



REVIEW

Lifting the fog in intermediate-risk (submassive) PE: full dose, low dose, or no thrombolysis? [version 1; peer review: 2 approved]

Amy Bhamani¹, Joanna Pepke-Zaba², Karen Sheares^{2,3}

¹Department of Respiratory Medicine, Basildon and Thurrock University Hospital, Basildon, Essex, SS16 5NL

²Pulmonary Vascular Diseases Unit, Royal Papworth Hospital, Cambridge, CB23 3RE

³Department of Respiratory Medicine, Cambridge University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Hills Road, Cambridge, CB2 0QQ

v1 **First published:** 25 Mar 2019, 8(F1000 Faculty Rev):330 (<https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.17861.1>)
Latest published: 25 Mar 2019, 8(F1000 Faculty Rev):330 (<https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.17861.1>)

Abstract

Acute pulmonary embolism (PE) is a disease frequently encountered in clinical practice. While the management of haemodynamically stable, low risk patients with acute PE is well established, managing intermediate disease often presents a therapeutic dilemma. In this review, we discuss the various therapeutic options available in this patient group. This includes thrombolysis, surgical embolectomy and catheter directed techniques. We have also explored the role of specialist PE response teams in the management of such patients.

Keywords

Pulmonary embolism, intermediate risk, thrombolysis

Open Peer Review

Reviewer Status

| | Invited Reviewers | |
|--|-------------------|---|
| | 1 | 2 |
| version 1 published 25 Mar 2019 | | |

F1000 Faculty Reviews are written by members of the prestigious F1000 Faculty. They are commissioned and are peer reviewed before publication to ensure that the final, published version is comprehensive and accessible. The reviewers who approved the final version are listed with their names and affiliations.

- 1 **Debabrata Mukherjee**, Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center, El Paso, USA
- 2 **Olivier Sanchez**, Hôpital Européen Georges Pompidou, APHP, , INSERM UMRS 1140, France

Any comments on the article can be found at the end of the article.

Corresponding author: Karen Sheares (karen.sheares@nhs.net)

Author roles: **Bhamani A:** Visualization, Writing – Original Draft Preparation, Writing – Review & Editing; **Pepke-Zaba J:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft Preparation, Writing – Review & Editing; **Sheares K:** Conceptualization, Project Administration, Supervision, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft Preparation, Writing – Review & Editing

Competing interests: KS is a member of the UK's National Institute for Health and Care Excellence and British Thoracic Society's Venous Thromboembolism guideline groups. She has received education support from Actelion, Bayer and GSK and has been on an advisory board for Actelion. AB and JPZ have no competing interests.

Grant information: The author(s) declared that no grants were involved in supporting this work.

Copyright: © 2019 Bhamani A *et al.* This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution Licence](#), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

How to cite this article: Bhamani A, Pepke-Zaba J and Sheares K. **Lifting the fog in intermediate-risk (submassive) PE: full dose, low dose, or no thrombolysis? [version 1; peer review: 2 approved]** F1000Research 2019, 8(F1000 Faculty Rev):330 (<https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.17861.1>)

First published: 25 Mar 2019, 8(F1000 Faculty Rev):330 (<https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.17861.1>)

Introduction

Acute pulmonary embolism (PE) is a relatively common disease with a variable clinical presentation. The annual incidence of diagnosed cases in the UK has previously been reported as 34.2 per 100,000 person-years¹, and it is estimated that there were 2300 deaths from the condition in 2012². Data from the US suggest a far higher incidence. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention estimates that there are 60,000 to 100,000 annual deaths from deep vein thrombosis or PEs in the US, and sudden death is felt to be the first symptom in about a quarter of cases³. In Europe, epidemiological models based on data from six European Union countries have estimated the total number of PE events per annum as 95 per 100,000⁴.

An important challenge in the management of acute PE is patient risk stratification. Massive or high-risk PE is characterised by sustained hypotension (systolic blood pressure of less than 90 mm Hg for at least 15 minutes or requiring inotropic support) not attributable to another cause. In contrast, submassive or intermediate-risk PE refers to an acute PE without systemic hypotension but with either right ventricular (RV) dysfunction or myocardial necrosis⁵. This distinction is important as massive PE is associated with increased mortality. In the International Cooperative Pulmonary Embolism Registry (ICOPER), the 90-day mortality rate for patients with acute PE and systolic blood pressure of less than 90 mm Hg at presentation was 52.4% compared with 14.7% in the remainder of the cohort⁶. Additionally, in the Management Strategy and Prognosis of Pulmonary Embolism Registry of 1001 patients with acute PE, in-hospital mortality was 8.1% for haemodynamically stable patients versus 25% for those presenting with cardiogenic shock and 65% for those requiring cardiopulmonary resuscitation⁷.

