

1 **Short title: Driving time and Thrombectomy**

2

3 **Access to Endovascular Thrombectomy: Does Driving Time to Comprehensive Stroke**
4 **Center Matter More than Rurality?**

5

6 Foad Taghdiri¹, Manav V. Vyas^{1,2,6}, Moira K. Kapral^{3,4,5,6,7}, Lauren Lapointe-Shaw^{3,4,5}, Peter C.
7 Austin^{5,6,7}, Peter Gozdyra⁵, Christine Hawkes^{1,5,7}, Yue Chen⁵, Jiming Fang⁵, Amy Y. X. Yu^{1,5,6,7}

8

9 ¹Division of Neurology, Department of Medicine, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario,
10 Canada, ²St. Michael's Research Institute, St. Michael's Hospital-Unity Health Toronto, Toronto,
11 Ontario, Canada, ³Division of General Internal Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of
12 Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, ⁴Toronto General Research Institute, University Health
13 Network, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, ⁵ICES, Toronto, ON, Canada, ⁶Institute of Health Policy,
14 Management and Evaluation, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, ⁷Sunnybrook
15 Research Institute, Toronto, ON, Canada

16

17 **Correspondence to:** Dr. Amy Y. X. Yu, MD, FRCPC, Neurologist, Department of Medicine
18 (Neurology), University of Toronto, Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, Office A-455, 2075
19 Bayview Ave, CANADA Phone: 1 (416) 480-4866, Fax: 1 (416) 480-5753,
20 amy.yx.yu@utoronto.ca, Twitter: @amyyu_md

21 **Author contributions:** All authors contributed to the conceptualization, analysis of data,
22 methodology, and writing the original draft and revisions; PG, YC, and JF also contributed to
23 data acquisition and preparing the figures.

24 **Abstract**

25 **Background:** Acute stroke treatments are highly time-sensitive, with geographical disparities
26 affecting access to care. This study examined the impact of driving distance to the nearest
27 comprehensive stroke center (CSC) and rurality on the use of thrombectomy or thrombolysis in
28 Ontario, Canada.

29

30 **Methods:** This retrospective cohort study used administrative data to identify adults hospitalized
31 with acute ischemic stroke between 2017 and 2022. Driving time from patients' residences to the
32 nearest CSC was calculated using the Ontario Road Network File and postal codes. Rurality was
33 categorized using postal codes. Multivariable logistic regression, adjusted for baseline
34 differences, estimated the association between driving distance and treatment with thrombectomy
35 (primary outcome) or thrombolysis (secondary outcome). Driving time was modeled as a
36 continuous variable using restricted cubic splines.

37

38 **Results:** Data from 57,678 patients (median age 74 years, IQR 64-83) were analyzed. Increased
39 driving time was negatively associated with thrombectomy in a non-linear fashion. Patients
40 living 120 minutes from a CSC were 20% less likely to receive thrombectomy (adjusted odds
41 ratio [aOR] 0.80, 95%CI 0.62-1.04), and those 240 minutes away were 60% less likely (aOR
42 0.41, 95%CI 0.28-0.60). Driving time did not affect thrombolysis rates, even at 240 minutes
43 (aOR 1.0, 95%CI 0.70-1.42). Thrombectomy use was similar in medium urban areas (aOR 0.80,
44 95%CI 0.56-1.16) and small towns (aOR 0.78, 95%CI 0.57-1.06) compared to large urban areas.

45

46 **Conclusion:** Thrombolysis access is equitable across Ontario, but thrombectomy access
47 decreases with increased driving distance to CSCs. A multifaceted approach, combining
48 healthcare policy innovation and infrastructure development, is necessary for equitable
49 thrombectomy delivery.

50

51 **Keywords:** Ischemic stroke; thrombectomy; thrombolysis; geographic disparities; driving
52 distance

53

54

55 **Highlights**

- 56 • Increased driving time to a comprehensive stroke center is associated with significantly
57 lower rates of thrombectomy, with no similar effect observed for thrombolysis.
- 58 • Patients residing over 120 minutes from a stroke center have a 20% reduction in odds of
59 receiving thrombectomy, underscoring critical geographical barriers to care.
- 60 • Efforts to enhance equitable access to thrombectomy should focus on improving service
61 delivery in regions with extended travel times to stroke centers.

62

63 **Introduction**

64 Acute stroke revascularization treatments such as endovascular thrombectomy and thrombolysis
65 require rapid initiation to be most effective.[1,2] However, these treatments also require stroke
66 expertise and resources that are still not widely available.[3–5] Despite global efforts to improve
67 stroke recognition and treatment, significant geographic disparities in access to urgent stroke
68 treatments and patient outcomes persist.[6,7]

69

70 Concerns about geographical disparities in timely access to stroke treatments are very relevant in
71 Ontario, Canada's most populous province with 15 million people residing in an expansive area
72 of 1.08 million km² (about twice the size of France) with highly variable population density.
73 Most comprehensive stroke centers (CSC) with thrombectomy services are in urban regions of
74 southern Ontario. Reduced access to thrombectomy among rural residents compared to urban-
75 dwellers has been previously described,[8–12] but we hypothesized that receipt of thrombectomy
76 is more likely influenced by distance to CSC rather than rurality as rural residents living in close
77 proximity to a CSC should still have timely access to care.

