

Impact of time to surgery on mortality in hypotensive patients with noncompressible torso hemorrhage: An AAST multicenter, prospective study

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BACKGROUND:	Death from noncompressible torso hemorrhage (NCTH) may be preventable with improved prehospital care and shorter in-hospital times to hemorrhage control. We hypothesized that shorter times to surgical intervention for hemorrhage control would decrease mortality in hypotensive patients with NCTH.
METHODS:	This was an AAST-sponsored multicenter, prospective analysis of hypotensive patients aged 15+ years who presented with NCTH from May 2018 to December 2020. Hypotension was defined as an initial systolic blood pressure (SBP) \leq 90 mm Hg. Primary outcomes of interest were time to surgical intervention and in-hospital mortality.
RESULTS:	There were 242 hypotensive patients, of which 48 died (19.8%). Nonsurvivors had higher mean age (47.3 vs. 38.8; $p = 0.02$), higher mean New Injury Severity Score (38 vs. 29; $p < 0.001$), lower admit systolic blood pressure (68 vs. 79 mm Hg; $p < 0.01$), higher incidence of vascular injury (41.7% vs. 21.1%; $p = 0.02$), and shorter median (interquartile range, 25–75) time from injury to operating room start (74 minutes [48–98 minutes] vs. 88 minutes [61–128 minutes]; $p = 0.03$) than did survivors. Multivariable Cox regression showed shorter time from emergency department arrival to operating room start was not associated with improved survival ($p = 0.04$).
CONCLUSION:	Patients who died arrived to a trauma center in a similar time frame as did survivors but presented in greater physiological distress and had significantly shorter times to surgical hemorrhage intervention than did survivors. This suggests that even expediting a critically ill patient through the current trauma system is not sufficient time to save lives from NCTH. Civilian prehospital advance resuscitative care starting from the patient first contact needs special consideration. (<i>J Trauma Acute Care Surg.</i> 2022;92: 801–811. Copyright © 2022 American Association for the Surgery of Trauma.)
LEVEL OF EVIDENCE:	Prognostic/Epidemiologic, Level III
KEY WORDS:	Noncompressible torso hemorrhage; time to hemorrhage control; damage-control resuscitation; definitive control; advanced resuscitative care.

Noncompressible torso hemorrhage (NCTH) is the leading cause of potentially preventable death in both military and civilian populations, accounting for 30% to 40% of trauma-related mortality.^{1–3} Time is critical in hemorrhage control, as many deaths occur within the first few minutes following injury. In patients with severe truncal hemorrhage, expedited and effective hemostatic resuscitation and hemorrhage control is needed to restore end organ perfusion and improve outcomes.

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This study will be presented as a podium presentation at the 80th Annual Meeting of the American Association for the Surgery of Trauma (AAST) to be held September 29 to October 2, 2021 in Atlanta, Georgia.

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Traditionally in the United States (US), a “scoop and run” approach is deployed by emergency medical services (EMS), with heavy emphasis on expedited transport time to a trauma center. The current structural logistics for most US trauma centers upon arrival of a hemodynamically unstable patient is to first stop in the emergency department (ED) for initial assessment and management. In hypotensive NCTH patients, a focused assessment with sonography for trauma (FAST) ultrasound can demonstrate the need for surgical intervention; however, in the presence of a negative FAST, there is still a need for better diagnostic examinations. This group of patients are then often routed from the ED to the radiology suite for further imaging and then to either the operating room (OR) or interventional radiology suite for definitive hemorrhage control. This protracted course can be a time-consuming and life-threatening journey for a hemorrhaging patient with severe truncal injury.

Many hemorrhage-related deaths may be preventable with improved prehospital care and shorter times to definitive surgical care. Decreasing the time to definitive surgical care via OR resuscitation has been shown to improve outcomes, especially in penetrating trauma patients.⁴ Clarke et al.⁵ reported that the extent of hypotension and length of time (up to 90 minutes) in the ED in hypotensive patients with isolated intra-abdominal injuries increased the probability of death by 1% for each additional 3 minutes in the ED. In a recent retrospective analysis of a large sample from an urban Level I trauma center, Meizoso et al.⁶ found that taking more than 10 minutes to get to the OR was independently associated with mortality. This was the first study to examine and quantify how long is too long to spend in the trauma bay with a patient requiring an immediate

operation. The present study sought to expand on previous studies by prospectively observing time to surgery and mortality among NCTH patients, including those injured by blunt, as well as penetrating mechanisms.⁶ We hypothesized that shorter times to surgical intervention for hemorrhage control would decrease mortality in hypotensive patients with NCTH.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Study Population

This was a multicenter, prospective, observational study of injured patients with NCTH presenting to 15 participating trauma centers from May 2018 to December 2020. Of these centers, 13 are American College of Surgeons (ACS) and/or state designated as Level I and two are designated as Level II. Patients were included if they were 15 years or older with penetrating traumatic injury to torso (chest, abdomen or pelvis) with systolic blood pressure (SBP) of 90 mm Hg or lower at time of presentation to the ED or blunt traumatic injury to the torso with SBP of 90 mm Hg or lower. Exclusion criteria included patients younger than 15 years, transferred from an outside facility, penetrating gunshot wound to the head, extremity vascular injuries, had CPR performed prior to or upon arrival, received resuscitative thoracotomy in ED, had time to the OR longer than 12 hours, or with missing outcome data. This study was conducted following approval from the appropriate institutional review board at each collaborating center.