Low-molecular-weight heparin is a well-established initial therapy for patients with acute PE who remain haemodynamically stable. It has been found to reduce the incidence of complications and thrombus size compared with unfractionated heparin⁸, and its relative ease of administration is an added advantage. Typically, such patients subsequently receive parenteral anticoagulants followed by vitamin K antagonists or the newer direct oral anticoagulant (DOAC) agents.

Full-dose thrombolysis

Over the past 50 years, almost 20 randomised studies on thrombolytic therapy in acute PE have been published and their results reviewed in meta-analyses⁹⁻¹². The severity of PE, the type of thrombolytic agent and heparin used, and the dose and duration of administration varied across the trials. Furthermore, the clinical criteria defining haemodynamic instability, shock and haemorrhage were not standardised. Only a few studies focused on clinical outcomes, and most lacked the statistical power to permit definite conclusions.

Major haemorrhage following thrombolytic therapy also remains a concern, and the reported incidence is between 0 and 33% depending on the type and dose of thrombolytic agent used¹³. The ideal dose of thrombolysis and how it should be administered are also unclear.

International guidelines recommend thrombolysis for the management of PE patients with haemodynamic instability¹⁴⁻¹⁶. However, the role of thrombolysis in the management of haemodynamically stable patients with submassive or intermediate-risk disease is still a matter of debate¹⁷.

The large, randomised Pulmonary Embolism Thrombolysis (PEITHO) trial compared the composite end point of mortality and haemodynamic collapse in over 1000 intermediate-risk patients who received heparin plus tenecteplase or placebo. Tenecteplase significantly reduced the risk of haemodynamic decompensation within 7 days but also was associated with a 10-fold increase in intracranial haemorrhage (2% versus 0.2%) and a fivefold increase in major haemorrhage (6.3% versus 1.2%). The 2% rate of intracranial haemorrhage may reflect a combination of full-dose tenecteplase plus a simultaneous loading bolus of heparin. Surprisingly, the follow-up results of PEITHO showed that thrombolysis did not affect long-term survival or reduce residual dyspnoea, RV dysfunction, or the incidence of chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH)¹⁸.

The results of various meta-analyses comparing full-dose thrombolysis with standard anticoagulation have been mixed. Chatterjee *et al.* compared outcomes in patients with acute PE treated with thrombolysis compared with anticoagulation alone¹⁹. This included patients with intermediate-risk disease. The use of thrombolysis was associated with lower all-cause mortality and risk of recurrent PE. However, the risk of intracranial haemorrhage was also greater in thrombolysed patients¹⁹.

Conversely, Wan *et al.* found no evidence for a benefit of thrombolytic therapy compared with heparin for the initial treatment of unselected patients with acute PE²⁰. However, there was a suggested benefit for haemodynamically unstable patients which should be weighed up against the statistically significant increased risk of non-major bleeding²⁰. Similarly, Dong *et al.* concluded that outcomes in terms of death rate, recurrent PE and haemorrhagic events were similar in patients who received thrombolytic therapy compared with placebo or heparin²¹.

The development of alternative therapeutic modalities for patients presenting with large-volume PE, with or without haemodynamic compromise, has been the subject of great interest. Whereas Jimenez *et al.* concluded that recanalisation procedures (full-dose, low-dose and catheter-assisted thrombolysis) did not offer a clear advantage in the treatment of PE compared with standard anticoagulation alone²², a number of novel therapeutic modalities have recently been proposed. However, their precise role in clinical practice remains unclear. We have therefore attempted to review some of these and analysed available data relating to their use in a clinical setting. We have focused in particular on submassive or intermediate-risk disease.

Low-dose thrombolysis

Low-dose thrombolysis has been suggested as a potential treatment strategy for acute PE, particularly in patients presenting

with intermediate-risk disease. It remains unclear whether early thrombolysis in this patient group has an impact on clinical symptoms, functional limitation, or CTEPH at long-term follow-up.