78

79 With the overall aim of identifying critical gaps in access to timely stroke care, we undertook a
80 population-based analysis to evaluate the association between driving time between a patient's
81 home residence and the nearest CSC and treatment with thrombolysis or thrombectomy in
82 Ontario, Canada. Driving distance is commonly used as a proxy for access to stroke care, as it
83 provides an objective measure of geographic barriers to timely treatment. Using this metric
84 allows us to evaluate disparities in access across different regions. [11,13] We hypothesized that
85 treatment with thrombolysis would not be affected by driving time because the systems of stroke

86 care in Ontario developed over two decades ago were designed for the efficient delivery of
87 thrombolytics[14], but that longer driving time would be associated with reduced thrombectomy
88 because it is still not widely available.

89

90 **Methods**

91 *Cohort identification*

92 In this retrospective population-based cohort study, we utilized validated linked administrative
93 datasets to define the study cohort, exposure, covariates, and outcomes. We identified
94 community-dwelling adults, aged 18 to 104 years, who were hospitalized in Ontario, Canada
95 between April 1, 2017, and March 31, 2022, with acute ischemic stroke as their most responsible
96 diagnosis identified using International Classification of Diseases, 10th Revision, Canada (ICD-
97 10-CA) codes I63 (except I63.6), I64, and H34.1. This case definition has been shown to have
98 high accuracy for stroke hospitalization[15]. We created episodes of care using the entire care
99 trajectory, from the initial admission through to discharge, including any transfers to avoid
100 double counting transfers as separate events. We excluded individuals without a valid Ontario
101 health insurance number (non-residents as they cannot be linked to evaluate outcomes), those
102 with errors in birth or death records, or those who suffered a stroke while hospitalized for a
103 different condition. Additionally, we excluded patients whose discharge date was after June 30,
104 2022 (n=12, 0.02%). For patients with multiple admissions for stroke during the accrual period,
105 only the first admission was included in the analysis. An additional small number of individuals
106 were excluded due to incomplete data on rurality (n=175, 0.3%), missing driving time (n=19,
107 0.03%), socioeconomic status (n=450, 0.7%), or emergency department triage scores (n=93,
108 0.1%). The process of cohort selection is in Supplemental Figure 1.

109 .

110

111 *Overview of Ontario's Stroke Systems of Care*

112 Ontario's stroke system of care includes CSCs equipped to provide a full range of acute stroke
113 treatments, including thrombectomy, intravenous thrombolysis, vascular neurosurgery, primary
114 stroke centres (PSC) with capacity for acute stroke imaging and thrombolysis, and non-
115 designated centres (NDC) without ability to give thrombolysis or thrombectomy treatment. [16]

116 In Ontario's tele-stroke system, when a patient with suspected acute ischemic stroke presents at a
117 non-CSC site, they undergo an initial assessment and imaging. If EVT is considered necessary,
118 the local healthcare team contacts a stroke neurologist from a CSC via CritiCall [17] for a remote
119 consultation. Based on the neurologist's evaluation, if the patient is a suitable candidate for EVT,
120 an urgent transfer to the nearest CSC is arranged, typically via ground or air ambulance. This
121 ensures timely access to EVT, even in regions without direct access to a CSC.[18]

122

123 *Exposures*

124 The main exposure was driving time from patients' residences to the nearest CSC. We used the
125 Postal Code Conversion File to identify the patients' primary residence postal codes, which were
126 used to determine their geographical coordinates (latitude and longitude) using ArcGIS version
127 10.2 by the Environmental Systems Research Institute. We repeated these steps to obtain the
128 geographical coordinates of all 11 CSCs across Ontario. We used network analysis to calculate
129 travel time by car from each patient's geocoded location to the nearest CSC through all existing
130 roads while accounting for the posted speed limits using the 2017 Ontario Road Network (ORN)
131 Road Net Element File from Land Information Ontario.

132

133 In a secondary parallel analysis, we evaluated whether rurality of the patient residence was
134 associated with acute stroke treatment without accounting for driving time. Using Statistics
135 Canada's classification, rurality was defined based on the population size of their residential
136 locality into three categories: large urban areas (with population exceeding 100,000), medium
137 urban areas (population between 10,000 and 100,000), and small towns (population less than
138 10,000). [19]

139

140 *Outcomes*

141 The primary outcome of our study was treatment with thrombectomy, with or without
142 intravenous thrombolysis. We also conducted a secondary analysis on the use of thrombolysis
143 alone. Routine reporting of the use of thrombectomy and thrombolysis to the Canadian Institute
144 for Health Information is mandatory in Ontario throughout the study period.[20,21]

145 *Standard Protocol Approvals, Registrations, and Patient Consents*

146 Datasets were linked deterministically using unique encoded identifiers and analyzed at ICES
147 (formerly the Institute for Clinical Evaluative Sciences). The use of data in this project was
148 authorized under section 45 of Ontario's Personal Health Information Protection Act and did not
149 require research ethics board approval.

150

151 *Data sharing statement*

152 This study's dataset is securely stored in an encoded format at ICES. While the dataset is not
153 publicly accessible due to data sharing agreements, confidential access may be permitted for
154 qualified individuals through a detailed application process.