Study Variables

Data collected included patient demographics, Injury Severity Scores, injury location (chest, abdomen, pelvis), prehospital time, length of stay in the ED, admission vital signs, resuscitation therapy required in first 24 hours, admission laboratory workup, ED interventions, imaging studies, intraoperative injury findings, OR preparation time, time to wound vacuum-assisted closure placement or wound closure, in-hospital mortality, and hospital length of stay. Prehospital time was defined as the total time from activation of EMS to ED arrival in minutes. Length of stay in the ED was defined as the time in minutes from ED presentation to OR arrival. Operating room preparation time was defined as time in minutes from arrival in OR to time of skin incision. Time to hemorrhage control was defined as time from ED presentation to wound vacuum-assisted closure placement or time to wound closure. Hypotension was defined as an initial ED SBP \leq 90 mm Hg. The ED interventions examined included endotracheal intubation, chest tube thoracostomy,

pelvic stabilization, tourniquet placement, resuscitative balloon occlusion of the aorta (REBOA), and resuscitation (Supplemental Digital Content, <http://links.lww.com/TA/C307>).

Components of damage-control resuscitation (DCR) were examined for incidence of compliance.⁷ The components examined included use of prehospital blood, balanced massive transfusion protocol (MTP), use of tranexamic acid (TXA), use of thromboelastography, and use of REBOA. Balanced MTP was defined as a 1:1 to 1:2 plasma to PRBC ratio. The primary outcome of interest was all cause in-hospital mortality and time to surgery.

Statistical Analysis

Analysis was conducted using SPSS v27 (IBM; Armonk, NY). Values were reported as number, frequency, ranges, mean, standard deviation, median, and interquartile ranges (IQRs) where appropriate. χ^2 Analysis, Fisher exact test, Student *t* test, and the Mann-Whitney *U* test were used to compare groups where appropriate. Survival analysis was performed using multivariable Cox regression to assess the impact of time to surgery on mortality. These results were reported as adjusted hazard ratios along with corresponding 95% confidence intervals. The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

A total of 264 patients with SBP of 90 mm Hg or lower were entered into the database by the end of the study period. Of these, 22 (8.3%) were excluded due to missing outcome data (Fig. 1). Overall mortality was 19.8% ($n = 48$), with no difference in mortality rates between blunt and penetrating cohorts (19.0% vs. 21.3%, respectively; $p = 0.65$). Most of the deaths ($n = 27$, 56.3%) occurred within the first 24 hours of arrival with 20 (41.7%) mortality during the early phase of resuscitation (Table 1). There was no difference between surviving and deceased patients regarding incidence of chest injury, abdomen injury, or pelvic injury; however, nonsurvivors were significantly more likely to present with vascular injury ($p = 0.02$). Half of the cohort had injury to a single region ($n = 122$, 50.4%). Patients who died were significantly older than those that survived ($p = 0.02$), had higher mean New Injury Severity Score (NISS) ($p < 0.001$), lower ED SBP ($p < 0.01$), and had higher ED shock index ($p = 0.03$). The deceased cohort was more coagulopathic upon presentation as evidenced by significantly higher mean initial laboratory values for prothrombin time, partial thromboplastin time, and international normalized ratio ($p < 0.01$ for all).

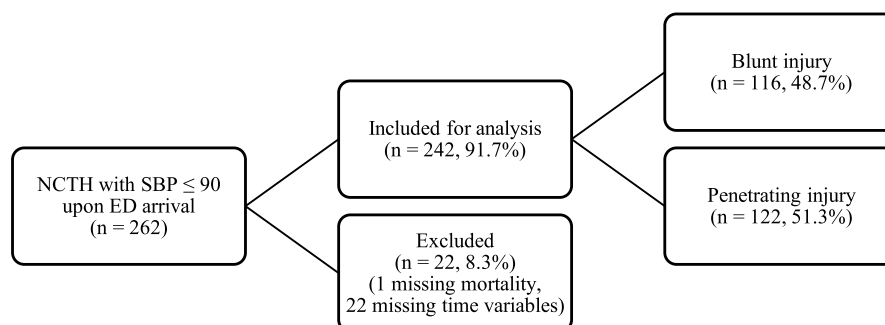


Figure 1. Flowchart of patient inclusion.

