and one of the two clinical neuropsychologist recruited to the project. All
179 assessors had experience in standardised test administration and interviewing of people with
180 TBI. Where possible, the same assessor and order of task administration was used for each
181 participant at each time point. Assessors were unblinded to the assessment time point. The
182 administration of items across the time points is indicated in Table 1. To reduce the burden of
183 testing, the WAB-R and FDA-2 were only readministered from 3 to 6 months if performance
184 at 3 months was impaired. The FAVRES (cognitive-communication measure) was initially
185 included at 3 months but was not well tolerated by a pilot group of participants.
186 Subsequently, this test was removed from the 3-month time point.

187 **Participant characteristics**

188 Forty-six males and 11 females aged between 16-66 with a median age of 33 years (35.25 +/-
189 13.1) participated in this study. Demographic data was available for 52 out of 57
190 communication partners who completed the proxy measures. The communication partners
191 were predominantly female n = 43 with a mean age of 46.67 years. Relationship to the
192 participant was mostly parents (n=24) followed by partners (n=16) then children (n=5),
193 siblings (n=4) and other relatives (n=3). Table 2 presents an overview of descriptive data for
194 the pre-injury, post-injury and outcome variables.

195 *Insert Table 2 about here*

196 **Data Analysis**

197 Initial screening of continuous predictor variables with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov indicated
198 nonparametric data. Assumption testing was completed for the regressions. A principal
199 components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was conducted on the initial 3-month

200 cognition variables. This was done to minimise multicollinearity and to reduce the subject to
201 variable ratio. A two-component solution was deemed to be the most interpretable. This
202 solution accounted for 69.55% of variance in the data. The final solution with seven
203 cognition variables accounted for 72.75% of variance in the data. The components were
204 named Processing/Memory (component 1) and Executive Functions (component 2). The
205 variables defining each component with loadings and Cronbach's α values is presented in
206 Appendix 1. The correlation between the two components was $r = .58$.

207 The research questions, investigating predictive factors underlying communication
208 recovery and psychosocial outcomes, was addressed through multiple regression design with
209 three blocks as indicated in Table 3 and Spearman correlation analyses between variables as
210 indicated in Table 4. A two-tailed test of significance with an alpha level of .05 was applied
211 to the analysis. All significance tests used adjusted p value based on 1,000 bias-corrected
212 bootstrapped samples.

213 **Rigour**

214 Design and reporting of this study was guided by the Tripod statement⁴⁸.

215 **Ethics**

216 This project was approved by the Australian National Human Research Ethics Committee.
217 Approval was also obtained from relevant health service and university Human Research
218 Ethics Committees, with informed consent or assent obtained from the person with TBI
219 and/or guardian.

220

221 **RESULTS**

222 **Predictors**

223 Prediction models are presented in Table 3. Of the three communication outcomes measured
224 at 2 years, only the 6-month variables significantly predicted one outcome, which was

225 conversation participation (Kagan MPC). ($R^2 = .678$, $p = .025$). The cognitive-communication
226 measure (FAVRES) uniquely accounted for 7% of the variance in this model ($\beta = .542$,
227 $SE = .006$, $p = .171$). Dysarthria also accounted for 7.7% of the variance in this model ($\beta = .329$,
228 $SE = .010$, $p = .153$). The remaining regression models for 2-year communication outcome
229 measures were not significant.

230 Psychosocial outcomes (SPRS-2-other) at 2 years were significantly predicted by pre-
231 injury/injury variables ($R^2 = .334$, $p = .013$), 3-month variables ($R^2 = .395$, $p = .013$) and 6 month
232 variables ($R^2 = .498$, $p = .006$). Pre-injury education level uniquely accounted for 17.3% of the
233 variance in the first block. The information processing speed/memory index at 3 months
234 uniquely predicted 13.8% of the variance in the second block. The cognitive-communication
235 measure (FAVRES) uniquely accounted for 9.2% of the variance in the final block and
236 represents a large effect size however it did not reach significance due to the small sample
237 size.

238 *Table 3 about here*

239 **Correlations**

240 Correlation coefficients between all variables and the 2-year outcomes are provided in Table
241 4. Significant correlation coefficients are detailed below. Correlation coefficients are positive
242 unless stated otherwise.

243

244 **Demographic variables**

245 Longer PTA duration was associated with reduced psychosocial outcome (SPRS-2-other) ($R_s = -.432$, $p = .005$). The GCS and the Kagan MSC (conversation support) ($R_s = -.406$, $p = .049$)
246 had a moderate negative correlation. Education years had a weak correlation with SPRS-2-
247 other (other-reported psychosocial outcomes) ($R_s = .378$, $p = .016$).

