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COMMENTARY

Prehospital fresh frozen plasma: Universal life saver or treatment in search of a target population?

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Recently within 2 days of each other, two of the leading medical journals published trials on the use of prehospital fresh frozen plasma (FFP) for trauma patients, reaching apparently different conclusions. In the New England Journal of Medicine article reporting on the Prehospital Air Medical Plasma (PAMPer) trial, Sperry et al.1 found that two units of prehospital FFP was associated with an almost 10% survival advantage. In the Control of Major Bleeding After Trauma Trial (COMBAT) reported in the Lancet, Moore et al.2 found that the same volume of plasma had no survival advantage.

The concept of prehospital plasma is in theory attractive. You have an injured individual who is likely to need plasma in the next few hours, so why not preemptively reduce the bleeding by administering plasma first? An important issue to consider, however, is that at the injury scene the patient is not likely to be deficient in clotting factors yet. The prehospital transfusion of blood products has been shown to improve survival in US military combat casualties injured in Afghanistan.3

The normal range for clotting factors measured as percent of normal is approximately 50-150 with a mean of 100. It follows, that the average individual can lose half their plasma volume and still have clotting factor levels in the normal range even after reconstitution of blood volume. A major reduction in clotting factors can occur in two relevant settings, firstly when there is marked hemodilution such as that following major fluid resuscitation and secondly due to consumption in the presence of disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC). With the exception of obstetric DIC at the time of delivery, this consumption is not usually so rapid to become a major issue in the prehospital management of trauma.

Fresh frozen plasma is obtained from whole blood donation or plasmapheresis. While in the COMBAT trial they specify that they gave two units of approximately 250 mL each of FFP, the PAMPer investigators do not specify the volume of the two units they administered. The PAMPer FFP was prethawed and could be up to 5 days since thawing, while the COMBAT product was collected by plasmapheresis, frozen within 24 hours and thawed rapidly in special equipment before administration. In a study one of us was involved in, measuring clotting factor levels before and after administration of four units of optimally thawed FFP just before infusion, the increase in clotting factor levels was 9%-14%.4 Based on the volume of FFP infused in the PAMPer and COMBAT studies, the increase in factor levels would be 7% at best. This suggests that if prehospital FFP provides benefit, it is unlikely that this is through the substitution of coagulation factors. Other modes of FFP benefit include protecting the endothelial glycocalyx and reducing vascular permeability and inflammation.5,6

We compared the PAMPer and COMBAT trials looking for differences in their design and conduct to shed light on the true effect of FFP, if any (Table 1). Of course, the simplest explanation for the difference in results could well be a combination of chance and low power for the COMBAT study, due to low event rate and small sample size. The contribution of the COMBAT trial under a fixed effect meta-analysis approach would have been <10%, and the pooled estimates, driven by the larger PAMPer study, would have shown a significant benefit for plasma administration at both 24 hours (OR = 0.64, 95% CI 0.42-0.98) and 1 month (OR = 0.67, 95% CI 0.46-0.98). Even under the more conservative random-effect approach, the visual inspection of the forest plot (Figure 1) would support both the hypothesis the two trials observing a different effect (as their confidence intervals do overlap). However, there are clear differences between the trials, starting from the choice of results to report and the modality used to report them. The entry criteria for the two trials were the same in terms of blood pressure and heart rate measurements, but
### TABLE 1 Comparison of the PAMPer and COMBAT trials

|                  | PAMPer trial | COMBAT trial |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|
|                  | FFP          | Standard care | FFP | Saline |
| **Patient characteristics** |                |              |      |        |
| Number           | 230          | 271          | 65   | 60     |
| Age median (y)   | 44           | 46           | 33   | 32.5   |
| Male (%)         | 71.3         | 73.8         | 80   | 85     |
| Blunt injury     | 81.3         | 83.4         | 46   | 53     |
| Prothrombin time ratio or INR on arrival at hospital | 1.2           | 1.3          | 1.27 | 1.15   |
| **Injury severity** |                |              |      |        |
| Prehospital intubation (%) | 50           | 52           | Not given |        |
| Prehospital red cells (%) | 26.1         | 42.1         | Not given |        |
| Transfused red cells in first 24 h (%) | Not given | 55           | 58     |
| Injury severity score (median) | 22           | 21           | 27     |
| Operations in first 24 h (%) | 71.7         | 80.1         | Not given |
| Setting          | US air medical transport | Denver, US ground transport |    |        |
| Median prehospital transfer time (min) | 42           | 40           | 19   | 16     |
| **Entry qualification** |                |              |      |        |
| BP <90 mm Hg plus pulse >108 or BP <70 | 8            | 12           |      |
| **Randomization** |                |              |      |        |
| Cluster randomization to plasma or standard care at monthly intervals. Treating staff not blinded. | 2 units pre-thawed up to 5-day-old plasma | Standard care no fluid volume stipulated |
| Individual randomization by the content of coolers. Treating staff not blinded | 2 units apheresis FFP approx 500 mL | Normal saline as per standard care (volume not same) |
| **Intervention** |                |              |      |        |
| Prehospital crystalloid (mL) | 500          | 900          | 150  | 250    |
| **Outcome**      |                |              |      |        |
| 24-h mortality (%) | 13.9         | 22.1         | 12   | 10     |
| 28- or 30-day mortality (%) | 23.2         | 33           | 15   | 10     |