TABLE 1. Demographic, Prehospital, and Clinical Presentation of Study Population

Parameters	Total (N = 242)	Survivors (n = 194, 80.1%)	Nonsurvivors (n = 48, 19.8%)	P
Age, y*	40.5 (17.5)	38.8 (15.7)	47.3 (22.6)	0.02
Male, n (%)	181 (74.8)	143 (73.7)	38 (79.2)	0.44
Injury type, n (%)				
Blunt	116 (48.7)	94 (49.5)	22 (45.8)	0.65
Penetrating	122 (51.3)	96 (50.5)	26 (54.2)	
NISS*	31 (15)	29 (14)	38 (18)	<0.001
Chest injury, n (%)	133 (55.0)	102 (52.6)	31 (64.6)	0.13
Chest AIS score*	2.4 (1.7)	2.2 (1.7)	3.0 (1.6)	<0.01
Abdomen injury, n (%)	179 (74.0)	144 (74.2)	35 (72.9)	0.85
Abdomen AIS score*	2.9 (1.7)	2.8 (1.6)	3.1 (1.9)	0.32
Pelvis injury, n (%)	55 (22.7)	43 (22.2)	12 (25.0)	0.68
Pelvis AIS score*	1 (1.5)	0.9 (1.4)	1.1 (1.8)	0.28
Vascular injury, n (%)	61 (25.2)	41 (21.1)	20 (41.7)	0.02
PH PRBC, n (%)	20 (24.4)	14 (22.6)	6 (30.0)	0.50
PH plasma, n (%)	7 (8.5)	4 (6.5)	3 (15.0)	0.23
PH crystalloids, n (%)	87 (36.0)	64 (33.0)	23 (47.9)	0.05
Clinical presentation				
Admit vitals*				
Heart rate	109 (28)	110 (25)	105 (37)	0.39
SBP	77 (16)	79 (12)	68 (24)	<0.01
Shock Index	1.4 (0.5)	1.4 (0.5)	1.6 (0.5)	0.03
Respiratory rate	22 (9)	22 (9)	21 (12)	0.67
Glasgow Coma Scale scores	11 (5)	12 (4)	9 (5)	<0.001
TBI, n (%)	26 (11.0)	21 (11.2)	5 (10.4)	0.88
Admission laboratory values*				
Hemoglobin	11.7 (2.1)	11.9 (2.0)	10.9 (2.4)	<0.01
Hematocrit	35.9 (6.0)	36.4 (5.5)	33.5 (7.3)	0.02
Platelet count	217.6 (99.3)	230.8 (97.4)	156.8 (85.4)	<0.001
Lactate	6.4 (4.3)	6.2 (4.3)	7.2 (4.4)	0.28
Fibrinogen	24.2 (95.5)	239.9 (90.9)	209.8 (112.9)	0.22
PT	15.5 (5.1)	14.6 (2.7)	19.5 (9.5)	<0.01
PTT	34.2 (25.2)	30.6 (19.4)	51.6 (39.5)	<0.01
INR	1.3 (0.5)	1.2 (0.2)	1.8 (1.1)	<0.01
pH	7.21 (0.22)	7.23 (0.23)	7.10 (0.18)	<0.001
Base deficit	-1.5 (9.9)	-0.9 (8.9)	-3.8 (13.3)	0.25
ED procedures, n (%)				
Intubation	92 (38.8)	61 (32.3)	31 (64.6)	<0.001
Chest tube	84 (35.4)	59 (31.2)	25 (52.1)	<0.01
Pelvic stabilization	16 (6.8)	12 (6.3)	4 (8.3)	0.63
REBOA	9 (3.8)	7 (3.7)	2 (4.2)	0.88
TXA given	18 (7.4)	14 (7.2)	4 (8.3)	0.54
PRBC, units*	2.3 (2.2)	2.2 (2.3)	2.6 (1.9)	0.33
Plasma*	1.3 (2.0)	1.3 (1.9)	1.3 (2.0)	0.97
Platelets, units*	0.3 (0.7)	0.3 (0.7)	0.2 (0.7)	0.58
Crystalloids, mL*	725 (903)	720 (851)	743 (1100)	0.89

Continuous values are denoted by * and reported as mean (SD). All categorical values are frequencies reported as n (%).

AIS, Abbreviated Injury Scale; PH, prehospital; TBI, traumatic brain injury; PT, prothrombin time; PTT, partial thromboplastin time; INR, international normalized ratio.

ED Interventions

There was no difference in frequency of ED resuscitation (83.5% survivors vs. 89.6% nonsurvivors, $p = 0.54$), and mean number of blood products utilized in ED were similar between survivors and nonsurvivors. Nonsurvivors were more likely to undergo endotracheal intubation and chest tube thoracostomy

in the ED compared with survivors ($p < 0.01$ for both). Sub-group analysis by injury type revealed similar findings.