155

156 *Statistical methods*

157 Baseline patient characteristics, including categorical variables such as sex and presence of
158 comorbidities, were analyzed using the Chi-square test and the means of continuous variables
159 were compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test. We compared these baseline characteristics across
160 groups defined by categories of driving time distances to CSCs (<20, 20-60, >60 minutes) and by
161 the population size of the patient's residence (large urban, medium urban, small towns). For all
162 baseline comparisons, statistical significance was designated using a conventional p-value cutoff
163 of $p < 0.05$. We used multivariable logistic regression models to determine the association
164 between driving time and outcomes, summarizing the results as adjusted odds ratio (aOR) and
165 95% confidence intervals (CI). Statistical significance was defined as a 95% confidence interval
166 not crossing 1. These models were estimated using generalized estimating equation methods to
167 account for clustering within the first hospital in the episode of care.[22] Driving time beyond 20
168 minutes was modeled as a continuous variable using restricted cubic splines with five knots (45
169 55 65 75 and 95 percentiles) to allow for non-linear associations. [23] All patients with driving
170 times under 20 minutes had their driving time set to 20 minutes, the reference, because we
171 expected that all individuals within this short driving time would have similar access to treatment
172 and that patient characteristics would be the main drivers of differences in treatment. We then
173 compared the odds of the outcome for each driving time to the reference. Covariates were
174 determined based on clinical relevance and included age (modeled as a continuous variable using
175 restricted cubic splines to account for potential non-linear associations with outcomes), sex, prior

176 stroke, atrial fibrillation, diabetes, hypertension, dyslipidemia, coronary artery disease, peripheral
177 vascular disease, material deprivation quintiles[24], stroke severity using the Passive
178 Surveillance Stroke Severity indicator[25], and frailty using the hospital frailty risk score[26]. In
179 a secondary analysis, we compared the effects of residing in large urban, medium urban, and
180 small towns on treatment without accounting for driving time. With 'large urban' areas serving as
181 the reference group, we used multivariable logistic regression models to determine the
182 association between community sizes and odds of thrombectomy or thrombolysis, adjusting for
183 covariates. All administrative data case definitions are in Supplemental Table 1. All analyses
184 were conducted using SAS Enterprise Guide version 7.1 (SAS Institute Inc.).

185

186 **Results**

187 A total of 57,687 patients were included in the analyses, the median age was 74 years
188 (interquartile range: 64-83 years), 45.8% were female, and 25,180 patients (43.6%) resided
189 within 20 minutes of driving time from a CSC. Supplemental Figure 2 shows the distribution of
190 driving times from patients' residences to the nearest Comprehensive Stroke Center (CSC).
191 Compared to those living within 20 minutes driving distance, those living farther were less likely
192 to have hypertension, diabetes, dyslipidemia, and atrial fibrillation, but more likely to have a
193 history of coronary artery disease (Table 1). Table 2 shows baseline characteristics by population
194 size of residence, with 44,444 (77.0%) of the cohort residing in large urban areas. In large urban
195 areas, median driving time to the nearest CSC was 18 minutes and almost no one lived beyond
196 120 minutes driving time, but driving time was more variable for patients living in medium
197 urban areas or small towns (Figure 1). In the overall cohort, 4,150 (7.2%) patients received
198 thrombectomy and 8,285 (14.4%) were treated with thrombolysis. Table 3 shows the proportion
199 of patients treated by driving time and community size categories.

200

201 *Driving time and stroke treatments*

202 In multivariable analysis, the odds of thrombectomy declined with increasing driving time from
203 the nearest CSC. The difference became statistically significant from 120 minutes driving time or
204 longer (Figure 2). Patients living 120 minutes away from the nearest had a 20% decrease in the
205 odds of receiving thrombectomy compared to the reference group (aOR 0.80, 95% CI [0.62,
206 1.04]). This reduction becomes more pronounced at 180 minutes (aOR 0.57, 95% CI [0.43,

207 0.76]) and 240 minutes (aOR 0.41 95% CI [0.28, 0.60]). Conversely, the odds of receiving
208 thrombolysis remained relatively stable across most driving times (Figure 2). Even for patients
209 living 690 minutes away from the nearest CSC, the aOR for the receipt of thrombolysis was
210 0.46, 95% CI [0.11, 1.87]). We performed a sensitivity analysis with 30 minutes as the reference
211 and the results were similar (Supplemental Figure 3). Figure 3 shows the median driving time to
212 the nearest CSC across the province, calculated by dissemination area, the smallest area for
213 which population characteristics are reported to the Canadian Census, typically consisting of 400
214 to 700 people.

215

216 *Rurality and stroke treatments*

217 We found no significant difference in the odds of thrombectomy based on rurality categories
218 measured by population size (aOR 0.81, 95% CI [0.56, 1.16] for medium urban areas and aOR
219 0.78, 95% CI [0.57, 1.06] for small towns compared to large urban areas). Similarly, for
220 thrombolysis, no significant difference was observed among these groups (aOR 1.15, 95% CI
221 [0.88, 1.52] for medium urban areas and aOR 1.18, 95% CI [0.94, 1.48] for small towns
222 compared to large urban areas).

223

224 **Discussion**

225 This study shows that the geographic disparities in access to acute ischemic stroke treatment are
226 nuanced. First, increasing distance to CSC, measured by driving time, negatively impacted the
227 odds of treatment with thrombectomy, but this was not the case for thrombolysis. Second,
228 rurality measured by community size was not associated with treatment. This suggests that
229 strategies to mitigate inequities in stroke treatments should be focused on certain rural regions,
230 namely those situated >120 minutes from the nearest CSC.

231

232 Using driving time introduces novel insights into geographic disparities by allowing us to study
233 this parameter in a graded fashion. Previous research in geographic disparities in stroke care
234 primarily focused on population size as the definition of rurality.[10,27,28] We did not find
235 differences in treatment by rurality categories. Disparities emerged only when we considered
236 driving time to CSCs, suggesting that proximity, rather than population size, is the critical factor
237 in accessing specialized healthcare services for acute stroke care. Small communities located

238 close to CSCs appear to have similar access to comprehensive stroke care compared to those
239 living in large urban regions, but remote communities, even if medium in size, are at risk of
240 reduced access.

