



ELSEVIER

CIRUGÍA ESPAÑOLA

www.elsevier.es/cirugia


Review article

Diagnosis, Management and Treatment of Neck Trauma[☆]



Patrizio Petrone,* Leyre Velaz-Pardo, Amir Gendy, Laura Velcu, Collin E.M. Brathwaite, D’Andrea K. Joseph

Department of Surgery, NYU Winthrop Hospital, NYU Long Island School of Medicine, Mineola, New York, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 4 January 2019

Accepted 2 June 2019

Available online 6 November 2019

Keywords:

Neck injuries

Trauma

Diagnosis

Management

Treatment

ABSTRACT

Traumatic neck injuries account for 5%–10% of all traumatic injuries and carry a high rate of morbidity and mortality, because several vital structures can be damaged. Currently there are several treatment streams, based on initial management by zones, initial management not based on areas and conservative management of selected patients. The objective of this systematic review is to describe the management of traumatic neck injuries.

© 2019 AEC. Published by Elsevier España, S.L.U. All rights reserved.

Palabras clave:

Lesiones cervicales

Traumatismo

Diagnóstico

Manejo

Tratamiento

Diagnóstico, manejo y tratamiento de las lesiones cervicales traumáticas

RESUMEN

Las lesiones cervicales traumáticas suponen un 5-10% del total de las lesiones traumáticas y acarrean una alta tasa de morbilidad y mortalidad, debido a que varias estructuras vitales pueden resultar dañadas. En la actualidad existen varias corrientes de tratamiento, basadas en el manejo inicial por zonas, manejo inicial no basado en zonas y el manejo conservador de pacientes seleccionados. El objetivo de esta revisión sistemática es describir el tratamiento de las lesiones cervicales traumáticas.

© 2019 AEC. Publicado por Elsevier España, S.L.U. Todos los derechos reservados.

* Please cite this article as: Petrone P, Velaz-Pardo L, Gendy A, Velcu L, Brathwaite CEM, Joseph DK. Diagnóstico, manejo y tratamiento de las lesiones cervicales traumáticas. Cir Esp. 2019;97:249–500.

☆ Corresponding author.

E-mail address: patrizio.petrone@nyulangone.org (P. Petrone).

Introduction

Neck injuries in patients who have suffered blunt or penetrating trauma are not frequent, although their morbidity and mortality rates are high.^{1,2} The management of these injuries has evolved throughout history, which has improved survival and morbidity. Since 1522, when Ambrose Paré described carotid artery ligation as a surgical procedure for the control of cervical hemorrhage caused by a sword wound, this was the technique of choice (despite its high morbidity and mortality), even during World War I.^{3,4} It was not until World War II that carotid artery repair was established as a treatment.⁵ In addition, the watch-and-wait approach was found to allow many vascular and neurological injuries to go unnoticed. Hence, surgical exploration became the treatment of choice until the 1990s, when this management began to be questioned because many explorations did not uncover injuries.⁶ Management of cervical injuries by zones was also established (Fig. 1 and Table 1),^{7,8} and currently both conservative management in selected patients⁹ and “no zone” management^{10,11} are being debated. The objective of this study was to review the literature on the management of neck trauma, with the exception of spinal and bone injuries.

Methods

A systematic review of the literature was conducted using the SCOPUS database under the criteria established by its reviewers, conducting both generalized and organ-based searches. The following keywords were used: neck zones traumatic injuries, penetrating neck trauma, blunt neck trauma,

thyroid, cervical trachea, cervical esophagus, cervical jugular, cervical carotid, combined with trauma injury management. Subsequently, the articles were reviewed manually to exclude publications not about humans, clinical case reports, literature reviews, pediatric patients, and publications in languages other than English or Spanish, making a thorough review from 1960 to 2018, inclusive (Fig. 2).

Demographics

The incidence of neck trauma varies according to the population studied and according to the region in which the study is conducted. In our review, the incidence was higher in men with a mean age of 30.5 (Table 2).

On the other hand, the incidence in the military population during an armed conflict ranges between 5% and 30%, although this figure may vary, probably due to the improvement of the protection of the rest of the body and the use of new explosives.^{8,65,66} The incidence described in civil populations in Europe and the United States ranges between 1% and 10%.^{1,20,32,52} In studies conducted in South Africa, the percentage of neck injuries compared to other areas is not specified. However, their studies have a high number of patients, so their incidence is probably higher.^{14,67}

Mechanism of Injury

Most of the articles analyzed refer to the penetrating mechanism, which is divided into gunshot wounds and stab wounds. The latter are more frequent, while gunshot wounds tend to be more serious and have associated injuries. Explosions are another mechanism of penetrating injury described in study populations involved in armed conflict.

Few studies refer to blunt trauma,³⁶ most frequently caused by strangulation⁶⁸ and traffic accidents.³⁶ These mechanisms produce fewer injuries and have fewer complications than penetrating trauma³⁶ (Table 2).

Management

The anatomical zones of the neck for the management of trauma injuries were described by Monson in 1969⁶⁹ (Fig. 1) and are currently being used to classify neck injuries⁸ (Table 1).

After the results obtained in World War II with the watch-and-wait approach, certain studies advocated surgical exploration in all patients who presented cervical trauma injuries.^{51,55,64} However, the percentage of negative examinations was high (40%–89%),^{25,30,33,42,44,45,48,52,59–62} and it was later demonstrated that conservative management in selected patients does not increase morbidity or mortality.^{43,45,48,49}

The management of cervical trauma is different depending on the area of the neck in question, hemodynamic stability and clinical signs, either the so-called ‘hard signs’ (active pulsatile bleeding, expanding hematoma, absence of carotid pulse, vascular murmur or thrill, cerebral ischemia), or ‘soft signs’ (history of bleeding at the scene, trauma in vascular territory, small non-pulsatile hematoma).

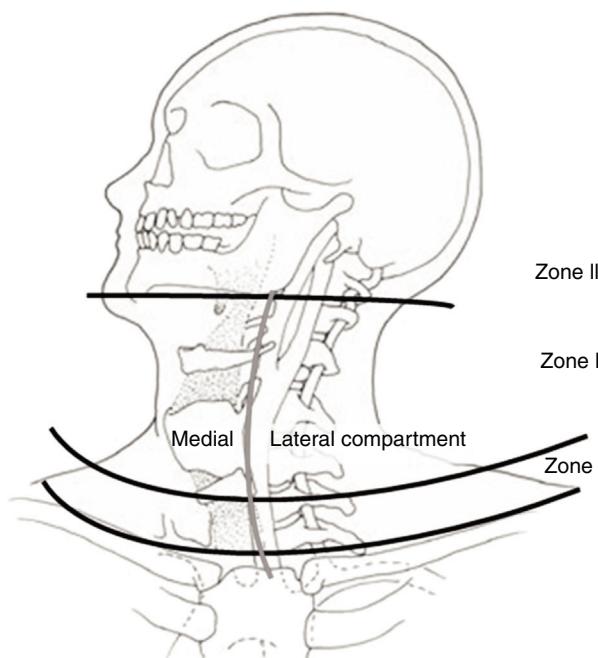


Fig. 1 – Anatomical zones of the neck (Source: Monson et al.⁶⁹).

Table 1 – Neck Zones.

| Zone | Anatomical Limits | Structures |
|------|---|--|
| I | Collar bones and sternum → Cricoid cartilage | Proximal cartilage; vertebral and subclavian arteries, innominate and jugular veins, spinal cord, recurrent laryngeal nerve and X cranial pair, trachea, esophagus and thoracic duct |
| II | Cricoid cartilage → Angle of the mandible | Carotid and vertebral arteries, jugular veins, spinal cord, recurrent laryngeal nerve and cranial X pair, hypopharynx and esophagus |
| III | Angle of the mandible → Cranial base | Carotid and vertebral arteries, jugular veins, spinal cord, IX-XII cranial pairs and sympathetic trunk |

Initial management is performed following the Advanced Trauma Life Support (ATLS®) protocol of the American College of Surgeons,^{14,19,25,26,54,55} securing the airway and plugging wounds with active hemorrhage.^{12,23,35,41,42} Likewise, the Definitive Surgical Trauma Care (DSTC®) protocol is also used, whose Manual establishes current guidelines for assessing and treating these patients. Several of the studies reviewed refer to management depending on the anatomical zone in which the injury is located. Fig. 3 shows a management algorithm for this type of trauma.