Preoperative Imaging and Operative Characteristics

Preoperative imaging studies and operative descriptors are detailed in Table 2. There was no difference between cohorts in

TABLE 2. Preoperative Imaging Studies and Operative Descriptors of Study Cohort

Imaging Studies Prior to OR	Total (N = 242)	Survivors (n = 194, 80.1%)	Nonsurvivors (n = 48, 19.8%)	P
Imaging studies done	218 (92.0)	176 (93.1)	42 (87.5)	0.20
Chest x-ray	181 (74.8)	148 (76.3)	33 (68.8)	0.28
Pelvis x-ray	101 (41.7)	80 (41.2)	21 (43.8)	0.75
Head CT	51 (21.1)	46 (23.7)	5 (10.4)	0.04
Chest CT	83 (34.3)	78 (40.2)	5 (10.4)	<0.001
Abdomen/pelvis CT	90 (37.2)	83 (42.8)	7 (14.6)	<0.001
FAST	147 (60.7)	119 (61.3)	28 (58.3)	0.70
Positive FAST	101 (68.7)	80 (67.2)	21 (75.0)	0.43
OR variables				
Type of OR				
Hybrid	29 (12.2)	25 (13.2)	4 (8.3)	0.36
Regular	208 (87.8)	164 (86.8)	44 (91.7)	
Fluid resuscitation	227 (95.8)	180 (95.2)	47 (97.9)	0.41
PRBC, units*	4.9 (12.3)	4.9 (6.2)	12.3 (12.5)	<0.001
Plasma, units*	4.2 (9.5)	4.2 (6.4)	9.5 (10.0)	<0.001
Platelets, packs*	0.9 (2.1)	0.9 (1.5)	2.1 (2.8)	<0.01
Crystalloids, mL*	2221 (2125)	2222 (1825)	2125 (2068)	0.76
TXA given	37 (15.3)	25 (12.9)	12 (25.0)	0.04
Highest HR reading*	121 (23)	118 (21)	133 (26)	<0.001
Lowest SBP*	79 (26)	83 (22)	61 (31)	<0.001
Lowest end tidal volume*	227 (196)	238 (196)	187 (194)	0.21
Damage-control thoracotomy	51 (21.5)	32 (16.9)	19 (39.6)	<0.01
Damage-control laparotomy	153 (64.6)	120 (63.5)	33 (68.8)	0.50

All values are frequencies reported as n (%) unless denoted by * which indicates mean (SD).
CT, computed tomography; PRBC, packed red blood cells; HR, heart rate.

frequency of chest or pelvis x-ray imaging studies performed prior to arriving in an OR. However, significantly more survivors underwent computed tomography studies of the head, chest, and/or abdomen and pelvis prior to the OR.

An examination of intraoperative variables showed no difference in frequency of resuscitation; however, survivors received significantly less blood products than did nonsurvivors ($p < 0.01$). Frequency of intraoperative TXA utilization was higher in the nonsurviving group than in survivors (25.0% vs. 12.9%, respectively; $p = 0.04$). Highest heart rate and lowest SBP during surgery were then examined. The deceased group

had significantly higher peak heart rates (133 vs. 118 beats per minute, $p < 0.001$) and lower lowest SBP (61 mm Hg vs. 83; $p < 0.001$) compared with the surviving cohort. Significantly more patients in the deceased group underwent damage-control thoracotomy (39.6% vs. 16.9%, $p < 0.01$), but there was no difference between the groups in rates of damage-control laparotomy.

Phases of Care Timeline Analysis

Time variables for each portion of patient care are detailed in Figure 2.

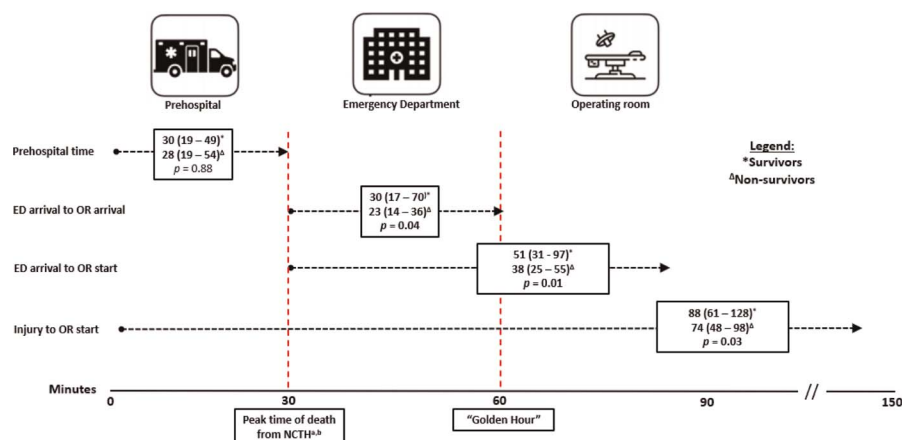


Figure 2. Time variables (in minutes) for phases of care in hypotensive, NCTH patients.

