

Strategy for a National EMS Culture of Safety
DRAFT 3.1
5/16/2012

PUBLIC DRAFT

About This Draft

This project is being produced under a cooperative agreement between the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), with support from the Health Resources and Services Administration's (HRSA) EMS for Children (EMSC) Program, and the American College of Emergency Physicians (ACEP).

This is the third of four drafts in the three-year iterative process of developing the Strategy document. This Draft is intended for public distribution per the Cooperative Agreement. Public comment is encouraged and should be submitted prior to June 12, 2012. Instructions for submitting comments can be found at www.EMSCultureofSafety.org.

The purpose of this Draft is to incorporate previously submitted public feedback and add new information shared by stakeholders. This Draft will be discussed at the National Review Meeting in the Washington, D.C., area, June 19, 2012. This is a public meeting. Details for this meeting can be found at www.EMSCultureofSafety.org.

Several placeholders are included in this document, to identify sections that are scheduled for inclusion and/or further development in subsequent drafts.

This document is a work in progress, and it should not be referenced without noting that it is a draft subject to change.

Document expiration date: This Draft is intended for use beginning May 16, 2012, and ending with the conclusion of the National Review Meeting, after which it becomes obsolete.

CONTENTS

Part 1: Introduction & Context

I. Executive Summary	6
II. Illustration: Strategy Framework	7
III. Introduction.....	8
IV. Purpose & Vision.....	11

Part 2: Project Scope & Process

I. Project Scope.....	14
II. Process	17
III. Guiding Principles Used in Developing the Strategy.....	19

Part 3: Special Concerns

I. Responder Safety	22
II. Patient Safety.....	24
III. Safety of the Public	26

Part 4: Cultural Considerations

I. Defining Culture.....	28
II. Defining Culture of Safety	29
III. EMS Culture and Safety.....	31
IV. Importance of Both Leadership and Field Personnel in Building a Culture of Safety.....	36

Part 5: Envisioned Elements of a National EMS Culture of Safety

I. Overview	39
II. Just Culture	41
III. Coordinated Support & Resource Center	44

IV. National EMS Responder & Patient Safety Data System	49
V. EMS Education Initiatives	53
VI. Standards	56
VII. Requirements for Reporting & Investigation	58

Part 6: Conclusion & Next Steps

I. Conclusion (placeholder)	62
II. Next Steps.....	63

Appendices

I. Project Participants	69
II. Development of the Strategy: Steps Followed	71
III. National Stakeholder Meeting Agenda.....	74
IV. NEMSAC OAR Committee Report: Reducing Adverse Events in EMS: Creating a Culture of Safety	77
V. NEMSAC Safety Committee Report: EMS Injury and Safety Data	78
VI. References	82

Part 1
Introduction & Context

I. Executive Summary

NOTE: Narrative for this section may be further developed as the Strategy is refined in future drafts. The following narrative is intended as a brief placeholder only.

Emergency medical service (EMS) provider organizations nationwide potentially expose responders, patients and members of the public to preventable risk of serious harm, in contrast with advances in safety practices that have been broadly implemented in many healthcare and other settings in recent years.

Workplace safety culture refers to an organization's core values related to responder and patient safety. These core values provide a frame of reference for leadership and workers, and influence shared beliefs, practices, rituals, norms and behaviors related to safety. A positive safety culture is associated with fewer errors, adverse events and other negative safety outcomes.

This Strategy stems from a recommendation by the National Emergency Medical Services Advisory Council (NEMSAC). NEMSAC is a Federal advisory committee that serves as a nationally recognized council of EMS representatives and consumers to provide advice and recommendations regarding EMS to the Department of Transportation's National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). In 2009, NEMSAC recommended that NHTSA create a strategy for building a culture of safety in emergency medical services.

The Strategy is being developed in a three-year, iterative process to allow for collaboration and input from a broad group of stakeholders both inside and outside the EMS community. The process involves public review and comment and will be completed in September 2013.

The Strategy acknowledges the unique and varied nature of EMS provider agencies throughout the United States, as well as a number of cultural influencers that are believed to be relevant to the success of the Strategy.

This Strategy envisions six key elements for advancing a culture of safety in EMS:

- Advancement of values similar to those in a school of thought known as **Just Culture**;
- Coordinated support and resources for provider agencies and other stakeholders
- A national data system for responder safety and patient safety in EMS;
- Evolution of the EMS education system;
- Promulgation of safety standards and related information; and
- Reporting/investigation of applicable incidents.

These elements are presented for illustrative purposes in a conceptual schematic on the following page.

The Strategy also envisions a number of concrete steps that can be taken by a broad spectrum of stakeholders, many of them even before the Strategy is finalized.

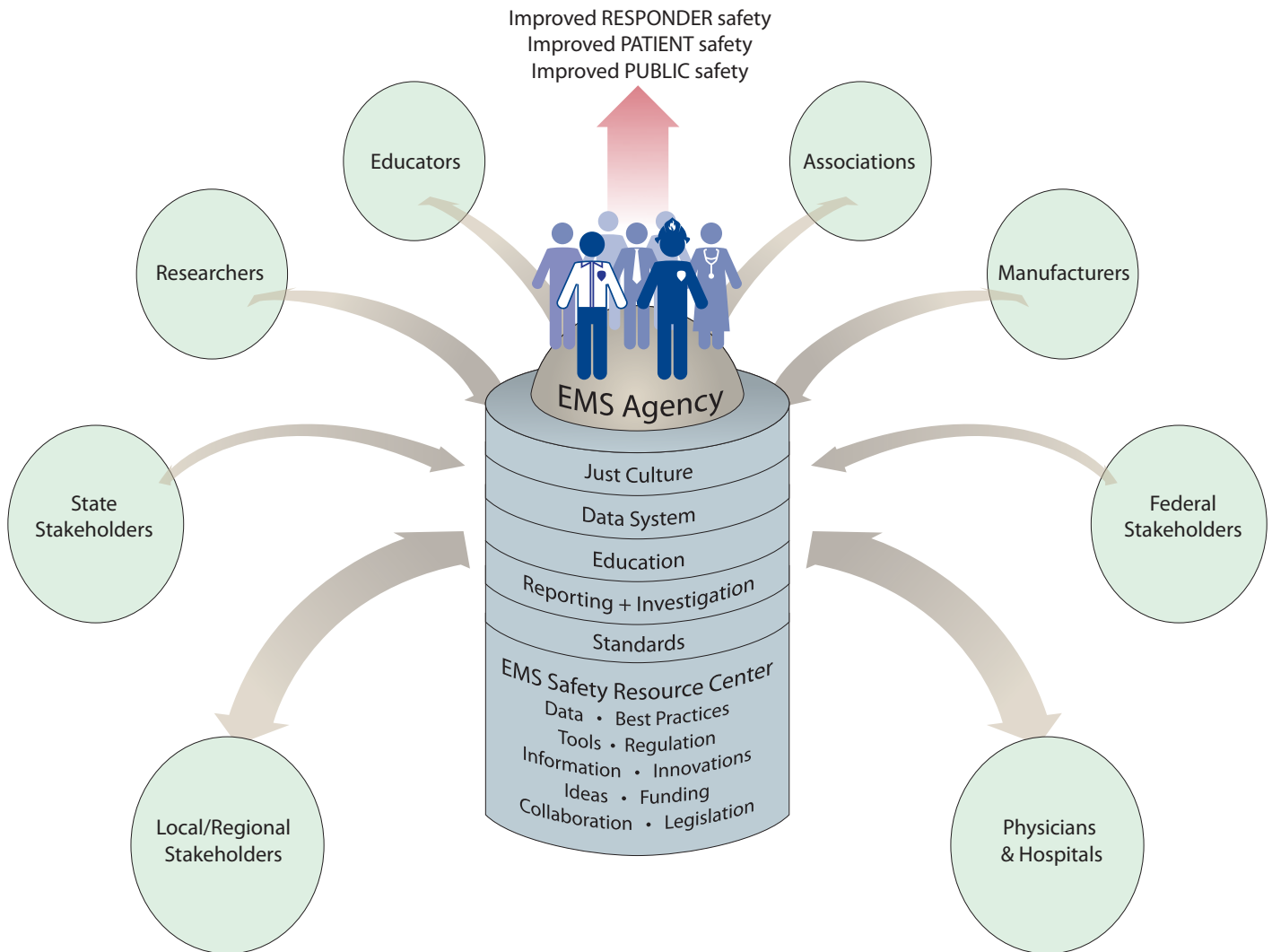
EMS exists to make a difference in people's lives, often at their time of greatest need. This Strategy represents a unique opportunity to make a difference in the lives of EMS responders, EMS patients and the general public.

II. Strategy Framework

The following diagram provides a high-level overview of the envisioned components of a culture of safety and its place in the EMS community.

To be successful, these components will require collaboration among many stakeholders. The depictions of components and relationships in this illustration are not intended as a literal, hierarchical or exhaustive representation of the complex EMS universe.

The diagram is provided as a framework to enhance understanding of the Strategy concepts presented throughout this document.



III. Introduction

A paramedic treating a patient in the back of an ambulance en route to the hospital removes her seat belt to better access the patient, despite a policy mandating seat belt use at all times during transport. The paramedic does not expect to get in trouble, as the policy is only enforced when someone gets hurt.

* * *

Firefighter-paramedics assisting a patient are physically assaulted by the patient's emotionally disturbed boyfriend. One of them sustains a shoulder injury that requires medical treatment and extended physical therapy, during which the firefighter-paramedic is unable to work.

* * *

While transporting a patient to a hospital, an EMS crew is informed that another emergency call is waiting. The EMTs turn the patient over quickly, return to their ambulance and respond to the second call without changing the linens on their stretcher, reasoning that a rapid response outweighs the risk of cross-contamination.

* * *

An EMS team elects to move a bariatric patient without assistance, fearing that they'll be labeled as weaklings for pulling another unit out of service.

* * *

Students in an EMT class notice that one of their classmates appears to be drawn to EMS out of a belief that it will be an exciting job, filled with flashing lights, sirens, and life-and-death situations, rather than as an opportunity to serve as a valuable member of the healthcare community.

* * *

An ambulance is struck at high speed by another vehicle at an intersection. The EMS driver is injured, and the EMT in the front passenger seat is killed instantly.

* * *

It is 4 a.m. An EMS crew is dispatched to the 18th call of their 24-hour shift. Neither has had more than a few minutes of uninterrupted sleep since they left their homes to come to work the morning before.

* * *

An automobile driver reacts to the lights and siren of an approaching ambulance by swerving suddenly to the right. The car sideswipes a stopped taxi, causing serious injuries to a passenger getting out of the cab.

* * *

EMTs assigned to an interfacility transport call note that the patient appears jaundiced. Personnel at the transferring facility decline to answer the EMTs' questions about possible hepatitis, asserting that privacy laws prohibit them from discussing the patient's diagnosis, and order them to perform the transport without further delay.

* * *

In reviewing an incident in which paramedics deviated from protocol, an EMS medical director issues a "no harm, no foul" decision, saying that no action is warranted since the patient was not harmed. The medical director cautions the paramedics that if the outcome had been poor, the response would have been severe.

* * *

An air medical pilot elects to proceed with a scene transport even though the weather is marginal, reasoning that he has flown in similar conditions before without mishap.

* * *

Every day, scenarios like the above anecdotes play out in EMS systems across America. This happens despite the best intentions of EMS leaders and practitioners, and despite considerable investments in training, equipment, protocols and systems.

EMS is a critical component of the nation's healthcare system. In the U.S., EMS personnel respond to approximately 30 million calls per year.¹ EMS is also an integral component of the nation's disaster response system.²

Yet, regardless of their location or the type of system in which they work, EMS practitioners are expected (and often expect themselves) to do their jobs under difficult, unpredictable and frequently changing circumstances. They may work long hours, in harsh environments, with limited information, assistance, supervision and resources to accomplish their mission. In the course of their work, they may be exposed to risks such as infectious organisms, emotional stress, fatigue, physical violence, occupational injury, vehicle crashes, disciplinary action and personal liability. They are more than 2-1/2 times more likely than the average worker to be killed on the job,³ and their transportation-related injury rate is five times higher than average.⁴ They also risk causing harm to others, especially through vehicle crashes and medical errors. (Additional data appears beginning on page 25 and throughout this document.)

It is difficult to measure the extent of EMS-related injuries, illness, fatalities and medical adverse events—and that is a significant part of the problem. Reporting requirements and

mechanisms are inconsistent at best, making accurate research problematic. Concerns over privacy laws, tort liability, trade secrets and potential public embarrassment hamper sharing of information that could be used to research risks and identify system-level opportunities for improvement. A lack of standardization complicates efforts to assemble and assess even available data. Because of these and related factors, EMS is severely limited in its ability to base policy, funding requests, improvement initiatives or even many day-to-day operational decisions on scientifically defensible, data-driven information.

In 1999, the Institute of Medicine report *To Err Is Human* called the attention of the public and the medical community to the topic of preventable adverse medical events. Since then, the nation's healthcare system has moved toward a culture of safety in many inpatient and outpatient settings. But these concepts and practices have yet to be widely embraced in the EMS community.

As a result, too often the very emergency medical system that people count on for help unintentionally causes, risks, or allows—and, in many cases, accepts as inevitable—otherwise preventable harm to patients, members of the public and its own members.

It is challenging to make an evidence-based, scientifically defensible argument supporting the need for improvements in EMS safety. However, it is the consensus of the EMS community—expressed through the more than 20 stakeholder groups contributing to this project, and by the general EMS community via open meetings and a public comment process—that it would be unacceptable and irresponsible to withhold action until some unknown future point when an ironclad case can be made.

This Strategy is intended to change the status quo and chart a new course that will support the emergence of a culture of safety in EMS.

This is a problem that not only can be solved; it must be solved. The almost one million EMS professionals in the U.S., the 22 million patients they treat every year⁵ and the millions of citizens who expect and deserve functional, efficient, professional emergency medical services to be there for every emergency and every disaster, are all depending on this safety endeavor to create a better EMS system.

IV. Purpose & Vision

EMS exists to make a difference in people's lives, often at their time of greatest need. This Strategy represents a unique opportunity to make a difference in the lives of EMS responders, EMS patients and the general public.

The Strategy stems from a recommendation by the National Emergency Medical Services Advisory Council (NEMSAC). NEMSAC is a Federal advisory committee that serves as a nationally recognized council of EMS representatives and consumers to provide advice and recommendations regarding EMS to the Department of Transportation's National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). In 2009, NEMSAC recommended that NHTSA create a strategy for building a culture of safety in emergency medical services.

NEMSAC characterized developing a culture of safety in EMS as its "top priority" recommendation, chosen via a systematic, evidence- and consensus-based process from among more than 80 possible issues to be addressed, in categories such as: structure/system; education/certification/workforce; funding/billing; public education/information; research/technology/data; medical oversight/quality; disaster preparedness; and operations/equipment.⁶

NEMSAC's original recommendation focused primarily on patient safety, or preventing adverse medical events. (Further details, rationale and references supporting the Council's recommendation can be found at http://ems.gov/pdf/nemsac/sep09/NEMSAC-OAR_Final_Report_092909.pdf.) The scope of the project was subsequently expanded to address EMS safety in a broader sense (to encompass patient safety, responder safety, and safety of members of the public EMS encounters in its work).

This project was chartered as a three-year effort, to allow for a collaborative process harnessing the ideas, experience and expertise of many stakeholders representing both EMS and other disciplines. It seeks to learn from the successes and failures of others, in an open-minded effort to achieve a shared desired outcome.

Vision of the Strategy

This Strategy represents the joint vision of the Steering Committee and other stakeholders participating in the project.

At a high level, the Strategy envisions an EMS culture in which safety considerations permeate the full spectrum of activities of EMS leaders and practitioners everywhere, every day—by design, by attitude and by habit.

It is the vision of this Strategy to create, encourage and/or support a cultural movement, structures, resources, reporting mechanisms and related elements that advance both improved responder safety and improved patient safety, each closely linked to the other. Wherever possible, the same elements that impact responder safety should also seek to benefit patient safety, and vice-versa.

This vision is expected to lead to:

- 1. An environment of measurable safety improvements.** Value can be created through improvements in safety that lead to fewer responder injuries and reductions in shortened careers and deaths. Value can also be created via improvements in patient safety and reductions in adverse medical events. Further value can be created by reducing injuries and deaths among members of the public whom EMS encounters (i.e., crashes involving EMS vehicles).
- 2. An environment of empowerment.** A key factor in a culture of safety is that all team members are empowered to speak up about unsafe practices, in real time, as well as to propose ways to operate more safely. This is particularly important in EMS, and the Strategy envisions a context in which every responder, regardless of level of training or tenure, is empowered to act in the interest of responder safety and patient safety.
- 3. An environment of knowledge.** The Strategy recognizes the importance of both informed leadership and an informed workforce in building a culture of safety. This includes educational initiatives for leaders and practitioners as well as systematic efforts to gather and analyze data on responder safety and patient safety.
- 4. An environment of openness.** The Strategy acknowledges the axiom, accepted by many safety experts, that in high-consequence industries, punishing people for mistakes merely encourages them to hide unsafe behaviors and adverse outcomes. An environment of openness to admitting mistakes and examining the processes and environments that led to them is a key part of the Strategy's vision for a culture of safety.
- 5. An environment of inclusiveness at every level.** The Strategy seeks to create a safety culture that embodies national leadership and resources to support state, regional, local and organizational efforts. To the same end, the Strategy recognizes the key importance of buy-in among field EMS practitioners; to create this support, the Strategy must be seen as practical, realistic and attainable.
- 6. An environment of measurable quality improvement.** Efforts to improve responder safety and patient safety are expected to result value created via new and/or enhanced data and quality measurement systems. This is an especially important consideration in anticipation of the increased focus on quality metrics in EMS that many leaders feel is coming, likely related to reimbursement.
- 7. An environment of continuous improvement.** The Strategy acknowledges that substantial change takes time, and that this effort is likely to encounter both support and obstacles, and experience successes and setbacks. The Strategy further acknowledges the view of experts that a culture of safety is not a destination in itself, but an ongoing effort to improve. That process is anticipated to ultimately lead to development of milestones, touchpoints, reassessment/reevaluation and other measurements to gauge progress.

Part 2
Project Scope & Process

I. Project Scope

The Strategy is positioned as a high-level, vision-oriented effort on a national scale. It does not attempt to serve as a substitute for the work of qualified researchers, scientists and technical experts. Rather, it is an effort to further that work by supporting, enhancing or creating channels for its advancement, standardization, practical application and widespread adoption.

The Strategy was commissioned to serve as a high-level blueprint from which decisions can be made. While it is not formally a consensus document, it is intended to provide guidance to decision-makers about the priorities, concerns and commitment of EMS stakeholders.

The Strategy is intended to be well-connected to science, best practices and trends both within and outside EMS, across the healthcare and business continuum. However, the Strategy acknowledges that scientific support and/or sufficient data are not always available, and waiting until these elements are available may take many years. Indeed, a significant benefit to the Strategy itself is the potential to spur research, data systems and reporting that are currently lacking. Accordingly, the Strategy relies on a combination of proven concepts and ideas that are reasonably believed to hold promise.

The Strategy's scope is visionary rather than prescriptive or authoritarian. It is not intended as a practical safety manual, nor is it designed for everyday use by EMS provider agencies. As such, it does not address highly detailed factors or make specific technical recommendations about vehicles, equipment, procedures, etc., nor does it include such detailed activities as evaluating products or technologies or setting protocols.

Intended Audience

This document's intended audience includes individuals and organizations that are in a position to directly or indirectly support the Strategy. As the audience includes both internal and external stakeholders – that is, stakeholders both inside and outside EMS – the document is written broadly.

Definition of EMS

Emergency medical services can mean different things to different groups. In April 2012, the National Association of State EMS Officials (NASEMSO) defined EMS as follows:

Emergency Medical Services (EMS) is the integrated system of medical response established and designed to respond, assess, treat, and disposition victims of acute injury or illness and those in need of medically safe transportation. It includes the full spectrum of response from recognition of the emergency to access of the healthcare system, dispatch of an appropriate response, pre-arrival instructions, direct patient

care by trained personnel, and appropriate transport or disposition. Anyone participating in any component of this response system is practicing EMS. EMS also includes medical response to disasters and mass casualties, mass gathering events, as well as interfacility transfer of patients.