Zone I

The injuries in this area have a high mortality rate (12%)^{36,51} because they can affect the mediastinum, large intrathoracic

vessels and the tracheobronchial tree. These can go unnoticed when examining the patient, so it is important to use complementary tests for diagnosis,^{40,44,45} such as angiography,^{23,36,39,48–50} if the patient is hemodynamically stable. Since it is an invasive complementary test, the use of Doppler ultrasound is proposed to rule out vascular lesions, then using angiography only in case of positive findings on Doppler.³⁷ It is an area of difficult surgical access, so in case of vascular lesions the use of Interventional Radiology is recommended when available.^{17,19,38} If surgical treatment is required, thoracic and cervical approaches are usually combined:²⁶ middle sternotomy, anterior thoracotomy, clavicle resection or resection of the first rib.^{35,42,44,46,51} The presence of a cardiothoracic surgeon is recommended.¹⁷

In asymptomatic patients with no evidence of injury,

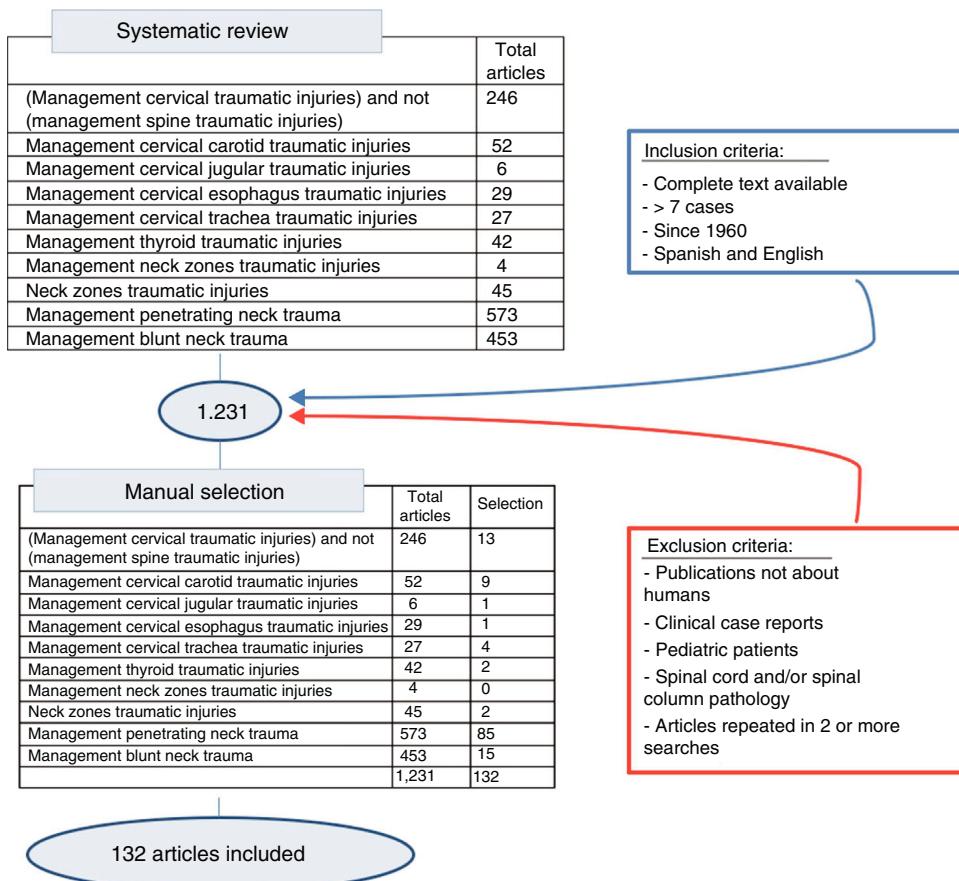
**Fig. 2 – Article selection process.**

Table 2 – Demographic and Trauma Mechanism.

| Author (Year) | Total n | Penetrating Trauma n | Firearm n | Stabbing n | Other n | Blunt Trauma n | Males n | Females n | Mean Age |
|-------------------------------------|------------|-------------------------|--------------|---------------|------------|-------------------|------------|------------------|-------------|
| Madsen (2018) ⁹ | 76 | 76 | 10 | 66 | 0 | 0 | 67 | 9 | 28 |
| Jain (2018) ¹² | 15 | 15 | 0 | 14 | 1 | 0 | 11 | 4 | |
| Sachdeva (2017) ¹³ | 17 | 12 | 1 | 11 | 0 | 5 | 14 | 3 | |
| Madsen (2016) ¹⁴ | 510 | 510 | 58 | 452 | 0 | 0 | 462 | 48 | 30 |
| de Regloix (2016) ⁸ | 55 | 55 | 9 | 31 | 15 | 0 | 46 | 9 | 32 |
| Teixeira (2016) ¹⁵ | 161 | 161 | 29 | 126 | 6 | 0 | 143 | 18 | 26 |
| Schroll (2015) ¹⁶ | 45 | 45 | 31 | 14 | 0 | 0 | | | 36 |
| Siau (2013) ¹⁷ | 25 | 25 | 1 | 17 | 7 | 0 | 17 | 8 | 35 |
| Weppner (2013) ¹⁸ | 77 | 77 | 27 | 1 | 49 | 0 | | | 25 |
| Harris (2012) ¹⁹ | 31 | 31 | 5 | 22 | 4 | 0 | 29 | 3 | 30 |
| Soliman (2012) ²⁰ | 163 | 163 | 115 | 48 | 0 | 0 | 144 | 19 | 28 |
| Van Waes (2011) ²¹ | 77 | 77 | 17 | 67 | | 0 | | | 25 |
| Brennan (2010) ²² | 112 | 112 | 29 | 1 | 77 | 0 | 110 | 2 | |
| Ahmed (2009) ²³ | 225 | 225 | 58 | 151 | 16 | 0 | 209 | 16 | 28 |
| Osborn (2008) ²⁴ | 120 | 120 | 31 | 89 | 0 | 0 | 89 | 31 | 34 |
| Thoma (2008) ²⁵ | 203 | 203 | 42 | 159 | 2 | 0 | 184 | 19 | 30 |
| Bell (2007) ²⁶ | 134 | 134 | 31 | 103 | 0 | 0 | 89 | 31 | 34 |
| Fox (2006) ²⁷ | 63 | 63 | 13 | 0 | 50 | 0 | 62 | 1 | 27 |
| Inarva (2006) ²⁸ | 106 | 106 | 70 | 36 | 0 | 0 | 94 | 12 | 35 |
| Navsaria (2006) ²⁹ | 17 | 17 | 2 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 3 | 31 |
| Pakarinen (2006) ³⁰ | 85 | 85 | 0 | 77 | 8 | 0 | 68 | 17 | 40 |
| Woo (2005) ³¹ | 130 | 130 | 57 | 66 | 7 | 0 | 111 | 19 | 31 |
| Weitzel (2004) ³² | 240 | 240 | 60 | 168 | 12 | 0 | 202 | 38 | 32 |
| Nason (2001) ³³ | 130 | 130 | 6 | 124 | 0 | 0 | 109 | 21 | 29 |
| Sekharan (2000) ³⁴ | 145 | 145 | 52 | 90 | 3 | 0 | | | |
| Biffi (1997) ³⁵ | 312 | 312 | 74 | 233 | 5 | 0 | 276 | 33 | 31 |
| Irish (1997) ³⁶ | 85 | 66 | 5 | 43 | 18 | 19 | 77 | 8 | 34 |
| Montalvo (1996) ³⁷ | 52 | 52 | 30 | 22 | 0 | 0 | 42 | 10 | 32 |
| Sofianos (1996) ³⁸ | 75 | 75 | 75 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 68 | 7 | 27 |
| Demetriadis (1995) ³⁹ | 82 | 82 | 43 | 39 | 0 | 0 | 66 | 16 | 31 |
| Demetriadis (1993) ⁴⁰ | 335 | 335 | 39 | 296 | 0 | 0 | 304 | 31 | 28 |
| Luntz (1993) ⁴¹ | 21 | 21 | 13 | 8 | 0 | 0 | | | 27 |
| Mansour (1991) ⁴² | 188 | 188 | 44 | 144 | 0 | 0 | 162 | 26 | 31 |
| Rivers (1988) ⁴³ | 61 | 61 | 34 | 27 | 0 | 0 | 44 | 7 | |
| Meyer (1987) ⁴⁴ | 120 | 120 | 44 | 72 | 2 | 0 | 110 | 10 | 27 |
| Jurkovich (1985) ⁴⁵ | 100 | 100 | 47 | 53 | 0 | 0 | 85 | 15 | 29 |
| Ordog (1985) ⁴⁶ | 110 | 110 | 110 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 93 | 17 | 29 |
| Sclafani (1985) ⁴⁷ | 46 | 46 | 43 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 43 | 3 | 29 |
| Golueke (1984) ⁴⁸ | 160 | 160 | 81 | 72 | 7 | 0 | | | 28 |
| Narrod (1984) ⁴⁹ | 152 | 152 | 55 | 197 | 0 | 0 | 125 | 27 | 31 |
| Narrod (1984) ⁵⁰ | 77 | 77 | 22 | 51 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 18 | 32 |
| Prakashchandra (1983) ⁵¹ | 136 | 136 | 56 | 76 | 60 | 0 | 121 | 15 | |
| Ibraheem (2018) ¹⁰ | 337 | 337 | 104 | 233 | 0 | 0 | 273 | 64 | 30 |
| Kasbekar (2017) ⁵² | 63 | 63 | 30 | 33 | 0 | 0 | | | 33 |
| Bodanapally (2016) ⁵³ | 102 | 102 | 50 | 52 | 0 | 0 | 91 | 11 | 29 |
| Princhayudh (2015) ¹¹ | 86 | 86 | 16 | 64 | 6 | 0 | 77 | 9 | 27 |
| Cobzeau (2013) ⁵⁴ | 27 | 15 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 12 | 21 | 6 | 47 |
| Meghoo (2012) ⁶⁶ | 199 | 199 | 0 | 0 | 199 | 0 | | | |
| Walsh (1994) ⁵⁵ | 27 | 27 | 2 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 23 | 4 | 22 |
| Goldberg (1991) ⁵⁶ | 94 | 94 | 2 | 82 | 2 | 0 | | | |
| Ngakane (1990) ⁵⁷ | 109 | 109 | 12 | 90 | 7 | 0 | 95 | 14 | 30 |
| Demetriadis (1985) ⁵⁸ | 271 | 275 | 5 | 262 | 4 | 0 | | | 28 |
| Ayuyao (1985) ⁵⁹ | 257 | 257 | 119 | 138 | 0 | 0 | 240 | 17 | 33 |
| Metzdorff (1984) ⁶⁰ | 83 | 83 | 17 | 45 | 21 | 0 | 73 | 10 | 35 |
| Belinkie (1983) ⁶¹ | 44 | 44 | 19 | 19 | 6 | 0 | 38 | 6 | 31 |
| Merion (1981) ⁶² | 65 | 65 | 36 | 19 | 10 | 0 | 52 | 13 | 31 |
| Campbell (1980) ⁶³ | 108 | 108 | 2 | 106 | 0 | 0 | 96 | 8 | 29 |
| Knightly (1976) ⁶⁴ | 116 | 116 | 34 | 82 | 0 | 0 | 99 | 17 | |
| Resultados: | 7062 | 7030 | 99.5% | 2017 | 28.7% | 4549 | 64.7% | 445 ^a | 6.3% |
| | | | | | | 36 | | 5127 | 87.2% |
| | | | | | | | | 753 | 12.8% |
| | | | | | | | | | 30.5 Mean |