241
242 The significance of incorporating driving time as a measure to understand geographic disparities
243 has been shown elsewhere. In a study conducted in Manitoba, Canada, researchers found that
244 patients living in rural areas, particularly those more than an hour's drive from CSCs, faced
245 longer delays in thrombectomy treatment compared to those living in the urban setting.[29]
246 Similarly, in the United States, a study found that longer driving times were significantly
247 associated with reduced odds of receiving thrombolysis treatment for ischemic stroke.[11]
248 Similar observations extend to non-stroke medical emergencies. For instance, a Swiss
249 population-based study linked mortality from acute myocardial infarction to driving time to the
250 nearest university hospital, a relationship not evident with general hospital proximity.[13]

251
252 One explanation of why driving distance is critical may lie in the pathophysiology of stroke and
253 the importance of time. It is conceivable that some patients with stroke due to large vessel
254 occlusion were no longer eligible for thrombectomy due to infarct progression after long inter-
255 hospital transfer times. While the recent publications demonstrating the effectiveness of
256 thrombectomy even in the setting of a large infarct core[30–32] may increase thrombectomy
257 treatment rates across the province, it is nevertheless critical to lower the barriers to
258 thrombectomy access because faster treatment leads to better outcomes.[2] It is also possible that
259 patients living in close proximity to a CSC are more likely to be treated outside strict guideline
260 indications (low ASPECT score or medium vessel occlusion).

261
262 We showed that use of thrombolysis was not associated with proximity to a CSC, a success that
263 is likely at least partly due to the strategic establishment of PSCs with capacity to administer
264 thrombolysis in addition to CSCs, thus covering larger parts of the province. This success can be
265 attributed, in part, to the strategic establishment of PSCs with capacity to administer
266 thrombolysis in addition to CSCs, thus covering most parts of the province.[33] There is a
267 pressing need for strategies to broaden access to thrombectomy, including increasing the number
268 of CSCs and/or expanding the Ontario Telestroke Network.[34] The successful implementation

269 of thrombolysis across the province can provide a roadmap for targeted strategies to expand
270 access to thrombectomy in underserved regions. While it is neither possible nor necessary for
271 every hospital to offer thrombectomy, our study shows that regions where individuals are more
272 than 120 minutes away from a CSC are most vulnerable and stand the benefit the most from
273 enhanced service distribution. One potential solution is the expansion of the Ontario Telestroke
274 Network, which would allow neurologists at CSCs to remotely assess stroke patients in hospitals
275 located far from these centers, facilitating quicker decision-making and transfer for
276 thrombectomy. Additionally, enhancing air ambulance services in remote areas could
277 significantly reduce transport delays and improve access to timely thrombectomy.

278

279 While our study offers significant insights, there are several limitations. While driving time
280 provides an objective measure of geographic accessibility to CSCs, it is a non-physiological
281 proxy for proximity to EVT. Factors such as stroke severity, time of symptom onset, and clinical
282 presentation are also critical in determining eligibility and outcomes for EVT. Additionally,
283 driving time does not account for other real-world factors, such as traffic conditions, weather, or
284 the availability of air transport, which may influence the actual time to treatment. We also
285 acknowledge that driving times may differ for some patients who get transferred using air
286 transportation and this information was not available in our dataset. We also did not have
287 detailed clinical information on stroke severity, last seen normal time, and presence and location
288 of vessel occlusion, which could result in residual confounding. However, the observation that
289 driving time did not influence thrombolysis treatment suggests no major geographic differences
290 in stroke acuity and severity of presentation, and there is no a priori reason to believe that people
291 living far from CSCs are less likely to have large vessel occlusion. Although most patients with
292 stroke are picked up at or near their home, stroke events at another location could introduce some
293 misclassification. Administrative data do not have the level of granularity to address these
294 limitations comprehensively. Additionally, while proximity to PSCs is likely a more direct
295 predictor of thrombolysis access due to the shorter treatment window, our analysis focused on
296 driving time to CSCs, as our primary aim was to examine access to thrombectomy. Future
297 studies should explore the impact of proximity to PSCs on thrombolysis access to further
298 validate these findings. Moreover, the context-specific nature of our research, centered on
299 Ontario's unique healthcare landscape and stroke care network, may limit the applicability of our

300 findings to other regions with differing healthcare systems and geographic characteristics, but
301 these findings provide the need to collect critical information on driving times to optimize access
302 to stroke treatments for all. Finally, it is important to note that the large sample size of our study
303 may have contributed to statistically significant differences in baseline characteristics, even when
304 the absolute differences were small.

305

306 In conclusion, our study underscores the critical influence of geographic factors on the
307 accessibility of thrombectomy. Addressing these disparities requires a multifaceted approach that
308 combines healthcare policy innovation, infrastructure development, and the adoption of
309 telehealth solutions. By confronting these challenges head-on, we can move closer to achieving
310 equitable healthcare access and improving outcomes for stroke patients across all geographic
311 regions.

312

313 **Acknowledgements** This study was supported by ICES, which is funded by an annual grant
314 from the Ontario Ministry of Health (MOH) and the Ministry of Long-Term Care (MLTC). This
315 document used data adapted from the Statistics Canada Postal CodeOM Conversion File, which
316 is based on data licensed from Canada Post Corporation, and/or data adapted from the Ontario
317 Ministry of Health Postal Code Conversion File, which contains data copied under license from
318 ©Canada Post Corporation and Statistics Canada. Parts of this material are based on data and/or
319 information compiled and provided by the Ontario MOH and Canadian Institute for Health
320 Information (CIHI). The analyses, conclusions, opinions and statements expressed herein are
321 solely those of the authors and do not reflect those of the funding or data sources; no
322 endorsement is intended or should be inferred. This study also received funding from the Heart
323 and Stroke Foundation of Canada and the PSI Foundation. We thank IQVIA Solutions Canada
324 Inc. for use of their Drug Information File. We thank the Toronto Community Health Profiles
325 Partnership for providing access to the Ontario Marginalization Index.