A small randomised trial of 83 patients suggested that thrombolysis, compared with anticoagulation alone, might improve functional capacity at 3 months. In the PEITHO trial, long-term (at 41.6 ± 15.7 months) clinical follow-up was available for 358 patients with intermediate-risk PE who survived the acute phase; persisting symptoms, mainly dyspnoea, were present in 33% of the patients. However, the degree of functional limitation was mild in the majority of cases regardless of whether the patients had been randomly assigned to thrombolysis or anticoagulation alone. In agreement with the clinical findings, the majority of patients (85% in the tenecteplase arm and 96% in the placebo arm) had a low or intermediate probability—based on the definition of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) guidelines—of persisting or new-onset PH at echocardiographic follow-up. A standardised diagnostic work-up for CTEPH was not mandated by the trial protocol. Consequently, the findings of this study do not support a role for thrombolysis with the aim of preventing long-term sequelae after intermediate-risk PE, although they are limited by the fact that clinical follow-up was available for only 62% of the study population.

The Moderate Pulmonary Embolism Treated with Thrombolysis (MOPETT) trial evaluated the role of half-dose (0.5 mg/kg up to a maximal dose of 50 mg) thrombolysis with tissue plasminogen activator (tPA) and anticoagulation versus standard anticoagulation alone in the management of patients with moderate PE. A statistically significant reduction in the development of pulmonary hypertension, defined in the trial as pulmonary artery systolic pressure (PASP) of greater than 40 mm Hg by echocardiography, was reported in the treatment group compared with the control group. There was no significant difference in mortality or bleeding, although the average length of hospital admission was shorter in the treatment group²³. However, it must be noted that the definition of pulmonary hypertension in the trial does not meet internationally defined diagnostic criteria for this condition. Nevertheless, patients in the treatment arm were found to have a greater reduction in PASP compared with the control group, and although long-term functional outcomes were not formally assessed, these results may be significant in this regard.

The efficacy of low-dose thrombolysis compared with full-dose has been evaluated by Wang *et al.*, who demonstrated similar improvements in RV dysfunction and radiological clearance in patients who received half-dose tPA (50 mg/2 hours) compared with those who received the full dose (100 mg/2 hours)²⁴. Bleeding was less common in patients who received the lower-dose regimen, although this difference was not statistically significant²⁴. Similarly, Goldhaber *et al.* found no differences between a reduced-dose bolus and full-dose tPA with respect to bleeding complications. Additionally, efficacy was similar in the two treatment groups²⁵.

The role of low-dose thrombolysis in the management of post-operative patients has also been considered. Recent surgical intervention has generally been accepted as a relative contraindication for thrombolysis, particularly for those who have undergone cardiothoracic procedures. Shen *et al.* described the successful use of low-dose thrombolysis with 25 mg tPA in a high-risk patient who had a cardiac arrest soon after lung resection surgery²⁶. The patient was still alive after 6 months despite developing a mediastinal haematoma that required surgical drainage and blood transfusions²⁶. Low-dose thrombolysis has also been successfully used in the treatment of a patient with submassive PE and right heart thrombus following cardiac surgery²⁷.

No thrombolysis Surgical embolectomy

First successfully performed by Kirschner in 1924, surgical embolectomy fell out of favour following the advent of thrombolytic therapy in the 1970s. However, the risk of bleeding associated with systemic thrombolysis has meant that this modality has re-emerged as a treatment of choice for patients in whom systemic thrombolysis is contraindicated. According to the ESC guidelines, surgical embolectomy should be considered (where surgical expertise and resources are available) in such patients and in those in whom thrombolysis has been unsuccessful in achieving haemodynamic stability. This procedure may also be a consideration in patients with acute PE who require surgical excision of the right atrial thrombus or closure of a patent foramen ovale to prevent paradoxical emboli.

Results from small retrospective analyses have previously shown that surgical embolectomy is an effective treatment modality with 30-day mortality figures of 6 to 8%. This includes critically unwell patients presenting with cardiogenic shock and cardiorespiratory arrest requiring cardiopulmonary resuscitation^{28,29}. More recently, a multi-centre analysis of over 200 patients by Keeling *et al.* quoted in-hospital mortality of 11.7%³⁰. This included patients who experienced pre-operative cardiac arrest³⁰.

Table 1 presents a comparison of mortality rates following surgical embolectomy^{28–35}.

The role of surgical embolectomy in the management of patients in whom thrombolysis is not contraindicated is more controversial, particularly because of the paucity of head-to-head trials comparing the two treatment modalities. Nevertheless, recently published data suggest that short- and long-term mortality rates from the two interventions are comparable³⁴. Furthermore, surgical embolectomy has been associated with similar intracranial bleeding rates but fewer major bleeding complications compared with thrombolysis.