^a Only total trauma caused by explosives.

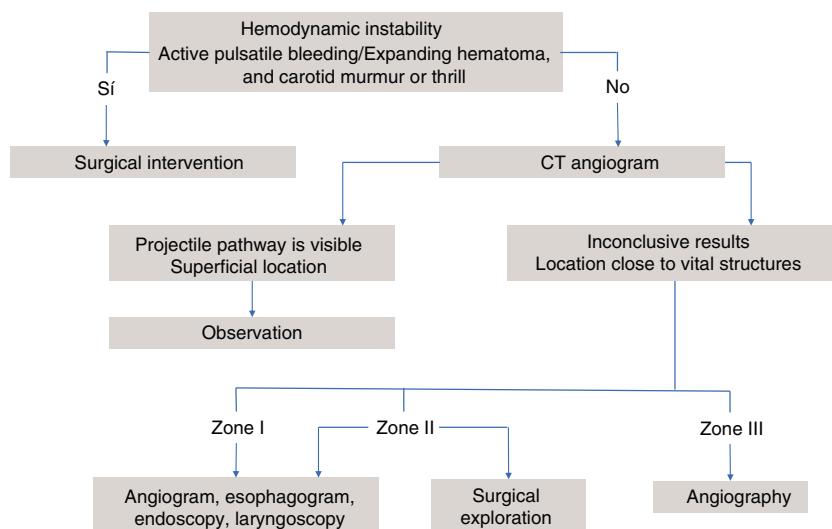


Fig. 3 – Management algorithm for cervical injuries.

conservative management is indicated,³⁸ which consists of observation for 24–48 h, wound sutures if necessary, and possible antibiotic coverage and tetanus vaccine.

Zone II

This is the most frequently affected anatomical area both in civil areas and regions of armed conflict (Table 3). Because this area has easy access, surgical exploration is recommended in all symptomatic patients, without the need for complementary tests, except if they are accompanied by injuries in other zones or multiple injuries.^{35,49} Doppler ultrasound is also proposed as the first diagnostic test in stable patients, prior to the use of angiography.³⁷

Subsequently, given that this area is exposed, it has been proposed that complementary tests are not necessary in asymptomatic patients, as hidden injuries in this area are infrequent (0.9%), indicating selective conservative management.^{34,35,38,45,49,50}

In unstable or symptomatic patients with exploration and/or positive diagnostic tests, surgical exploration is indicated, approaching this area by cervicotomy parallel to the anterior edge of the sternocleidomastoid muscle.^{26,30,38,42,44,46,49}

Zone III

Surgical exposure of this zone is complicated and can lead to iatrogenic injuries that go unnoticed. Injuries in this area can

cause central neurological sequelae such as coma, hemiparesis, aphasia and cranial nerve injuries.⁴⁷

In stable patients, angiography is recommended^{23,35,39,45,47–49} to determine whether there is vascular injury and, if confirmed, to identify its location and plan the surgical intervention.^{36,47} When the angiography is negative, it is not advisable to perform surgical exploration.⁴⁷ Injuries that are diagnosed are sometimes not surgically approachable but are treatable through Interventional Radiology techniques.^{17,19,35,47,48}

Unstable or symptomatic patients with evidence of injuries that require surgical treatment sometimes need aggressive approaches for good exposure: horizontal incision to expose the cranial base, mandibular resection, mandibular dislocation and even craniotomy.^{26,44} In asymptomatic patients, observation is recommended for 24–48 h, wound suture when necessary, and antibiotic coverage and tetanus vaccine should be considered.¹⁷

Conservative Management

Although selective conservative management has been shown to be safe, cervical injuries continue to be classified by zones. Therefore, action protocols have been developed depending on the severity criteria of clinical signs and findings from complementary testing.