249

250 **3 months**

251 The information processing speed/memory measure was moderately correlated with
252 psychosocial outcomes at 2 years (SPRS-2-other) ($R_S = .570$, $p = .000$). Aphasia also had a
253 moderate correlation with SPRS-2-other ($R_S = .435$, $p = .013$). There was also a moderate
254 correlation between the information processing speed/memory index and the conversation
255 participation measure (Kagan MPC) ($R_S = .538$, $p = .012$). The executive function index was
256 weakly correlated with the SPRS-2-other (other-reported psychosocial outcomes) ($R_S = .396$,
257 $p = .022$).

258

259 **6 months**

260 A strong correlation was identified between the cognitive-communication measure
261 (FAVRES) and psychosocial outcomes (SPRS-2-other) ($R_S = .706$, $p = .000$) and conversation
262 participation (Kagan MPC) ($R_S = .707$, $p = .001$) at 2 years. The cognitive-communication
263 measure (FAVRES) was also moderately negatively correlated with the LCQ-other (other-
264 reported perceived communication) ($R_S = -.459$, $p = .008$).

265 The information processing speed/memory index was moderately negatively
266 correlated with perceived communication (LCQ other) ($R_S = -.507$, $p = .002$) and moderately
267 positively correlated with the psychosocial outcome measure (SPRS-2-other) ($R_S = .546$,
268 $p = .001$). The executive function index was moderately correlated with conversation
269 participation (Kagan MPC) ($R_S = .456$, $p = .043$) and weakly correlated with the perceived
270 communication (LCQ-other) ($R_S = .384$, $p = .021$).

271 Aphasia was moderately correlated with psychosocial outcomes (SPRS-2-other) (R_S
272 $= .497$, $p = .001$) and conversation participation (Kagan MPC) ($R_S = .663$, $p = .001$). Dysarthria
273 was moderately correlated with conversation participation (Kagan MPC) ($R_S = .556$, $p = .006$)
274 and weakly correlated with the psychosocial outcomes (SPRS-2-other) ($R_S = .334$, $p = .044$).

275

Table 4 about here

276 **DISCUSSION**

277 This is the first study to explore predictors of communication and psychosocial outcomes
278 following severe TBI across the WHO-ICF domains of impairment, activity/participation and
279 environmental domains. Overall, predicting communication recovery and psychosocial
280 outcomes after severe TBI is a complex phenomenon that is influenced by an individual's
281 premorbid functioning, the nature of their injury and early communication and
282 neuropsychological function.

283

284 **Factors that predict communication recovery at two years post injury**

285 At 3 months post-injury, no communication measures and only one
286 neuropsychological domain, the information and processing speed/memory index, predicted
287 communication outcomes. This finding was unsurprising due to the many known factors that
288 can potentially affect early communication performance¹¹ including the possible influence
289 of medications, fatigue and generalized confusion that are common in the early recovery
290 phase. At 3 months many participants were also demonstrating resolving language and motor
291 speech issues and heterogeneity of communication outcomes is well reported in this
292 population, which may also account for varied findings⁴⁹. Of note, the cognitive-
293 communication measure (FAVRES) was unable to be effectively administered to participants
294 at 3 months. These are important findings for clinicians who frequently receive requests to
295 provide prognostic information to individuals with TBI and their caregivers. Early cognitive
296 performance paired with consideration of early recovery factors such as generalised
297 confusion, fatigue, and the ability to tolerate cognitive-communication assessment, may be
298 indicative of later communication recovery. On the other hand, six months post injury was a
299 critical timeframe for predicting participants' communication outcomes. The six-month

300 predictive findings may also incorporate the effect of including the cognitive communication
301 measure (FAVRES). A stronger cognitive-communication (FAVRES) profile at 6 months
302 predicted positive participation in conversation (Kagan-MPC). This tool appears to be a
303 potent assessment of potential communication outcomes when administered at 6 months post
304 injury and highlights the importance of communication assessment at the level of activity and
305 participation. Future directions for research could include further validation and reliability
306 testing of sensitive cognitive-communication measures that can be sufficiently tolerated
307 during early recovery.

308

309 **Factors that predict psychosocial outcomes at two years post injury**

310 Communication measures at 6 months predicted 2-year psychosocial outcomes in this study.
311 Unique predictors included pre-injury education level, PTA duration and information
312 processing speed/memory (3 months). These findings are aligned with existing evidence
313 around the influence of pre-injury education, injury severity variables and early
314 neuropsychological variables on outcomes following TBI ¹⁰. A novel finding of this study
315 was that communication measures at 6 months, including a measure of cognitive-
316 communication (FAVRES) predicted psychosocial outcomes, such as maintaining social
317 relationships at 2-years (LCQ-other). This was the first study to include communication
318 measures across the ICF into a predictive outcome model. Incorporating the activity and
319 participation-level cognitive-communication measure (FAVRES) in the multiple regression
320 model predicted the 2-year psychosocial outcomes which reinforces the value of assessing
321 and supporting communication at the level of activity and participation.