Surgical embolectomy has also been shown to result in a greater difference between pre- and early post-operative systolic pulmonary artery pressure and RV diameter in patients presenting with acute high-risk PE compared with thrombolysis³⁶. Additionally,

Table 1. Comparison of mortality rates following surgical embolectomy.

| Study | Number of centres | Number of patients | Type of patients | Mortality |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Lee <i>et al.</i> ³⁴ (2018) | Multi-centre (New York state) | 257 | Not specified | 13.2% 30-day mortality 23.9% 5-year mortality |
| Pasrija <i>et al.</i> ³¹ (2018) | Single-centre | 55 | Massive and submassive | 7% in-hospital mortality 9% 1-year mortality |
| Lehnert <i>et al.</i> ³⁵ (2017) | Single-centre | 41 | High- and intermediate-risk | High risk: 14% 30-day mortality and 32% 5-year mortality Intermediate risk: 23% 5-year mortality |
| Keeling <i>et al.</i> ³⁰ (2016) | Multi-centre (four centres) | 214 | Massive and submassive | 11.7% in-hospital mortality |
| Aymard <i>et al.</i> ³² (2013) | Single-centre | 28 | Massive | 17% long-term (over mean 63 ± 21-month follow-up) mortality |
| Wu <i>et al.</i> ³³ (2013) | Single-centre | 25 | High-risk | 20% in-hospital mortality |
| Kadner <i>et al.</i> ²⁹ (2008) | Single-centre | 25 | Central and paracentral pulmonary embolism | 8% 30-day mortality |
| Leacche <i>et al.</i> ²⁸ (2005) | Single-centre | 47 | Massive | 14% 1-year mortality 17% 3-year mortality |

Lehnert *et al.* demonstrated that surgical embolectomy resulted in a significantly lower amount of residual emboli compared with thrombolysis³⁵.

Catheter-directed techniques

The growing role of percutaneous interventions in modern medicine has led to an interest in the development of similar strategies for the treatment of PE, especially in patients in whom thrombolysis is contraindicated or not indicated. Various modalities of catheter-directed mechanical thrombectomy and localised low-dose thrombolysis have been developed over the past few years. Although data related to their use are limited at present, it is expected that the next few years will see further progress in this regard.

The Pulmonary Embolism Response to Fragmentation, Embolectomy, and Catheter Thrombolysis (PERFECT) data study assessed clinical outcomes using changes in mean pulmonary artery pressure and right heart strain in 101 patients who underwent catheter-directed or pharmaco-mechanical thrombectomy and/or catheter-directed thrombolysis for massive or submassive PE. Data from the study suggested improved clinical outcomes in these patients. Additionally, the average dose of thrombolysis was lower than that used for systemic therapy and there were no major bleeding complications³⁷.

Ultrasound-assisted catheter-directed thrombolysis

The addition of ultrasound assistance to localised catheter-directed thrombolysis is postulated to facilitate the delivery of the thrombolytic agent to the intended target and additionally accelerate fibrinolysis by causing disruption of uncrosslinked fibrin fibres into smaller fibres³⁸. However, a retrospective comparison of ultrasound-assisted and standard catheter-directed

thrombolysis by Liang *et al.* revealed no significant difference in outcomes or complication rates between the two techniques³⁹. More recently, similar results were reported by Schissler *et al.*, who found no significant differences in length of hospital admission, RV dysfunction on follow-up echocardiography and 1-year mortality in patients who received this treatment modality compared with standard anticoagulation alone⁴⁰. The SEATTLE II trial is thus far the largest study looking at the efficacy and safety of ultrasound-assisted catheter-directed fibrinolysis. One hundred fifty patients with either massive or submassive PE were given 24 mg of tPA, administered by either unilateral or bilateral catheters. The change in RV-to-left ventricle (LV) diameter ratio was used as the primary efficacy outcome. The trial showed a mean reduction of 0.42 along with a statistically significant reduction in mean pulmonary artery systolic pressure. Although one patient had a severe bleed in the form of a groin haematoma resulting in hypotension, there were no intracranial bleeds⁴¹. It is worth noting, however, that this was a single-arm trial which involved no head-to-head comparison with other therapeutic modalities. Similar physiological improvements were noted by Kaymaz *et al.*, who assessed outcomes in 141 patients who received this modality⁴². Interestingly, bleeding rates and long- and short-term mortality were not related to age⁴².

A randomised controlled trial comparison of additional ultrasound-assisted catheter-directed thrombolysis with anticoagulation versus anticoagulation alone was carried out by Kucher *et al.*⁴³. The addition of ultrasound assistance resulted in a significant reduction in RV dilatation compared with anticoagulation alone. No increased risk of bleeding was demonstrated⁴³. A trial comparing the safety and efficacy of this modality with peripheral, low-dose thrombolysis is ongoing⁴⁴.