Management continues to be surgical in unstable patients and in those with severe signs, such as active bleeding, pulsatile or expanding hematoma, neurological symptoms, hematemesis, or air leakage through the wound, regardless of the area affected by the injury.^{5,9,11,19,20,23–26,28}

Initial conservative management is proposed in stable patients, which can vary from mere observation to the need for invasive complementary tests, such as endoscopy and angiography.^{17,19,33,41,45,46}

In asymptomatic patients, observation alone is proposed, since a very low percentage will subsequently need surgery (0%–1%)^{19,21,23,35,40,42,44} and the reported mortality is 0%–

Table 3 – Number of Patients per Neck Zone.

| Zone | Patients n | Percentage |
|----------|------------|------------|
| I | 765 | 17.5 |
| II | 2549 | 58.4 |
| III | 759 | 17.4 |
| Multiple | 292 | 6.7 |

1.6%.^{19,21,23,25,28,30,35,38,39,44,58} Patients operated with negative examinations have a significantly longer postoperative stay than those who have been under observation.^{19,30,35,39,87} Even with selective conservative management, 19%–38% of cervical examinations were negative.^{10,19,20,28}

Diagnostic Tests

Angiography was the gold standard for the diagnosis of vascular injuries until 2008.²⁴ However, it has been dismissed as a screening method since the results are usually negative, the test has a high economic cost, and associated complications include hematomas, vasospasm, atherosclerotic plaque emboli, thrombosis and arterial dissection.²⁶ Subsequently, computerized tomography angiogram (CT angiogram) has been established as an initial diagnostic test. It has the advantage of being available at most hospitals, it can be done in 2–3 minutes, and it can explore vessels, soft tissue and bone. Its sensitivity and specificity for vascular injuries are 90%–100%,^{21,22,24,26} while the sensitivity and specificity to determine which symptomatic patients need a surgical exploration are 83%–100% and 98.6%–100%, respectively.^{11,16} CT angiogram has replaced angiography as the first diagnostic test at many hospitals.^{11,15,16,18,19,21,22,24,26}

With the increasing use of CT angiography, the need to perform invasive complementary tests decreases significantly, as do the number of cervical examinations and the number of negative cervical results.^{8,19,21,24–26,28,31}

There are some studies of patients who had undergone CT angiogram after deciding to perform surgical exploration. In this group, no exploration was negative. However, in the remaining group, 36%–40% of cervical examinations were negative.^{16,22}

Surgical Treatment

As management protocols improve for selective conservative management, the percentage of patients who do not require surgical exploration increases (74%–78%).^{19,25}

Physical examination and complementary tests seem sufficient to indicate surgical intervention or observation.²³ As predictors of a serious injury, severe clinical symptoms have a sensitivity of 96%–97.2% and a specificity of 87.4%–97.2%.^{22,23,66} Severe symptoms together with the findings from complementary tests have a sensitivity of 100%, and their absence has a negative predictive value of 100%.¹⁹ CT angiography has a sensitivity and specificity to diagnose aerodigestive injuries of 76% and 97%, respectively.⁵³

In patients with active bleeding, a Foley catheter is useful for the initial stabilization of the patient, after which complementary tests can be done to determine the possible indication for urgent surgical intervention.^{21,25,29} In patients whose bleeding is under control and no arterial injury has been found on arteriography or CT angiogram, the injury is assumed to be venous; urgent surgery is avoided, and the catheter is removed 48–72 h later in the operating room.^{9,21,25,29} Comparing the results of the use of a Foley catheter with external pressure together with procoagulant

drugs, no statistically significant differences were found between the number of initially controlled hemorrhages. However, the percentage of re-bleeding is significantly higher in those patients in whom external pressure was used (7% Foley vs. 26% external pressure).¹⁸

Treatment by Organs

Airway Injuries

To secure the airway, orotracheal intubation is recommended when necessary; if this is not possible, an urgent cricothyroidotomy should be done,²⁵ and the surgical technique is safer than the percutaneous one.⁷⁰ Rapid-sequence intubation is most often used in both the prehospital (69%–77%)^{24,26,71} and hospital (81%)^{72–74} settings, and it is considered a safe technique (88%–100%).^{73–75} However, no statistically significant differences were found between the different techniques to secure the airway.⁷⁶ Prehospital blind nasotracheal intubation is also a safe option.³²

Laryngotracheal injuries are uncommon and are mainly caused by blunt trauma.^{77–84} Injuries to the pharynx and larynx are usually easily diagnosed during examination. The absence of clinical signs (blood in the mouth, odynophagia, dysphagia, transcervical wound) has a negative predictive value of 91%–95%.²⁵ Patients with this type of trauma progress satisfactorily with conservative management (nasogastric tube, enteral nutrition and antibiotic therapy).^{21,25,53,83,85–89}

Thyroid cartilage fracture is one of the most frequent injuries found in surgical examinations after blunt trauma.⁹⁰ Surgical treatment is advised in cases of displacement.⁷⁷ The thyroid gland is frequently damaged; however, injury does not endanger the patient's life.^{91,92}

Most tracheal injuries have an indication for surgical management.^{79,80,82,93–95} Conservative management is only justified in iatrogenic injuries and those that meet strict criteria.^{96,97}

Esophageal Injuries

The absence of dysphagia and saliva in the wound, together with negative complementary test results (esophagogram and endoscopy) have a predictive value of 98%.²⁵ Flexible endoscopy has a sensitivity of 100% and a specificity of 94% for the diagnosis of esophageal trauma injuries,⁹⁸ although it cannot always be performed in these patients.⁹⁹ As for CT angiography, very wide ranges of sensitivity have been reported for the diagnosis of cervical esophageal lesions (50%–100%).^{28,53}

Most authors advocate the surgical treatment of these injuries^{22,25,99–104} in less than 24 h, as, a longer delay entails a significant increase in morbidity, mortality.^{105–108}

Vascular Injuries

The majority of patients who require surgery have vascular involvement.^{20,22,24–26,58,61} To rule out major vascular injuries, physical examination is sufficient.^{25,34,40}

Repair of penetrating internal carotid injuries should be attempted in non-comatose patients, unless the patient is unstable¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹¹ since their ligation causes neurological deficits and death.^{111,112} However, injuries of the external carotid or its branches can be treated by ligation.²⁶

Vertebral artery injuries require surgical exploration in unstable patients. These arteries can be well visualized by CT angiogram.¹¹³⁻¹¹⁵ If an injury is observed, angiography is recommended as it avoids unnecessary surgical examinations and allows for endovascular treatment (morbidity 0.5%, mortality 0%).¹¹⁶

Venous injuries of large isolated vessels (subclavian and internal jugular veins) can be managed with observation in stable patients,^{9,28,66} and bleeding can be controlled with a Foley catheter in unstable patients, to be later removed in 48–72 hours.⁹ If the hemorrhage cannot be controlled with the Foley, or if there are accompanying arterial or aerodigestive tract injuries, urgent surgery is necessary.⁵³ Although ligation of the veins may initially cause edema, this condition resolves itself in a few days.^{110,117}

Arterial thrombosis of the cervical vessels after blunt trauma is a known entity, but its incidence is low (0.1%–3% carotid).^{115,118-121} The incidence in vertebral arteries is lower, and there are less frequently clinical repercussions.^{118,119,122} Arterial thrombosis should be suspected in lucid patients with hemiparesis, hemiplegia, Horner syndrome, or carotid murmur and normal cerebral CT that does not explain their neurological deficit, accompanied by skull and facial fractures that affect the territory of the internal carotid artery.¹²³ Cervical pain is not usually a symptom related to this pathology.¹¹⁸⁻¹¹⁹ CT angiogram and Doppler ultrasound may not show alterations in the damaged arteries during the first 12 h.^{118,119,123} Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is able to diagnose this trauma faster.¹¹⁸ However, angiography remains the gold standard study^{118,119} due to its sensitivity.¹²¹ Anticoagulation and/or antiplatelet therapy seem to be the most beneficial therapies.^{119,120,124}

In 1999, Biffl¹²⁵ proposed the following classification of vascular lesions after closed trauma for prognosis and treatment:

- Grade I: 2/3 involvement of the intima
- Grade II: dissection or hematoma with luminal stenosis
- Grade III: pseudoaneurysm
- Grade IV: complete occlusion
- Grade V: transection

In the case of carotid injuries, conservative management is proposed for grade I and surgery is recommended for the remainder. In inaccessible grade II, III and IV injuries, treatment with anticoagulation is recommended. In lesions grade II and III injuries with reduction of the lumen, endovascular treatment using stents is safe.^{126,127} Endovascular techniques can be a resource in case of grade V injuries.^{115,125}

Grade I and II vertebral injuries evolve satisfactorily without treatment.¹²⁸ Grade III and IV injuries, however, require treatment with antiplatelet agents and/or anticoagu-

lants due to a higher rate of cerebrovascular accidents (CVA).¹²⁹

After blunt trauma with suspected thoracic aorta injury, it is important to extend the carotid angiography study, as this injury is frequently associated but may go unnoticed.¹³⁰