TABLE 3. Cox Regression Analysis of Factors Associated With Mortality

Parameters	Hazard Ratio	95% CI	P Value
Age, y	1.03	1.01–1.05	<0.01
New Injury Severity Score	1.02	1.01–1.04	0.02
Initial shock index	1.15	1.07–1.24	<0.001
Chest injury	1.23	0.59–2.56	0.59
Vascular injury	2.00	0.98–4.20	0.06
Prehospital time, min	0.99	0.98–1.01	0.48
ED arrival to surgery start, min	0.98	0.97–0.99	0.04

95% CI, 95% confidence interval.

There was no difference between survivors and nonsurvivors regarding median (IQR) prehospital time 30 minutes (19–51 minutes). However, both median (IQR) ED time (27 minutes [16–63 minutes]) and median (IQR) time from ED to OR start (48 minutes [30–85 minutes]) were significantly shorter in the nonsurviving group ($p \leq 0.04$ for both). There was no difference in median (IQR) OR preparation time between groups (15 [10–22] survivors vs. 13 [8–19] nonsurvivors; $p = 0.09$). When analyzing the continuum of care from time of injury to OR start (84 [58–117 minutes]), the deceased group had significantly shorter time ($p = 0.03$).

Predictors of Mortality

Multivariable Cox regression controlled for known predictors of mortality and examined impact of time to OR start on survival (Table 3). Confounders of age, NISS, and initial ED shock index were all significantly associated with mortality, while chest and vascular injury were not. Shorter time from ED arrival to surgery start was a predictor of mortality ($p = 0.04$).

Use of DCR Components

Frequency of use of DCR components was examined in survivors and nonsurvivors (Table 4). Prehospital blood was administered to 20 (8.3%) patients total with no difference between survivors and nonsurvivors ($p = 0.23$). Prehospital plasma use was of low frequency ($n = 7$, 2.9%). A total of 55 (24.2%) patients received TXA in either the ED or intraoperatively and did not differ between cohorts. A total of 225 patients had data

for intraoperative blood product use recorded. Of these, 44 (19.6%) received crystalloid only and no blood products, 24 (10.7%) received either 1 or 2 units of only PRBC or plasma (not both). The remaining 157 (69.8%) received both PRBC and plasma products. Within that subgroup, balanced ratio component therapy for resuscitation was used in 87.9% and did not differ between groups.

DISCUSSION

Time is a critical and irrecoverable factor in severe hemorrhage. The long-entrenched dogma of the golden hour has long maintained that critically injured patients who reach definitive care within an hour of injury have better outcomes than those who arrive outside of that first hour.⁸ Here, we question this dogma and demonstrate that, in patients with NCTH who present with severe hypotension, expedited time to damage-control surgery is not sufficient to reverse deranged physiology that is too far gone. Nonsurvivors arrived in greater physiological distress, which prompted significantly faster time to operative intervention, compared with survivors, and yet still suffered worse outcomes. In addition, compliance was low with many aspects of DCR with only a small fraction used in the patient population. This suggests that there is room for improvement in our current trauma system to adequately mitigate potentially preventable deaths due to hemorrhage.

The foundation of the current trauma system emphasizes rapid transport of the injured patient and early intervention to control hemorrhage. This is of paramount importance in NCTH, where the peak time to death has been demonstrated to be within 30 minutes of severe truncal injury.^{9,10} Median prehospital times reported here (30 minutes overall, 38 minutes for blunt, and 23 minutes for penetrating) were align closely to those of a recent National Trauma Data Bank (NTDB) analysis of more than 2.5 million NCTH patients. This highlights that patients are arriving near or after the peak time to mortality for this injury cohort. Importantly, there was no difference in prehospital time between survivors and nonsurvivors in the present study, but there was a significant difference in physiology upon arrival. Nonsurvivors arrived in a higher degree of shock, were more coagulopathic, and required significantly more blood intraoperatively. This indicates that the volume loss and associated physiological deterioration that occurred in nonsurvivors were largely insurmountable

TABLE 4. Frequency of DCR Component Use

DCR Component	Total (N = 242)	Survivors (n = 194)	Nonsurvivors (n = 48)	P
Volume replacement			n = 48	
PH PRBC	20 (8.3)	14 (7.2)	22 (12.5)	0.23
PH plasma	7 (2.9)	4 (2.1)	3 (6.3)	0.12
Balanced ratio resuscitation in OR	138/157 (87.9)	102/116 (87.9)	36/41 (87.8)	0.88
TEG	70 (28.9)	59 (30.4)	11 (22.9)	0.24
Volume retention				
REBOA	9 (3.8)	7 (3.7)	2 (4.2)	0.88
ED or intraoperative TXA	55 (24.2)	39 (21.7)	16 (34.0)	0.08

Note: 157 patients (116 survivors and 41 nonsurvivors) received both PRBC and plasma intraoperatively, so those samples sizes were used as the denominator in assessment of balanced resuscitation in the OR.