EMS is the practice of medicine and as such, any of the activities that constitute EMS require oversight by a physician.

Exceptions include:

- *Good Samaritan care: emergency care provided by someone regardless of their level of training and experience outside of an established and organized response and the individual is not receiving any type of compensation for care rendered.*
- *Basic first aid, CPR, and public access defibrillator use provided outside the established EMS system.*
- *Care, unrelated to the EMS system, rendered by professionals within an established healthcare facility.*
- *Public health programs and home health care programs unaffiliated with the EMS system.*

For the purpose of this document, and the audience intended, the above definition has been selected. It should be noted that the inclusion of a definition is not intended to exclude from the scope of the Strategy any aspects of EMS not formally described (e.g., education and research). The Strategy also acknowledges that EMS is an evolving discipline that is maturing as a partner in the healthcare system. As such, the Strategy is intended to be flexible enough to accommodate new roles.

Note About Past Work

The Strategy's intent is to create momentum that will propel EMS toward success in improving responder safety and patient safety. Many of the factors considered and/or addressed in the Strategy have been discussed previously, and the envisioned elements may have been previously recommended in past efforts that did not focus on safety specifically. The intent of the Strategy is to build on work that has already been done, to the greatest degree appropriate, to enable the Strategy to function as a conduit to channel the expertise of both EMS stakeholders and other professionals toward the ultimate goal.

The *Emergency Medical Services Workforce Agenda for the Future* cited illness and injury among EMS workers as a major workforce concern and reported on research showing that the injury rate in EMS is high compared to other fields, with one study reporting an occupational fatality rate for EMS workers of more than twice the national average.¹

A 2007 NHTSA-sponsored report, *Feasibility for an EMS Workforce Safety and Health Surveillance System*, offered rationale for a comprehensive program for surveillance of EMS

illness and injury rates. The report recommended the creation of a National EMS Workforce Injury and Illness Surveillance Program (EMS-WIISP).

Other references to past works appear throughout this document.

As noted throughout this document, it is the intent of the Strategy to avoid duplicating effort or creating unnecessary overlap. Wherever possible, the Strategy considers opportunities to utilize existing resources and to partner with established institutions and entities.

II. Process

Project Stakeholders

This project is being produced under a cooperative agreement between the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), with support from the Health Resources and Services Administration's (HRSA) EMS for Children (EMSC) Program, and the American College of Emergency Physicians (ACEP).

The project stems from a "top priority" recommendation by the National EMS Advisory Council (NEMSAC) that the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) and its Federal partners move forward with the development of a Culture of Safety in the EMS community. (See Appendix for additional background on this recommendation and rationale/data supporting the need for strategic focus on responder safety and patient safety.)

The National EMS Culture of Safety Strategy project is structured as a three-year effort to allow for the direct involvement of the EMS community through participation of national EMS organizations as members of a Steering Committee for the project.

The Steering Committee includes representatives from American Academy of Pediatrics, American Ambulance Association, American College of Emergency Physicians, American College of Surgeons Committee on Trauma, Commission on Accreditation of Ambulance Services, Commission on Accreditation of Medical Transport Systems, Emergency Medical Services for Children, National Resource Center, Emergency Nurses Association, Governors Highway Safety Association, International Association of EMS Chiefs, International Association of Fire Chiefs, International Association of Fire Fighters, International Association of Flight Paramedics, National Association of Emergency Medical Technicians, National Association of EMS Physicians, National Association of State EMS Officials, National EMS Management Association, and the National Volunteer Fire Council.

Twenty-one other EMS organizations as well as Federal partners, EMS media and trade journals and the public were also invited to participate. (See Appendix I of this document for participants and additional involved organizations.) The project commenced in September 2010, and the final Strategy document will be released in September 2013.

Responsibility for the content of this document rests with the American College of Emergency Physicians.

Project Timeline

- ✓ Steering Committee Meeting April 2011
- ✓ National Stakeholder Conference June 2011
- ✓ First Draft Delivered to NHTSA Aug. 31, 2011
- ✓ Steering Committee Review Sept./Oct. 2011
- ✓ Second Draft Available for Public Review Dec. 12, 2011
- ✓ Collect Public Comment until Feb 24, 2012
- ✓ Third Draft Available for Public Review May 12, 2012
- ❑ National Review Meeting June 19, 2012
- ❑ Fourth Draft Available for Steering Committee Review Aug. 31, 2012
- ❑ NEMSAC Review Draft Presented Nov. 30, 2012
- ❑ Collect NEMSAC Comments Jan. 30, 2013
- ❑ Steering Committee Meeting Mar. 15, 2013
- ❑ Submit Final Draft to NHTSA May 15, 2013
- ❑ Final Report/Project Completed Sept. 23, 2013

Development of Strategy

This is the third of five drafts of the Strategy. Development of the Strategy has been guided by the leadership of the Steering Committee and the project chair, Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP. The Steering Committee provided detailed guidance to the project team through a combination of in-person and conference call meetings over the course of the project. Additional stakeholder input was gathered over the course of the project via public meetings and public comment on drafts.

For additional details and steps followed in developing the Strategy, see Appendix II of this document.

III. Guiding Principles Used in Developing the Strategy

The following principles were drafted by ACEP and the Steering Committee, via a consensus-based process, as essential for developing this Strategy. They represent certain fundamentals that are intended to permeate the development process and tie the work to the EMS community. These concepts are critical to the successful development and implementation of the Strategy. In some cases, they are acknowledgements of limitations or realities that materially affect the chances for acceptance and successful implementation of the Strategy in the EMS community. In every instance, they guide decision-making and priority-setting.

Although these themes are primarily intended to guide the development process, many of them appear throughout the Strategy, either directly or indirectly. They are presented here to provide insight to stakeholders and to serve as a reference when interpreting, refining and applying the Strategy.

- 1. The Strategy must consider the parallel goals of patient safety, provider safety and safety of the public.** Although initiatives and desired outcomes described in the Strategy necessarily apply to patient safety, provider safety and safety of the public safety in unequal proportions, the Strategy itself strives to address all three of these goals.
- 2. The Strategy should seek to capitalize on the common priority—concern for the patient.** Despite their varied nature, EMS systems, leaders and field personnel share a common concern for the well-being of patients. Wherever possible, the Strategy should seek to tap into this universal motivation.
- 3. The Strategy must anticipate that creating a culture of safety in EMS will take years to accomplish.** While the Strategy seeks opportunities to gain benefits quickly wherever possible, it also acknowledges the accepted view among experts that true cultural change often takes a full generation, up to 20 years. Accordingly, the Strategy focuses not only on today's EMS managers and practitioners, but those who will be leading the field and delivering patient care up to two decades from now.
- 4. The Strategy must consider the disparate nature of EMS.** EMS is a discipline with dramatic structural and cultural variation, as well as multiple delivery models and levels. To be successful, the Strategy must recognize that ideas may work better in certain segments of the EMS community than others. Wherever possible, the Strategy must avoid blanket assumptions and “one-size-fits-all” solutions.
- 5. The Strategy must respect the unique set of circumstances and environments in which EMS functions.** EMS operates at the intersection of public health, public safety and medicine; it is simultaneously part of, and yet not completely within, all three spheres, each with its own set of structural and cultural influences, restrictions and opportunities. Furthermore, the sphere in which EMS operates is complex and frequently changing, and its mission is complicated by emotionally charged situations

and sometimes-unreasonable public expectations.

- 6. The Strategy must acknowledge that EMS typically has limited resources.** Although the future is not known, many EMS leaders at both the local and national level anticipate increasing difficulty in meeting increasing demand for services with budgets that in many cases are diminishing. And because leaders typically are preoccupied with maintaining critical services on a day-to-day basis, gaining broad support for safety initiatives may require sustained effort and/or new funding.
- 7. The Strategy should seek to incorporate lessons learned from other fields.** EMS is often assumed to be an inherently risky profession, an assumption that likely complicates the creation of a culture of safety. However, other disciplines that carry considerable inherent risks (e.g., aviation, surgery, anesthesiology) have achieved noteworthy safety records through systematic efforts, and the Strategy should identify cultural and practical factors that have been shown to improve safety in these disciplines, with the goal of adapting them for EMS' benefit.
- 8. The Strategy should be evidence-based within reason.** There is a growing movement supporting evidence-based decision-making at all levels in EMS, and the Strategy should be based on data and evidence wherever possible. However, the Strategy must also acknowledge the current limitations in available EMS data, particularly related to responder safety and patient safety. Accordingly, the Strategy should not exclude concepts that are reasonably believed to carry potential benefits, but for which there is limited scientific evidence or data. Wherever possible, the Strategy should call for data-gathering according to accepted standards.
- 9. The Strategy should seek a balance between cultural and practical considerations.** The culture of EMS itself tends to be practical, objective, action-oriented and "hands-on," rather than theoretical, conceptual, academic or abstract. Indeed, the very concept of a "culture of safety" may be received with skepticism, as may the idea that the cultural aspects of safety are as important as utilitarian items like checklists in improving safety outcomes. Elements that come from this project must bridge these inherently contrasting factors. Care should be taken to avoid the temptation to focus on practical considerations to the exclusion of strategic focus.
- 10. The Strategy should seek opportunities to build on existing foundations.** To be successful, the Strategy should strive to avoid redundancies to the greatest degree possible. It should consider the findings and recommendations of past white papers that address issues of culture and safety, and it should seek to connect with, not re-create, entities, resources and mechanisms that already exist.
- 11. The Strategy should strive to be emulated by others.** EMS is a high-profile, critical service that fundamentally affects the lives of millions of American families. The Strategy presents an opportunity to further the EMS mission by serving as a template for other professions and industries to follow in building their own culture of safety.

Part 3
Special Concerns

I. Responder Safety

A widely understood principle in EMS holds that an emergency responder who is injured or killed is unable to assist someone who needs help, and that a responder injury diverts resources (i.e., other responders) that would otherwise be available to assist the public. With this in mind, and in recognition of the fact that emergency responders deserve a system that values their safety, it is acknowledged that protecting EMS responders is paramount.

Nevertheless, the job is a dangerous one for EMS responders. For example, the occupational fatality rate among EMS workers is 12.7 per 100,000 workers per year, more than twice the national average for all occupations and comparable to rates for police and firefighters.⁷ The rate of non-fatal injuries among EMTs and paramedics was found to be 34.6 per 100 full-time workers per year, a rate more than five times higher than the national average for all workers.⁸ Research has also shown that female EMS workers have a disproportionately high risk of injury⁹ and that there are significant dangers associated with disaster responses.¹⁰

Work-related stress and fatigue are familiar themes to anyone working in the EMS profession. Exposure to both chronic and critical incident stressors increases the risk of EMS responders developing a posttraumatic stress reaction.¹¹ A study of associations between sleep quality, fatigue and safety outcomes in EMS identified 1.9 greater odds of injury, 2.2 greater odds of medical errors or adverse events, and 3.6 greater odds of safety-compromising behavior among fatigued respondents versus nonfatigued respondents.¹²

EMS responders also risk exposure to violence and/or becoming the subject of violent assault on the job.¹³ In one study in a large California EMS system, EMS responders encountered some sort of violence in 8.5 percent of patient encounters, and were subjected to violence directed at them in 4.5 percent of patient encounters.¹⁴ Of encounters where violence was directed at EMS personnel, 21 percent involved nonphysical (verbal) violence only, while 79 percent involved physical violence.

Transportation incidents present a significant risk for EMS personnel.^{15 16 17} Researchers have reported, for example, that: ambulance crashes result in twice as many injuries per crash as the national average;¹⁸ 20 percent of transportation related injury cases result in 31 or more lost work days;¹⁹ and 86 percent of all occupational fatalities among U.S. EMTs and paramedics are secondary to transportation events.²⁰

This phenomenon is not only seen in the U.S. where the transportation related fatality rate for EMS workers is approximately five times higher than the national average,²¹ it is also seen in Australia where the transportation-related fatality rate for paramedics is three times higher than the rate for U.S. EMS workers.²²

The good news related to transportation incidents comes from one of the first studies to document the results of an intervention to improve EMS safety. That study showed a 50% reduction in the ambulance collision rate following a multifactorial intervention.²³

The occupational injury problem also has significant implications for EMS managers. For example, in the U.S., the employers' healthcare cost for EMT and paramedic occupational injuries is approximately \$60,000 per 100 full time workers per year (these costs do not include the cost for replacement workers, early termination, etc.);²⁴ and 100 percent of litigation claims against one EMS agency came from transportation-related incidents.²⁵

There are also significant implications for EMS patients and communities. In one study of fatal ambulance crashes, eight of the 25 victims were identified as EMS personnel; 17 of the fatalities were patients, family members and community members.²⁶

II. Patient Safety

A key goal of creating and implementing a culture of safety in EMS is to create improvements in patient safety. The Strategy defines patient safety in EMS as *preventing medical errors (such as administering an incorrect medication) and other adverse events (such as dropping a patient) and decreasing the chance of harm to patients should such events occur.*

According to the Institute for Healthcare Improvement (IHI), approximately 80 percent of medical errors in the hospital environment are system-derived.²⁷ And the prominent Institute of Medicine report *To Err Is Human: Building a Safer Healthcare System* notes:

“The majority of medical errors do not result from individual recklessness or the actions of a particular group—this is not a ‘bad apple’ problem. More commonly, errors are caused by faulty systems, processes, and conditions that lead people to make mistakes or fail to prevent them.”²⁸

It is not reasonable to expect that even well-trained and qualified people with the best intentions can overcome the complexities of caring for patients in the dynamic, unpredictable context of prehospital care. The Strategy seeks to follow the IHI philosophy that when human beings are involved, mistakes will occur, and it is the responsibility of EMS leaders to design a system so that harm does not occur or is minimized.

(See Section VI, EMS Culture, for additional information on patient safety in current EMS culture.)

Patient safety in the EMS setting has been poorly studied, with little data and limited trials of interventions designed to make EMS safer. A report from the Canadian Patient Safety Institute, *Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services: Advancing and Aligning the Culture of Patient Safety in EMS*, identified the following themes in a systematic review of the literature relating to patient safety in EMS:²⁹

- Clinical judgment
- Adverse events
- Ground vehicle safety
- Field intubation
- Air operations safety
- Interfacility transfer

The researchers reported that experts believe flawed decision-making by EMS practitioners is overlooked too often when considering safety; the report further offered the opinion that the “most important risk” to safety is poor clinical judgment, with the “greatest safety feature of EMS systems” being good clinical judgment.

A 2004 study reported that 45 percent of EMTs identified at least one error in the year prior to the survey, and further demonstrated the willingness of EMS personnel to identify and report errors.³⁰ Additional studies have explored adverse events in EMS in the context of

endotracheal tube placement, diagnostic accuracy, mathematical calculations, medication administration, and tort claims.^{31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38}

Medication dosing errors in pediatric patients in the EMS setting have been poorly studied, at least in part because paramedics have infrequent encounters with pediatric patients. One Michigan State University study found that medications delivered in the prehospital care of children were frequently administered outside of the proper dose range when compared with patient weights recorded in the prehospital medical record, with a medication dosing error occurring in nearly 35 percent of drug administrations—nearly twice the rate at which medication dosing errors occur in hospitalized children.³⁹

Although there has been far less research into patient safety and adverse events in EMS compared to other healthcare settings, the indications from various inpatient and outpatient epidemiology studies lead to a reasonable assumption that there is unrecognized and preventable harm in EMS.⁴⁰ Although more study is needed to quantify the dollars involved, it follows that there are corresponding costs to patients, EMS and the healthcare system, and society as a whole—and considerable savings to be realized from improved patient safety in EMS.

III. Safety of the Public

Harm to members of the public (i.e., non patients) resulting from EMS operations is even more poorly studied than EMS responder safety or EMS patient safety. Scant, inconsistent or nonexistent reporting requirements make research difficult or impossible on a national level, but it is generally believed in the EMS community that the greatest risk to the public involves EMS vehicle operations (regardless of whether an EMS vehicle is actually involved in a crash or the crash occurs because of other drivers' sudden reactions to the presence of an emergency vehicle).

Many EMS agencies and other stakeholders conduct public education campaigns to inform drivers about what to do when an emergency vehicle approaches. More research is needed before specific initiatives can be developed to reduce harm caused to the public by EMS operations. It is reasonable to expect that systemic initiatives aimed at improving responder safety and patient safety will also result in improvements to general public safety.

Part 4
Cultural Considerations

I. Defining Culture

Because the Strategy seeks to influence EMS culture, it is helpful to define what culture is.

Former airline pilot and risk-management consultant Scott Griffith, who has worked extensively with organizations in high-risk disciplines, offers a definition of culture that is particularly applicable to the goals of the Strategy:

culture: *“The way we do things around here.”*

This definition was selected for its simplicity and because it reveals the essence of what the Strategy seeks to tap into: the substantial power of culture to influence behavior, and, conversely, the potential for it to be shaped by the collective behaviors of the individuals in an organization.

Section 4-III of this document explores contemporary EMS culture and the role of responder safety and patient safety in EMS culture—in other words, “the way we do things around here now.” (See page 31.)

II. Defining Culture of Safety

The Strategy subscribes to the following definition of a culture of safety, put forth by University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign researchers Douglas A. Wiegmann, Hui Zhang, Terry von Thaden, Gungan Sharma and Alyssa Mitchell in a paper synthesizing safety culture research.⁴¹

Safety culture: *“The enduring value and priority placed on worker and public safety by everyone in every group at every level of an organization. It refers to the extent to which individuals and groups will commit to personal responsibility for safety; act to preserve, enhance and communicate safety concerns; strive to actively learn, adapt and modify (both individual and organizational) behavior based on lessons learned from mistakes; and be rewarded in a manner consistent with these values.”*

Note: The researchers for the above-referenced report noted that while the term *safety climate* is sometimes used interchangeably with *safety culture* in published works, the former is more commonly used to refer to the perceived state of safety at a particular place at a particular time. The Strategy does not use *safety climate* as a synonym for *safety culture*.

Although it is the desire of this Strategy that safety become a permeating consideration in EMS culture, it should also be acknowledged that organizational culture is a complex concept, with many factors that are unrelated to safety.

The concept of a culture of safety is often attributed to analysis of the disaster at the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant in Ukraine in 1986—more specifically, reports refer to a *lack* of a safety culture as a contributing factor to the accident.

The concept of a culture of safety has also been applied extensively to such fields as aviation and healthcare (most often in the hospital setting). Much of the literature related to safety culture focuses on these two disciplines.

It is possible to measure the culture of safety in an EMS organization, and although limited research is available, preliminary associations between safety culture, safety-related behaviors and safety outcomes have been observed. A 2008 report in *Academic Emergency Medicine* described EMS personnel’s perception of the nature of adverse events and near-misses in out-of-hospital care.⁴² The EMS Safety Attitudes Questionnaire (EMS-SAQ) measures workplace safety culture, and the EMS Safety Inventory (EMS-SI) captures self-reported safety outcomes from EMS workers. Collectively, these tools have been introduced to the EMS profession by Daniel Patterson, Ph.D., and colleagues, to benchmark safety attitudes within an organization.⁴³ The tools are used in the University of Pittsburgh Department of Emergency Medicine’s EMSARN EMS Safety Culture Project (<http://emergencymedicine.pitt.edu/research/emsarn/ems-safety-culture>), an ongoing project that seeks to examine trends in EMS safety culture over time.

In a report published in *Prehospital Emergency Care* in 2010, the researchers noted a wide variation across EMS agencies in safety culture scores, with lower safety culture scores associated with increased annual patient contacts. (The report did not call attention to the possibility of increased patient contact building reliance on shortcuts and at-risk behaviors that may be reinforced by few negative outcomes, or outcomes that were not tied to behaviors.)

Their 2012 report in the same journal noted that individual EMS worker perceptions of workplace safety *culture* were associated with measures of patient and provider safety *outcomes*.⁴⁴ In that study, researchers included six domains of safety culture: safety climate, teamwork climate, perceptions of management, working conditions, stress recognition, and job satisfaction. Respondents reporting responder injury scored lower on five of the six domains than respondents who did not experience responder injury. Respondents reporting an error or adverse event scored lower for four of the six domains, while respondents reporting safety-compromising behavior had lower safety culture scores for five of the six domains. The researchers described their findings as preliminary evidence of the association between safety culture and patient or provider safety outcomes.