Morbidity and Mortality

The overall mortality rates reported in these patients range from 3 to 13%.^{8,9,20,22,32,35,131} Laryngotracheal injuries can lead to the death of patients and serious complications, such as tracheoesophageal fistulae with aspiration,^{84,93} immobilization of the vocal cords, tracheal stenosis, dysphonia and prolonged dysphagia.^{78,79,83,93,131-134}

Delayed diagnosis of esophageal trauma increases morbidity and mortality, causing infectious complications such as mediastinitis, pharyngoesophageal abscess, empyema, fistula and sepsis.^{73,99,102,105,135}

Blood loss due to vascular injuries can be fatal.¹¹⁷ If a venous injury requires ligation, edemas in the upper extremities may develop, which becomes more evident when the subclavian vein is ligated.¹¹⁷ If there is trauma to the superior vena cava, edema in the arms, neck and head is reported, even after its repair.¹¹⁷ Damage to the internal carotid artery can lead to permanent neurological damage¹¹² since they cause cerebrovascular accidents (embolic, ischemic and hemorrhagic),¹³⁶ and morbidity and mortality are higher in penetrating injuries than in blunt trauma.¹¹² Distal internal carotid trauma has more morbidity and mortality than trauma to the common carotid.¹¹² Complete occlusion of the 2 vertebral arteries results in cerebellar infarction; however, if a vertebral artery maintains its flow, this event is rare.^{115,116}

Special Considerations

Although most authors advocate urgent surgical exploration in both unstable patients and those with severe signs, Madsen⁹ and Schroll¹⁶ go one step further, demonstrating that performing CT angiograms in patients with severe signs also decreases the need for surgical exploration and, if required, facilitates planning.

That said, it is important to take into account both the resources of the hospital where these patients are treated, as well as its patient volume and experience. Hospitals with low volumes have an understandably higher percentage of cervical examinations (60%), as well as negative examinations (65%). It would be desirable for each hospital, depending on its resources and incidence, to have an action protocol for this type of trauma, thereby minimizing unnecessary surgical interventions.³⁰

Another scenario to contemplate are the areas of armed conflict, with its peculiarities, such as the time of evacuation of patients to a tertiary hospital.²⁸ The authors advocate the conservative selective management of these patients, presenting a percentage of cervical examinations around 30%. However, many of these patients require urgent surgical

intervention due to instability caused by other injuries, and previous CT angiogram cannot be performed.²² They propose the same use of CT angiogram as in civil hospitals;²⁸ however, we should be reminded that these patients can present artifacts due to metal fragments.^{22,27} In this case, the use of Doppler ultrasound is recommended in zone II and angiography is recommended in patients with involvement of zones I and III or abnormal ultrasound.²⁷

We should specifically mention injuries caused by bulls and other horned animals. There are different classifications for this type of trauma, depending on the mechanism of injury or their severity.¹³⁷ The cervicofacial region is one of the least affected by this mechanism. Chambres et al.¹³⁸ ranked it as the third location (16% versus 64% in the lower extremities). The wounds are incisive and contusive, presenting special characteristics. For instance, the entrance opening is usually small and surrounded by an area of erosion, and one or more deep tracts may be present, usually with significant destruction of muscle tissue. These wounds are contaminated, and multiple foreign bodies can be found at the bottom of the wound path, including fragments of cloth, dirt and horn splinters. The depth will depend on the penetration force of the antler in the body as a result of the weight and speed of the animal. Additional force is applied due to the effect of the strong muscles of the animal's neck when lifting its horns, causing tears in the arteries, veins and nerves at right angles to the ground.¹³⁹ Bull horn injuries are their own entity, and there is no equivalent found among other trauma etiologies. Therefore, in all cases, these patients should be considered polytrauma patients.

Conclusions

- Initial management of these patients is established according to ATLS criteria.
- Urgent surgical examination is indicated in unstable patients and patients with severe signs; the latter may benefit from previous CT angiography.
- If hemodynamic instability is caused by hemorrhage, tamponade with a Foley catheter can assist in the initial stabilization of the patient, providing the necessary time to perform a CT angiogram and diagnose the injury type.
- It is advisable to perform a CT angiogram in all symptomatic patients (reducing the need for surgical examinations, as well as their complications), and also in asymptomatic patients with a high-speed mechanism of injury.
- Observation is safe in asymptomatic patients; those with negative CT angiogram do not require treatment.
- Angiography and Interventional Radiology can be a diagnostic and therapeutic tool in patients with vascular trauma, thereby avoiding unnecessary surgical interventions.

Conflict of Interests

The authors have no conflict of interests to declare.

REFRENCES

1. Nowicki JL, Stew B, Ooi E. Penetrating neck injuries: a guide to evaluation and management. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 2018;100:6–11. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1308/rcsann.2017.0191>.
2. Sethi RK, Kozin ED, Fagenholz PJ, Lee DJ, Shrim MG, Gray ST. Epidemiological survey of head and neck injuries and trauma in the United States. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2014;151(5):776–84. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0194599814546112>.
3. Watson WL, Silverstone SM. Ligature of the common carotid artery in cancer of the head and neck. *Ann Surg.* 1939;109(1):1–27.
4. Makins GH. Gunshot Injuries to the Blood Vessels. Bristol, England: John Wright and Sons, Ltd; 1919 (disponible en formato E-Book: <https://play.google.com/store/books/details?id=V2oSAAAAYAAJ&rdid=book-V2oSAAAAYAAJ&rdot=1>)
5. Lawrence KB, Shefts LM, McDaniel JR. Wounds of the common carotid arteries, report of seventeen cases from World War II. *Am J Surg.* 1948;76(1):29–37.
6. Thal ER, Meyer DM. Penetrating neck trauma. *Curr Probl Surg.* 1992;29(1):1–56.
7. Feliciano DV. Penetrating cervical trauma. Current concepts in penetrating trauma. *World J Surg.* 2015;39:1363–72.
8. De Régloix SB, Baumont L, Daniel Y, Maurin O, Crambert A, Pons Y. Comparison of penetrating neck injury management in combat versus civilian trauma: a review of 55 Cases. *Mil Med.* 2016;181(8):935–40. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7205/MILMED-D-15-00434>.
9. Madsen AS, Bruce JL, Oosthuizen GV, Bekker W, Laing GL, Clarke DL. The selective non-operative management of penetrating cervical venous trauma is safe and effective. *World J Surg.* 2018;42:3202–9.
10. Ibraheem K, Khan M, Rhee P, Azim A, O'Keeffe E, Tang A, et al. "No zone" approach in penetrating neck trauma reduces unnecessary computed tomography angiography and negative explorations. *J Surg Res.* 2018;201:113–20.
11. Prichayudh S, Choadrachata-anun J, Sriussadaporn S, Parkart R, Sriussadaporn S, Kritayakirana K, et al. Selective management of penetrating neck injuries using "no zone" approach. *Injury.* 2015;46:1720–5.
12. Jain RK, Charkraborty P, Joshi P, Pradhan S, Kumari R. Penetrating neck injuries: from ER to OR. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2018. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12070-018-1307-6>.
13. Sachdeva K, Upadhyay A. Neck trauma: ENT prospects. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2017;69(1):52–7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12070-016-1048-3>.
14. Madsen AS, Laing GL, Bruce JL, Clarke DL. A comparative audit of gunshot wounds and stab wounds to the neck in a South Africa metropolitan trauma service. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 2016;98:488–95. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1308/rcsann.2016.0181>.
15. Teixeira F, Menegozzo CAM, Netto SDC, Poggetti RS, Silva FSC, Birolini D, et al. *World J Em Surg.* 2016;11:32.
16. Schroll R, Fontenot T, Lipcsey M, Heaney JB, Marr A, Meade P, et al. Role of computed tomography angiography in the management of Zone II penetrating neck trauma in patients with clinical hard signs. *J Trauma Acute Care Surg.* 2015;79(6):943–50.
17. Siau RTK, Moore A, Ahmed T, Lee MSW, Tostevin P. Management of penetrating neck injuries at a London trauma centre. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol.* 2013;270:2123–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00405-012-2324-9>.