326

327 **Sources of funding** AY was funded by Canadian Institutes of Health Research Project Grants,
328 National New Investigator Award from the Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada and holds a
329 Canada Research Chair (Tier 2) in Data-driven design of stroke systems, MKK holds the Sir
330 John and Lady Eaton Chair of Medicine at the University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada. This

331 study was supported by the Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada (Grant-in-Aid G-19-
332 0024262), the PSI Foundation (PSI Resident Research Grant Number R22-26), and a team grant
333 to the UNEARTH-CVD Investigators by Brain Canada, with the financial support of Health
334 Canada through the Canada Brain Research Fund (CBRF), and the Heart and Stroke Foundation
335 of Canada.

336

337 **Disclosures** The authors report no disclosures.

338

339 **References:**

340 1 Powers WJ, Rabinstein AA, Ackerson T, *et al.* Guidelines for the early management of
341 patients with acute ischemic stroke: 2019 update to the 2018 guidelines for the early
342 management of acute ischemic stroke: a guideline for healthcare professionals from the
343 American Heart Association/American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2019;50:e344–418.

344 2 Almekhlafi MA, Goyal M, Dippel DW, *et al.* Healthy life-year costs of treatment speed from
345 arrival to endovascular thrombectomy in patients with ischemic stroke: a meta-analysis of
346 individual patient data from 7 randomized clinical trials. *JAMA neurology*. 2021;78:709–17.

347 3 Bouckaert M, Lemmens R, Thijs V. Reducing prehospital delay in acute stroke. *Nature*
348 *reviews neurology*. 2009;5:477–83.

349 4 Faigle R. Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Stroke Reperfusion Therapy in the USA.
350 *Neurotherapeutics*. 2023;1–9.

351 5 Meretoja A, Keshtkaran M, Saver JL, *et al.* Stroke thrombolysis: save a minute, save a day.
352 *Stroke*. 2014;45:1053–8.

353 6 Leira EC, Hess DC, Torner JC, *et al.* Rural-urban differences in acute stroke management
354 practices: a modifiable disparity. *Archives of neurology*. 2008;65:887–91.

355 7 Dwyer M, Rehman S, Ottavi T, *et al.* Urban-rural differences in the care and outcomes of
356 acute stroke patients: systematic review. *Journal of the neurological sciences*. 2019;397:63–
357 74.

- 358 8 Hammond G, Luke AA, Elson L, *et al.* Urban-rural inequities in acute stroke care and in-
359 hospital mortality. *Stroke*. 2020;51:2131–8.
- 360 9 Seabury S, Bognar K, Xu Y, *et al.* Regional disparities in the quality of stroke care. *The*
361 *American journal of emergency medicine*. 2017;35:1234–9.
- 362 10 de Havenon A, Sheth K, Johnston KC, *et al.* Acute ischemic stroke interventions in the
363 United States and racial, socioeconomic, and geographic disparities. *Neurology*.
364 2021;97:e2292–303.
- 365 11 Ader J, Wu J, Fonarow GC, *et al.* Hospital distance, socioeconomic status, and timely
366 treatment of ischemic stroke. *Neurology*. 2019;93:e747–57.
- 367 12 Mullen MT, Wiebe DJ, Bowman A, *et al.* Disparities in accessibility of certified primary
368 stroke centers. *Stroke*. 2014;45:3381–8.
- 369 13 Berlin C, Panczak R, Hasler R, *et al.* Do acute myocardial infarction and stroke mortality
370 vary by distance to hospitals in Switzerland? Results from the Swiss National Cohort Study.
371 *BMJ open*. 2016;6:e013090.
- 372 14 Kapral MK, Fang J, Silver FL, *et al.* Effect of a provincial system of stroke care delivery on
373 stroke care and outcomes. *CMAJ*. 2013;185:E483–91.
- 374 15 Porter J, Mondor L, Kapral MK, *et al.* How reliable are administrative data for capturing
375 stroke patients and their care. *Cerebrovascular Diseases Extra*. 2017;6:96–106.
- 376 16 CorHealth Ontario. <https://www.corhealthontario.ca/cardiac-stroke-&-vascular-centres>
- 377 17 CritiCall Ontario. <https://www.criticall.org/about-criticall-ontario/>
- 378 18 Telestroke Consultation Guidelines. [https://www.criticall.org/help-my-patient/consultation-](https://www.criticall.org/help-my-patient/consultation-guidelines/)
379 [guidelines/](https://www.criticall.org/help-my-patient/consultation-guidelines/)
- 380 19 du Plessis V. Definitions of rural.