In another study assessing the association between perceived safety culture and compliance with safety procedures in a busy urban EMS system, EMS workers with a high degree of perceived safety culture correlated with twofold greater odds of self-reported strict adherence to safe work practices.⁴⁵ Frequent safety-related feedback/training was strongly associated with adherence to safe workplace behaviors.

III. EMS Culture and Safety

EMS culture, or “the way we do things around here,” exerts a powerful influence on the attitudes, expectations and behaviors of both organizations and individuals, particularly when it comes to responder safety and patient safety. It is described in this document because it represents the “stage” on which the Strategy is anticipated to play out.

There is limited published information on *EMS safety culture* specifically, but a number of common themes in EMS culture may be relevant to safety, particularly in light of safety advances achieved in the cultures of other professions. It is typically believed by Strategy project stakeholders that *EMS culture* often:⁴⁶

- Creates an expectation of high performance under difficult circumstances
- Expects individuals to be extremely vigilant
- Fails to properly motivate individuals to speak up about unsafe systems or practices
- Punishes mistakes, especially depending on the severity of the outcome
- Accepts, overlooks, or expects individuals to work around system-related problems (until harm results, in which case the individuals are subjected to punishment)

EMS culture in general is influenced by a variety of factors, many of which in turn influence safety culture. The following influencers were noted by the Steering Committee in a consensus-based process, and are generally believed to be relevant to a culture of safety in EMS:

Structural and Cultural Variations. As noted earlier in this document, EMS is a discipline with dramatic structural and cultural variation, multiple delivery models and levels. EMS is provided by fire departments; stand-alone EMS agencies, whether municipal, private or not-for-profit; hospitals; volunteer agencies; state, federal, and tribal organizations; interfacility transport agencies; air-medical services; military; law enforcement; and industrial agencies, among others, each with their own organizational rules, regulations and cultures.

EMS also overlaps with public health, public safety and medicine. While these three disciplines have a lot to do with what EMS does, EMS represents only a small part of each of these disciplines’ missions. Accordingly, although EMS does have a culture of its own, it is also susceptible to the influences of the cultures with which it overlaps.

Another variable is volunteerism, and its unique (and changing) role in many rural and suburban communities, especially in terms of recruiting, staffing and training.

The sphere in which EMS operates is complex and frequently changing, and its mission is complicated by emotionally charged situations and public expectations that are not always reasonable or realistic.

Resource Limitations. EMS is almost always felt to have limited resources—financial resources, human resources and other resources. Many EMS leaders at both the local and national levels have expressed concerns about the ability of EMS organizations to balance tightening resources with increasing demand for services. In addition, EMS leaders both individually and through national organizations have voiced serious concerns about the

current reimbursement model, which does not fully fund most EMS operations—concerns that are expected to become more dire as reimbursement tightens. At the organizational level, resource limitations act as a distraction from safety concerns for leaders, and also set up a sometimes-unvoiced but powerful organizational expectation that safety is conditioned on availability of resources.

Ubiquitous underfunding also results in a pay structure in many systems that leads EMS professionals to quit early in their career, or who work two or three jobs for as long as they can and then quit; anecdotal reports indicate that only a tiny proportion survive to retirement. (This contrasts with Australia, for example, where paramedics are well paid and the majority remain in the profession through retirement.) The cost to society—and the taxpayer—is significant and includes the loss of experienced clinicians.⁴⁷

Lack of a Systems Approach: EMS organizations typically follow an event-based approach to safety concerns—yet it is a systems-oriented approach that has made an impact on safety in other fields. This concern encompasses both general lack of uniform systems, even at the state level; and a lack of consistency in the concept of safety itself.

Adapted Practices and Equipment. EMS culture is built on a history of adapting practices, vehicles and equipment originally developed for other settings (ER, ICU, OR, mortuary) for use in a prehospital care setting. In recent years, a growing list of equipment and protocols have emerged designed exclusively for field use, but the culture historically has not demanded its own set of tools. The general acceptance of resource limitations within the EMS profession may lead to a corresponding acceptance of the status quo. In such an environment, adapting existing practices *itself* becomes a “best practice.”

Operational Performance Pressures. Strategy stakeholders also observed that EMS personnel are often under considerable pressure to maintain high operational performance (typically defined as productivity and compliance with contractual or policy-driven requirements for response times) despite limited resources, and that operational performance is sometimes communicated as the top organizational priority, intentionally or not. Under such circumstances, safety goals may be seen as impeding such performance, and they are subjugated. (See “Focus on Response Times,” below.)

Disasters. Stakeholders further noted that safety goals are sometimes compromised when local EMS organizations respond to disasters or large-scale incidents outside the scope of normal operations. They also observed that both responder-safety and patient-safety protocols are often treated as optional when they are seen as hindering care, comfort or convenience.

Long Shifts. Despite ample documentation of the hazards of fatigue, many EMS systems maintain a 24-hour shift schedule, or even longer. When call volume does not allow for sufficient uninterrupted sleep, fatigue sets in and responder safety, public safety and patient safety are put at increased risk.

Misplaced Beliefs. Stakeholders also observed that responder safety and patient safety suffer from the widespread cultural belief in “going all out” for patients, which can lead to poor safety choices and unsafe actions (such as driving unsafely, rushing procedures, taking shortcuts, failing to use personal protective equipment, etc.). A related factor is the misplaced

belief that “doing things” equals “helping”—that is, a genuine desire to help the patient may lead to unnecessarily aggressive treatment that carries risks that outweigh the potential benefit to the patient. For a culture that is so action-oriented, it is difficult to accept the idea that treatment does not always lead to better outcomes, and can even cause harm—and that sometimes doing nothing is the best treatment.

This factor is further reinforced by gaps or delays in translating current science to the field, a phenomenon in which even accepted evidence takes a long time to be reflected in alterations to protocols, particularly when information is not readily available for leaders to make appropriate system/practice changes. There is also a need for field practitioners to have education, information and the clinical judgment to understand the “why” of evidence-based changes so they support them and stop doing things that aren’t safe or no longer represent acceptable practice.

Public Misperceptions About the Nature of EMS Work. Depictions of EMS in popular culture, particularly in television, movies and the media, often reinforce the urgent, life-and-death nature of the work, and contribute to the impression that risk-taking is part of the job. The public may also harbor unrealistic expectations about “heroes who risk it all when lives are on the line.” Such misperceptions have the potential to attract certain candidates who are inappropriately drawn to the perceived adventures that accompany a career involving lights and sirens and life-and-death situations. The concept of tombstone courage and the importance of responder safety are universally presented in EMS training programs, but may be diluted by traditions, peer pressure and practices such as commendations for heroism, even posthumously. (See statement from the National Fallen Firefighters Foundation under “Reinforcement of Unsafe Behaviors,” below.)

Misperceptions Regarding Patient Safety. Although no published research supports this, there is an anecdotal belief, expressed by EMS stakeholders attending the National EMS Culture of Safety Conference in June 2011 in Washington, D.C., that many EMS personnel do not fully understand the concept of patient safety, particularly when it comes to medical errors or harm that results from errors of commission or omission. Typically, they think of patient safety as protecting the patient from injury resulting from drops or crashes. (Study is needed to further understand this potential concern.)

Gaps in Leadership Development. There are a number of methods that have proven effective in other healthcare and business disciplines for assessing, selecting and developing leaders. These best practices are not entirely absent from EMS, but the EMS community has not broadly or systematically adopted them. This is evident in the *EMS Leadership Agenda for the Future*, which notes challenges and gaps in leadership training. A leadership competency program currently under development by the National EMS Management Association (NEMSMA) attempts to standardize leadership training and requirements. Strong leaders are essential to the concept of a culture of safety at the organizational level. EMS leaders also would benefit from more robust, centralized resources for safety practices.

Possible Disconnect Between Clinicians and Leadership. Some EMS systems are led by individuals who lack clinical experience, although this is not always the case. In a study of safety culture in 15 California hospitals that has implications for EMS organizations, researchers found “definite discrepancy” in perceptions about safety between non-clinician senior managers and front-line clinical workers, with clinicians giving more problematic

responses. “This could make it hard for non-clinician executives to understand the true state of their organization, to determine changes needed, and to assess their attempts to create and maintain a culture of safety,” the researchers wrote. “Long-term progress may need to include interventions specifically aimed at improving safety culture and breaking down barriers between managers and front line workers,” they concluded.⁴⁸

Cynicism/Mistrust of Leadership. EMS stakeholders participating in developing this strategy described a common (although not universal) cultural phenomenon in which field-level EMS practitioners do not trust leadership and/or respond cynically to leadership directives and initiatives. This may be rooted in the often unreasonable expectations that individuals must somehow perform to a very high standard despite limited resources and difficult circumstances. This could present an obstacle when it comes to implementing a Culture of Safety, although experts report successes with organizations that sincerely invest in safety-culture initiatives with visible, firm support from top management.

“Check the Box” Safety. EMS culture often treats safety as a one-time, static consideration, checklist-style. EMT and paramedic testing typically requires candidates to ask whether the scene is safe before entering, but the answer is almost always yes, and safety is not typically a permeating consideration in such testing. This reinforces a limited view of safety.

“Undoing” Education. In many cases, newly hired EMTs and paramedics are paired with a partner or field training officer who either intentionally or unintentionally “undoes” responder-safety and patient-safety habits and beliefs instilled in the new employee’s education program. This is commonly described as the “that was all well and good in the classroom, but now let me show you how we do it in the real world” effect.

Cultural Attitudes About Provider Mental Health. Cultural attitudes toward provider mental health are a powerful influence on whether or not a responder is willing to seek help for stress reactions related to EMS work. There is direct and powerful messaging to new EMS workers that “if you can’t handle it, you don’t belong here.” This attitude discourages conversation that may normalize stress reactions and allow for permission to seek assistance when needed; it also stigmatizes those who may be dealing with posttraumatic stress. Responders may not be willing or able to admit when they need assistance, and may continue to work even when they are impaired. Even sub-threshold PTSD has been found to cause levels of social and occupational impairment equivalent to that caused by PTSD.⁴⁹

Focus on Response Times. One of the limited number of metrics that is almost always measured in EMS organizations is response times, despite scant evidence that the difference between a lights-and-siren response and a non-emergency response makes a clinical difference. EMS provider organizations are often contractually held to a specific response-time performance standard, sometimes with fines levied for noncompliance. This both reinforces the perceived need to rush and creates organizational incentives to do so. The resulting sense of pervasive urgency in turn feeds the belief in the EMS culture that taking chances is part of “trying our hardest.” Focusing on response times may also distract from focusing on quality clinical care or safety.

Reinforcement of Unsafe Behaviors. Too often in EMS, unsafe outcomes lead to blaming and punishing the individual while overlooking system or process shortcomings, despite an environment in which risk-taking is considered part of the job as long as nothing bad happens.

This is a real-world, textbook example of David Marx's observation that unsafe behaviors are reinforced when they are "rewarded"—i.e., nothing bad happens and the at-risk behavior is not addressed. In a strategy document that could have been written specifically for EMS, the National Fallen Firefighters Foundation describes a "cycle of unsafe behavior reinforcing itself [and is] driven underground by departments who ignore the messages of near-misses.... [leads to] a continual cycle of negative, unsafe behaviors that result in avoidable tragedies. They occur because the organizational culture permits and perpetuates them."⁵⁰

Lack of National Priority (Until Now). Prior to the NEMSAC recommendation that led to this Strategy, there have been a number of prominent documents that have helped shape the course of EMS in the U.S. (1966 White Paper, 1996 *EMS Agenda for the Future*, 1998 *Leadership Guide to Quality Improvement for Emergency Medical Services Systems*, 2000 *EMS Education Agenda for the Future: A Systems Approach*, 2004 *Rural and Frontier Emergency Medical Services Agenda for the Future*, 2006 National Institutes of Medicine *Future of Emergency Care: Emergency Medical Services at the Crossroads*, 2008 *EMS Workforce for the 21st Century: A National Assessment*, 2008 *EMS Workforce Agenda for the Future*, and others). Many of these documents reference responder safety or patient safety in EMS, either directly or indirectly, but until NEMSAC's recommendation, neither topic had risen to the level of a pressing, high-priority need.

IV. Importance of Both Leadership and Field Personnel in Building a Culture of Safety

Numerous published works addressing safety culture have noted the essential role played by the leadership of individual organizations, especially when it comes to patient safety. Indeed, the Institute for Healthcare Innovation (IHI)'s white paper *Leadership Guide to Patient Safety* characterizes the critical role of senior leaders thusly:⁵¹

“Leadership is the critical element in a successful patient safety program and is non-delegable. Only senior leaders can productively direct efforts in their health care organizations to foster the culture and commitment required to address the underlying systems causes of medical errors and harm to patients.”

The IHI paper identifies the unique role of an organization's leadership in:

- Establishing the value system in the organization;
- Setting strategic goals for activities to be undertaken;
- Aligning efforts within the organization to achieve those goals;
- Providing resources for the creation, spread, and sustainability of effective systems;
- Removing obstacles to improvements for clinicians and staff; and
- Requiring adherence to known practices that will promote patient safety

Stakeholders participating in the development of this Strategy have generally agreed that the role of EMS leadership as it applies to patient safety also extends to responder safety and overall EMS safety (i.e., safety of the public).

The Strategy notes that an individual organization may have competing goals and values. Organizational leaders play an important role in overtly acknowledging that values such as safety, patient care, privacy and compassion will compete at times.

It is the shared experience of many of those stakeholders that EMS organizational leadership often works to create or support an organizational culture consistent with the goals of improving responder safety and patient safety. However, stakeholders also reported widespread cases in which leadership works to undermine either the organizational culture or the ability of individual EMS field practitioners or field supervisors to act in the interest of responder safety or patient safety. In these cases, leadership's intentions may be good, but they ultimately fail to create support for a culture of safety. Many causes for this phenomenon have been reported anecdotally, chiefly:

- Attention diverted by other issues of perceived higher priority;
- Limited resources;
- Limited or no information/education about safety culture or practices;
- Pressure to meet ongoing demands for services;
- Limited mandates or incentives for proactive safety-related initiatives

Recent research shows that many frontline workers have a “non-positive” perception of EMS management commitment to safety, and that perceptions of workplace safety culture vary widely across EMS organizations.⁴³

The National EMS Advisory Council's recent paper *The Role of Leadership in EMS Workplace Safety Culture* described the following core elements of leadership related to safety culture:

- Setting and regularly promoting the expectation for safe operations;
- Communicating a vision of a safe workplace, developing a process for achieving that vision, stimulating and arming co-workers with the resources needed to achieve that vision;
- Adopting safety and a positive safety culture as a value rather than a priority, because the latter are susceptible to change over time;
- Developing and sustaining processes for regular internal and external evaluations of safety conditions in the workplace and disseminating findings to create an "informed culture";
- Providing an avenue for management and front-line workers to recognize the need or availability of innovations that improve the workplace safety;
- Facilitating a variety of process and interventions in and out of the workplace that promote the safety of workers and their families.

There is little data to illustrate the *specific* role that EMS practitioners—i.e., EMTs and paramedics—play in a culture of safety. But it is nonetheless evident that these dedicated responders are essential stakeholders in the process of improving safety for themselves, their patients, and members of the public they encounter in the course of their work.

It is therefore critical that wherever possible, activities and initiatives that are designed to improve safety also be evaluated in how they will impact the people whose decisions and actions will ultimately lead to improved safety.

Because of the key importance of both organizational leadership and EMS practitioners in building and implementing a culture of safety, the Strategy envisions a construct in which resources, requirements, information, support, feedback and other elements flow to, and through, organizational leadership, as well as to responders directly, as appropriate. This coordinated effort will motivate and support both the leaders of EMS organizations and individual EMS responders nationwide, in ultimate support of pervasive safety-oriented attitudes and actions among all members of the EMS team, at all levels.

In other words, the desired outcome of the Strategy is a national culture of safety within EMS that both supports and comes from a collection of EMS provider organizations with their own cultures of safety.

Part 5
Envisioned Elements of a National EMS Culture of Safety

I. Overview

The Strategy envisions six Elements that will work together to create and support a national culture of safety in EMS:

- Just Culture
- Coordinated Support and Resources
- National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System
- EMS Education Initiatives
- Standards
- Requirements for Reporting and Investigation

These elements were conceived in a consensus process by the Steering Committee for this project and further defined in subsequent group discussions.

These elements are intended to work cooperatively with Federal, State, regional and local entities, as well as national stakeholder organizations, to channel resources, requirements, information, support, feedback and other elements to, from and among organizational leadership and individual EMS practitioners.

It is the intent of the Strategy to avoid duplicating effort or creating unnecessary overlap. Wherever possible, the Strategy has considered opportunities to build on past work and to partner with existing institutions and entities in envisioning these Elements.

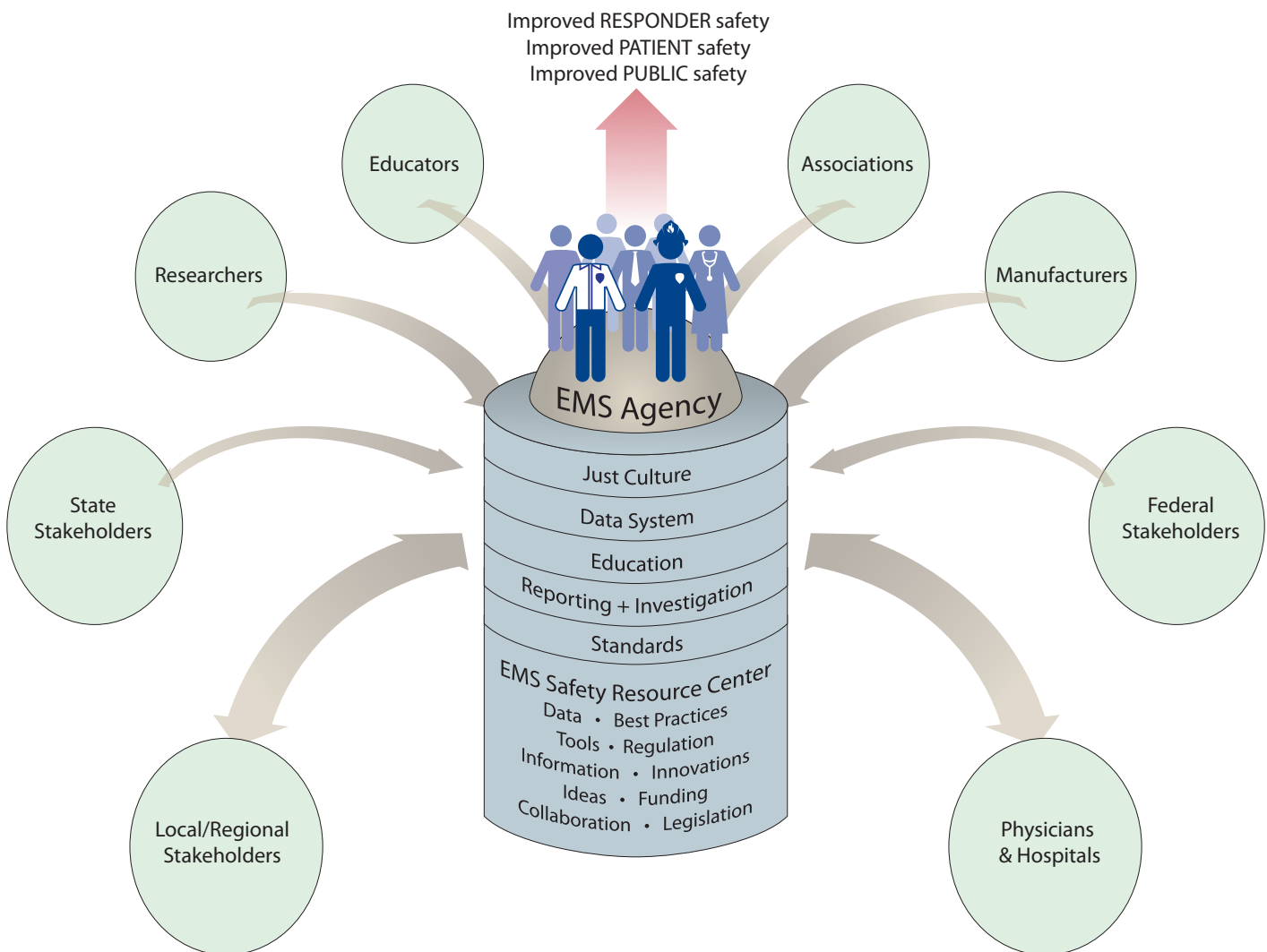
The elements are depicted in a framework diagram in the front of this document, repeated on the following page.