18. Wepner J. Improved mortality from penetrating neck and maxillofacial trauma using Foley catheter balloon tamponade in combat. *J Trauma Acute Care Surg.* 2013;75(2):220–4. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/TA.0b013e3182930fd8>.
19. Harris R, Olding C, Lacey C, Bentley R, Schulte KM, Lewis D, et al. Changing incidence and management of penetrating neck injuries in the South East London trauma centre. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 2012;94:240–4.
20. Soliman A, Ahmad S, Roy D. The role of aerodigestive tract endoscopy in penetrating neck trauma. *Laryngoscope.* 2014;124:1–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/lary.23611>.
21. Van Waes OJ, KCAL Cheriex, Navsaria PH, van Riet PA, Nicol AJ, Vermeulen J. Management of penetrating neck injuries. *Br J Surg.* 2012;99(1):149–54.
22. Brennan J, Lopez M, Gibbons MD, Hayes D, Faulkner J, Dorlac WC, et al. Penetrating neck trauma in Operation Iraqi Freedom. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2010;144(2):180–5. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0194599810391628>.
23. Ahmed A. Selective observational management of penetrating neck injury in Northern Nigeria. *S Afr J Surg.* 2009;47(3):80–5.
24. Osborn TM, Bell B, Qaisi W, Long WL. Computed tomographic angiography as an aid to clinical decision making in the selective management of penetrating injuries to the neck: a reduction in the need for operative exploration. *J Trauma.* 2008;64:1466–71.
25. Thoma M, Navsaria PH, Edu S, Nicol AJ. Analysis of 203 patients with penetrating neck injuries. *World J Surg.* 2008;32:2716–23.
26. Bell RB, Osborn T, Dierks EJ, Potter BE, Long WB. Management of Penetrating neck injuries: a new paradigm for civilian trauma. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 2007;65:691–705.
27. Fox CJ, Gillespie DL, Weber MA, Cox MW, Hawksworth JS, Cryer CM, et al. Delayed evaluation of combat-related penetrating neck trauma. *J Vasc Surg.* 2006;44:886–93.
28. Inaba K, Murena F, McKenney M, Rivas L, de Moya M, Bahouth H, et al. *J Trauma.* 2006;61:144–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.ta.0000222711.01410.bc>.
29. Navsaria P, Thoma M, Nicol A. Foley catheter balloon tamponade for life-threatening hemorrhage in penetrating neck trauma. *World J Surg.* 2006;30:1265–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00268-005-0538-3>.
30. Pakarinen TK, Leppaniemi A, Sihvo E, Hiltunen K-M, Salo J. Management of cervical stab wounds in low volume trauma centres: systematic physical examination and low threshold for adjunctive studies, or surgical exploration. *Injury.* 2006;37:440–7.
31. Woo K, Magner DP, Wilson MT, Margulies DR. CT angiography in penetrating neck trauma reduces the need for operative neck exploration. *Am Surg.* 2005;71(9):754–8.
32. Weitzel N, Kendall J, Pons P. Blind nasotracheal intubation for patients with penetrating neck trauma. *J Trauma.* 2004;56(5):1097–101. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.TA.0000071294.21893.A4>.
33. Nason RW, Assuras GN, Gray PR, Lipschitz J, Burns CM. Penetrating neck injuries: analysis of experience from a Canadian trauma centre. *J Can Chirurgie.* 2001;44(2):122–6.
34. Sekharan J, Dennis JW, Veldenz HC, Miranda F, Fykberg ER. Continued experience with physical examination alone for evaluation and management of penetrating zone 2 neck injuries: results of 145 cases. *J Vasc Surg.* 2000;32:483–9.
35. Biffl WL, Moore EE, Rehse DH, Offner JP, Franciose RJ, Burch JM. Selective management of penetrating neck trauma based on cervical level of injury. *Am J Surg.* 1997;174:678–82.
36. Irish JC, Hekkenberg R, Gullane PJ, Brown DH, Rotstein LE, Neligan P. Penetrating and blunt neck trauma: 10-year review of a Canadian experience. *Can J Surg.* 1997;40(1):33–8.
37. Montalvo BM, LeBlang SD, Nuñez DB, Ginzburg E, Klose J, Becerra JL, et al. Color Doppler sonography in penetrating injuries of the Neck. *Am J Neuroradiol.* 1996;17:943–51.
38. Sofianos C, Degiannis E, VandenAadweg MS, Levy RD, Naidu M, Saadia R. Selective surgical management of zone II gunshot injuries of the neck: a prospective study. *Surgery.* 1996;120:785–8.
39. Demetriades D, Theodorou D, Cornwell E, Weaver F, Yellin A, Velmahos G, et al. Penetrating injuries of the neck in patients in stable condition. *Arch Surg.* 1995;130:971–5.
40. Demetriades D, Charalambides D, Lakhoo M. Physical examination and selective conservative management in patients with penetrating injuries of the neck. *Br J Surg.* 1993;80:1534–6.
41. Luntz M, Nusem S, Kronenberg J. Management of penetrating wounds of the neck. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol.* 1993;250:369–74.
42. Mansour MA, Moore EE, Moore FA, Whitehill TA. Validating the selective management of penetrating neck wounds. *Am J Surg.* 1991;162:517–21.
43. Rivers SP, Patel Y, Delany H, Veith FJ. Limited role of arteriography in penetrating neck trauma. *J Vasc Surg.* 1988;8:112–6.
44. Meyer JP, Barret JA, Schuler JJ, Flanigan P. Mandatory vs selective exploration for penetrating neck trauma. *Arch Surg.* 1987;122:592–7.
45. Jurkovich GJ, Zingarelli W, Wallace J, Curreri PW. Penetrating neck trauma: diagnostic studies in the asymptomatic patient. *J Trauma.* 1985;25(9):819–22.
46. Ordog GJ, Albin D, Wasserberger J, Schlater T, Balasubramaniam S. 110 Bullet wounds to the neck. *J Trauma.* 1985;25(3):238–46.
47. Sclafani S, Panetta T, Goldstein A, Phillips T, Hotson G, Loh J, et al. The management of arterial injuries caused by penetration of zone III of the neck. *J Trauma.* 1985;25(9):871–81.
48. Golueke PJ, Godstein AS, Sclafani S, Mitchell W, Shaftan G. Routine versus selective exploration of penetrating neck injuries: a randomized prospective study. *J Trauma.* 1984;24(12):1010–4.
49. Narrod JA, Moore EE. Initial management of penetrating neck wounds—a selective approach. *J Emerg Med.* 1984;2:17–22.
50. Narrod JA, Moore EE. Selective management of penetrating neck injuries. *Arch Surg.* 1984;119:574–8.
51. Prakashchandra M, Bhatti FK, Gaudino J, Ivatury R, Agarwal N, Nallathambi MN, et al. Penetrating injuries of the neck: criteria for exploration. *J Trauma.* 1983;23(1):47–9.
52. Kasbekar AV, Combellack EJ, Derbyshire SG, Swift AC. Penetrating neck trauma and the need for surgical exploration: six year experience within a regional trauma centre. *J Laryngol Otol.* 2017;131:8–12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0022215116009506>.
53. Bodanapally UK, Shanmuganathan K, Dreizin D, Stein D, Reddy AK, Mirvis SE, et al. Penetrating aerodigestive injuries in the neck: a proposed CT-aided modified selective management algorithm. *Eur Radiol.* 2016;26:2409–17. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00330-015-4050-3>.
54. Cobzeanu MD, Palade D, Manea C. Epidemiological features and management of complex neck trauma from a ENT surgeon's perspective. *Chirurgia.* 2013;108:360–4.
55. Walsh MS. The management of penetrating injuries of the anterior triangle of the neck. *Injury.* 1994;25:393–5.
56. Goldberg PA, Knottenbelt JD, VanDerSpuy JW. Penetrating neck wounds: is evidence of chest injury an indication for exploration? *Injury.* 1991;22(1):7–8.
57. Ngakane H, Muckart DJJ, Luvuno FM. Penetrating visceral injuries of the neck: results of a conservative management policy. *Br J Surg.* 1990;77:908–10.