TEG, thromboelastography

by the time these patients arrived at an ED, and suggests that “scoop and run” should be modified to a “scoop and control” approach.

Further, our findings of an overall mortality rate of 19.8%, with a median time spent in the ED of 27 minutes, and median ED arrival to surgical start of 47.5 minutes are nearly identical to those in a similar patient population from admit years 2012 to 2013.¹¹ The similarity in mortality rates over a decade underscores the known stagnation of mortality rates in this population, while the similar time frames of care phases suggest that reduced ED times and times to OR start have plateaued. However, it may not be feasible in many centers to make further reductions in in-hospital processes to expedite time to the OR. If in-hospital processes are nearly as efficient as they can be within the current system and if the peak time of death is occurring within the median time from injury to ED arrival, then the opportunity for meaningful change must lie outside of the hospital. Resuscitative and hemorrhage control adjuncts should be brought closer to the point of injury while maintaining rapid transport.^{9,10,12,13}

The military has recognized NCTH as a leading cause of potentially preventable deaths and has responded by implementing advanced resuscitative care (ARC) on the battlefield, which includes whole blood resuscitation and REBOA.¹⁴ Military experience has demonstrated that resuscitation with blood products improves outcomes, especially when started early in the prehospital phase.^{15,16} During the military conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq in the early 2000s, use of whole blood resurfaced and has since become the cornerstone of battlefield resuscitation.¹⁷ A review of more than 6000 units of warm fresh whole blood transfused by the military to patients with severe hemorrhage who required massive transfusion revealed decreased 48-hour and 30-day mortalities.¹⁸

These interventions are not current practice in the prehospital phase of civilian trauma care in the United States; however, as military successes in trauma care often cross into civilian care, use of whole blood or modified (leukoreduced) whole blood is experiencing renewed interest.^{19–23} Prehospital administration of plasma, packed red blood cells, and whole blood have each been examined to varying degrees in the civilian sector and have been associated with survival benefit.^{23–25} However, implementation in many areas has been slow, and the practices have yet to become widely adopted. Of the 15 large, urban trauma centers included in this study, only six recorded use of prehospital PRBC in a total of 20 patients and a lone center reported use of prehospital plasma in seven patients. Similarly, REBOA remains vastly underutilized by trauma surgeons in many trauma centers, perhaps due to mixed results regarding survival benefit or the lack of clear guidelines or consensus.^{26–31} Here, REBOA was used in only 9 (3.7%) patients.

Numerous previous studies have examined potentially preventable prehospital and early in-hospital deaths in attempts to determine who might benefit from advanced resuscitative techniques.³² A retrospective cohort study reviewed 198 autopsy reports for NCTH patients who presented to a large Level I trauma center with cardiac arrest and found that more than 10% could have benefitted from prehospital REBOA.³³ Another recent retrospective review of 316 prehospital and early in-hospital deaths identified 12% as potentially preventable and that might have been amenable to ARC interventions.¹³ Kalkwarf et al.³⁴ examined more than 1800 trauma deaths categorized as preventable or potentially preventable and concluded that 34.5% of deaths

were potentially preventable. To realize this potential benefit and to reduce what have become stagnant mortality rates in this patient population despite numerous in-hospital advancements, evidence-based improvements in prehospital care driven by the military must find their way into the civilian arena.^{12,21}

Lastly, trauma care has long emphasized the ABCs—sequential priorities of Airway, Breathing, and Circulation—as standard of care in treatment of the critically injured patient. However, the order of this sequence has recently been called into question, particularly for patients who are in hypovolemic shock with ventilation perfusion mismatch.^{35,36} Ferrada et al.³⁶ demonstrated via a multicenter review that reordering of the sequence to CAB—resuscitation with blood product first followed by endotracheal intubation—in patients with presumptive hypovolemic shock was not associated with increased mortality. Numerous studies have demonstrated that prioritizing perfusion over airway improves outcomes in nontrauma patients, and reduced time to initiation of in-hospital MTP is known to yield better clinical outcomes in hypotensive patients.^{37–42} Importantly, intravenous and intraosseous access have been shown to not increase EMS scene times.³⁵ Therefore, extension of the CAB model into prehospital ARC may improve survival and warrants further investigation.