- 381 20 Special Project 340. [https://www.cihi.ca/sites/default/files/document/project-340-nacrs-en-](https://www.cihi.ca/sites/default/files/document/project-340-nacrs-en-final.pdf)
382 final.pdf
- 383 21 DAD Special Project 440: Endovascular Thrombectomy.
384 [https://www.cihi.ca/sites/default/files/document/endovascular-thrombectomy-bulletin-en-](https://www.cihi.ca/sites/default/files/document/endovascular-thrombectomy-bulletin-en-web.pdf)
385 web.pdf
- 386 22 Austin PC, Kapral MK, Vyas MV, *et al.* Using Multilevel Models and Generalized
387 Estimating Equation Models to Account for Clustering in Neurology Clinical Research.
388 *Neurology*. 2024;103:e209947.
- 389 23 Gauthier J, Wu Q, Gooley T. Cubic splines to model relationships between continuous
390 variables and outcomes: a guide for clinicians. *Bone marrow transplantation*. 2020;55:675–
391 80.
- 392 24 Taghdiri F, Vyas MV, Kapral MK, *et al.* Association of Neighborhood Deprivation With
393 Thrombolysis and Thrombectomy for Acute Stroke in a Health System With Universal
394 Access. *Neurology*. 2023.
- 395 25 Yu AY, Austin PC, Rashid M, *et al.* Deriving a passive surveillance stroke severity indicator
396 from routinely collected administrative data: the PaSSV indicator. *Circulation:*
397 *Cardiovascular Quality and Outcomes*. 2020;13:e006269.
- 398 26 Gilbert T, Neuburger J, Kraindler J, *et al.* Development and validation of a Hospital Frailty
399 Risk Score focusing on older people in acute care settings using electronic hospital records:
400 an observational study. *The Lancet*. 2018;391:1775–82.
- 401 27 Kamel H, Parikh NS, Chatterjee A, *et al.* Access to Mechanical Thrombectomy for Ischemic
402 Stroke in the United States. *Stroke*. 2021;STROKEAHA-120.
- 403 28 Gonzales S, Mullen MT, Skolarus L, *et al.* Progressive rural–urban disparity in acute stroke
404 care. *Neurology*. 2017;88:441–8.
- 405 29 Yan Y, Hu K, Alcock S, *et al.* Access to endovascular thrombectomy for stroke in rural
406 versus urban regions. *Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences*. 2022;49:70–5.

- 407 30 Bendszus M, Fiehler J, Subtil F, *et al.* Endovascular thrombectomy for acute ischaemic
408 stroke with established large infarct: multicentre, open-label, randomised trial. *The Lancet*.
409 2023;402:1753–63.
- 410 31 Kobeissi H, Adusumilli G, Ghozy S, *et al.* Endovascular thrombectomy for ischemic stroke
411 with large core volume: An updated, post-TESLA systematic review and meta-analysis of the
412 randomized trials. *Interventional Neuroradiology*. 2023;15910199231185738.
- 413 32 Huo X, Ma G, Tong X, *et al.* Trial of endovascular therapy for acute ischemic stroke with
414 large infarct. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2023;388:1272–83.
- 415 33 Kapral MK, Hall R, Gozdyra P, *et al.* Geographic access to stroke care services in rural
416 communities in Ontario, Canada. *Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences*. 2020;47:301–
417 8.
- 418 34 Porter J, Hall RE, Kapral MK, *et al.* Outcomes following telestroke-assisted thrombolysis for
419 stroke in Ontario, Canada. *Journal of Telemedicine and Telecare*. 2018;24:492–9.
- 420

Table 1 - Baseline characteristics of patients hospitalized with acute ischemic stroke in Ontario, Canada from April 1, 2017, to March 31, 2022 by driving time (n=57,687 patients)

	<20 minutes n=25,180	20-60 minutes n=20,029	>60 minutes n=12,478	p-value
Median age, years [Q1, Q3]	75 [64, 84]	74 [63, 83]	74 [65,83]	<0.0001
Female sex, n (%)	11,890 (47.2%)	9,064 (45.3%)	5,492 (44.0%)	<0.0001
Hypertension, n (%)	20,804 (82.6%)	16,415 (82.0%)	10,040 (80.5%)	<0.0001
Diabetes, n (%)	10,047 (39.9%)	7,836 (39.1%)	4,553 (36.5%)	<0.0001
Atrial fibrillation, n (%)	7,124 (28.3%)	5,339 (26.7%)	3,365 (27.0%)	0.0002
Dyslipidemia, n (%)	9,699 (38.5%)	6,693 (33.4%)	3,298 (26.4%)	<0.0001
Previous stroke, n (%)	2,154 (8.6%)	1,747 (8.7%)	1,117 (9.0%)	0.43
Coronary artery disease, n (%)	3,595 (14.3%)	3,001 (15.0%)	2,024 (16.2%)	<0.0001
Peripheral vascular disease, n (%)	1,951 (7.7%)	1,443 (7.2%)	981 (7.9%)	0.04
Stroke severity Median PaSSV score [Q1, Q3]	7.5 (6.9-8.8)	7.5 (6.8-8.8)	8.1 (7.0-8.8)	<0.0001

CSC: Comprehensive Stroke Centres; PaSSV: Passive Surveillance Stroke Severity, where lower scores indicates higher stroke severity

Table 2 - Baseline characteristics of patients hospitalized with acute ischemic stroke in Ontario, Canada from April 1, 2017, to March 31, 2022 by population size of residence (n=57,706 patients*)