58. Demetriades D. Penetrating injuries of the neck. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 1985;67:71–4.
59. Ayuyao AM, Kaledzi YL, Parsa MH, Freeman HP. Penetrating neck wounds. Mandatory versus selective exploration. *Ann Surg.* 1985;202(5):563–7.
60. Metzdorff MT, Lowe DK. Operation or observation for penetrating neck wounds? A retrospective analysis. *Am J Surg.* 1984;147:646–9.
61. Belinkie SA, Russell JC, DaSilva J, Becker D. Management of penetrating neck injuries. *J Trauma.* 1983;23(3):235–7.
62. Merion RM, Harness K, Ramsburgh SR, Thompson NW. Selective management of penetrating neck trauma. *Arch Surg.* 1981;116:691–9.
63. Campbell FC, Robbs JV. Penetrating injuries of the neck: a prospective study of 108 patients. *Br J Surg.* 1980;67:582–6.
64. Knightly JJ, Swaminathan AP, Rush BF. Management of penetrating wounds of the neck. *Am J Surg.* 1973;126:575–80.
65. Feldt BA, Salinas NL, Rasmussen TE, Brennan J. The joint facial and invasive neck trauma (J-FAINT) Project, Iraq and Afghanistan 2003–2011. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2013;148(3):403–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0194599812472874>.
66. Meghoo CA, Dennis JW, Tuman C, Fang R. Diagnosis and management of evacuated casualties with cervical vascular injuries resulting from combat-related explosive blasts. *J Vasc Surg.* 2012;55:1329–37.
67. Madsen AS, Laing GL, Bruce JL, Oosthuizen GV, Clark DL. An audit of penetrating neck injuries in a South African trauma service. *Injury.* 2016;47:64–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.injury.2015.07.032>.
68. Line WS, Stanley RB, Choi JH. Strangulation: a full spectrum of blunt neck trauma. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol.* 1985;94:542–6.
69. Monson DO, Saleta JD, Freeark RJ. Carotid vertebral trauma. *J Trauma.* 1969;9(12):987–99.
70. Helm M, Hossfeld B, Jost C, Lamp L, Böckers T. Emergency cricothyroidotomy performed by inexperienced clinicians—surgical technique versus indicator-guided puncture technique. *Ann Emerg Med.* 2012;30:646–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/emermed-2012-201493>.
71. Eggen JT, Jorden RC. Airway management, penetrating neck trauma. *Ann Emerg Med.* 1993;11:381–5.
72. Mandavia DP, Qualls S, Rokos I. Emergency airway management in penetrating neck injury. *Ann Emerg Med.* 2000;35:221–5.
73. Levy RD, Kantarovsky A, Degiannis E, John K, Hatzitheophiou C, Saadia R, et al. Management of penetrating injuries of the cervical trachea. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 1997;79:195–7.
74. Vassiliu P, Baker J, Shawn H, Alo K, Velmahos G, Demetriades D. Aerodigestive injuries of the neck. *Am Surg.* 2001;67(1):75–9.
75. Mandavia DP, Qualls S, Rokos I. Emergency airway management in penetrating neck injury. *Ann Emerg Med.* 2000;35(3):221–5.
76. Shearer VE, Giesecke AH. Airway management for patients with penetrating neck trauma: a retrospective study. *Anesth Analg.* 1993;77:1135–8.
77. Bent JP, Porubsky ES. The management of blunt fractures of the thyroid cartilage. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 1994;110:195–202.
78. Sheely CH, Mattox K, Beall AC. Management of acute cervical traqueal trauma. *Am J Surg.* 1974;128:805–8.
79. Mathisen DJ, Grillo H. Laryngotracheal trauma. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 1978;43:254–62.
80. Reece GP, Shatney CH. Blunt injuries of the cervical trachea: review of 51 patients. *South Med J.* 1988;81(12):1542–7.
81. Verschueren DS, Bell RB, Bagheri SC, Dierks EJ, Potter BE. Management of laryngo-tracheal injuries associated with craniomaxillofacial trauma. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 2006;64:203–14.
82. Jalisi S, Zoccoli M. Management of laryngeal fractures—a 10-year experience. *J Voice.* 2011;25(4):473–9.
83. Kim JP, Cho SJ, Son HY, Park JJ, Woo SH. Analysis of clinical feature and management of laryngeal fracture: recent 22 case review. *Yonsei Med J.* 2012;53(3):992–8.
84. Kelly JP, Webb WR, Moulder PV, Everson C, Burch BH, Lindsey ES. Management of airway trauma I: tracheobronchial injuries. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 1985;40(6):551–5.
85. Bent JP, Silver JR, Porubsky ES. Acute laryngeal trauma: a review of 77 patients. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 1993;109:441–9.
86. Yugueros P, Sarmiento J, García A, Ferrada R. Conservative management of penetrating hypopharyngeal wounds. *J Trauma.* 1996;40(2):267–9.
87. Barrooras G, Navsaria PH, Serna-Gallejos D, Nicol AJ, Edu S, Saayari A, et al. Blunt pharyngoesophageal injuries: current management strategies. *Scand J Surg.* 2017. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1457496918766692>. Journals.sagepub.com/home/sjs.
88. Goudy SL, Miller FB, Bumpous M. Neck crepitance: evaluation and management of suspected upper aerodigestive tract injury. *Laryngoscope.* 2002;112:791–5.
89. Stanley RB, Armstrong WB, Fetterman BL, Shindo ML. Management of external penetrating injuries into the hypopharyngeal-cervical esophageal funnel. *J Trauma.* 1997;42(4):675–9.
90. Parida PK, Kalaiarasi R, Alexander A. Management of laryngotracheal trauma: a five-year single institution experience. *Iranian J Otolaryngol.* 2018;30(5):283–90.
91. Al-Thani H, a El-Menyar, Mathew S, Khawar M, Asim M, Abdeira H, et al. Patterns and outcomes of traumatic neck injuries: a population-based observational study. *J Emerg Trauma Shock.* 2015;8(3):154–8.
92. Harach HR, Cabrera JA, Williams ED. Thyroid implants after surgery and blunt trauma. *Ann Diagn Pathol.* 2004;8:61–8.
93. Harrington OB, Beall AC, DeBaey ME. Traumatic injuries to the cervical trachea. *Am J Surg.* 1962;103:541–3.
94. Mussi A, Ambrogi MC, Ribechini A, Lucchi M, Menomi F, Angeletti CA. Acute major airway injuries: clinical features and management. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg.* 2001;20:46–52.
95. Gómez-Caro A, Ausín-Herrero P, Moradiellos-Díez FJ, Díaz-Hellín V, Larrú-Cabrero E, Pérez-Antón JA, et al. Manejo médico-quirúrgico de las lesiones traqueobronquiales traumáticas no iatrogénicas. *Arch Bronconeumol.* 2005;41(5):249–54.
96. Gómez-Caro A, Moradiellos-Díez FJ, Ausín-Herrero P, Díaz-Hellín V, Larrú-Cabrero E, deMiguel-Porch E, et al. Successful conservative management in iatrogenic tracheobronchial injury. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2005;79:1872–8.
97. Gómez-Caro A, Ausín-Herrero P, Moradiellos Díez FJ, Díaz-Hellín V, Larrú-Cabrero E, Pérez-Antón JA, et al. Role of conservative medical management of tracheobronchial injuries. *J Trauma.* 2006;61:1426–35.
98. Srinivasan R, Haywood T, Horwitz B, Buckman RF, Fisher RS, Krevsky B. Role of flexible endoscopy in the evaluation of possible esophageal trauma after penetrating injuries. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2000;95:1725–9.
99. Yap RG, Yap AG, Obeid FN, Horan P. Traumatic esophageal injuries: 12-year experience at Herny Ford Hospital. *J Trauma.* 1984;24(7):623–5.
100. Triggiani E, Belsey R. Oesophageal trauma: incidence, diagnosis, and management. *Thorax.* 1977;32:241–9.