Diagram: Framework for a Culture of Safety in EMS

The following diagram provides a high-level overview of the envisioned components of a culture of safety and its place in the EMS community.

To be successful, these components will require collaboration among many stakeholders. The depictions of components and relationships in this illustration are not intended as a literal, hierarchical or exhaustive representation of the complex EMS universe.

The diagram is provided as a framework to enhance understanding of the Strategy concepts presented throughout this document.



II. Just Culture

The Strategy envisions a Culture of Safety within EMS that embodies values similar to those of a school of thought known as Just Culture. Widely adopted throughout healthcare, aviation and a growing number of other fields, Just Culture describes an organizational environment that encourages individuals to report mistakes so that the precursors to errors can be better understood in order to fix system issues.

In testimony before Congress in January 2000, Lucian Leape, M.D., a member of the Quality of Health Care in America Committee at the Institute of Medicine and adjunct professor of the Harvard School of Public Health, noted the following:

“Approaches that focus on punishing individuals instead of changing systems provide strong incentives for people to report only those errors they cannot hide. Thus, a punitive approach shuts off the information that is needed to identify faulty systems and create safer ones. In a punitive system, no one learns from their mistakes.”⁶²

Dr. Leape’s observation speaks to the need for a concept like Just Culture. Such a concept creates an atmosphere of trust, in which people are encouraged—or even rewarded—for reporting essential safety-related information, but in which they understand the difference between acceptable and unacceptable behavior. It also supports learning from at-risk behavior, failures and safety incidents.

Just Culture describes three duties, all of which should be already familiar to anyone working in EMS:

The duty to **act**.

The duty to **follow a procedural rule**.

The duty to **avoid causing unjustifiable risk**.

It should be noted that errors have the potential to be caused by a complex array of contributing factors, including failures of process or equipment as well as human factors. Not all errors are random occurrences or the result of failures of practitioners to perform as expected.

Regardless of whether nonhuman factors are involved, when it comes to unsafe acts, Just Culture describes three degrees of behavior:

Human error. Human error describes inadvertent actions in which there is general agreement that the individual should have done something other than what he or she did, and the action(s) inadvertently caused (or could have caused) an undesirable outcome.

At-risk behavior. At-risk behavior describes situations in which an individual makes a choice to engage in a behavior out of a belief that the risk is insignificant, or out of the mistaken belief that the behavior is otherwise justified.

Reckless behavior. Reckless behavior describes a behavioral choice to consciously disregard a substantial and unjustifiable risk.

All three types of behavior warrant a response. Just Culture expert David Marx recommends separating behaviors from outcomes—that is, basing the response to unsafe acts on the behavior itself and the risk it presents, rather than on the outcome (i.e., overlooking unsafe behavior if no harm resulted, and punishing the person involved only when harm occurs). His simplified model for escalating response:⁵³

Console human error.

Coach at-risk behavior.

Punish reckless behavior.

...independent of outcome.

The qualifier in the above model (basing the response on the behavior, not the outcome) is a critical component of Just Culture. The opposite approach, basing the severity of the response on the severity of the outcome, is believed to be common in EMS and many conventional fields. However, such an approach ignores the risk created by the behavior, encourages people to hide mistakes, and in fact *rewards* at-risk behavior when there is no negative outcome. In other words, “no harm, no foul” has no place in Just Culture.

Medicine, aviation and a growing number of other fields have made significant moves toward Just Culture in recent years. This is noteworthy not only because of the successes that have been achieved, but as a dramatic example of cultural shift, because Just Culture contrasts with the traditional culture in healthcare and other high-risk disciplines, which often held individuals accountable for all errors or mishaps. Although Just Culture does not hold individuals accountable for system failings over which they have no control, it is not a blame-free model (see description of behavior types that may result in unsafe acts, above). It acknowledges that humans inevitably make mistakes, and that systems should be designed to reduce the chance of harm in the event of such mistakes.

In 2009, the American Nurses Association released a position paper formally endorsing the concept of Just Culture, citing its value in improving patient safety, noting.⁵⁴

“The Just Culture concept establishes an organization-wide mindset that positively impacts the work environment and work outcomes in several ways. The concept promotes a process where mistakes or errors do not result in automatic punishment, but rather a process to uncover the source of the error. [At-risk behaviors] result in coaching, counseling, and education around the error, ultimately decreasing likelihood of a repeated error. Increased error reporting can lead to revisions in care delivery systems, creating safer environments for patients and individuals to receive services, and giving the nurses and other workers a sense of ownership in the

process. The work environment improves as nurses and workers deliver services in safer, better functioning systems, and that the culture of the workplace is one that encourages quality and safety over immediate punishment and blame.”

Other models may exist that embody similar values. Such values may increase the likelihood that the steps necessary to create a true culture of safety will be perceived positively by those who will ultimately determine its success or failure—that is, EMS field practitioners.

III. Coordinated Support & Resource Center

Advancing EMS responder safety and safety of patients and the public requires participation from a wide variety of stakeholders. This Strategy envisions a centralized function for coordinating this participation and a wide variety of resources, and allowing for a unified, credible message to be presented to the EMS community on a national basis. This, in turn, increases the likelihood of building buy-in among individual EMS provider agencies.

To fulfill this function, the Strategy envisions a resource and coordination center. Its fundamental mission would include:

- Communicating with a broad group of stakeholder organizations of all types to coordinate efforts, for a unified message
- Providing additional visibility in support of a culture of safety in EMS
- Functioning as a communication channel to the EMS community
- Serving as a repository/library/collection of links with “one-stop shopping” for tools, best practices, education, research, standards and related resources that the EMS community can use to advance a culture of safety (e.g., NAEMT’s EMS Safety Course and related resources)
- Collaborating with appropriate entities in advancing the other five elements in this Strategy (Just Culture, National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System, EMS Education Initiatives, Standards, and Requirements for Reporting and Investigation)
- Sharing research activities such as those affiliated with the National Academies’ Transportation Research Board (TRB)

For ease of reference, this envisioned resource and coordination center has been given the placeholder name EMS Safety Resource Center (EMSSRC).

The Strategy does not envision EMSSRC as having oversight, regulatory or enforcement authority, although it would communicate and work closely with existing authorities as appropriate. The Strategy anticipates that EMSSRC’s role would be one of support, coordination, monitoring of progress, and sharing of information, rather than a direct, hands-on role in conducting research or implementing specific intervention programs. EMSSRC is envisioned as supplementing and supporting, not replacing, initiatives by stakeholder groups such as associations, researchers, States, etc., and helping communicate success stories and best practices so that the entire EMS community may benefit.

Possible EMSSRC Structure

Although it is the intent of this Strategy to tap into existing resources wherever possible and avoid “reinventing the wheel,” several possible structures for EMSSRC have been suggested for consideration. They are presented here in no particular order; no preference is expressed.

1. **Foundation Model:** Under this model, EMSSRC would be chartered and funded as a foundation similar to the National Fallen Firefighters Foundation, with an overseeing board of directors. The foundation model could be applied either to a startup entity or to an existing organization whose scope is expanded to specifically encompass EMSSRC as a core program. *Note:* NFFF was chartered by Congress, which may or may not be necessary for this model to be successful.
2. **Institute Model:** Under this model, EMSSRC would be chartered as an institute similar to the Institute for Healthcare Improvement, funded through a combination of grants, donations, and program fees.
3. **Cooperative Agreement Model:** Under this model, EMSSRC would be housed at a university, institution or non-profit organization. Examples include the Cardiac Arrest Registry to Enhance Survival (CARES), at Emory University, in cooperation with CDC; and the National EMS for Children National Resource Center, housed at Children's National Medical Center, in cooperation with the Health Resources and Services Administration, Maternal and Child Health Bureau.
4. **Association Model:** Under this model, EMSSRC would be maintained by a national stakeholder association or combination of associations.
5. **Combination Model:** Various combinations of the preceding models can also be considered.

However EMSSRC is structured, the Strategy envisions that it would encompass a panel of representatives from a broad spectrum of stakeholder groups, similar to the makeup of the Steering Committee associated with this Strategy.

Also regardless of structure, it is envisioned that EMSSRC would work closely with State EMS officials and Federal stakeholders. If a Lead Federal Agency is designated for EMS and given the appropriate legislative mandate, it is anticipated that EMSSRC would work closely with such an agency. Whether such a Lead Federal Agency is named or not, it is anticipated that EMSSRC would work closely with a variety of Federal stakeholders with an interest in EMS.

To support its mission in supporting the implementation of the other five Elements described in this Strategy, it will be helpful for EMSSRC to undertake the following support activities:

Outreach and Resources for EMS and Other Stakeholders. EMSSRC is a natural body to take on the task of communicating with the EMS community (both directly and via associations, Federal partners, states, regions, local authorities and similar channels) about the concept of a culture of safety and specific initiatives undertaken. As a safety advocate, EMSSRC is also an appropriate entity to deliver credible, actionable, nationally endorsed information on best practices and safety culture initiatives, continuing education materials for leaders and practitioners, and the like for organizations' use. EMSSRC could also: act as a centralized clearinghouse for data and published research; track safety-related regulations enacted by Federal entities and States and report details to the EMS community; track Federal and State legislation affecting EMS safety, and house model legislation; report on funding sources; coordinate and support collaboration among stakeholder groups; and share news and ideas. Such resources could be made available via an online portal.

Resources for Public Outreach. EMSSRC can house educational materials (such as press-ready brochure files, public service announcements, campaigns, etc.) for use by stakeholder groups and EMS provider agencies in communicating the proactive stance of the EMS profession about patient safety, as well as the importance of supporting safety initiatives for EMS personnel. Such communication can help build support for EMS safety initiatives, and can also help shape public perception and expectations (helpful in, for example, understanding response times; using EMS appropriately; and attracting prospective workers who view EMS appropriately). Outreach materials may also be helpful in educating the public about yielding to emergency vehicles, being aware of emergency scenes on roadways, appropriate expectations and to correct misperceptions about EMS (for example, the expectation that every call must generate a lights-and-siren response, regardless of the nature of the problem).

Measuring Progress and Success. Working with stakeholder groups, EMSSRC should develop criteria, national expectations and milestones for progress toward responder safety and patient safety goals. It should coordinate efforts to track and report on that progress. One tool that may be useful is the national benchmarking survey of attitudes about safety in EMS used by the Emergency Medical Services Agency Research Network (EMSARN) at the University of Pittsburgh.⁴³ Wherever possible, EMSSRC should use actual data and evidence from the field in measuring progress, and should publicly report on that progress (or lack thereof).

Additional Activities to Consider

Many of the factors considered and/or addressed in the Strategy have been discussed previously, and the envisioned elements may have been previously recommended, in some form, in past efforts that did not focus on safety specifically. The Strategy anticipates that one of the initial activities for EMSSRC will be to review these past recommendations and goals, affirm that they are currently supported, evaluate progress and set up channels of communication with the groups responsible for implementing them.

Specific to patient safety, EMSSRC should consider recommendations in the National EMS Advisory Council Oversight, Analysis, and Research Committee report *Reducing Adverse Events in EMS: Creating a Culture of Safety*. Possible priorities include:

- Leading the development of standards and methodologies to identify and reduce adverse events in EMS
- Exploring possibilities for regulatory or financial incentives to drive patient safety in EMS
- Encouraging peer-reviewed research focused on a system approach to medical errors and patient safety in EMS
- Considering a patient safety reporting system (national vs. state)

- Developing model legislation/regulations regarding patient safety in EMS
- Creating a list of EMS “never events” – that is, particularly shocking adverse events that should never occur, such as the list developed by the National Quality Forum in 2006 for events that should never occur in a hospital (for example, surgery on the wrong body part, discharging an infant to the wrong parent, patient death or serious injury from a fall while being cared for in a hospital, etc.)⁵⁵ or the Joint Commission’s “sentinel events” policy⁵⁶
- Defining a taxonomy/data dictionary for EMS adverse event reporting
- Creating or collaborating on, and distributing, a toolkit for local implementation of an EMS patient safety program
- Cataloguing best practices in EMS patient safety
- Seeking opportunities to encourage the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS), in any “value-based purchasing” system developed for EMS, to include a mechanism to financially reward EMS programs that have implemented a culture of safety

Specific to EMS responder safety, EMSSRC should consider recommendations in the *Emergency Medical Services Workforce Agenda for the Future*, including cultivating policies, procedures, training and programs in industries with similar dynamic risk profiles to EMS, such as trucking, shipping, mining and agriculture, and evaluating these programs to establish clear workforce safety practices and procedures.

The same document also identifies such priorities as:

- Identifying successful wellness programs from other industries and tailoring them to the EMS community
- Establishing regular forums for sharing best practices with provider groups
- Extending awareness of the culture of safety into educational programs so that new workers enter the field with a broader appreciation for their own safety and well-being and that of their peers

The *Workforce Agenda* does not directly address patient safety or medical errors in the prehospital setting.

EMSSRC should also consider the strategic goals identified in the report of the National Public Safety Sub-Sector Agenda for Occupational Safety and Health Research Practice in the U.S., under the National Occupational Research Agenda (NORA). The *Emergency Medical Services Workforce Agenda for the Future* cites five strategic goals identified for EMS in the above document (including any updated timelines):

- “Reduce traumatic injury and fatalities among EMS personnel associated with vehicle crashes...”
- “Reduce traumatic injuries among EMS personnel that occur during movement of patients and equipment...”
- “Reduce hazardous exposures to EMS personnel through effective design and use of PPE, and proper work practices...”
- “Identify and implement effective policies among EMS agencies regarding work organization factors to reduce related illnesses and injuries...”

- “Create an integrated occupational health and safety surveillance data system for Emergency Medical Services (EMS) personnel and evaluate risks for their exposures, illnesses, injuries, and fatalities...”

Furthermore, EMSSRC should consider other goals identified in the NORA document, such as improving EMS vehicle design and developing guidelines for EMS worksite medical surveillance and wellness programs.

EMSSRC should consider relevant goals identified in the NORA *National Public Safety Agenda* (2009) including.⁵⁷

- Reducing traumatic injury and fatalities among EMS personnel associated with vehicle crashes by 15% by 2015 (Strategic Goal 12, with intermediate goals addressing training programs to ensure safe operations of all ground vehicles, as well as improving the designs of all vehicle types used by EMS by 2012 to decrease the risks of traumatic injuries and fatalities that result from vehicle crashes through work with vehicle and equipment manufacturers, EMS agencies, and other stakeholders and partners; plus all relevant research and translational goals)
- Reducing traumatic injuries among EMS personnel that occur during movement of patients and equipment by 30% by 2012 (Strategic Goal 13, with corresponding intermediate goals, research goals, and translational goals)
- Reducing hazardous exposures to EMS personnel through effective design and use of PPE, and proper work practices by 25% by 2012 (Strategic Goal 14, with corresponding intermediate goals, research goals, and translational goals)
- Identifying and implementing effective policies among EMS agencies regarding work organization factors to reduce related illnesses and injuries by 2012 (Strategic Goal 15, with corresponding intermediate goals, research goals, and translational goals)
- Creating an integrated occupational health and safety surveillance data system for Emergency Medical Service (EMS) personnel and evaluating risks for their exposures, illnesses, injuries and fatalities by 2013 (Strategic Goal 16, with corresponding intermediate goals, research goals, and translational goals)

IV. National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System

There is a pressing need to understand the scope, frequency and nature of EMS responder injuries and adverse medical events, in order to get an idea of the cost to the EMS profession; the impact on responders; the cost to patients; and the cost to society, as well as to identify priorities, set goals and measure progress toward a culture of safety.

Currently, data that could help build an understanding of these issues may be housed in many different places. In one of the largest EMS agencies in the country, for example, the occupational injury data system is an Excel file created and maintained by a single lieutenant. In addition to residing in thousands of data systems, information is not reported uniformly and lacks a common data dictionary.

Making data more accessible and useful can enable that data to become useful to support recommendations and conclusions. As a first step toward this, the Strategy envisions a National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System as a key element. This is envisioned as a national, robust, well-designed, secure data system encompassing key information about EMS safety, made available for research and policy-makers, as well as use by national stakeholder organizations and individual EMS provider agencies. It should be noted that the Strategy envisions the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System as a data *system* linking and communicating with existing data systems, rather than a new *database*.

When it comes to data elements, it is important to consider the concept of a data dictionary, or standardized measures/definitions/metrics to promote the adoption of one set of language that allows for comparisons and aggregate datasets. A single common vocabulary may not be practical to implement,

Any useful data systems must also capture *denominator* data. For EMS occupational injuries, for example, that denominator data must include many factors, including hours worked (by gender and job title), call volume and miles driven, among others.

Considerations From Past Works

The designers of the data system may benefit from a review of a 2007 NHTSA-sponsored report, *Feasibility for an EMS Workforce Safety and Health Surveillance System*, which offered rationale for a comprehensive program for surveillance of EMS illness and injury rates.⁵⁸ The report recommended the creation of a National EMS Workforce Injury and Illness Surveillance Program (EMS-WIISP).

The *Emergency Medical Services Workforce Agenda for the Future* describes the value of research and injury surveillance, including such data as:⁵⁹

- Types and prevalence of illness and injury;
- Incidence of disability and mortality;
- Etiology of illness and injury;

- Workforce demographics;
- “Near miss” incidents;
- Vehicle crash-related morbidity and mortality

The same paper also endorses fundamental research questions that should be routinely addressed, including, for example:

- Risk of experiencing illness and injury;
- Impact of illness and injury on the workforce and the overall EMS industry, including
 - Recruitment
 - Retention
 - Economic cost to industry

Applying Lessons Learned

The Strategy envisions that the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System would apply lessons learned from successful data-centric initiatives such as the International Association of Fire Chiefs’ (IAFC’s) “Near Miss Database,” (<http://www.firefighternearmiss.com/>) which has been up and running since 2005 and has received broad cooperation from the fire service nationwide in gathering meaningful information.⁶⁰ One key lesson from the success of the Near Miss Database is its strategy for providing information back to participants, which further encourages their cooperation and participation. The IAFC’s EMS Section would be a valuable ally in structuring the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System and encouraging its use.

Another data initiative that should be considered in forming the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System are the EMS Near Miss and EMS Line of Duty Death online reporting forms and database developed by the National Association of Emergency Medical Technicians (NAEMT) in collaboration with the Center for Leadership, Innovation and Research in EMS and supported by the National Association of State EMS Directors (NASEMSO). These tools are included in NAEMT’s EMS Voluntary Event Notification Notification Tool (E.V.E.N.T.), which was launched in March 2012.

Additional data-related considerations relevant to the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System include the National Quality Forum’s (NQF’s) “Never” events⁵⁵ and Joint Commission recommendations.⁵⁶

It should also be noted that safety data is currently disjointed for ground EMS, not air.

Need to Consider Dual Aspects of Patient Safety

One potential concern that must be addressed in developing the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System is the need to accommodate two distinct aspects of patient safety unique to EMS—first, protection of patients from physical harm (for example, from crashes, failures of transport equipment, or improper handling); and, second, prevention of medical errors that lead to patient harm (such as incorrect doses of medication, improper diagnoses, missed intubations, etc.). These distinct aspects of EMS patient safety are often the responsibility of two different branches in EMS organizations; the former is typically within

the purview of the health and safety officer (or equivalent), while the latter is typically the responsibility of the medical director and quality improvement manager (or equivalent). It is essential to recognize this distinction in creating a system that will facilitate effective reporting and accuracy.

Need to Analyze Opportunities to Incorporate NEMSIS Data

A careful analysis of the National EMS Information System (NEMSIS) should be made to determine the utility of its data for enhancing an EMS Culture of Safety. It is likely that some NEMSIS data will be useful with regard to patient safety issues involving treatment. However, NEMSIS does not offer this same usefulness when it comes to providing data related to patients who are physically harmed while under EMS care (for example, in an ambulance crash). Further, as a *patient*-focused reporting system, NEMSIS does not provide a way to track injuries sustained by EMS personnel, or line-of-duty deaths.