Operationalizing ARC into civilian care will be rich with challenges, many of which have been previously discussed.^{9,13,32} For example, execution of REBOA requires arterial access, which is outside of the scope of practice of paramedics and could potentially require an overhaul of the current prehospital system by dispatching physicians to the scene of injury. In addition, it is important in a discussion of prehospital procedures to remember that there is no one-size-fits-all approach, but rather the solutions must be tailored appropriately, depending on factors, such as injury type, proximity to the nearest trauma center, and availability of resources.³⁵ For example, there is a significant and growing body of evidence demonstrating the harm that can result from prehospital procedures in cases of penetrating torso trauma in urban locations.^{43–46} Conversely, major limb trauma from both blunt and penetrating mechanisms has been shown to benefit from prehospital tourniquet application, even in rural locations.^{47–49} Importantly, these interventions should not delay scene or transport times and should be applied to the appropriate patient subset.

Study Limitations

There are several study limitations that require mention. First, prehospital times reported here represent time from EMS dispatch to ED arrival and do not account for the time elapsed between injury and call to emergency services, and thus, likely are an underestimation of true time from injury to presentation. This further emphasizes that the opportunity for lifesaving intervention has often passed before a patient reaches definitive care. Second, prehospital procedures outside of fluid resuscitation were not captured. Therefore, any potential effect(s) of volume preserving measures such as pressure dressings and tourniquets cannot be known in the present dataset. Third, there may be a subset of patients who were initially hypotensive who hemodynamically improved in response to resuscitation. However, only initial ED vitals were captured so this potential subset of patients cannot be examined in the present dataset. Further, longer time to surgery may reflect a survivor bias whereby more physiologically

stable patients undergo urgent, but not emergent surgery. However, there were no differences observed in Injury Severity Score, admit shock index, or admit Glasgow Coma Scale between those who reached surgical intervention within or beyond 60 minutes of ED arrival. Low overall use of many components of DCR across institutions may have potentially contributed to some deaths, but there was no difference in frequency between survivors and nonsurvivors so is likely not a primary explanatory factor. Finally, there may be additional confounders that are unaccounted for in this study, which may have influenced outcomes.

Conclusion

In conclusion, many patients with NCTH die before they can realistically reach an ED or operating suite and long before the fabled “Golden Hour.” This suggests that the current US trauma system is not sufficient to reduce mortality from NCTH. Faster is better for this critically injured population, and hemorrhage control and blood product resuscitation should be moved closer to the point of injury as part of ARC while maintaining rapid transport if potentially preventable deaths are to be prevented.

AUTHORSHIP

J.D., D.T., J.S., T.C. participated in the study conception and design. K.S., I.P., J.D.B., B.Y., J.M., J.S., M.T., T.C., A.E.B., T.K., G.R., S.N., K.M., G.C., B.M.L., T.J., L.V.S., J.P., Z.M., A.J.G., R.M.M., G.P., M.J.L., J.H., G.M., M.C., D.T. participated in the acquisition of data. J.D., D.T., A.E.B. participated in the analysis and interpretation of article. D.T., J.D. participated in the drafting of article. J.D., D.T., A.E.B. participated in the critical review/revision.

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DISCLOSURE

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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DISCUSSION

LAWRENCE LOTTENBERG, M.D. (Jupiter, Florida): Good morning. Thank you so much for the honor and the opportunity of the podium to discuss this highly-poignant study from our own multicenter group here at the AAST.

This is a study authored by Dr. Duchesne and a whole host of other investigators, many of whom I have had the pleasure of knowing, mentoring, and working with over the years. They bring a wealth of knowledge.

Trauma care has evolved so much over my 40-year career, we’ve seen so many improvements in prehospital and in-hospital care. We’ve learned so much from our violent crime cities, mass shootings and extraordinary military experience.

We are now left with the conundrum of a relatively small group of patients with non-compressible torso hemorrhage.

The study group hypothesized that shorter times to surgical intervention would decrease mortality in hypotensive patients with non-compressible torso hemorrhage, just like you and I would have assumed.

The group was diverse, all over the U.S., all types of patients, both blunt and penetrating, all hypotensive as defined by the group as a systolic of less than 90, all arriving at major trauma centers, all getting timely resuscitative care, all getting to the OR in a timely fashion.

Despite everything all of us know we can throw at these patients in extremis, there was still almost a 20 percent mortality.

Additionally, the sicker patients got to the OR quicker and had hemorrhage control quicker, but still this did not make a difference that we all thought it would. So, even expediting a critically-ill patient through the current system is not enough.

It seems that the group concludes that the difference maker may, in fact, be at the time and place of injury and not specifically in the trauma recess room or in the OR.

So what else can we do in the next 40 years? I have the following questions.

You mentioned TXA but what about other pharmacology? Did you look at PCC use? Did you look at concentrated fibrinogen in the field?

What about point-of-care testing in the field? Would this give you a better idea of what is going on and an earlier diagnosis of trauma-induced coagulopathy?

What percentage of the non-compressible torso patients were intubated in the field? And how did that subgroup compare to the non-intubated patients arriving with a systolic of less than 90?