COMBAT, Control of Major Bleeding After Trauma Trial; FFP, fresh frozen plasma; PAMPer, Prehospital Air Medical Plasma.

### FIGURE 1 Random effect meta-analysis of mortality data from the PAMPer and COMBAT trials. CI, confidence interval; COMBAT, Control of Major Bleeding After Trauma Trial; PAMPer, Prehospital Air Medical Plasma trial.
the PAMPer trial patients were older, more likely female and much more likely to have sustained a blunt injury. In terms of severity of the injury, as defined by the injury severity score, the COMBAT trial patients were more severely affected—unfortunately, we do not have the data on prehospital intubation and interventions in the first 24 hours for the COMBAT trial.

An important difference between the trials emerges on looking at the control arms, both receiving standard care. These individuals had identical entry criteria and in theory similar management plans after reaching the hospital facility. However, the 24-hour mortality was 10% in the COMBAT trial and 22% in PAMPer, while the respective 28- to 30-day mortality was 10% and 33%. Such large differences must relate to differences in severity of the injury in the two groups, which unfortunately is not reported with sufficient details to allow a direct comparison. As these data must have been collected, the authors should be encouraged to publish data allowing direct comparison between the two trials, especially detailing the injury severity. It would also be good to see retrospective data from both research networks showing whether the mortality figures observed in the two trials are representative of their previous experience or they happened to select a more (PAMPer) or less (COMBAT) severe population.

Since both trials were randomized, one would expect the two arms to be comparable in every aspect except for the intervention. In the PAMPer trial, however, 42.6% of the standard care patients received prehospital red cells (vs 26.1% in the FFP arm) and an average 400 mL more crystalloid before reaching hospital. Both of these features could contribute to the higher mortality in the standard care group of the PAMPer study.

The transfer times from the scene of injury to hospital were longer at 40-42 minutes when performed by helicopter (PAMPer) while only 16-19 minutes by road ambulance (COMBAT). It can be argued that for road transfers, the interval is so short that it is unlikely that any prehospital intervention will make much difference, and intervention driven differences would be more likely seen as the transfer time increases. Irrespective of all the above issues, we believe the two studies show that if there is a benefit for prehospital FFP, this is not due to the clotting factors in the product. The coagulopathy of the patients in both trials on arrival to hospital was very mild, with a median prothrombin time ratio or INR of 1.3 or less. Furthermore, the COMBAT trial investigators report that the median levels for fibrinogen and factors II, V, VII, IX, XI, and XIII on arrival to hospital were normal in both groups and indeed were higher in the non-FFP group.

No adverse events in relation to the administration of the FFP were observed but three important issues need to be considered before implementing prehospital FFP as a policy:

(A) The FFP used was a not virally inactivated blood product and can in theory transmit infections. This can be due to the donors being viremic shortly after infection (before the development of antibodies), due to currently unknown infections, or due to prions.

(B) The delay in getting the injured individual to hospital whilst trying to thaw and administer the FFP outside a clinical trial setting.

(C) The fact that if all emergency ambulances and helicopters carry thawed universal donor blood group AB plasma, the already known frequent shortages of this product will be exacerbated. Lyophilized FFP may overcome this limitation in the future but it is not currently routinely available.

Our conclusion reflecting on these two randomized clinical trials is that the case for universal use of prehospital FFP is not yet made. Until further results from these trials are published to guide interpretation of current evidence and planning of future large pragmatic trials, it would be better for first response teams to concentrate on getting the injured individual to the controlled hospital environment as soon as possible, rather than investing precious time in administering FFP before transfer. Indeed, even assuming plasma can benefit a subgroup of more severely injured patients, it might be difficult to stratify them with the little time and few tools available at the injury site.

**RELATIONSHIP DISCLOSURE**

The authors declare that they have nothing to disclose in relation to this manuscript.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

Both authors contributed to the preparation of the manuscript and met all the required conditions for authorship.

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