Need to Consider What Data Will Be Included in the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System

The Strategy anticipates that the data for the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System will come from numerous sources rather than a single entry point. In addition to the sources referred to above, it is possible that individual State agencies will develop their own safety databases for EMS. In view of this, a process similar to that used to develop NEMSIS may be useful in developing the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System. A core set of data points can be identified and agreed upon, and shared with the partner entities, which would then ensure that the data was appropriately and compatibly captured in their own systems. Following this, mechanisms for sharing data among systems following accepted standards would need to be developed.

It may also be helpful to consider a survey of current safety needs to identify what data will be most useful.

Opportunity to Consider Data Gathered by Insurance Carriers

The developers of the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System should evaluate the usefulness of data gathered by insurance carriers (e.g., the Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project (HCUP) at the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ), which tracks hospital inpatient care statistical information).

Need to Capture Broad Occupational Health Data

The EMS community would benefit from surveillance of both mental and physical health conditions among EMS responders, as both may lead to negative outcomes. Stress exposure has been linked empirically with both psychological dysfunction and physical illness.

Need to Consider Privacy and Liability Concerns

It is essential to consider possible obstacles to sharing data, or restrictions on how data may be shared and with whom, in developing the National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System. Such obstacles could include HIPAA and State privacy laws, organizational policies, cultural resistance to revealing sensitive data, the need for protection from legal liability, and related issues. Legal advice on relevant issues is essential for the designers of such a system, to form a strong understanding of what is allowed (particularly by HIPAA) and what is not. Supporting documentation should be made available for use by reporting agencies, to remove obstacles to sharing (real or perceived).

Protection from legal liability related to the reporting of events and data may be available under a patient safety organization (PSO). Under such organizations, those submitting data are protected under the Patient Safety and Quality Improvement Act of 2005. PSOs are overseen by AHRQ (<http://www.pso.ahrq.gov/index.html>). The National EMS Responder and Patient Safety Data System could be formed as part of a patient safety center that is also a PSO.

V. EMS Education Initiatives

EMS education (both initial training programs and continuing education) represents a significant opportunity for delivering both responder safety and patient safety information, changing attitudes, and creating a national culture of safety in EMS. As such, it is a key to this Strategy.

The Strategy recognizes that cultural change takes time, often measured in generations. Education-related initiatives related to safety can seek to create cultural change among current EMS team members, and those just entering the workforce via an educational program.

Need to Include Leaders in Safety Education

The Strategy also recognizes the widely accepted view among safety experts that successful implementation of safety culture hinges on the sincere buy-in from organization-level leadership. The educational component of the Strategy envisions delivering education to both leaders and practitioners at all levels, to equip them with the information they need to “own” EMS responder and patient safety. (Note: The *EMS Education Agenda for the Future* (2000) focused on practitioner-level education and training, rather than leadership, but this should not be viewed as an implication that leadership education should not be a priority.)

Individuals who advance to EMS leadership positions often (although not always) are promoted from within, i.e., from positions as field practitioners. They often must learn leadership skills and competencies “on the job.” The National EMS Management Association (NEMSMA) *Leadership Agenda for the Future* notes:⁶¹

“In more than 40 years of visioning and creating modern EMS, the industry has been blind to the need for structured EMS leadership and management development....Today, EMS management development mirrors the scattered evolution of the industry. There has been no consensus on management levels and titles or the competencies needed to fulfill those levels. There are no common educational paths or widely accepted curricula for management development, and no widely recognized credentials for EMS managers.”

A more systematic approach should be charted for how EMS leaders are educated, or possibly certified, which should strongly emphasize responder safety, patient safety and the concepts of Just Culture.

Need for Early Identification of At-Risk Candidates

Initial EMS education represents the gateway between the pool of potential workers and employment (or volunteer positions) in EMS. The Strategy envisions that entities conducting EMS education (for example, technical schools teaching EMT programs and colleges or college-affiliated programs teaching paramedic courses) actively identify candidates who are

at higher risk for dangerous behavior or risk-seeking attitudes, and provide a higher level of focus to those individuals for a greater understanding of safety concerns.

Need to Build Clinical Judgment

The Strategy also recognizes that changes should be encouraged or mandated in the education of EMS responders, with greater emphasis on creating practitioners who are capable of critical thinking, beyond a focus on technical skills only. It is the belief of stakeholders participating in the development of the Strategy that individuals who are more rounded in clinical thinking skills—as opposed to individuals who are trained to repeat tasks—can more easily assimilate concepts such as a culture of safety.

Accordingly, the Strategy envisions that the goal of the EMS educational process at all points would be not to simply develop skills proficiency but to develop the foundation for clinical judgment. When an EMS practitioner is able to take the whole patient’s medical situation into account, there is a greater opportunity for critical thinking and problem-solving in the approach to treatment.

This philosophy is consistent with the position of the Canadian Patient Safety Institute in its report *Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services: Advancing and Aligning the Culture of Patient Safety in EMS*, which described good clinical judgment as the greatest safety feature of EMS systems (and poor clinical judgment as the greatest risk to safety).⁶²

Transitioning New Employees

Related to transitioning new employees into the workplace, it is important to note an observation made in the EMS Culture section of this Strategy, about a phenomenon that may impede the effectiveness of any education-related initiatives toward a culture of safety:

In many cases, newly hired EMTs and paramedics are paired with a partner or field training officer who either intentionally or unintentionally “undoes” responder-safety and patient-safety habits and beliefs instilled in the new employee’s education program. This is commonly described as the “that was all well and good in the classroom, but now let me show you how we do it in the real world” effect.

To avoid this, a better transition model is needed so that what is learned in the classroom stays with the individual throughout his or her career. Greater use of realistic simulation and “real world” scenarios, or a more gradual transition from education to duty, may be beneficial. Further, field training educators should not only have preparation for doing the job, but it would be beneficial to a culture of safety for that preparation to support a more strategic goal of preparing them to be future instructors and academics. Accordingly, such field training instructor programs could also offer academic credit.

It should be noted that the National EMS Management Association, in recognizing the challenge of transitioning new employees, recently created the EMS Field Training and

Evaluation Program (FTEP), which seeks to standardize and improve organizations' approach to this critical, but often overlooked, element of training.

Need to Integrate Safety Into Every Component of EMS Education

The Strategy envisions recruitment and training beyond the classroom as vitally important to the successful implementation of a culture of safety, to include:

- Educating recruits about the job before they join (countering impressions about the “glamorous” lights-and-sirens nature of EMS work)
- Instilling a deep understanding that safety is an ever-present, ever-important consideration in EMS work, but acknowledging that sometimes safety considerations conflict with other important values
- Refusing to allow safety training to be set aside once on the job, to include understanding the human tendency to rationalize repeating at-risk behaviors simply because they have not resulted in negative outcomes in the past
- Training the next generations of EMS team members to be safety-oriented in everything they do, and providing them leadership to support safety procedures and maintain accountability for behaviors regardless of outcomes
- Setting the foundation for a career-long understanding of the importance of personal health, physical fitness, maintaining emotional health and avoiding substance abuse.

The Strategy recognizes that all generations do not learn the same way, and that opportunities should be sought to deliver education information in a variety of ways, including via apps, mobile methods, social media and other nontraditional methods.

The Strategy envisions a significant evolution of the EMS education process, in which the values and practical elements of a culture of safety are *fully integrated into each component of EMS education*. This is in keeping with the need expressed in the 1996 NHTSA document *EMS Agenda for the Future*. Under this model, the safety of practitioners, patients and the public would be a persistent, pervasive consideration.

VI. Standards

The Strategy envisions that the EMS Safety Resource Center will pursue, as part of its core mission, the promotion of standards in EMS that will enhance safety for EMS practitioners, patients and members of the public whom EMS encounters in the course of its work. Standards are envisioned as encompassing both responder safety and patient safety.

The Strategy envisions the following considerations applicable to EMSSRC in its mission to promote safety-related standards in EMS:

Evidence-Based Approach

Standard-setting bodies should follow an accepted process—that is, one based on literature/evidence, data and consensus—in selecting and sharing standards. It should be noted that there needs to be more funding for research to develop and support standards.

Scope of Mission Related to Standards

It is not the vision of the Strategy that EMSSRC will be a standards development organization in its own right, or that it will duplicate valuable work already performed. Rather, it is expected that EMSSRC will act as a coordination/clearinghouse for the past and future work of other organizations. EMSSRC should work closely with standard-setting organizations in emergency services and healthcare, review standards using accepted processes, and promulgate those standards to the EMS community. It is anticipated that this would represent ongoing work, as the need for standards grows with the needs of the profession, the needs of patients, and the ever-evolving body of scientific knowledge. This ongoing work would also include advocating for new processes and standards.

Initial Work Needed to Develop Standards to Be Addressed

EMSSRC should engage in a collaborative process with experts to develop a prioritized list of standards to be addressed or created by appropriate organizations. High priority should be given to standards that support safety not only from an operational or technical viewpoint, but from a cultural perspective as well. Possible items for consideration include the following (Note: This is a limited list, from topics raised at the National EMS Culture of Safety Stakeholder Conference and via public comment during the development of the Strategy):

- Physical fitness for practitioners (may be preferable for this to initially emerge as recommendations or guidelines rather than standards)
- Shifts/fatigue
- Categorizing and reporting violence against EMS personnel; model legislation outlawing such acts; standards for training to prevent/counter violence and prevent injuries to responders and patients
- Checking driver records and similar employment screening
- Quality improvement and supervision

- Medical equipment and patient-moving equipment; making equipment loads manageable
- Ambulance design, maintenance, etc.
- Dispatch standards: Encouragement of prioritized dispatch protocols, for ground and air, to ensure that the response is commensurate with the nature of the emergency and that unjustified risk is minimized
- Patient safety considerations specific to equipment design (example: standardization of anesthesia machines led to measured reductions in errors)
- Use of personal protective equipment (PPE) by provider and patient
- Standardized description of the role and qualifications of an EMS safety officer
- Safety competencies
- Standards for safety-related information communicated to responders, to include anticipated data available through Next Generation 911

VI. Requirements for Reporting and Investigation

To successfully implement a culture of responder safety and patient safety in EMS and to support the creation and population of a national EMS safety data system, the Strategy acknowledges the importance of mandates for reporting of standardized data by all EMS provider agencies.

EMS vehicle crashes represent a high-profile risk for EMS practitioners, EMS patients and the public. Very little is known about the true number of EMS vehicle crashes, and even less is known about the number of incidents in which an EMS vehicle was indirectly involved (so-called “wake effect” crashes). Further, little is known about non-crash incidents involving EMS vehicular operations (e.g., an EMT in the back of the ambulance being injured by a sudden stop or turn). The Strategy envisions mandatory investigation of all crashes and other EMS vehicular incidents that meet certain severity criteria.

It is not currently envisioned that EMSSRC would play a direct role in investigating crashes, but would be a partner in efforts to develop a mechanism for such investigation.

Other high-profile risks for EMS responders, patients and the public should be identified and prioritized.

Steps for developing reporting may include:

1. **Determining what data types are necessary and useful.** EMSSRC could survey experts to identify the types of information that would be critical for investigation of incidents; identifying high-risk activities, conditions and locations; identifying opportunities for interventions/preventive measures that are most likely to yield improvements, and other criteria.
2. **Determining what data may already be available or mandated.** It is not currently known how many States mandate reporting of vehicle incidents that meet specified criteria, or what is done with the information obtained through such mechanisms. Surveying States to identify existing reporting and investigation requirements is an essential step. This survey should include types of data collected, compliance rates, the ways data is used, how investigations are conducted and by whom, and related information.
3. **Learning from those with hands-on experience.** In gathering information to determine the most appropriate approach, it would be especially helpful for EMSSRC to consult with, or even receive direct assistance from, one or more Federal entities that have specific experience in collecting mandated reports and conducting investigations, e.g., the CDC’s National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) and/or the National Transportation Safety Board (NTSB).
4. **Assigning and obtaining authorization for an investigative body.** A likely entity to conduct mandatory investigations is not known, but there may be significant advantages to assign such responsibility to an organization with relevant experience, such as NTSB. Investigations should involve cooperation/communication with local authorities to obtain information.
5. **Identifying existing best practices.** EMSSRC could identify best practices for collecting data, investigating incidents that meet relevant criteria, sharing findings and

ensuring that the resulting information is used in a way that benefits the profession or industry in question.

Additional Considerations

Mandatory vs. Voluntary: There is a general agreement among stakeholders participating in the development of this Strategy that some reporting should be voluntary and some should be mandated. There is no strong sense, however, of where that line should be drawn. Even if data reporting is mandated, high compliance rates may not automatically result. Nevertheless, the Strategy envisions that stronger mandates will result in more complete, more accurate data being gathered, more quickly—and an accompanying increase in the ability of EMSSRC to share findings that will affect policy decisions aimed at improving EMS safety. This issue could be tied to funding; that is, each agency would know that supplying x data (the minimum) would result in y dollars, and that supplying $x+2$ data (the ideal) would result in $y+2$ dollars. It should also be noted that any attempt at improving reporting will be long and complex, and penalties would likely make it longer and more difficult. Not every agency will be able to submit additional reports; focusing on the ones that do and rewarding them for the efforts may be the most effective approach.

Documentation: The bottom-up nature of reporting by EMS personnel and medical directors must be acknowledged as a cornerstone.

Enforcement & Sanctions: The Strategy envisions that any mandates for reporting will have far greater compliance if they are supported by incentives for compliance or penalties for noncompliance. The Strategy anticipates that the greatest compliance will result, and that reporting will be most efficient, if mandatory collection of data is conducted at the State level, with data collated and forwarded to EMSSRC.

Sharing of Best Practices: Agencies may be more likely to comply with reporting mandates if they see a benefit to participating. EMSSRC should regularly share best practices for how incidents, crashes, injuries, etc., can best be handled by individual agencies, using data from the reporting process and the results of investigations.

Anonymous Reporting: The system should include a channel for anonymous reporting, even by individuals. One model for consideration is the Firefighter Near Miss System, in which individuals typically can access the system and submit a report in 10 minutes or less, even if they have no expertise or experience in doing so. Another is the National Association of Emergency Medical Technicians' E.V.E.N.T. Reporting System. The reporting channel should be both accessible and standardized.

Legal Implications: Considerable resistance can be expected from organizational risk managers if they fear that plaintiffs' attorneys will subpoena incident- or practitioner-related information reported via a mandatory reporting system. Mandated reporting should be supported by legal protection from use in claims against provider organizations that report incidents. There is ample precedent for such protection accompanying reporting requirements in the hospital arena.

Evidence-Based Process: The reporting and investigative component of the Strategy should follow an evidence-based, data-guided approach, especially in identifying key focus areas where the greatest benefit is possible in protecting EMS personnel, patients and the public, and to reduce the likelihood of harmful outcomes resulting from inevitable human error.

Importance of Denominator Data: Any attempt at improving numerator data collection must also address the need for appropriate denominator data. For example, knowing how many crashes an agency had in a given time period is less useful if the data does not also include how many miles its ambulance fleet was driven in the same period, or how many hours its employees worked, or many hours the driver involved in the ambulance crash had worked within the preceding 24 hours, etc.

Part 6
Conclusion

I. Conclusion

(To be developed)

II. Next Steps

Even with limited evidence available to set priorities and defend initiatives, the EMS community has expressed support for efforts to move forward, even before this Strategy is fully implemented.

Following is a list of ideas for consideration, grouped by possible stakeholder types that may wish to pursue them. This list was developed from EMS community input throughout the development of the Strategy. It is expected to be reviewed, refined and expanded at the National Stakeholder Meeting in June 2012. It is expected that this list will function as a “living document” subject to ongoing additions, edits and reprioritizing. It is not represented as exclusive (i.e., any exclusion should not be assumed to be intentional).

For continuity, the current version of the list should be made available via a central portal such as the envisioned EMS Safety Resource Center. It would also be beneficial for stakeholder groups pursuing any of these activities to coordinate/communicate with the EMSSRC, although this may not always be practical.

Individual Practitioners

- Be open to any team members raising safety concerns, regardless of their tenure and rank
- Be willing to report errors
- Collaborate with management
- Seek opportunities to expand knowledge base on culture, patient safety, latest info and research on clinical safety, responder safety, personal protective equipment, etc, and be willing to bring these to the attention of management
- Ask medical director what can be done to improve safety for responders, patients and the public
- Report safety hazards
- Perform safety checks, vehicle inventory and safety inspections conscientiously
- Be willing to speak up when a partner or other responder seems fatigued or under mental or emotional stress
- Maintain personal physical well-being, get enough sleep and exercise.
- Take advantage of CE opportunities to learn about your own physical and mental wellness

EMS Provider Agencies

- Establish a better understanding of safety culture in EMS nationwide by encouraging local EMS agencies measure their safety culture using reliable and valid tools (i.e. The EMS-SAQ). This may be accomplished individually by the agency or by taking part in a national effort (i.e. EMSARN.org)
- While educators can do some of this type of screening, emphasize the importance of developing pre-employment screening and evaluation tools based on solid research (For example, potential workers with a history of speeding violations or crashes will be more at

risk than others for speeding or crashing the ambulance and, potential workers with previous back injuries will be more at risk for future back injuries). Such tools would not necessarily need to prohibit employment but could be used to track new employees in to specialized mini-courses. However, screening such as this is not the purview of educators. Instead, employers must recognize their responsibility in articulating standards so that potential employees will know if they might be excluded from employment before undertaking a long educational program.

- Adopt values of Just Culture or choose another model to review and adopt
- Find, develop or provide education and safety information (such as NAEMT's EMS Safety Course) to membership
- Support or participate in research

EMS Physicians & Medical Directors

- Work to ensure that local EMS services are addressing EMS safety through current training and updated operational procedures.
- Continue to ensure EMS safety is a priority in their local EMS services through training and operational procedures that are developed based on evidence based research and national standards.

Associations

- Adopt values of Just Culture or choose another model to review and adopt
- Find, develop or provide education and safety information to membership
- Support research; fund it, share results, issue press releases, publish on it, list research as a top priority of the organization
- Make safety part of the association's mission
- Support the (yet to be developed) resource center. Share costs, share documents, etc.
- Raise the profile of safety wherever possible throughout the organization's initiatives.
- Include safety presentations at annual meetings and conferences
- Issue a proclamation supporting the Strategy or the concept of a culture of safety
- Partner with non-endemic organizations to bring outside safety ideas into the mix.
- Make sure members have access to the Strategy document and are aware of it
- Find best practices, encourage members to share their safety policies and safety training materials
- Survey membership about safety practices and share the results
- Advocate for dedicate funding for research and mechanisms to distribute that funding for EMS Safety research (both patient safety and provider/practitioner safety)
- Consider an annual award for best practices in EMS safety

Educators

- Encourage development of curricula that introduces safety culture and safety practices related to patient safety, occupational safety and public safety
- Future editions discuss safety
- Education for leaders
- ID high-risk individuals in class
- Focus on education that builds clinical judgment beyond technical skills
- FTEP

Standard Setting Bodies (e.g., NFPA, ASTM, CCAAS)

- Review accreditation to look for opportunities to include safety
- Consider standards related to wellness, annual fitness test
- Review research presented by TRB
- Evaluate benefits of mandating formal EMD training and procedures in dispatch centers.

Local Government Stakeholders

- When putting ambulance services out to bid, incorporate safety as a high profile consideration in RFPs, to include reporting/monitoring.
- Response times and ensure contractor adheres to a responsible UHU to reduce the likelihood of fatigue and other risks that may lead to injury or error
- Require that the PSAP have EMD
- Regional EMS Council - Require continuing education, make changes to protocols to communication standards, make accreditation and licensure requirements, adopt the practices of Just Culture

State Government Stakeholders

- Introduce or strengthen legislation making it a felony to assault EMS responders
- Support research through the adoption of NEMSIS compliant patient care reporting systems, state “EMS Vehicle Involved Collision Reporting” and promotion of voluntary anonymous reporting (e.g., through EVENT)
- Modify state EMS laws or rules to incorporate safety related provisions into local EMS agency and EMS personnel requirements
- Include safety related messages in all correspondence and documents sent to local EMS agency officials and EMS personnel
- Adopt values of Just Culture or choose another model to review and adopt in the state EMS office
- Find, develop or provide education and safety information to EMS personnel and local EMS agency officials
- Make safety part of the state EMS office mission
- Support and utilize EMSSRC
- Raise profile of safety wherever possible throughout the organization’s initiatives.