101. Glatterer MS, Toon RS, Ellestad C, McFee AS, Rogers W, Mack JW. Management of blunt and penetrating external esophageal trauma. *J Trauma*. 1985;25(8):784–92.
102. Armstrong WB, Detar MTR, Stanley RB. Diagnosis and management of external penetrating cervical esophageal injuries. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol*. 1994;103:863–71.
103. Stanley RB, Armstrong WB, Fetterman BL, Shindo ML. Management of external penetrating injuries into the hypopharyngeal-cervical esophageal funnel. *J Trauma*. 1997;42(4):675–9.
104. Aghajanzadeh M, Porker NF, Ebrahimi H. Cervical esophageal perforation: a 10-year clinical experience in North of Iran. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2015;67(1):34–9. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12070-014-0737-z>.
105. Asensio JA, Berne J, Demetriades D, Murray J, Gomez H, Falabelia A, et al. Penetrating esophageal injuries: time interval of safety for preoperative evaluation—How long is safe? *J Trauma*. 1997;43(2):319–24.
106. Asensio JA, Chahwan S, Forno W, MacKersie R, Wall M, Lake J, et al. Penetrating esophageal injuries: multicenter study of the American Association for the Surgery of Trauma. *J Trauma*. 2001;50:289–96.
107. Eroglu A, Kurkcuoglu C, Karaoglanoglu N, Tekinbas C, Yimaz Ö, Basoglu M. Esophageal perforation: the importance of early diagnosis and primary repair. *Dis Esophagus*. 2004;17:91–4.
108. Aiolfi A, Inaba K, Recinos G, Khor D, Benjamin ER, Lam L, et al. Non-iatrogenic esophageal injury: a retrospective analysis from the National Trauma Data Bank. *World J Emerg Surg*. 2017;12:19.
109. Clifford PC, Immelman EJ. Management of penetrating injuries of the internal carotid artery. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl*. 1985;67:45–6.
110. Simmons JD, Ahmed N, Donnellan KA, Schmieg RE, Porter JM, Mitchell ME. Management of traumatic vascular injuries to the neck: a 7-year experience at a level I Trauma Center. *Am J Surg*. 2012;78:335–8.
111. Reva VA, Pronchenko AA, Samokhvalov IM. Operative management of penetrating carotid artery injuries. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2011;42:16–20.
112. Nanda A, Vannemreddy PSSV, Willis BK, Baskaya MK, Jawahar A. Management of carotid artery injuries: Louisiana State University Shreveport Experience. *Surg Neurol*. 2003;59:184–90.
113. Stuhlfaut JW, Barest G, Sakai O, Lucey B, Soto JA. Impact of MDCT angiography on the use of catheter angiography for the assessment of cervical arterial injury after blunt or penetrating trauma. *AJR*. 2005;185:1063–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2214/AJR.04.1217>.
114. Wick MC, Weiss RJ, Lill M, Jaschke W, Rieger M. The “Innsbruck emergency algorithm” avoids the underdiagnosis of blunt cervical vascular injuries. *Arch Orthop Trauma Surg*. 2010;130:1269–74. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00402-010-1068-5>.
115. Wei CW, Montanera W, Selchen D, Lian J, Stevens C, NoëldéTilly L. Blunt cerebrovascular injuries: diagnosis and management outcomes. *Can J Neurol Sci*. 2010;37:574–9.
116. Mwipatayi BP, Jeffery P, Beningfield SJ, Motale P, Tunnicliffe J, Navsaria PH. Management of extra-cranial vertebral artery injuries. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2004;27:157–62.
117. Nair R, Robbs JV, Muckart DJ. Management of penetrating cervicomediastinal venous trauma. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2000;19:65–9.
118. Bok A, Peter J. Carotid and vertebral artery occlusion after blunt cervical injury: the role of MR angiography in early diagnosis. *J Trauma*. 1996;40(6):968–72.
119. Punjabi AP, Plaisier BR, Haug RH, Malangoni MA. Diagnosis and management of blunt carotid artery injury in oral and maxillofacial surgery. *Oral Maxillofac Surg*. 1997;55:1388–95.
120. Englund R, Harris JP, May J. Blunt trauma to the internal carotid artery. *Ann Vasc Surg*. 1988;2(4):362–6.
121. Kobata H. Diagnosis and treatment of traumatic cerebrovascular injury: pitfalls in the management of neurotrauma. *Neurol Med Chir*. 2017;57:410–7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2176/nmc oa.2017-0056>.
122. Hughes KM, Collier B, Greene KA, Kurek S. Traumatic carotid artery dissection: a significant incidental finding. *Am Surg*. 2000;66(11):1023–7.
123. Lo YL, Yang TC, Liao CC, Yang ST. Diagnosis of traumatic internal carotid artery injury: the role of craniofacial fracture. *J Craniofac Surg*. 2007;18(2):361–8.
124. Vishteh AG, Marciano FF, David CA, Schievink VI, Zabramski JM, Spetzler RF. Long-term graft patency rates and clinical outcomes after revascularization for symptomatic traumatic internal carotid artery dissection. *Neurosurg*. 1998;43(4):761–7.
125. Biffl WL, Moore EE, Offner PJ, Brega K, Franciose RJ, Burch JM. Blunt carotid arterial injuries: implications of a new grading scale. *J Trauma*. 1999;47(5):845–51.
126. Seth R, Obuchowski AM, Zoarski GH. Endovascular repair of traumatic cervical internal carotid artery injuries: a safe and effective treatment option. *Am J Neuroradiol*. 2013;34:1219–26.
127. Morton RP, Levitt MR, Emerson S, Ghodke BV, Hallam DK, Sekhar LN, et al. Natural history and management of blunt traumatic pseudoaneurysms of the internal carotid artery. The Harborview algorithm based off a 10-year experience. *Ann Surg*. 2016;263:821–6.
128. Scott WW, Sharp S, Figueiro SA, Madden CJ, Rickert KL. Clinical and radiological outcomes following traumatic Grade 1 and 2 vertebral artery injuries: a 10-year retrospective analysis from a Level 1 trauma center. *J Neurosurg*. 2014;121:450–6.
129. Schott WW, Sharp S, Figueiro SA, Eastman AL, Hatchette CV, Maddden J, et al. Clinical and radiological outcomes following traumatic Grade 3 and 4 vertebral artery injuries: a 10-year retrospective analysis from a Level I trauma center. The Parkland carotid and vertebral artery injury survey. *J Neurosurg*. 2015;122:1202–7.
130. Methodius-Ngwodo WC, Burkett AB, Kochupura PV, Wellons ED, Fuhrman G, Rosenthal D. The role of CT angiography in the diagnosis of blunt traumatic thoracic aortic disruption and unsuspected carotid artery injury. *Am Surg*. 2008;74(7):580–6.
131. Madani A, Pecorelli N, Razek T, Spicer J, Ferri LE, Mulder DS. Civilian airway trauma: a single-institution experience. *World J Surg*. 2016;40:2658–66. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00268-016-3588-9>.
132. Pookamala S, Kumar R, Thakar A, Karthikeyan CV, Bhalla AS, Deka RC. Laryngotracheal stenosis: clinical profile, surgical management and outcome. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2014;66(1):198–202.
133. Mostafa BE, Fiky LE, Sharounbi ME. Non-intubation traumatic laryngotracheal stenosis: management policies and results. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol*. 2006;263:632–6. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00405-006-0036-8>.
134. Randall DR, Rudmik LR, Ball CG, Bosch JD. External laryngotracheal trauma: incidence, airway control, and outcomes in a large Canadian center. *Laryngoscope*. 2014;124:123–33.
135. Ökten I, Cangir AK, Özdemir N, Kavukcu S, Akay H, Yavuzer S. Management of esophageal perforation. *Surg Today*. 2001;31:36–9.

136. Steint DM, Boswell S, Slicker CW, Lui FY, Scalea TM. Blunt cerebrovascular injuries: does treatment always matter? *J Trauma.* 2009;66:132–44.
137. Crespo Escudero JL, Arenaz Búa J, Luaces Rey R, García-Rozado A, Rey Biel J, López-Cedrún JL, et al. Herida por asta de toro en el área maxilofacial: revisión de la literatura y presentación de un caso. *Rev Esp Cir Maxilofac.* 2008;30(5):353–62.
138. Chambres O, Giraud C, Gouffrant JM, Debry C. A detailed examination of injuries to the head and neck caused by bullfighting, and other surgical treatment: the role of the cervico-facial surgeon. *Rev Laryngol Otol Rhinol.* 2003;124:221–8.
139. Gajbhiye AS, Shamkuwar A, Bokade A, Nasare V, Jehughale K, Agrawal A. Surgical management of bull horn injury. *Int Surg J.* 2016;3(4):2041–5.