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Chapter 1

General introduction

For more than 100 years it has been recognized that pulmonary embolism (PE), a condition caused by the formation of a thrombus in the pulmonary arteries, could lead to severe dyspnea.¹ However, no effective treatment was available until the first part of the 20th century and the majority of the patients with PE died.²

It was not until 1938 that the first claims of successful anticoagulant treatment with heparin were published.^{3,4} However, there was one disadvantage of the use of heparin: it had to be administered intravenously. Because of the intravenous administration, PE patients had to stay in the hospital and therefore could only be treated for a short period of time. A discovery by two veterinarians in 1920 was the start for the development of the first anticoagulant for long term treatment. They observed that cattle that had eaten spoiled hay suffered from massive hemorrhage.⁵ This lead to the discovery of a substance from the sweet clover, named coumarin, which was responsible for the anticoagulant mechanism that caused the bleeding in the cattle. Coumarin was extracted in the laboratory for medicinal use to prevent further thrombus formation in patients with PE. Because coumarin was administered orally, from this point in time patients could be treated out of the hospital and the duration of anticoagulant treatment could be prolonged.

Another breakthrough came in 1960, when the first clinical trial investigating the use of heparin combined with coumarin was published.² This trial demonstrated that the prognosis of patients with PE improved largely upon treatment with the combination of intravenous unfractionated heparin and coumarin. Afterwards, the treatment of PE patients with the combination of heparin and coumarin was considered standard patient care for many decades.³

The next large change in anticoagulant management came with the introduction of lowmolecular weight heparin (LMWH), which could be administered subcutaneously and was at least as effective as unfractionated heparin administered intravenously.⁶ Because unfractionated heparin had to be administered intravenously, patients who were diagnosed with PE were admitted to the hospital for at least five days. After the introduction of LMWH, the duration of hospital admission shortened over the years.⁷ In the last decade small observational studies have been published, which gave a first indication towards the safety and efficacy of the outpatient treatment of PE patients.⁸⁻¹⁰ The first systematic review on outpatient treatment of PE patients indicated that the quality of those observational studies was too low to incorporate outpatient treatment of patients with PE in standard patient care.¹¹

Over the last years, more solid evidence on the safety of outpatient treatment in PE patients is accumulating.¹² In the first part of this thesis more recent publications on outpatient treatment of patients with PE are extensively discussed. The results of the Hestia study, a prospective multicenter cohort study on outpatient treatment of PE patients, which we performed in conjunction with 12 hospitals in The Netherlands, are presented in chapter 2 and 3. In chapter 4, the results of all available studies on outpatient treatment of PE patients in the literature are summarized in a meta-analysis.

Chapter 1

The second aim of this thesis was to compare methods for risk stratification, which discriminate low from high risk PE patients, in order to treat the low risk patients at home safely.¹³ Several methods for risk stratification are available¹⁴: methods based on clinical signs and symptoms ^{15,16}, laboratory values^{17,18} or imaging modalities^{19,20}. In the Hestia study, described in chapter 2, the Hestia criteria were used to select low risk PE patients for outpatient treatment. The Hestia criteria were compared to two other methods for risk stratification, the Pulmonary Embolism Severity Index (PESI) and the assessment of right ventricular dysfunction on computed tomography and the results of these analyses are found in chapters 5 and 6. Chapter 7 describes the potential role of repeated measurements of the laboratory value NT-proBNP in selecting patients with PE for outpatient treatment or early discharge. Finally, in chapters 8 and 9 the prognosis of patients with PE and different baseline characteristics is described: patients with provoked PE versus unprovoked PE and patients presenting to a university hospital versus patients in a non-university hospital.

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