- Include safety presentations at annual meetings and conferences
- Issue a proclamation supporting the Strategy or the concept of a culture of safety
- Partner with non-endemic statewide or local organizations to bring outside safety ideas into the mix.
- Find best practices, encourage EMS personnel and local EMS agency officials to share their safety policies and safety training materials
- Survey EMS personnel and local EMS agency officials about safety practices and share the results
- Ensure that EMS personnel and local EMS agency officials have access to the Strategy document and are aware of it

Researchers

- Establish a better understanding of safety culture in EMS nationwide by encouraging local EMS agencies measure their safety culture using reliable and valid tools (i.e. The EMS-SAQ). This may be accomplished individually by the agency or by taking part in a national effort (i.e. EMSARN.org)
- There is a lack of reliable and valid tools to measure safety in EMS. Continue to develop and test measurement tools to quantify the magnitude of problems in EMS responder safety, patient safety and safety of the public.
- Develop research to define fatigue mitigation and fatigue modeling for ground service personnel as is done with air medical teams. Develop risk assessment tools to measure fatigue.
- Build confidence in measurement before moving to research on interventions to impact behavior and practices at the front line.
- Examine the evidence of how EMS workers get injured, and the reasons that EMS workers leave the profession, and then develop and evaluate evidence based interventions to prevent their injuries and improve their health.

EMS Vendors and Manufacturers

- Engineer fail-safe devices and mechanisms to increase both provider safety and patient safety – i.e., features that make it difficult to be unsafe.
- Directly engage end users (providers) in product development and marketing.
- Focus on how engaging end users/customers makes EMS safer in product design and development phases.
- Participate in discussions with providers regarding their culture of safety.
- Search throughout the world to find solutions that could be brought to the U.S.
- Openly report out on product testing and evaluation, initially and periodically as necessary.
- Release conflict of interest statements while attending all conferences, seminars, or educational functions (other than the obvious).
- Identify “off-label” uses of equipment and provide statements directly addressing the potential impacts to provider, patient, and public safety.
- Consider “product failure” notification network for equipment and product failure, not covered under existing law.

- Adopt cost/safety model in the development of products (i.e., safety at what cost; options for those that can't afford)

EMS Media & Conferences

- Conduct surveys and polls and report on the results
- Look for opportunities to promote and elevate safety, single subject articles and workshops.
- Speaker guidelines at EMS conferences can ask speakers to integrate concepts of safety into their presentations as appropriate to the topic.
- Assign articles based on concepts and topics that come from the Culture of Safety doc
- Change author guidelines to consider safety issues in any topic
- Keep safety a hot topic in the community by covering it regularly and in a variety of ways

Misc. or EMSSRC

- Sponsor an interdisciplinary national conference on safety

Appendices

I. EMS Culture of Safety Strategy Project Participants

Steering Committee

American Academy of Pediatrics
American Ambulance Association
American College of Emergency Physicians
American College of Surgeons – Committee on Trauma
Commission on Accreditation of Ambulance Services (CAAS)
Commission on Accreditation of Medical Transport Systems
Emergency Medical Services for Children, National Resource Center
Emergency Nurses Association
Governors Highway Safety Administration
International Association of EMS Chiefs
International Association of Fire Chiefs
International Association of Fire Fighters
International Association of Flight and Critical Care Paramedics
National Association of EMS Physicians
National Association of State EMS Officials
National Association of Emergency Medical Technicians
National EMS Management Association
National Volunteer Fire Council

Additional Involved Organizations

Advocates for EMS
Air and Surface Transport Nurses Association
Air Medical Journal
Air Medical Physicians Association
American Academy of Orthopedic Surgeons
American College of Osteopathic Emergency Physicians
American Hospital Association
American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM F-30 EMS)
American Trauma Society
Association of Air Medical Services
Association of Critical Care Transport
Best Practices in Emergency Services
Committee on Accreditation of Educational Programs for the EMS Professions
Continuing Education Coordinating Board for EMS
Emergency Medical Services for Children-NRC
EMS Labor Alliance
EMS World
Federal Interagency Committee on Emergency Medical Services (FICEMS)
International Association for Healthcare Security and Safety
Institute of Medicine
Journal of Emergency Medical Services

National Academies of Emergency Dispatch
National Association for Search and Rescue
National Association of EMS Educators
National Collegiate EMS Foundation
National EMS Association
National EMS Pilots Association
National Fire Protection Association
National Native American EMS Association
National Organization of State Offices of Rural Health
National Registry of Emergency Medical Technicians
National Rural Health Association
National Safety Council
Society for Academic Emergency Medicine
The Joint Commission
Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, EMS Safety Subcommittee

Federal Agencies

National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)
Health Resources and Services Administration's (HRSA) EMS for Children (EMSC)
Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA)
The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH)
Department of Homeland Security – Office of Health Affairs (DHS-OHA)
Department of Health and Human Services – Assistant Secretary for Preparedness and Response (HHS-ASPR)
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)
United States Fire Administration (USFA)

Project Team

American College of Emergency Physicians (Project Lead)
Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP, Steering Committee Chair
Craig Manifold, DO, FACEP
Rick Murray, EMT-P
Pat Elmes, EMT-P (ret.)
Deb Fly

The RedFlash Group (Technical Writing and Development)
Jeff Lucia, EMT-P (ret.)
Keith Griffiths
Tricia Duva
Jake Knight
Deedee Coffey

II. Development of the Strategy: Steps Followed

This is the third of five drafts of the Strategy. Development of the Strategy has been guided by the leadership of the Steering Committee and the project chair, Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP. The Steering Committee provided detailed guidance to the project team through a combination of in-person and conference call meetings over the course of the project.

For additional details and steps followed in developing the Strategy, see Appendix II of this document.

The Steering Committee met in person in the Washington, D.C., area in April and June 2011, and will meet in person again following the National Review Meeting in June 2012. Periodic conference calls with the complete Steering Committee have allowed the project team the opportunity to gather feedback and approval regarding the Strategy concept, outline and development of a first draft.

Guidance regarding the modification of the Strategy from the first to the second draft was provided in a series of meetings between the project team and subcommittees within the full Steering Committee with specific committees focusing on individual elements of the Strategy. After public review and comment, the project team and Steering Committee again collaborated in a series of meetings to discuss and make decisions about changes to the Strategy, which changes are reflected in Draft 3.

The project team has:

- Conducted interviews with industry thought leaders and safety experts
- Reviewed published literature, including findings presented by the NEMSAC Oversight, Analysis and Research Committee after a review of literature, state laws and related materials
- Reviewed background materials on cultures and how they change
- Reviewed materials presented at the National Stakeholder Conference
- Reviewed facilitated discussions, notes and recommendations from Conference participants
- Reviewed past EMS Agenda for the Future documents
- Reviewed discussions and recommendations by the Steering Committee
- Interviewed three authors of past Agenda documents about the processes they followed, what worked and what didn't
- Conducted in-depth discussions with physicians and pilots regarding how cultural change related to safety was facilitated within the healthcare and aviation industries.
- Worked with the Steering Committee as a whole, in working groups and individually to develop a Preliminary Draft of the Strategy and subsequent revisions prior to the Public Draft

National Stakeholder Meeting

A National Stakeholder Meeting was held in June 2011 in the Washington, D.C., area. The meeting was open to the public, and invitations were offered to the general EMS community

as well as specifically invited individuals and stakeholder organizations, including Federal partners. Presentations included cultural change, safety culture and initiatives for responder safety and patient safety. Safety perspectives and example safety improvement initiatives were presented from outside EMS, in aviation, healthcare, construction, and firefighter life safety. Stakeholders broke into randomly chosen small groups to discuss specific issues and gather input on areas of common concern, for incorporation throughout the Strategy. Immediately following the public part of the meeting, the Steering Committee met to discuss next steps and priorities.

See Appendix III of this document for the National Stakeholder Meeting agenda.

Description of Safety-Related Articles and Materials Considered

The project team worked closely with NHTSA and EMSC to clarify that the literature component of this project should create a compendium of materials to include not only peer-reviewed articles, but periodicals, presentations, white papers and related materials that provided useful background information to the Steering Committee in advance of the development of the first draft of the document.

To date, the project team has assembled a recommended reading list comprising a variety of safety-related materials, including peer-reviewed journal articles, general publication articles, expert presentations, white papers, and poster and campaign materials. Due to the depth and breadth of the task of creating a national strategy to address such a significant topic, the reading list is organized into categories for consideration. These categories are:

- Safety Culture
- Crew Resource Management
- Patient Safety
- Practitioner Safety/Occupational Injury
- Personal Health and Wellness
- Emergency Vehicle Safety

Over the remainder of the project, additional sources of background information will be added to the list as they become available, or as they are recommended to the project team. Articles, papers and similar works referenced throughout the document are also included in the recommended reading list.

Public Review And Revisions

Public review of the document began Monday, Dec. 12, 2011, with the release of the second Draft of the Strategy. That Draft was available for public comment until Feb. 24, 2012, when submitted comments were collected, reviewed and considered for the third Draft of the Strategy.

The third Draft is available for public review until the close of the National Review Meeting in the Washington, D.C., area, June 19, 2012. Comments can be submitted at

www.EMSCultureofSafety.org prior to June 12, 2012. After June 12, comments may be presented in person or via proxy at the National Review Meeting.

Additional information about this process will be included in Draft Four of the Strategy document, when the public review portion of the project is complete.

National Review Conference Summary

To be included in Draft Four of the Strategy document.

NEMSAC Review and Final Revisions

To be incorporated into the final draft of the Strategy document as appropriate.

III. National Stakeholder Meeting Agenda

Monday, June 27, 2011 **8:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m.**

8 – 8:45 a.m. **Welcome and Introduction**

Drew Dawson – Director, Office of EMS, NHTSA
Elizabeth Edgerton, MD, MPH, – EMSC and Injury Prevention Branch Chief, HRSA
Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP – Steering Committee Chair, ACEP

Session 1

8:45 – 9:45 a.m. **Just Culture: Engineering Better Outcomes for EMS**

K. Scott Griffith, MS – Just Culture Community, Outcome Engineering

Mr. Griffith has more than two decades of experience at American Airlines - the world's largest airline - first as a pilot, then as the Managing Director of Corporate Safety and Quality Evaluations. He now works with airline, healthcare and EMS organizations to develop open, fair, and just cultures that are supportive of system safety by facilitating open communication within the organization, while working within a system of accountability that supports safe behavioral choices among staff.

9:45 – 10:45 a.m. **Breakout Discussion**

10:45 - 11 a.m. Break

Session 2

11 – 11:30 a.m. **Cultural Change – Lessons from the Institute for Healthcare Improvement**

David M. Williams, PhD – Principal and Chief Improvement Officer, Positive Eye Consulting

A former urban street paramedic, Dr. Williams has acted as an internal and external improvement advisor to governmental agencies, hospitals, and for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. He is a faculty member of the Institute for Healthcare Improvement (IHI) and is an IHI improvement advisor. He is also on the teaching faculty of The George Washington University School of Medicine and Health Sciences.

11:30 – 12:15 p.m. **Breakout Discussion**

12:15 – 1:15 p.m. Lunch (on your own)

Session 3

1:15 – 2:15 p.m. **The Intersection of EMS Safety and Patient Safety**

Daniel Patterson, PhD, MPH, EMT-B and Blair Bigham, MSc, ACPf

Dr. Patterson's efforts to improve quality, safety and performance in emergency medical care are featured in his most recently published article, *Variations in Emergency Medical Services Workplace Safety Culture*. He is a Prehospital Emergency Care Assistant Professor at the University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine and is Director for Research at the Center for Emergency Medicine of Western PA.

Mr. Bigham is an advanced care flight paramedic in Southern Ontario, Canada. He is an investigator at Rescu, the resuscitation science program at the University of Toronto and St. Michael's Hospital, and holds a faculty position at Centennial College. He was the lead author for the recent paper, *Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services – Advancing and Aligning the Culture of Patient Safety in EMS*.

2:15 – 3:15 p.m. Breakout Discussion

3:15 – 3:30 p.m. Break

Session 4

3:30 – 4 p.m. Building a Culture of Safety From the Ground Up: Insight from the Construction and Healthcare Industries

Michael Szczygiel, Senior Loss Control Representative, THOMCO - Medical Transportation Division

A paramedic, and faculty member of the Emergency Medical Training Program at the University of Kansas School of Medicine College of Health Sciences, Mr. Szczygiel approved all paramedic training in Kansas and wrote and administered the State paramedic certification exam. After more than 20 years in EMS, he became Director of Risk Management for a tertiary care center, community hospital and a psychiatric hospital. He is a member of the NAEMT Health & Safety Committee, and he helped develop and teach the NAEMT Safety Course. Additionally, Szczygiel serves as Director of Safety, on an ad hoc basis, for Central States Contracting Services, a Mechanical & General Contractor.

4 – 4:45 p.m. Breakout Discussion

4:45 p.m. Reconvene
Discuss Day Two – Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP, Steering Committee Chair, ACEP

5 p.m. Conference Day 1 Complete
Dinner (on your own)

Tuesday, June 28 8:00 a.m. – noon

8 - 8:15 a.m. Putting It All Together

Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP – Steering Committee Chair, ACEP

8:15 – 8:45 a.m. Case Study – Firefighter Life Safety Initiatives; Everyone Goes Home

Chief Ronald J. Siarnicki, Executive Director, National Fallen Firefighters Foundation

Chief Siarnicki is the executive director of the National Fallen Firefighters Foundation- a nonprofit organization that was established by the United States Congress to honor and remember America's fallen fire heroes and to provide re-sources to assist survivors in the rebuilding of their lives. He oversees the Foundation's programs, services, and activities, including the National Fallen Firefighters Memorial Weekend, survivor support programs, fire service training and support programs, and the expansion of the official national memorial site to create a national memorial park.

8:45 – 10:15 a.m. Breakout Discussion

10:15 - 10:30 a.m. *Break*

10:30 – 11:45 a.m. Full Group Discussion

11:45 a.m. Conference Wrap-Up

Sabina Braithwaite, MD, MPH, FACEP – Steering Committee Chair, ACEP
Elizabeth Edgerton, MD, MPH, - EMSC and Injury Prevention Branch Chief, HRSA
Drew Dawson – Director, Office of EMS, NHTSA

IV. NEMSAC OAR Report: Reducing Adverse Events in EMS: Creating a Culture of Safety

NOTE: THIS REPORT HAS BEEN OMITTED FROM THIS DRAFT TO LIMIT FILE SIZE AND PRINTING EXPENSE. IT WILL BE INCORPORATED INTO THE FINAL DRAFT. THE REPORT IS AVAILABLE IN PDF FORMAT AT THE FOLLOWING LINK.

http://ems.gov/pdf/nemsac/sep09/NEMSAC-OAR_Final_Report_092909.pdf

**National EMS Advisory Council
Committee Reporting Template
June 2, 2009
FINAL**

Committee: Safety
Title: EMS Injury and Safety Data

ISSUE SYNOPSIS:

A. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Emergency Medical Services (EMS) has been identified as a high risk industry with injuries and deaths among both service providers and the public. The current lack of a comprehensive EMS injury data system, capable of collecting, cataloging and reporting standardized EMS crash and non-crash related injury data, severely limits the industry's ability to develop, test and implement mitigation strategies. The task of identifying injury causative factors becomes far too speculative without timely, accurate, complete, integrated and accessible data that includes location, cause, contributing factors, and related activities associated with injuries involving EMS personnel. This report does not focus on medical errors.

B. RESOURCES/REFERENCES RELATED TO THE ISSUE

- Model Minimum Uniform Crash Criteria: DOT HS 810 957 June 2008
- American National Standard Institute (ANSI) D16.1 Manual on Classification of Motor Vehicle Traffic Accidents, Seventh Edition
- American National Standard Institute (ANSI) D20-1 Data Element Dictionary on for Traffic Records Systems
- Feasibility for an EMS Workforce Safety and Health Surveillance System, NHTSA
- Bureau of Labor Statistics Injury Data
- Study of Emergency Vehicle Warning Lighting, (July 2005) USFA
- Emergency Vehicle Visibility and Conspicuity Study, USFA

Additionally, there are three projects in progress that may provide insight to this topic. They are:

- NIOSH - National Electronic Injury Surveillance System (NEISS) project
- NIOSH – Project on interior design issues of ambulances.
- NFPA – the development of standard on ambulance design.

C. CROSSWALK WITH OTHER STANDARDS

- National Emergency Medical Services Information System (NEMSIS): NHTSA Version 2.2.1

D. ANALYSIS

Emergency Medical Technicians and Paramedics are routinely exposed to factors that threaten personal as well as patient safety.

The public, government, and EMS industry have a duty to identify these threats, find ways to remove and reduce their impact, and develop a culture of safety in EMS, as espoused by the National EMS Advisory Council.

There are limited sources of existing data that identify threats to personnel and patient safety. Non-vehicle/crash related injuries are by far the most numerous and their cost to the industry and society is staggering. Non-vehicle/crash injuries also present the biggest challenge for researchers as there are few established data definitions and repositories for the collection and analysis of these types of incidents.

In contrast there are several federally sponsored data capture and analysis systems which can be use to obtain EMS transport incidents. The most prominent systems are directed by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), Federal Highway Administration (FHWA), Federal Motor Carrier Safety Administration (FMCSA), and the National EMS Information System (NEMSIS).

The data collected by most of these systems originate from traffic crash data recorded by local law enforcement agencies responding to highway crashes. Police Accident Reports (PAR) are completed on scene then uploaded into local and/or State maintained data bases. State crash information is then uploaded into national data collection and analysis systems.

Data definitions used to input information into State crash files is published in the

DOT report “Model Minimum Uniform Crash Criteria (MMUCC)” and the American National Standard Institute (ANSI) D16.1 “Manual on Classification of Motor Vehicle Traffic Accidents”, Seventh Edition. State PAR definitions are reported to be 75% compliant with the standards contained in MMUCC and ANSI D16.1.

The examination of data definitions and elements captured by States indicates a wide range of interpretation related to EMS programs. For example, a search of ANSI D16.1-2007 reveals no references to “ambulance vehicles” or to “fire trucks”. The MMUCC definition for “ambulance” is now defined as, “any public or private ambulance service under contract to a jurisdiction to provide emergency response for medical emergencies.” A fire truck is now included in the general definition of an emergency motor vehicle, “Indicates operation of any motor vehicle that is legally authorized by a government authority to respond to emergencies with or without use of emergency warning equipment, such as police vehicle, fire truck, or ambulance while actually engaged in such response.” Collecting data using dissimilar definitions for EMS is problematic and often results in inaccurate reporting.

There are also other initiatives on the non-governmental side that are capturing data on incidents. The National Fire Fighter Near-Miss Reporting System is a voluntary, confidential, non-punitive and secure reporting system with the goal of improving fire fighter safety. The data collection allows for an EMS provider, regardless of agency type, to report near misses in the collection system. You can find additional information at: <http://www.firefighternearmiss.com/>. EMSCloseCalls.com is operated by an individual and offers a similar format for personnel to upload information as a result of a close call. CONCERN network is a reporting database system for air medical services to report incidents.

The most blatant limitation with these sources of data is heterogeneity in terminology. For example data definitions used to track vehicle crash and their resulting injuries, fail to identify EMS-specific terms such as: What is an ambulance? What is an EMS System? What constitutes an EMS call? What differentiates a run, trip, call, response, incident, and/or dispatch?

Similar disparities in data collection can be noted when comparing data definitions used to capture information on transportation injuries as vehicles used for EMS purposes are, in some cases, exempted from FMCSA safety oversight. The analysis of EMS injury data is an important step in the process of reducing the rate of crash and non-crash related injuries and fatalities among EMS workers, their patients and the general public. Current data capture systems fail to capture the important elements of injuries and the associated denominator data such as miles traveled, vehicle miles, scheduled work hours, hours on duty, and hours responding to calls. This information is an important foundation for any project designed for the purpose of reducing risks and improving the general culture of safety within the industry.