	Large urban n=44,444	Medium urban n=5,766	Small town n=7,496	p-value
Median driving time to the nearest CSC (minutes) [Q1, Q3]	17.8 [10.4-33.9]	82.2 [62.1-105.9]	81.2 [56.5-126.4]	<0.0001
Median age [Q1, Q3]	75 [64, 83]	75 [65, 84]	74 [65, 82]	0.0008
Female sex, n (%)	20,574 (46.3%)	2,690 (46.7%)	3,188 (42.5%)	<0.0001
Hypertension, n (%)	36,612 (82.4%)	4,687 (81.3%)	5,976 (79.7%)	<0.0001
Diabetes, n (%)	17,642 (39.7%)	2,137 (37.1%)	2,661 (35.5%)	<0.0001
Atrial fibrillation, n (%)	12,197 (27.4%)	1,667 (28.9%)	1,969 (26.3%)	0.003
Dyslipidemia, n (%)	16,057 (36.1%)	1,593 (27.6%)	2,045 (27.3%)	<0.0001
Previous stroke, n (%)	3,818 (8.6%)	527 (9.1%)	674 (9.0%)	0.24
Coronary artery disease, n (%)	6,489 (14.6%)	947 (16.4%)	1,188 (15.8%)	<0.0001
Peripheral vascular disease, n (%)	3,298 (7.4%)	464 (8.0%)	615 (8.2%)	0.02
Stroke severity Median PaSSV score [Q1, Q3]	7.5 [6.8-8.8]	7.8 [7.0-8.8]	8.1 [7.0-8.8]	<0.0001

CSC: Comprehensive Stroke Centres; PaSSV: Passive Surveillance Stroke Severity, which lower score indicates higher stroke severity. patients were initially identified. *Includes the 19 patients with missing driving time.

422

423

424

Table 3 - Thrombectomy and thrombolysis treatments by driving time distances to CSCs and community size

	<20 minutes n=25,180	20-60 minutes n=20,029	>60 minutes n=12,478	p-value*
Thrombectomy, n (%)	2,130 (8.5%)	1,431 (7.1%)	588 (4.7%)	<0.0001
Thrombolysis, n (%)	3,463 (13.8%)	2,975 (14.9%)	1,844(14.8%)	0.0013

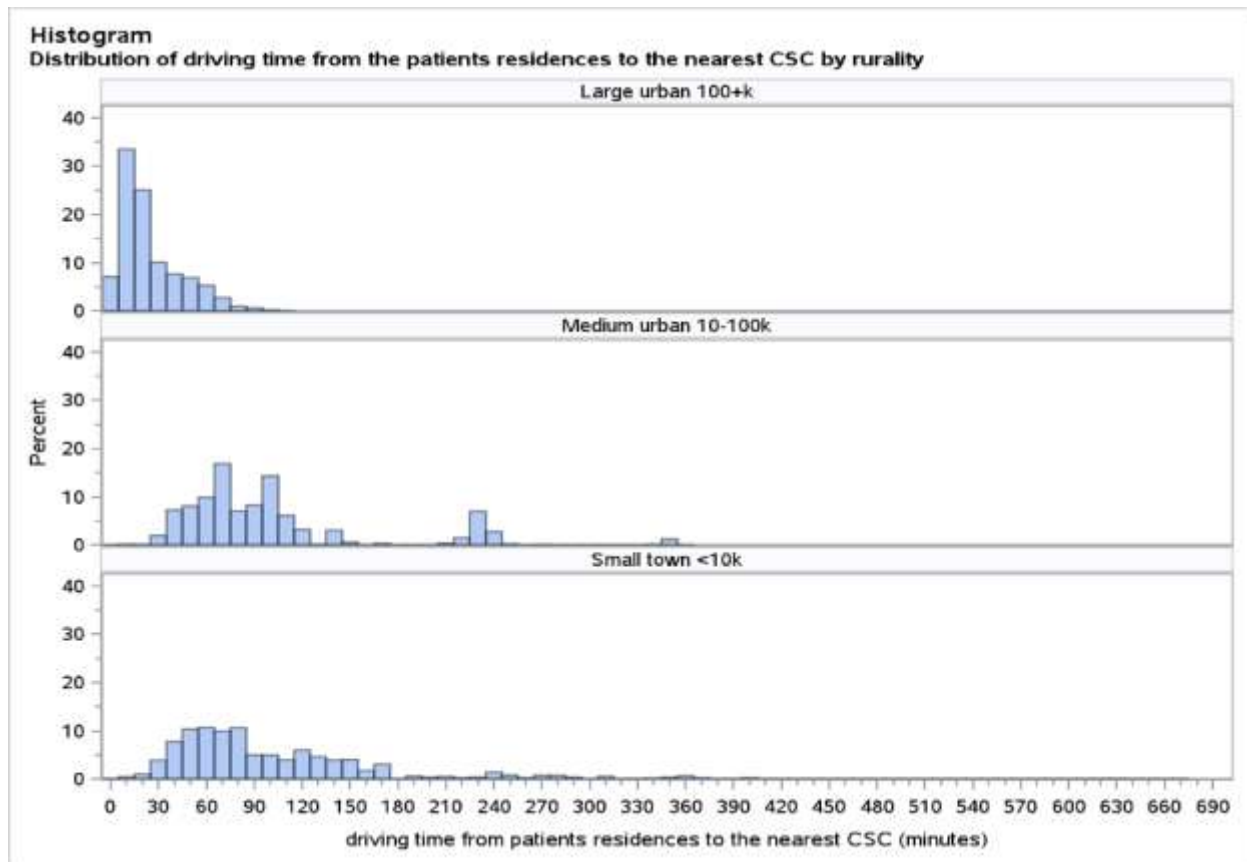
	Large urban n=44,444	Medium urban n=5,766	Small town n=7,496	p-value*
Thrombectomy, n (%)	3,382 (7.6%)	333 (5.8%)	435 (5.8%)	<0.0001
Thrombolysis, n (%)	6,273 (14.1%)	852 (14.8%)	1,160 (15.5%)	0.005

CSC: Comprehensive Stroke Centres

* p-values presented are based on crude comparisons and do not account for adjustments for potential confounders