Did you look at patients who were awake with a systolic of less than 80? A systolic of less than 70?

Did they get circulation airway breathing first or airway breathing circulation first?

Next question, how do you think we can use REBOA in the field in the U.S., outside of the military?

For the subset of gunshot wounds, were you able to use the Shot Spotter technology to give you a head start on the injured patients?

And the follow-up to that was, do you think that law enforcement transportation, scoop-and-run, will make a difference over EMS transportation?

Which of the patients had junctional injuries? And are you considering these junctional injuries also non-compressible torso? And if so, has any technology such as Extat or any of the foams going to play a role in the future?

And what about the use of so-called junctional tourniquets or aortic compression-type tourniquets?

Finally, did any of these patients in this group go to trauma centers that bypasses the trauma resuscitation room and go directly to the operating room? Would this few minutes of change, would this few minutes of care truly make a difference?

This is not the first study that did not fulfill the original hypothesis, nor the first study that yields more questions than answers. But it certainly leaves all of us with a new group of patients to look at for the next frontier.

I thank all of you very much for allowing me the privilege of discussing this paper.

SAMIR M. FAKHRY, M.D. (Nashville, Tennessee): Hi, Juan, congratulations on another great piece of work on a very difficult subject. I have to commend you. It's been great fun following your work.

You made me think and the question that I am trying to answer is, is it actually possible to save these people?

I don't know if you have enough information to look and see what the injuries were exactly and was it reasonable to expect that they could be saved?

I'd be curious to see what you think.

Congratulations, once again, on really great work.

MARC A. de MOYA, M.D. (Milwaukee, Wisconsin): Juan, great to see you.

Wanted to ask you about the power analysis in this particular study because I'm a bit concerned of a Type 2 error here because of the effect size is fairly small, potentially, and so even

though you have a good number of patients overall, I'm not sure that it actually was, you know, good enough to actually answer that question in terms of that time issue.

You know, as Dr. Holcomb has brought up in the past, actually, I think that this time point to definitive hemorrhage control and revascularization is a key outcome measure for these trauma patients.

And so that's my first question is regarding the sample size, Number 1, and Type 2 error.

The second question is related to prehospital care. I think that we still, to this day, do too many things in the field that actually hurt our patients, as Dr. Goldberg has pointed out, in work in Philadelphia.

And so I'd like to actually just ask you about that because it seems as though there was a lot of this – catch as catch can – you know, in terms of the prehospital resuscitation strategies and limiting that resuscitation in the field and just getting them to the hospital.

Thank you.

ZACHARY J. COLES, M.D. (Englewood, New Jersey):

It seems that prehospital care and timing is a big aspect of your study so I just wanted to know if you are planning to present this at the EMS conference coming up in the next couple of days.

Thank you.

JUAN C. DUCHESNE, M.D. (New Orleans, Louisiana):

I'll do my best, sir. So we're going to start, first of all, thank you, Dr. Lottenberg, for the very good questions.

Regarding tranexamic acid, point-of-care and other pharmacology use, we did not collect that information in the prehospital setting but it is definitely something that we will start collecting since this AAST study is now going to be, hopefully, a new registry through the AAST Multi-Institutional Trials.

Regarding prehospital intubation, that is a very good question and actually we noted that patients that, non-survivors, they had more need of intubation and that put into question the ABC versus the CAB. I think once we gather more patient information we're going to have more clarity on this item.

I am not advocating for REBOA in the field. I am advocating for something that will potentially help in the field without staying and play. So that's something that we need better analysis on what would be the best intervention, if it's going to be foam expanders or any other kind of intervention/REBOA. It's all up for question out there.

Junctional was not collected but we demonstrated in previous analyses that junctional hemorrhaged patient's mortality was very similar to non-compressible torso hemorrhage, being that this is a new field of study.

Regarding the Spot Shooter and the law enforcement, our group demonstrated that law enforcement for penetrating injury and severe hypotension patients can make a difference so that's something that definitely needs more validation prospectively.

Bypass of the emergency department and going directly to the OR, we have data on 29 patients that actually underwent directly to the OR. And it was interesting that out of that 29, 25 patients survived, 4 died.

But, like Dr. de Moya mentioned, there might be a power analysis issue in our numbers and, obviously, through COVID that our numbers actually didn't actually suffer a little bit and that's why we want to keep this as an open analyses, registry, so we can keep collecting data.

Dr. Fakhry, thank you for your questions. Most of these injuries actually in the non-survivors were chest and vascular injuries. And I'm not sure if with new interventions there might be a

hope to get them alive to our trauma center but it's something that is open for more studies.

And I already talked about Dr. de Moya's issue with the power analysis and prehospital care.

We are not advocating for stay-and-play. We are advocating for scoop-and-control. And Dr. Coles, thank you so much, we will be looking forward for EMS conference. Thank you.