E. COMMITTEE CONCLUSION

An essential element in creating a culture of safety is establishing a baseline of known hazards and injuries. Existing federal and non-federal systems for measuring worker, patient, and public injuries and fatalities fall short of meeting the needs of the industry.

RECOMMENDED ACTIONS/STRATEGIES:

National EMS Advisory Council

The Safety Committee recommends the establishment of a standing sub-committee on “EMS Safety Data” to pursue the future development of information processing system(s), process or services capable of providing the analytical tools needed for the mitigation of illnesses, injuries, and deaths to EMS providers, patients, and public.

National Highway Traffic Safety Administration

The National EMS Advisory Council recommends a NHTSA review of current data definitions relating to EMS illnesses, injuries and deaths, to include definitions contained in MMUCC, ANSI D 16.1, and any other database system recording EMS illnesses, injuries, and deaths.

The National EMS Advisory Council recommends NHTSA to encourage and develop relationships between federal and non-federal partners utilizing existing reporting systems to improve consistency of terminology and access to data sources on EMS illnesses, injuries, and deaths. (i.e. IAFC Near Miss reporting system, Bureau of Labor Statistics, National Transportation Safety Board)

Other Department of Transportation

None

Federal Interagency Committee on Emergency Medical Services

The National EMS Advisory Council recommends NHTSA work with FICEMS to assure integration and utilization of EMS illnesses, injury, and fatality surveillance databases across federal agencies.

V. References

Note: It is anticipated that additional items will be added to this section during subsequent drafts. References will be reorganized and redundancies removed prior to release of the final document.

Cited References

- ¹ Maguire BJ, Walz BJ. Current Emergency Medical Services Workforce Issues in the United States. *Journal of Emergency Management*. 2004; 2(3): 17-26.
- ² Maguire BJ, Dean S, Bissel RA, et al. Epidemic and Bioterrorism Preparation Among EMS Systems. *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine*. 2007; 22(3): 237-242.
- ³ Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Smith GS, Levick NR. Occupational fatalities in emergency medical services: a hidden crisis. *Ann Emerg Med*. 2002 Dec;40(6):625-32.
- ⁴ Maguire BJ: Transportation-related injuries and fatalities among emergency medical technicians and paramedics. *Prehosp Disaster Med* 2011;26(4):1–7.
- ⁵ Brian J. Maguire, DrPH, MSA, EMT-P. Correspondence with project authors, 4/25/2012.
- ⁶ http://ems.gov/pdf/nemsac/july08/Votes_Issues_July08.pdf
- ⁷ Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Smith GS, Levick NR. Occupational fatalities in emergency medical services: a hidden crisis. *Ann Emerg Med*. 2002 Dec;40(6):625-32.
- ⁸ Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Guidotti TL, Smith GS. Occupational Injuries Among Emergency Medical Services Personnel. *Prehospital Emergency Care*. 2005; 9: 405–411
- ⁹ Maguire BJ, Smith S. Injuries and Fatalities among Emergency Medical Technicians and Paramedics in the U.S. Accepted by *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine*. 2010
- ¹⁰ Mitchell CS, Maguire BJ, Guidotti TL. Worker Health and Safety in Disaster Response. In Ciotton G. (Ed.) *Disaster Medicine*. Mosby Pub. 2006.
- ¹¹ Donnelly E. Work-Related Stress and Posttraumatic Stress in Emergency Medical Services. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2012; 16(1): 76-85.
- ¹² Patterson PD, Weaver MD, Frank RC, et al. Association Between Poor Sleep, Fatigue, and Safety Outcomes in Emergency Medical Services Providers. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2012; 16(1): 86-97.
- ¹³ Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Guidotti TL, Smith GS. Occupational Injuries Among Emergency Medical Services Personnel. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2005; 9: 405–411.

¹⁴ Grange JT, Corbett SW. Violence Against Emergency Medical Services Personnel. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2002 Apr-Jun;6(2):186-90.

¹⁵ Maguire BJ, Kahn CA. Ambulance Safety and Crashes. In Cone DC. (Ed) *Emergency Medical Services: Clinical Practice & Systems Oversight*. NAEMSP Pub. 2009.

¹⁶ Maguire BJ. Preventing Ambulance Collision Injuries Among EMS Providers: Part 1. *EMS Manager and Supervisor*. 2003; 5(2): 4.

¹⁷ Maguire BJ. Preventing Ambulance Collision Injuries Among EMS Providers: Part 2. *EMS Manager and Supervisor*. 2003; 5(3): 4-7.

¹⁸ Maguire BJ. Ambulance Safety in the U.S. *Journal of Emergency Management*. 2003; 1(1): 15-18.

¹⁹ Maguire BJ. Transportation-Related Injuries and Fatalities among Emergency Medical Technicians and Paramedics. *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine*. 2011; 26(4).

²⁰ Ibid. Maguire BJ, Smith S. Injuries and Fatalities among Emergency Medical Technicians and Paramedics. Accepted for publication, *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine*. 2010.

²¹ Ibid. Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Smith GS, Levick NR. Occupational Fatalities in EMS: A Hidden Crisis. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 2002; 40(6): 625-632.

²² Maguire BJ, O'Meara P, Brightwell, R, O'Neill BJ. Occupational Injuries and Fatalities among Paramedics in the U.S. and Australia. In preparation.

²³ Maguire BJ, Porco FV. EMS and Vehicle Safety. *Emergency Medical Services*. 1997; 26(11): 39-43.

²⁴ Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Guidotti TL, Smith GS. The epidemiology of occupational injuries and illnesses among emergency medical services personnel. ProQuest Pub 2004.

²⁵ Maguire BJ, Porco FV. An Eight Year Review of Legal Cases Related to an Urban 911 Paramedic Service. *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine*. 1997; 12(2): 83-86.

²⁶ Ibid. Maguire BJ, Hunting KL, Smith GS, Levick NR. Occupational Fatalities in EMS: A Hidden Crisis. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 2002; 40(6): 625-632.

²⁷ Botwinick L, Bisognano M, Haraden C. Leadership Guide to Patient Safety. IHI Innovation Series white paper. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Institute for Healthcare Improvement; 2006. (Available on www.IHI.org)

²⁸ Kohn LT, Corrigan JM, Donaldson MS (editors). *To Err is Human: Creating a Safer Health System*. Institute of Medicine, Committee on Quality of Health Care in America (2000). ISBN: 0-309-51563-7 (www.nap.edu/catalog/9728.html)

²⁹ Canadian Patient Safety Institute. *Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services: Advancing and Aligning the Culture of Patient Safety in EMS*; YEAR.

³⁰ Hobgood C, Xie J, Winder B, Hooker J. Error Identification, Disclosure, and Reporting: Practice Patterns of Three Emergency Medicine Provider Types. *Acad Emerg Med*. 2004; 11:196-9

³¹ Kothari R, Barsan W, Brott T, Broderick J, Ashbrock S. Frequency and accuracy of prehospital diagnosis of acute stroke. *Stroke*. 1995; 26:937-41.

³² Hubble MW, Paschal KR, Sanders TA. Medication calculation skills of practicing paramedics. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2000; 4:253-60.

³³ Rittenberger JC, Beck PW, Paris PM. Errors of omission in the treatment of prehospital chest pain patients. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2005; 9:2-7.

³⁴ Vilke GM, Tornabene SV, Stepanski B, et al. Paramedic self-reported medication errors. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2006; 10:457-62.

³⁵ Ackerman R, Waldron RL. Difficulty breathing: agreement of paramedic and emergency physician diagnoses. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2006; 10:77-80.

³⁶ Wang HE, Lave JR, Sirio CA, Yealy DM. Paramedic intubation errors: isolated events or symptoms of larger problems? *Health Aff (Millwood)*. 2006; 25:501-9.

³⁷ Fairbanks RJ, Caplan SH, Bishop PA, Marks AM, Shah MN. Usability study of two common defibrillators reveals hazards. *Ann Emerg Med*. 2007; 50:424-32.

³⁸ Wang HE, Fairbanks RJ, Shah MN, Abo BN, Yealy DM. Tort claims and adverse events in emergency medical services. *Ann Emerg Med*. 2008

³⁹ Hoyle JD, Davis AT, Putman KK, et al. Medication Dosing Errors in Pediatric Patients Treated by Emergency Medical Services. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2012 Jan-Mar, 16(1): 59-66.

⁴⁰ National EMS Advisory Council Oversight, Analysis, and Research Committee. Reducing Adverse Events in EMS: Creating a Culture of Safety. 001-OAR-008-FINAL. 2009.

⁴¹ Wiegmann D, Zhang H, von Thaden T, Sharma G, Mitchell A. A Synthesis of Safety Culture and Safety Climate Research. Savoy, Illinois: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Institute of Aviation, Aviation Research Lab; 2002. Prepared for Federal Aviation Administration as Technical Report ARL-02-3/FAA-02-2 under Contract DTFA -1-G-015.

⁴² Fairbanks RJ, Crittenden CN, O'Gara KG, Wilson MA, Pennington EC, Chin NP, Shah MN (2008), Emergency Medical Services Provider Perceptions of the Nature of Adverse Events and Near-Misses in Out-of-Hospital Care: An Ethnographic View. *Academic Emergency Medicine*, 15:633-640.

⁴³ Patterson PD, Huang DT, Fairbanks RJ, Simeone S, Weaver M, Wang HE. Variation in emergency medical services workplace safety culture. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2010 Oct-

Dec;14(4):448-60. (Additional details available at <http://emergencymedicine.pitt.edu/research/emsarn/ems-safety-culture>)

⁴⁴ Weaver MD, Wang HE, Fairbanks RJ, Patterson D. The Association Between EMS Workplace Safety Culture and Safety Outcomes. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2012, 16(1): 43-52.

⁴⁵ Eliseo LJ, Murray KA, White LF, et al. EMS Providers' Perceptions of Safety Climate and Adherence to Safe Work Practices. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2012, 16(1) 53-58.

⁴⁶ Collective observations/consensus of stakeholders and Steering Committee members participating in EMS Culture of Safety National Stakeholder Conference, June 27-28, 2011, Washington, D.C.

⁴⁷ Brian J. Maguire, DrPH, MSA, EMT-P. Correspondence with project authors, 4/25/2012.

⁴⁸ Singer SJ, Gaba DM, Geppert JJ, Sinaiko AD, Howard SK, Park KC. The Culture of Safety: Results of an Organization-Wide Survey in 15 California Hospitals. *Qual Saf Health Care* 2003; 12: 112-118.

⁴⁹ Donnelly E, Siebert D: Occupational Risk Factors in the Emergency Medical Services. *Prehosp Disaster Med* 2009; 24(5): 422-429.

⁵⁰ National Fallen Firefighters Foundation: "Everyone Goes Home' Firefighter Life Safety Initiative" (White Paper). National Fallen Firefighters Foundation, 2007. (www.everyonegoeshome.com/summit/whitepapers.pdf)

⁵¹ Botwinick L, Bisognano M, Haraden C. Leadership Guide to Patient Safety. IHI Innovation Series white paper. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Institute for Healthcare Improvement; 2006. (Available on www.IHI.org)

⁵² Lucian Leape, MD. Testimony before the 106th Congress Subcommittee on Labor, Health and Human Services (Date: 1/25/2000). (www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/CHRG-106shrg61732/pdf/CHRG-106shrg61732.pdf)

⁵³ Marx D. *Whack a Mole: The Price We Pay for Expecting Perfection*. 2009; 54.

⁵⁴ American Nurses Association Congress on Nursing Practice and Economics: Position paper on Just Culture. American Nurses Association, 2010

⁵⁵ US Dept of Health & Human Services, Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Patient Safety Never Events (<http://psnet.ahrq.gov/primer.aspx?primerID=3>)

⁵⁶ Sentinel Events Policy & Procedures. The Joint Commission, January 2011.
(http://www.jointcommission.org/Sentinel_Event_Policy_and_Procedures/)

⁵⁷ National Occupational Research Agenda (NORA): National Public Safety Agenda for Occupational Safety and Health Research and Practice in the U.S., Public Safety Sub Sector; 2009.
(<http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/nora/comment/agendas/pubsafsub/pdfs/PubSafSubApr2009.pdf>)

⁵⁸ National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. *Feasibility for an EMS Workforce Safety and Health Surveillance System*. 2007.

⁵⁹ National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. *The Emergency Medical Services Workforce Agenda for the Future*. 2011

⁶⁰ "Six Years and a Lasting Legacy: A Case Study in IAFC Program Success." *International Association of Firefighters On-Scene (Periodical)*. July 15, 2011.
<http://www.iafc.org/MemberCenter/OnSceneArticle.cfm?ItemNumber=4939>

⁶¹ National EMS Management Association *Leadership Agenda for the Future*. National EMS Management Association (NEMSMA), 2011.

⁶² Canadian Patient Safety Institute. *Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services: Advancing and Aligning the Culture of Patient Safety in EMS*; YEAR.

Safety Culture References

1. Geller Scott E. Ten principles for achieving a total safety culture. *Professional Safety*. Sep 1994; 39(9): 18-24.
2. Heather Höpfl. Safety culture, corporate culture: organizational transformation and the commitment to safety. *Disaster Prevention and Management*. 1994; 3(3):49–58.
3. R T Booth, Health and Safety Unit, Department of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, Aston University. The role of human factors and safety culture in safety management. ARCHIVE: *Proceedings of the Institute of Mechanical Engineers*. 1995; 209(B5):393-400.
4. Dilley Heather, Kleiner Brian H. Creating a culture of safety. *Work Study*. 1996; 45, Issue 3:5-8.

-
5. Cox Sue, Flin Rhona. Safety culture: Philosopher's stone or man of straw? *Work & Stress*. 1998; [12\(3\)](#):189-201.
 6. Pidgeon Nick. Safety culture: Key theoretical issues. *Work & Stress*. 1998; [12\(3\)](#):202–216.
 7. John S. Carroll, MIT Sloan School of Management. Safety culture as an ongoing process: culture surveys as opportunities for inquiry and change, *Work & Stress*, 1999; [12\(3\)](#):272-284.
 8. Clarke Sharon. Perceptions of organizational safety: implications for the development of safety culture. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. March 1999; [2-\(2\)](#):185-198.
 9. Glendon I., Stanton N. A., Perspectives on safety culture. *Safety Science*. 2000; [34](#); 193-214.
 10. Hopkins Andrew. Studying organisational cultures and their effects on safety. *Safety Science*. February 2000; [34\(1-3\)](#):111-129.
 11. Booth-Bourdeau Jacqueline, The Role of Discipline in Building an Effective Safety Culture. *Aircraft Maintenance Technology*. May 2000.
<http://www.amtonline.com/publication/article.jsp?pubId=1&id=970>
 12. Guldenmund F.W., The nature of safety culture: a review of theory and research *Safety Science Group Delft University of Technology*. *Safety Science*. 2000; [34](#): 215-217.
 13. Grote G., Künzler C., Diagnosis of safety culture in safety management audits. *Safety Science*. 2000; [34](#):131-150.
 14. Sorensen J N, Advisory Committee on Reactor Safeguards, US Nuclear Regulatory Commission. Safety culture: a survey of the state-of-the-art. *Reliability Engineering & System Safety*. May 2002; [76\(2\)](#): 189-204.
 15. Gherardi [Silvia](#), Nicolini Davide, Learning the trade: a culture of safety in practice. *Organization*. 2002; [9\(2\)](#): 191-223.
 16. Singer S J, Gaba D M, Geppert J J, Sinaiko A D, Howard S K, ParkQual Saf K C, The culture of safety: results of an organization-wide survey in 15 California hospitals. *Health Care* 2003; [12](#):112–118.
 17. Hall Mindy, Shaping organizational culture: a practitioner's perspective. *Peak Development Consulting, LLC*. 2005; [2\(1\)](#).
 18. Sumwalt Robert. Do You Have a Safety Culture; *Leaders Log*. *AeroSafety World*. July 2007.

-
21. Hinshaw Ada Sue. Navigating the perfect storm: balancing a culture of safety with workforce challenges. *Nursing Research*. January/February 2008; 57(1):S4-S10.
 22. Kemsley Jyllian, Ortega [Hermann](#). A safety culture starts with leadership. *Chemical & Engineering News*. April 2010. <http://cenblog.org/the-safety-zone/2010/04/a-safety-culture-starts-with-leadership/>
 23. Wiegmann Douglas A, Zhang Hui, von Thaden Terry L, Sharma Gunjan, and Mitchell Alyssa A. Safety culture: a concept in chaos? Proceedings of the 46th Annual Meeting of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society. Santa Monica, Human Factors and Ergonomics Society, 2002.
 24. Wiegmann Douglas A, von Thaden Terry L, Gibbons Alyssa Mitchell. A review of safety culture theory and its potential application to traffic safety. AAA Foundation for Traffic Safety. 2007. www.aaafoundation.org/pdf/wiegmannvonhadengibbons.pdf.
 25. Wiegmann Douglas A, Zhang Hui, von Thaden Terry L, Sharma Gunjan, and Mitchell Alyssa A. A synthesis of safety culture and safety climate research. Technical Report ARL-02-3/FAA-02-2. June 2002, prepared for the FAA.
 26. Hopkins, Andrew. Safety culture, mindfulness and safe behaviour: converging ideas? Working Paper 7. December 2002, The Australian National University.
 27. Geni Bahar and Nesta Morris, iTRANS Consulting. Is a strong safety culture taking root in our highway agencies? AAA Foundation for Traffic Safety. 2007; www.aaafoundation.org/pdf/BaharMorris.pdf.
 28. Canso. Safety Culture Definition & Enhancement Process Model. Transforming Global ATM Performance. June 2008.
 29. The Institute of Engineering and Technology, Safety Culture. Health & Safety Briefing. No. 07. July 2010.
 30. Sexton Brian J, Klinec James R. The link between safety attitudes and observed performance in flight operations. The University of Texas Human Factors Research Project. www.faa.gov/library.
 31. Ardern Jane, Manager of Education and Information Services. Creating a Safety Culture. WorkSafe. www.docep.wa.gov.au.
 32. Flin, R., Mearns, K., O'Connor, P., & Bryden, R. Measuring safety climate: identifying the common features. *Safety Science*, 34, 177-192. 2000
 33. Griffin, M.A. & Neal, A. Perceptions of safety at work: A framework for linking safety climate to safety performance, knowledge, and motivation. *Journal Of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 347-358. 2000

-
34. Helmreich, R.L. & Merritt A. C. Organizational culture. In R.L. Helmreich & Merritt A.C. (Eds.), *Culture at work in aviation and medicine* (pp. 107-174). Ashgate. 1998
 35. McDonald, N. & Ryan, F. Constraints on the development of safety culture: A preliminary analysis. *Irish Journal of Psychology*, 13, 273-281. 1992
 36. Meshkati, N. Human performance, organizational factors and safety culture. Paper presented on National Summit by NTSB on transportation safety, Washington, D.C. April, 1997

Crew Resource Management References

1. Beynon-Davies Paul. Human error and information systems failure: the case of the London ambulance service computer-aided dispatch system project. *Interacting with Computers*. June 1999; 11(6):699-720.
2. Williams Kenneth A, Rose William D, Simon Robert. Teamwork in emergency medical services. *Air Medical Journal*. October 1999; 18(4): 149-153.
3. Wilson K A, Burke, C S, Priest H A, Salas E. Promoting health care safety through training high reliability teams. *Qual Saf Health Care* 2005; 14:303-309.
4. Patterson PD, Jones CB, Hubble MW, Carr M, Weaver MD, Engberg J, Castle N. The longitudinal study of turnover and the cost of turnover in emergency medical services. *Prehospital Emergency Care*. 2010; 14(2):209-221.

Patient Safety References

1. National EMS Advisory Council. *Reducing Medical Errors in EMS: Creating a Culture of Safety*. Oversight, Analysis and Research Committee Minutes. June 2009. Report Number: 001-OAR-06-INT.
2. Kupas D F, Dula D J, Pino B J: Patient outcome using medical protocol to limit "lights and siren" transport. *Prehosp Disaster Med*, Oct-Dec 1994; 9(4):226-229.
3. Kupas D F, Wydro G C. Patient Restraint in Emergency Medical Services Systems. (NAEMSP Position Statement) *Prehosp Emerg Care*, 2002 July-Sept; 6(3):340-5.