322 Clinicians should be cognizant that early cognitive performance paired with
323 consideration of early recovery factors may provide an indication on potential prognosis of
324 communication. The clinical implications for these findings could include recommending

325 services for cognitive-communication difficulties during early recovery and advocating for
326 maintenance of services for cognitive-communication disorders beyond 6 months post-injury.
327 Key clinical tools could include the Functional Assessment of Verbal Reasoning and
328 Executive Strategies to inform service recommendations, and conversation as a core
329 communication outcome measure. For more in-depth case descriptions on the topic of
330 communication recovery, the reader is directed to other publications arising from this
331 dataset⁵⁰⁻⁵⁵.

332 **Study Limitations & Future Research**

333 This is the first study to provide a comprehensive profile of communication recovery at the
334 impairment, activity/participation and environment levels 2-years after severe TBI.
335 Limitations included the sample size and low subject to variable ratio which was impacted by
336 the challenges of recruiting and retaining adults with severe TBI for rigorous communication
337 assessment. Hence, the results of this paper should be interpreted cautiously and future
338 research with large sample sizes is warranted to confirm these findings. The study excluded
339 non-English speaking people, people with mental health or substance abuse issues and people
340 who were deemed inappropriate by the clinical teams . These exclusions may have influenced
341 findings by removing a small number of potential participants who may have had poor
342 communication outcomes. The assessors were aware of the post-injury time point, but this
343 potential bias was reduced through standardized administration and scoring procedures. The
344 assessors were aware of the post-injury time point, but this potential bias was reduced
345 through standardized administration and scoring procedures. Future research is needed to
346 further examine predictors of communication recovery in larger samples and to explore the
347 effects of early intervention upon long term outcomes. Considerations for future research
348 include exploring the sensitivity and acceptability of measures during early recovery.
349 Researchers might consider screening tools (e.g. WAB-R screening) or shortened/adapted

350 versions of the measures selected. Capturing additional relevant variables such as fatigue and
351 social cognition measures (e.g. The Awareness of Social Inference Test – Short⁵⁶) may also
352 add value to prognostic research in this field.

353

354 **Conclusions**

355 Outcomes from this study demonstrate a complex web of factors underpinning recovery of
356 communication skills and return to premorbid levels of vocational, leisure and social
357 participation and independence. Our study emphasises the importance of timely clinical
358 services for cognitive-communication difficulties during early recovery from TBI .
359 Moreover, ongoing recovery of cognitive-communication was identified at six months post
360 injury and services should be maintained to support persisting cognitive-communication
361 challenges consistent with existing evidence-based practice recommendations¹¹. Our findings
362 suggest that the FAVRES provides a sensitive and powerful contribution to a speech
363 pathologist’s diagnostic tool kit. Adopting an activity level and more participatory approach
364 to verbal reasoning and cognitive-communication may address a broad range of rehabilitation
365 goals for people with severe TBI. Findings also suggest that injury variables and performance
366 in everyday communication tasks, such as conversation should not be understated as relevant
367 to communication outcomes.

368 **Transparency, Rigor and Reproducibility Summary**

369 The study design was a longitudinal prospective inception cohort guided by the TRIPOD
370 Checklist. Sample size was 57 participants with severe Traumatic Brain Injury based on
371 optimal sample size for multiple regression with 5 predictors, an alpha of .05, power set at
372 0.8 and a medium effect size $R^2=.25$. Principle components analysis with a varimax rotation
373 was used to minimise multicollinearity and to improve the subject:variable ratio. All
374 significance tests used adjusted p values based on 1,000 bias-corrected bootstrapped samples.

375 Participants were assessed at 3 months, 6 months and 2 years post-injury by qualified health
376 professionals. Conversation measures at 2 years were significantly predicted by cognitive and
377 communication measures at 6 months ($R^2=.678$; $p=.025$). Psychosocial outcomes at 2 years
378 were significantly predicted by pre-injury/injury factors ($R^2=.334$; $p=.013$), 3 month
379 cognitive and communication variables ($R^2=.395$; $p=.009$) and 6 month cognitive and
380 communication measures ($R^2=.498$; $p=.006$). The FAVRES cognitive-communication
381 measure uniquely accounted for 7% of the variance in conversation and 9% of the variance in
382 psychosocial outcomes. Other unique predictors included pre-injury education level and
383 processing speed/memory which respectively accounted for 17% and 14% of the variance in
384 psychosocial outcomes. Data from this study is available in the TalkBank repository and can
385 be accessed at <https://tbi.talkbank.org>.

386

387 Competing Interests: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. Referral, recruitment, and retention flowchart