Recruitment into another trial comparing standard and ultrasound-assisted catheters is already under way, and both short- and long-term outcomes are being compared⁴⁵. Additionally, the Optimum Duration of Acoustic Pulse Thrombolysis Procedure in Acute Pulmonary Embolism (OPTALYSE PE) study is attempting to determine the ideal dose of thrombolytic agent and length of ultrasound procedure in patients with submassive PE⁴⁶.

Mechanical embolectomy

Like catheter-directed therapy, mechanical embolectomy is used relatively infrequently in clinical practice and data regarding its use have historically been limited to isolated case reports and cohort studies involving small numbers of patients. This treatment modality was recently the subject of the multicentre FlowTriever Pulmonary Embolectomy (FLARE) Clinical Study trial, which assessed the use of an aspiration catheter in 106 patients with intermediate-risk PE⁴⁷. Preliminary results suggest a significant reduction in RV size and a relatively low rate of major adverse events⁴⁸. However, in the absence of a control group, it is difficult to draw any definitive conclusions regarding its long-term feasibility outside a trial setting. Nevertheless, the FlowTriever system recently received US Food and Drug Administration approval for the treatment of PE in the US and this may lead to a more widespread use of this technology in the future.

Thrombus fragmentation with the injection of saline at high velocity, so-called rheolytic embolectomy, is another form of mechanical embolectomy that has been used in the management of acute PE. The smaller fragments can then be suctioned out of the vessel with a catheter. This technique has been described in various case reports, including in an especially challenging case involving a patient with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and a recent ischaemic stroke who subsequently presented with an acute PE⁴⁹. However, data from small cohort studies have not been as encouraging. In a meta-analysis of various modern catheter-directed thrombolysis modalities, Kuo *et al.* found that this technique was associated with the highest complication rates, including five deaths in the total cohort of 68⁵⁰. Additionally, although Zeni *et al.* reported good immediate angiographic improvement following the use of rheolytic embolectomy in 17 patients, 10 subsequently required an adjuvant thrombolytic infusion⁵¹.

The use of a rotational catheter to cause thrombus fragmentation and at least partial clearance of a central embolic occlusion

has also been described. This technique can be combined with localised infusion of a thrombolytic agent to improve its effectiveness⁵². However, despite approval for use of a rotational thrombectomy system in the treatment of peripheral and arteriovenous dialysis fistulae thrombosis in the US, data regarding its role in the management of patients with pulmonary emboli are lacking.

Pulmonary embolism response teams

In 2012, Massachusetts General Hospital introduced the pulmonary embolism response team (PERT). The team is composed of specialists from a number of clinical backgrounds and provides expert multi-disciplinary evaluation and management input for intermediate- and high-risk patients with PE⁵³. Although initial data suggested that the most common treatment recommended by the team was anticoagulation alone, 11% of patients received systemic or catheter-directed thrombolysis. Additionally, PERT activations increased by 16% every 6 months over the course of the initial 30-month period, highlighting the potentially greater role that such teams are likely to play in the management of acute PE in the future⁵⁴. The argument for the use of such teams is strengthened by a recent analysis of outcomes for patients treated by activation of the PERT pathway in Kentucky. This showed significantly lower intensive care unit and overall in-hospital length of stay compared with patients treated at the discretion of the attending team alone. However, there was no statistically significant difference in mortality between the two groups⁵⁵.

A number of other PERT programmes have subsequently been developed in the US and led to the development of the PERT Consortium, which intends to be “the driving force behind increased survival rates and the future of PE treatment”⁵⁶.

Conclusions

The optimum management of acute PE continues to be a clinical challenge. The early management of intermediate-risk disease, in particular, remains a subject of debate. Although anticoagulation continues to be the mainstay of treatment, head-to-head trials of reperfusion strategies are still needed. PE referral centres and PERTs will facilitate multi-disciplinary decision-making for treatment of higher-risk patients and hopefully improve patient outcomes.

Grant information

The author(s) declared that no grants were involved in supporting this work.