-
4. Wang H E, Kupas D F, Hostler D, Cooney R, Yealy E M, Lave J R. Procedural experience with out-of-hospital tracheal intubation. *Crit Care Med*. August 2005; 33(8):1718-1721.
 5. Wang H E, Kupas D F, Greenwood M J, Pinchalk M E, Mullins T, Gluckman W, Sweeney T A, Hostler D P . An algorithmic approach to prehospital airway management. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. April-June 2005; 9(2):167-71.
 6. Wang Henry E., Lave Judith R., Sirio Carl A., Yealy Donald M. Paramedic intubation errors: isolated events or symptoms of larger problems? *Health Affairs*. 2006; 25(2): 501-509.
 7. Morrison L J, Brooks S C, Sawadsky B V, McDonald A C, Verbeek P R. Mortality and thrombolysis time intervals with prehospital 12-lead electrocardiograms and advance emergency department notification: A metaanalysis. *Academy of Emergency Med*. January 2006; 13(1):84-89.
 8. Prehospital Care Manual Update. EMS Event Reporting Program Patient Safety First. Effective December 1, 2007. Contra Costa EMS Agency. EMS Event Reporting Design.
 9. Paris PM, O'Connor RE. A National Center for EMS provider and patient safety: helping EMS providers help us. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. Jan-Mar 2008; 12(1):92-94.
 10. Meisel Z F, Hargarten S, Vernick J. Addressing prehospital patient safety using the science of injury prevention and control. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. September 2008; 12(4):411-416.
 11. NAEMT. Position Statement; EMS Patient Safety and Wellness. Adopted August 2009.
 12. Kupas D F, Kauffman K F, Wang H E. Effect of airway-securing method on prehospital endotracheal tube dislodgement. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2010 Jan-Mar;14:26-30.
 13. Bigham BL, Maher J, Brooks SC, Bull E, Morrison M, Burgess R, Atack L, Shojania K, Morrison LJ. Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services: Advancing and Aligning the Culture of Patient Safety in EMS. Ottawa: Canadian Patient Safety Institute; 2010.
 14. Iona M. Thraen, Utah Department of Health. EMS, Pre-hospital data and Patient Safety: Strange Bedfellows? September 2010. Powerpoint presentation. health.utah.gov/ems/conferences/prehospital_data/patient_safety.pdf.
 15. Patterson P D, Weaver M D, Martin-Gill C, et al. [Abstract #106] Results from the emergency medical services provider and patient safety inventory tool. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2011; 15(1):104-137.
 16. Bigham B, Brooks SC, Bull E, Morrison M, Maher M, Burgess R, Morrison, LJ. Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services Summit: Executive Summary and Key Recommendations from the Niagara Roundtable Event. In Press 2011.

-
17. Gallagher J M, Kupas D F. Experience with an anonymous web-based state EMS safety incident reporting system. Submitted to Prehosp Emerg Care on April 27, 2011, review pending.
 18. Shayhorn M, Kupas D F, Payton T F, Green P. Structured inspection of medications carried and stored by emergency medical services agencies identifies practices that may lead to medication errors. Submitted to Prehosp Emerg Care on May 1, 2011, review pending.
 19. National EMS Advisory Council – Systems Committee. Guiding Principles and Core Issues in EMS System Design. September 30, 2009.
 20. Conway, J., Federico F., Stewart, K., Campbell, M. Respectful Management of Serious Clinical Adverse Events. IHI Innovation Series white paper. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Institute for Healthcare Improvement; 2010. (Available on www.IHI.org)

Practitioner Safety References

1. Maguire Brian, Hunting K L, Smith G S, Levick N R. Occupational fatalities in EMS: A hidden crisis. *Annals Of Emergency Medicine*. December 2002; 40(6):625-632.
2. Heick R, Peek-Asa C, Zwierling C. Occupational Injury in EMS: Does Risk outweigh reward? #121840, American Public Health Association, Dec 2005.
3. Levick N R, Garigan M. Head protection: are there solutions for emergency medical service providers? Abstract #117405, American Public Health Association, December 2005.
4. Levick N R, Garigan M. A Solution to Head Injury Protection for Emergency Medical Service Providers. *International Association for Ergonomics Proceedings*. July 2006; <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickIEA2006.pdf>.
5. Maguire Brian, Hunting K L , Guidotti T L, Smith G S. The epidemiology of Occupational Injuries and Illnesses Among Emergency Medical Services Personnel. August 2006. http://www.devingreaney.com/ems_violence.htm
6. Firefighter Life Safety Initiatives White Papers – Everyone Goes Home, an initiative of the National Fallen Firefighter Foundation. <http://everyonegoeshome.com/initiatives.html>
7. Firefighter Life Safety Summit Reports - Everyone Goes Home, an initiative of the National Fallen Firefighter Foundation. <http://everyonegoeshome.com/summit.html>

Personal Health and Wellness References

1. Sloan Ira H., Rozensky Ronald H., Kaplan Leslie, Saunders Stephen M. A shooting incident in an elementary school: Effects of worker stress on public safety, mental health, and medical personnel. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*. October 1994; 7(4):565-574.
2. Dyregrov Atle, Kristoffersen Jakob Inge, Gjestad Rolf. Voluntary and professional disaster-workers: Similarities and differences in reactions. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*. 1996; 9(3):541-555.
3. Bryant Richard A, Harvey Allison G. Posttraumatic stress reactions in volunteer firefighters. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*. January 1996; 9(1): 51-62.
4. De Graeve K, Deroo K F, Calle P A, Vanhaute O A, Buylaert W A. How to modify the risk-taking behaviour of emergency medical services drivers? *European Journal of Emergency Medicine*. 2003; 10(2): 111-116.
5. Pidd Ken, Berry Jesia G., Harrison James E., Roche Ann M., Driscoll Tim R., Newson Rachel S.. Alcohol and work: patterns of use, workplace culture and safety. *Safety Science*. December 2006; 44(10):875-889.
6. Zygowicz W M. Too close to home: Suicide at Station 13. *Journal of Emergency Medical Services*. December 2007. www.jems.com/article/industry-news/too-close-home.
7. Patterson P D, Soffoletto B P, Kupas D F, Weaver M D, Hostler D. Sleep quality and fatigue among prehospital providers. *Prehosp Emerg Care* . Apr-Jun 2010; 14(2):187-193.
8. Zygowicz W M. Development of suicide prevention strategies to reduce death and injury in communities served by Littleton Fire Rescue. Unpublished manuscript. National Fire Academy. 2010.
9. Grill Mike, Zygowicz W M. Suicides affect patients & EMS providers. *Journal of Emergency Medical Services*. April 2011. <http://www.jems.com/article/features/suicides-affect-patients-ems-p>

Emergency Vehicle Safety References

-
1. Auerbach P S, Morris J A, Phillips J B, Redlinger S R, Vaughn W K, An analysis of ambulance accidents in Tennessee. JAMA. Sept 1987; 258(11):1487-1490
 2. Best G H, Zivkovic G, Ryan G . Development of an effective ambulance patient restraint. Society of Automotive Engineering Australasia Journal. 1993; 53 (1):17-21.
 3. Saunders C E, Heye C J. Ambulance Collisions in an Urban Environment, Prehospital and Disaster Medicine. 1994; 9(2): 118-124.
 4. Biggers W A, Zachariah B S, Pepe P E. Emergency medical vehicle collisions in an urban system. Prehospital and Disaster Medicine. July-Sept. 1996; 11(2):195-201.
 5. Levick N R, Winston F, Aitken S, Freemantle R, Marshall F, Smith G. Development and application of a dynamic testing procedure for ambulance pediatric restraint systems, Society of Automotive Engineering Australasia. March/April 1998;58(2):45-51.
 6. Levick N R. Safe restraint of pediatric patients for ambulance transport: Interdisciplinary collaboration in pediatric ambulance transport safety. Pediatrics. Sept. 1999;104 (3): 687-687 Part 3.
 7. Calle P, Fonck K, Buylaert W. Collisions involving mobile intensive care units in Flanders, Belgium. Eur J Emerg Med. 1999; 6(4): 349-353.
 8. EMSC/NHTSA Federal Guidelines Child Restraint for Ambulance Transport, Do's and Don't's of Transporting Children in Ambulances. December 1999; <http://www.nhtsa.dot.gov>, or <http://www.emsc.org>.
 9. Richardson S A, Grzebieta R H, Zou R. Development of a Side Facing Seat and Seat Belt System for the Australian Army Perentie 4 x 4. Int. J. of Crash. 1999; 4(3):239–259.
 10. Levick N R, Grabowski J G, Becker L, Better A, Tsai A, Li G. Injury hazards in pediatric ambulance transport. Pediatric Research. April 2000;47 (4): 113A-113A 662, Part 2, Suppl. S.
 11. General Services Administration, Federal Ambulance Specification KKK-A- 1822E. Nov 2000, 2006 revision, Automotive Commodity Center, Federal Supply Service.
 12. Levick N R, Li G, Yannaccone J, Development of a dynamic testing procedure to assess crashworthiness of the rear patient compartment of ambulance vehicles. Enhanced Safety of Vehicles, Technical paper series Paper # 454, May 2001: <http://www-nrd.nhtsa.dot.gov/pdf/nrd-01/esv/esv17/proceed/00053.pdf>.
 13. Levick N R, Donnelly B R, Blatt A, Gillespie G, Schultze M. Ambulance crashworthiness and occupant dynamics in vehicle-to-vehicle crash tests: Preliminary report, Enhanced Safety of Vehicles, Technical paper series Paper #452, May 2001: <http://www->

nrd.nhtsa.dot.gov/pdf/nrd-01/esv/esv17/
proceed/00012.pdf.

14. Levick N R, Li G, Yannaccone J. Biomechanics of the patient compartment of ambulance vehicles under crash conditions: testing countermeasures to mitigate injury. Society of Automotive Engineering, Technical paper 2001-01-1173, March 2001 <http://www.sae.org> (type 'ambulance crash' into 'search').
15. Levick N R, Schelew W B, Blatt A, Gillespie G, Li G. Occupant Injury Hazards in Ambulance Transport, Findings from Full Vehicle Crash Testing. *Academic Emergency Medicine*. 2001 8(5):527.
16. Erich John. Wheels of Fortune, Vehicle Safety in EMS. *EMS Magazine*. April 2001.
17. Kahn C A, Pirrallo R G, Kuhn E M. Characteristics of fatal ambulance crashes in the United States: an 11-year retrospective analysis. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. Jul-Sept 2001;5(3):261-269.
18. Weiss S J, Ellis R, Ernst A A, Land R F, Garza A. A comparison of rural and urban ambulance crashes. *Am J Emerg Med* 2001;19:52-56.
19. Grzebieta R H, Rechnitzer G. Crashworthy Systems – a paradigm shift in road safety design (part II). *Transport Engineering in Australia, IEAust*. Dec 2001; 7(1&2).
20. European Ambulance Restraint Systems Standards CEN, European Committee for Standardization; EN 1789:1999, 2002.
21. Erich John. Ambulance Safety: What's New, What's Needed. *EMS Magazine*. June 2002.
22. Levick N R. New frontiers in optimizing ambulance transport safety and crashworthiness. *The Paramedic*. December 2002; Issue 4:36-39.
23. Levick N R. A crisis in ambulance safety. *Emergency Response and Disaster Management*. 2002; Vol. 4:20-22.
24. Becker L R, Zaloshnja E, Levick N, Miller T R. Relative risk of injury and death in ambulances and other emergency vehicles. *Accident Analysis and Prevention*. 2003; 35:941–948.
25. CDC, MMWR, Ambulance Crash-Related Injuries Among Emergency Medical Services Workers United States, 1991-2002, February 28, 2003; 52(08);154-156.
26. Demmons LL, Chasing ambulance safety. *Air Med J*. May-June 2005; 24(3):112-116.
27. Ferreira J, Hignett S. Reviewing ambulance design for clinical efficiency and paramedic safety. *Applied Ergonomics*. 2005; 36: 97-105.

-
28. Levick N R, Swanson J. An optimal solution for enhancing ambulance safety: implementing a driver performance feedback and monitoring device in ground ambulances. Proceedings. 49th Annual Conference of the Association for the Advancement of Automotive Medicine. September 2005; <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickAAAM2005.pdf>
 29. Ray A, Kupas D. Comparison of crashes involving ambulances with those of similar sized vehicles. Prehosp Emerg Care. Dec 2005;9:412-415.
 30. NTSB Air EMS Report. Aviation Special Investigation Report - Emergency Medical Services; <http://www.nts.gov/events/2006/ems/intro.pdf> , 01/25/2006.
 31. Traffic Signal Preemption for Emergency Vehicles: A Cross-Cutting Study. NHTSA January 2006; US DOT: http://www.itsdocs.fhwa.dot.gov//JPODOCS/REPTS_TE//14097.htm
 32. Levick N R, Likourezos A, Nawaz I, Mener D. Effectiveness of an ambulance risk and hazard presentation, Prehosp Emerg Care. January/March 2006; 10(1).
 33. Levick N R, Mener D. Searching for ambulance safety: Where is the literature? Pre-hospital. Prehosp Emerg Care. January/March 2006; 10(1).
 34. American Standard: Safe Practices for Motor Vehicle Operations, ANSI Accredited Standards Committee, March 2006 <http://www.asse.org>. ANSI/ASSE Z15.1-2006
 35. Levick N R. Hazard analysis and vehicle safety issues for emergency medical service vehicles: Where is the state of the art? American Society of Safety Engineers, PDC Proceedings. No. 732; June 2006: <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickASSEPDC2006.pdf>.
 36. Levick N R, Grzebieta R. Development of proposed crash test procedures for ambulance vehicles. International Enhanced Safety of Vehicles Technical Paper 07- 0254. June 2007: <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickESVTesting07-0074-O.pdf>.
 37. Levick N R, Grzebieta R. Crashworthiness analysis of three prototype ambulance vehicles. International Enhanced Safety of Vehicles Technical Paper 07-0249. June 2007: <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickESVComparisons07-0249-W.pdf>.
 38. Levick N R, Weirsch L, Nagel M E. real world application of an aftermarket driver human factors real time auditory monitoring and feedback device: an emergency service perspective. Vehicles, International Enhanced Safety of Vehicles Technical Paper 07-0254. June 2007: <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickESVDriverFeedbackpaper07-0254-O.pdf>.
 39. Levick N R. Emergency medical services: A transportation safety emergency. American Society of Safety Engineers Technical Paper #628. June 2007;

<http://www.objectivesafety.net/2007ASSE628Levick.pdf>.

40. Levick N R, Grzebieta R. Public Comment on 2007 AMD Draft Standards 01 – 125. July 2007; <http://www.objectivesafety.net/PublicComment-EMSSF-2007-AMD-DRAFTStandards001-025.pdf>.
41. McGinnins K K, Judge T, Nemitz B, et. al. Air medical services: future development as an integrated component of the emergency medical services (EMS) system: A guidance document by the air medical task force of the National Association of EMS Officials, the National Association of EMS Physicians, and the Association of Air Medical Services. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. Oct-Dec 2007;11(4):353-368.
42. Levick N R. Emergency Medical Services: Unique Transportation Safety Challenge. Report No. 08- 3010, Transportation Research Board. January 2008; www.trb.org or <http://www.objectivesafety.net/LevickTRB08-3010CD.pdf>.
43. Sanddal, Nels D, Albert Steve, Hansen Joseph D, Kupas Douglas F. Contributing factors and issues associated with rural ambulance crashes: Literature review and annotated bibliography. *Prehosp Emerg Care*. 2008;12:257-267.
44. Levick N R, Grzebieta R. "Safety Concept" Ambulances – Are They Really Safe? Poster Presentation, International Congress of Emergency Medicine, April 2008. Society of Academic Emergency Medicine, May 2008. APHA, October 2008.
45. Levick N R, Grzebieta R. Ambulance vehicle crashworthiness and passive safety design – A comparative evaluation of Australian and USA design and testing standards. Poster Presentation - International Congress of Emergency Medicine, April 2008.
46. Levick N R. Rig Safety 911: What you need to know about ambulance safety and standards. *Journal of Emergency Medical Services*. October 2008.
47. Levick ,N R, Grzebieta, R. Ambulance vehicle crashworthiness and passive safety design: A comparative vehicle evaluation. Society of Automotive Engineering, ComVec Technical Paper. October 2008. 01-2695.
48. Levick, N R. EMS Transport Safety Data – Wading thru the MMUCC. Poster Presentation; NAEMSP: January 2009.
49. Levick, N R. Transportation safety performance – how does EMS compare to commercial fleets? Poster Presentation; NAEMSP: January 2009.
50. Levick, N R. Engineering analysis of 'safety concept' ambulances. Poster Presentation; NAEMSP: January 2009.
51. Hsieh, Art. Ambulance Crashes: How to Prevent Paramedic Deaths. *EMS News in Focus*. EMS1.com. <http://www.ems1.com/safety/articles/1042027-Ambulance-Crashes->

How-to-Prevent-Paramedic-Deaths/

52. Lindsey, Jeffrey. Changes Ahead for Ambulance Safety? Conference seeks to reduce number of fatal crashes. August 4, 2010. The National Association of EMS Physicians (NAEMSP) Conference.
53. Haskell, Guy H. EMS Providers Who Drive Like Maniacs. *Journal of Emergency Medical Services*. May 11, 2011.

Prehospital Emergency Care Jan-Mar 2012
Special Section: Safety in EMS

1. Brice, Jane H., Studnek, Jonathan R., Bigham, Blair L., Martin-Gill, Christian, Custalow, Catherine B., Hawkins, Eric, Morrison, Laurie J. EMS Provider and Patient Safety during Response and Transport: Proceeding of an Ambulance Safety Conference. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 3-19
2. Bigham, Blair L., Buick, Jason E., Brooks, Steven C., Morrison, Merideth, Shojania, Kaveh G., Morrison, Laurie J. Patient Safety in Emergency Medical Services: A Systematic Review of Literature. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 20-35
3. Gallagher, John M., Kupas, Douglas F. Experience with an Anonymous Web-Based State EMS Safety Incident Reporting System. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 36-42
4. Weaver, Matthew D., Wang, Henry E., Fairbanks, Rollin J., Patterson, Daniel. The Association between EMS Workplace Safety Culture and Safety Outcomes. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 43-52
5. Eliseo, Laura J., Murray, Kate A., White, Laura F., Dyer, Sophia, Mitchell, Patricia A., Fernandez, William G. EMS Providers' Perceptions of Safety Climate and Adherence to Safe Work Practices. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 53-58
6. Hoyle Jr., John D., Davis, Alan T., Putman, Kevin K., Tryko, Jeff A., Fales, William D. Medication Dosing Errors in Pediatric Patients Treated by Emergency Medical Services. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 59-66
7. Kupas, Douglas, F., Shayhorn, Meghan A., Green, Paul, Payton, Thomas F. Structured Inspection of Medications Carried and Stored by Emergency Medical Services Agencies Identifies Practices That May Lead to Medication Errors. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 67-75

-
8. Donnelly, Elizabeth. Work-Related Stress and Posttraumatic Stress in Emergency Medical Services. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 76-85
 9. Patterson, P. Daniel, Weaver, Matthew D., Frank, Rachel C., Warner, Charles W., Martin-Gill, Christian, Guyette, Francis X., Fairbanks, Rollin J., Hubble, Michael W., Songer, Thomas J., Callaway, Clifton W., Kelsey, Sheryl F., Hostler, David. Association Between Poor Sleep, Fatigue and Safety Outcomes in Emergency Medical Services Providers. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 86-97
 10. Patterson, P. Daniel, Weaver, Matthew D., Weaver, Sallie J., Rosen, Michael A., Todorova, Gergana, Weingart, Laurie R., Krackhardt, David, Lave, Judith R., Arnold, Robert M. Measuring Teamwork and Conflict among Emergency Medical Technician Personnel. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 98-108
 11. Blanchard, Ian E., Doig, Christopher J., Hagel, Brent E., Anton, Andrew R., Zygun, David A., Kortbeek, John B., Powell, D. Gregory, Williamson, Tyler S., Fick, Gordon H., Innes, Grant D. Emergency Medical Services Response Time and Mortality in an Urban Setting. *Prehospital Emergency Care*, Dec 2011, Vol. 16, No. 1: 142-151