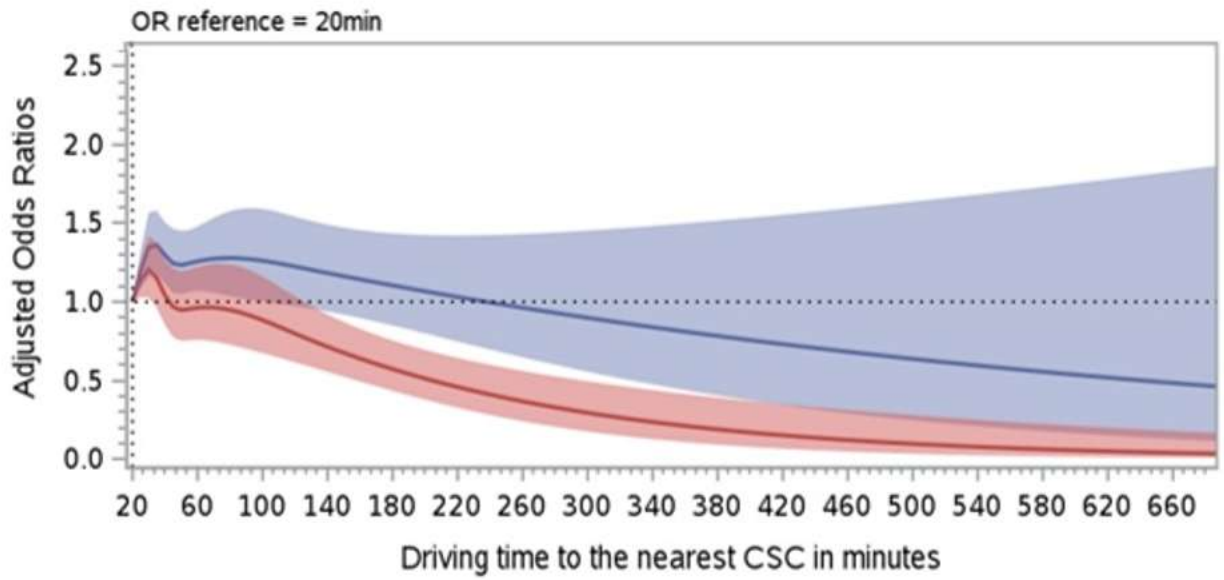
425

426



427

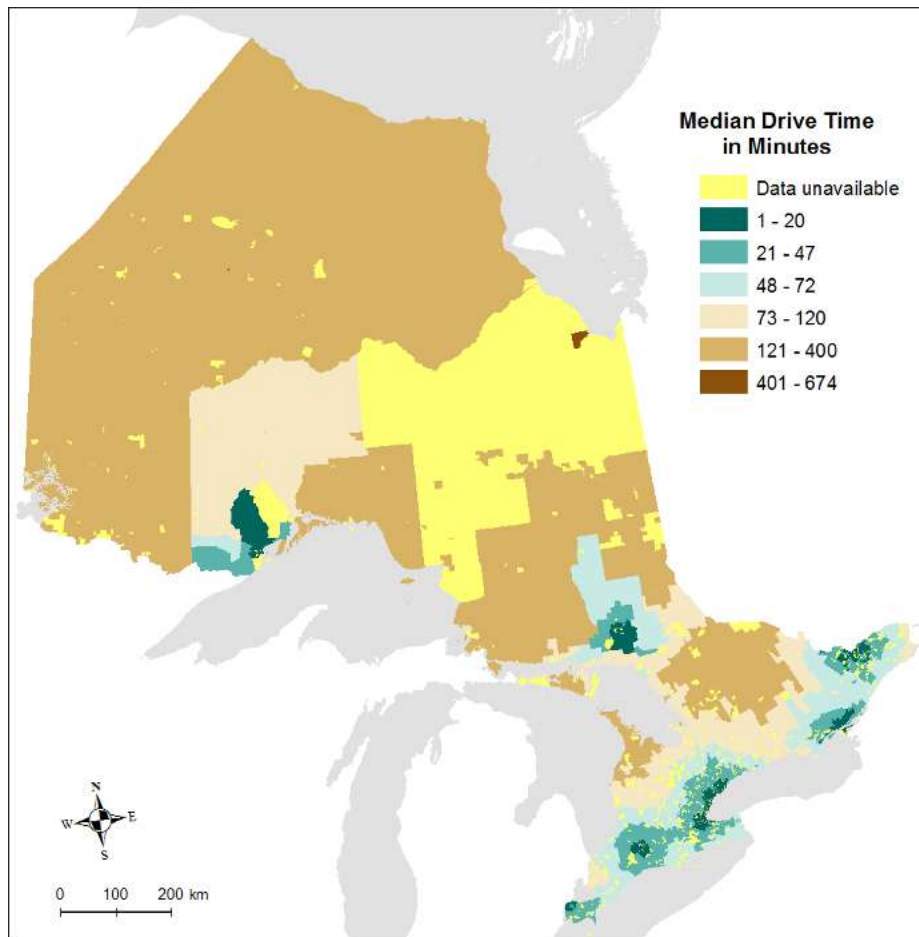
428 **Figure 1** - Histograms showing the distribution of driving times from patients' residences to the
 429 nearest CSC, categorized by rurality. The top panel represents large urban areas (>100k
 430 population), the middle panel medium urban areas (10-100k population), and the bottom panel
 431 small towns (<10k population)



432

433 **Figure 2** - Adjusted Odds Ratio and 95% Confidence Interval of Receiving Thrombolysis (blue)

434 and Endovascular Thrombectomy (red)



435

436

437 **Figure 3** - Geographical distribution of median driving time to nearest CSC in Ontario, Canada