References

- Huerta C, Johansson S, Wallander MA, *et al.*: **Risk factors and short-term mortality of venous thromboembolism diagnosed in the primary care setting in the United Kingdom.** *Arch Intern Med.* 2007; **167**(9): 935–43. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
- British Lung Foundation: **Pulmonary embolism statistics.** (accessed 17 June 2018). [Reference Source](#)
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: **Venous thromboembolism (blood clots).** (accessed 17 June 2018). [Reference Source](#)
- Cohen AT, Agnelli G, Anderson FA, *et al.*: **Venous thromboembolism (VTE) in Europe. The number of VTE events and associated morbidity and mortality.** *Thromb Haemost.* 2007; **98**(4): 756–64. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)



5. **F** Jaff MR, McMurtry MS, Archer SL, *et al.*: Management of massive and submassive pulmonary embolism, iliofemoral deep vein thrombosis, and chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2011; 123(16): 1788–830. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
6. **F** Goldhaber SZ, Visani L, de Rosa M: Acute pulmonary embolism: clinical outcomes in the International Cooperative Pulmonary Embolism Registry (ICOPER). *Lancet*. 1999; 353(9162): 1386–9. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
7. Kasper W, Konstantinides S, Geibel A, *et al.*: Management strategies and determinants of outcome in acute major pulmonary embolism: results of a multicenter registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1997; 30(5): 1165–71. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
8. **F** Robertson L, Jones LE: Fixed dose subcutaneous low molecular weight heparins versus adjusted dose unfractionated heparin for the initial treatment of venous thromboembolism. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2017; 2: CD0041100. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
9. Nakamura S, Takano H, Kubota Y, *et al.*: Impact of the efficacy of thrombolytic therapy on the mortality of patients with acute submassive pulmonary embolism: a meta-analysis. *J Thromb Haemost*. 2014; 12(7): 1086–95. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
10. **F** Hao Q, Dong BR, Yue J, *et al.*: Thrombolytic therapy for pulmonary embolism. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (9): CD004437. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
11. **F** Wang TF, Squizzato A, Dentali F, *et al.*: The role of thrombolytic therapy in pulmonary embolism. *Blood*. 2015; 125(14): 2191–9. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [Free Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
12. **F** Marti C, John G, Konstantinides S, *et al.*: Systemic thrombolytic therapy for acute pulmonary embolism: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Heart J*. 2015; 36(10): 605–14. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [Free Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
13. **F** Daley MJ, Murthy MS, Peterson EJ: Bleeding risk with systemic thrombolytic therapy for pulmonary embolism: scope of the problem. *Ther Adv Drug Saf*. 2015; 6(2): 57–66. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [Free Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
14. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence: Venous thromboembolic diseases: diagnosis, management and thrombophilia testing. (accessed 17 June 2018). [Reference Source](#)
15. Konstantinides SV, Torbicki A, Agnelli G, *et al.*: 2014 ESC guidelines on the diagnosis and management of acute pulmonary embolism. *Eur Heart J*. 2014; 35(43): 3033–69, 3069a–3069k. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
16. **F** Kearon C, Akl EA, Ornelas J, *et al.*: Antithrombotic Therapy for VTE Disease: CHEST Guideline and Expert Panel Report. *Chest*. 2016; 149(2): 315–52. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
17. **F** Tebeb M, Porres-Aguilar M, Anaya-Ayala JE, *et al.*: Potential role of systemic thrombolysis in acute submassive intermediate risk pulmonary embolism: review and future perspectives. *Ther Adv Cardiovasc Dis*. 2016; 10(2): 103–10. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [Free Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
18. **F** Meyer G, Vicaut E, Danays T, *et al.*: Fibrinolysis for patients with intermediate-risk pulmonary embolism. *N Engl J Med*. 2014; 370(15): 1402–11. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
19. Chatterjee S, Chakraborty A, Weinberg I, *et al.*: Thrombolysis for pulmonary embolism and risk of all-cause mortality, major bleeding, and intracranial hemorrhage: a meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2014; 311(23): 2414–21. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
20. Wan S, Quinlan DJ, Agnelli G, *et al.*: Thrombolysis compared with heparin for the initial treatment of pulmonary embolism: a meta-analysis of the randomized controlled trials. *Circulation*. 2004; 110(6): 744–9. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
21. Dong BR, Hao Q, Yue J, *et al.*: Thrombolytic therapy for pulmonary embolism. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009; (3): CD004437. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
22. **F** Jimenez D, Martin-Saborido C, Muriel A, *et al.*: Efficacy and safety outcomes of recanalisation procedures in patients with acute symptomatic pulmonary embolism: systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Thorax*. 2018; 73(5): 464–71. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
23. **F** Sharifi M, Bay C, Skrocki L, *et al.*: Moderate pulmonary embolism treated with thrombolysis (from the “MOPETT” Trial). *Am J Cardiol*. 2013; 111(2): 273–7. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
24. Wang C, Zhai Z, Yang Y, *et al.*: Efficacy and safety of low dose recombinant tissue-type plasminogen activator for the treatment of acute pulmonary thromboembolism: a randomized, multicenter, controlled trial. *Chest*. 2010; 137(2): 254–62. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
25. Goldhaber SZ, Feldstein ML, Sors H: Two trials of reduced bolus alteplase in the treatment of pulmonary embolism. An overview. *Chest*. 1994; 106(3): 725–6. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
26. **F** Shen L, Li Y, Hernandez-Arenas LA, *et al.*: Successful treatment of a pulmonary embolism with low dose of tissue plasminogen activator after thoracic surgery. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2016; 34(11): 2259.e5–2259.e6. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
27. **F** Burrage M, Gould P, McCann A: Half-Dose Thrombolysis in Submassive Pulmonary Embolism and Right-Heart Thrombus. *Heart Lung Circ*. 2016; 25(Supplement 2): S15. [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
28. **F** Leacche M, Unic D, Goldhaber SZ, *et al.*: Modern surgical treatment of massive pulmonary embolism: results in 47 consecutive patients after rapid diagnosis and aggressive surgical approach. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2005; 129(5): 1018–23. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
29. Kadner A, Schmidli J, Schönhoff F, *et al.*: Excellent outcome after surgical treatment of massive pulmonary embolism in critically ill patients. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2008; 136(2): 448–51. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
30. **F** Keeling WB, Sundt T, Leacche M, *et al.*: Outcomes After Surgical Pulmonary Embolectomy for Acute Pulmonary Embolus: A Multi-Institutional Study. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2016; 102(5): 1498–502. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
31. **F** Pasrija C, Kronfli A, Rouse M, *et al.*: Outcomes after surgical pulmonary embolectomy for acute submassive and massive pulmonary embolism: A single-center experience. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2018; 155(3): 1095–1106.e2. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
32. Aymard T, Kadner A, Widmer A, *et al.*: Massive pulmonary embolism: surgical embolectomy versus thrombolytic therapy—should surgical indications be revisited? *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg*. 2013; 43(1): 90–4; discussion 94. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
33. Wu MY, Liu YC, Tseng YH, *et al.*: Pulmonary embolectomy in high-risk acute pulmonary embolism: the effectiveness of a comprehensive therapeutic algorithm including extracorporeal life support. *Resuscitation*. 2013; 84(10): 1365–70. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
34. **F** Lee T, Itagaki S, Chiang YP, *et al.*: Survival and recurrence after acute pulmonary embolism treated with pulmonary embolectomy or thrombolysis in New York State, 1999 to 2013. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2018; 155(3): 1084–1090.e12. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
35. **F** Lehnert P, Möller CH, Mortensen J, *et al.*: Surgical embolectomy compared to thrombolysis in acute pulmonary embolism: morbidity and mortality. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg*. 2017; 51(2): 354–61. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
36. **F** Azari A, Beheshti AT, Moravvej Z, *et al.*: Surgical embolectomy versus thrombolytic therapy in the management of acute massive pulmonary embolism: Short and long-term prognosis. *Heart Lung*. 2015; 44(4): 335–9. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
37. **F** Kuo WT, Banerjee A, Kim PS, *et al.*: Pulmonary Embolism Response to Fragmentation, Embolectomy, and Catheter Thrombolysis (PERFECT): Initial Results From a Prospective Multicenter Registry. *Chest*. 2015; 148(3): 667–73. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
38. **F** Braaten JV, Goss RA, Francis CW: Ultrasound reversibly disaggregates fibrin fibers. *Thromb Haemost*. 1997; 78(3): 1063–8. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
39. **F** Liang NL, Avgerinos ED, Marone LK, *et al.*: Comparative Outcomes of Ultrasound-Assisted Thrombolysis and Standard Catheter-Directed Thrombolysis in the Treatment of Acute Pulmonary Embolism. *Vasc Endovascular Surg*. 2016; 50(6): 405–10. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
40. **F** Schissler AJ, Gylln RJ, Sobieszczyk PS, *et al.*: Ultrasound-assisted catheter-directed thrombolysis compared with anticoagulation alone for treatment of intermediate-risk pulmonary embolism. *Pulm Circ*. 2018; 8(4): 2045894018800265. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [Free Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
41. **F** Piazza G, Hohlfelder B, Jaff MR, *et al.*: A Prospective, Single-Arm, Multicenter Trial of Ultrasound-Facilitated, Catheter-Directed, Low-Dose Fibrinolysis for Acute Massive and Submassive Pulmonary Embolism: The SEATTLE II Study. *JACC Cardiovasc Interv*. 2015; 8(10): 1382–92. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
42. **F** Kaymaz C, Akbal OY, Hakgor A, *et al.*: A five-year, single-centre experience on ultrasound-assisted, catheter-directed thrombolysis in patients with pulmonary embolism at high risk and intermediate to high risk. *EuroIntervention*. 2018; 14(10): 1136–43. [PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
43. Kucher N, Boekstegers P, Müller OJ, *et al.*: Randomized, controlled trial of

- ultrasound-assisted catheter-directed thrombolysis for acute intermediate-risk pulmonary embolism. *Circulation*. 2014; **129**(4): 479–86.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
44. **Peripheral Systemic Thrombolysis Versus Catheter Directed Thrombolysis for Submassive PE.** (accessed 4 Feb 2019).
[Reference Source](#)
 45. **Standard vs Ultrasound-assisted Catheter Thrombolysis for Submassive Pulmonary Embolism.** (accessed 1 July 2018).
[Reference Source](#)
 46. **Optimum Duration of Acoustic Pulse Thrombolysis Procedure in Acute Pulmonary Embolism.** (accessed 1 July 2018).
[Reference Source](#)
 47. **FlowTriever Pulmonary Embolectomy Clinical Study.** (accessed 26 June 2018).
[Reference Source](#)
 48. Tu T: **Prospective, single-arm, multicenter trial of catheter-directed mechanical thrombectomy for intermediate-risk acute Pulmonary embolism: the FLARE study.** Presented at: SCAI 2018. April 27, 2018. San Diego, CA.
[Reference Source](#)
 49. **F** Zuin M, Rigatelli G, Roncon L: **Rheolytic thrombectomy in patient with acute pulmonary embolism, heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and recent stroke. When percutaneous treatment is the only therapeutic alternative.** *Perfusion*. 2016; **31**(8): 703–705, pii: 0267659116646845.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
 50. Kuo WT, Gould MK, Louie JD, *et al.*: **Catheter-directed therapy for the treatment of massive pulmonary embolism: systematic review and meta-analysis of modern techniques.** *J Vasc Interv Radiol*. 2009; **20**(11): 1431–40.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
 51. Zeni PT Jr, Blank BG, Peeler DW: **Use of rheolytic thrombectomy in treatment of acute massive pulmonary embolism.** *J Vasc Interv Radiol*. 2003; **14**(12): 1511–5.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
 52. Schmitz-Rode T, Janssens U, Duda SH, *et al.*: **Massive pulmonary embolism: percutaneous emergency treatment by pigtail rotation catheter.** *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2000; **36**(2): 375–80.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
 53. Provias T, Dudzinski DM, Jaff MR, *et al.*: **The Massachusetts General Hospital Pulmonary Embolism Response Team (MGH PERT): creation of a multidisciplinary program to improve care of patients with massive and submassive pulmonary embolism.** *Hosp Pract (1995)*. 2014; **42**(1): 31–7.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#)
 54. **F** Kabrhel C, Rosovsky R, Channick R, *et al.*: **A Multidisciplinary Pulmonary Embolism Response Team: Initial 30-Month Experience With a Novel Approach to Delivery of Care to Patients With Submassive and Massive Pulmonary Embolism.** *Chest*. 2016; **150**(2): 384–93.
[PubMed Abstract](#) | [Publisher Full Text](#) | [F1000 Recommendation](#)
 55. Xenos ES, Davis G, Green A, *et al.*: **The Implementation of a Pulmonary Embolism Response Team in the Management of Pulmonary Embolism.** *J Vasc Surg*. 2018; **67**(1): e13–e14.
[Publisher Full Text](#)
 56. PERT Consortium: **About the PERT Consortium.** (accessed 18 June 2018).
[Reference Source](#)

Open Peer Review

Current Peer Review Status:  

Editorial Note on the Review Process

F1000 Faculty Reviews are written by members of the prestigious F1000 Faculty. They are commissioned and are peer reviewed before publication to ensure that the final, published version is comprehensive and accessible. The reviewers who approved the final version are listed with their names and affiliations.

The reviewers who approved this article are:

Version 1

1 **Olivier Sanchez**

Paris Descartes University; Pneumology and intensive care unit, Hôpital Européen Georges Pompidou, APHP, , INSERM UMRS 1140, Paris, France

Competing Interests: No competing interests were disclosed.

2 **Debabrata Mukherjee**

Division of Cardiovascular Diseases, Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center, El Paso, Texas, USA

Competing Interests: No competing interests were disclosed.

The benefits of publishing with F1000Research:

- Your article is published within days, with no editorial bias
- You can publish traditional articles, null/negative results, case reports, data notes and more
- The peer review process is transparent and collaborative
- Your article is indexed in PubMed after passing peer review
- Dedicated customer support at every stage

For pre-submission enquiries, contact research@f1000.com

F1000Research