

ASSESSMENT OF VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM RISK AND EVALUATION OF EFFECTIVE PRACTICE PATTERNS OF THROMBOPROPHYLAXIS IN HOSPITALISED MEDICAL PATIENTS

Yousef Ali¹, Srinivasa Rao², Koyilada Shiva Kumar³

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Internal Medicine, PES Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Kuppam, Andhra Pradesh.

²Professor and HOD, Department of Internal Medicine, PES Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Kuppam, Andhra Pradesh.

³Resident, Department of Internal Medicine, PES Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Kuppam, Andhra Pradesh.

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND

Venous thromboembolism is a significant cause of increased mortality and disability and despite the availability of clinical guidelines and various risk assessment scores, thromboprophylaxis continues to be underutilised in the hospitalised patients. The objectives of the present study were to evaluate the medical patients for venous thromboembolism risk and to assess the appropriate practice patterns of thromboprophylaxis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

100 medical inpatients admitted at P.E.S. Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Kuppam from November 2017 to April 2018 were randomly selected in this retrospective observational study and were assessed for VTE risk factors and effective prophylaxis patterns according to the American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) evidence-based consensus guidelines.

RESULTS

As per the Padua prediction score in our study, 69% of the medical patients were at a high risk of developing VTE out of whom only 30.4% received effective thromboprophylaxis and 65.21% did not receive any thromboprophylaxis. 31% were at a low risk to develop VTE out of which 3% received effective thromboprophylaxis.

CONCLUSION

Effective Thromboprophylaxis is underutilised in the at-risk population thereby increasing the morbidity and mortality. This necessitates increasing the awareness about VTE risk. There is a strong need for a standard hospital policy for VTE risk assessment and effective thromboprophylaxis in hospitalized patients.

KEYWORDS

Venous thromboembolism risk assessment, Thromboprophylaxis.

HOW TO CITE THIS ARTICLE: Ali Y, Rao S, Shiva Kumar K. Assessment of venous thromboembolism risk and evaluation of effective practice patterns of thromboprophylaxis in hospitalised medical patients. *J. Evid. Based Med. Healthc.* 2018; 5(23), 1769-1774. DOI: 10.18410/jebmh/2018/370

BACKGROUND

Venous thromboembolism (VTE) represents a spectrum of diseases that include deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism (PE). It is a major source of morbidity and mortality for hospitalised patients. It is the most common preventable cause of hospital-related death,¹ yet despite the availability of clinical guidelines, thromboprophylaxis continues to be underutilised^{1,2} and has been identified as

*Financial or Other, Competing Interest: None.
Submission 30-04-2018, Peer Review 05-05-2018,
Acceptance 12-05-2018, Published 02-06-2018.*

Corresponding Author:

*Dr. Srinivasa Rao,
Professor and HOD,
Department of Internal Medicine,
PES Institute of Medical Sciences and Research,
#G-01, B Block, Professors Quarters,
Kuppam – 517425, Andhra Pradesh.
E-mail: docsrao@gmail.com
DOI: 10.18410/jebmh/2018/370*



“the number one strategy to improve patient safety in hospitals.”³

Both clinically symptomatic and asymptomatic episodes of VTE are common in hospitalized patients⁴, and are associated with high mortality.^{5,6,7,8} Autopsy studies have shown that approximately 10% of all inpatients deaths are due to PE, but only a small proportion of PE are suspected before death.^{9,10} Until the mid 90s, most studies focused on surgical patients, given their high incidence of VTE. As a consequence, the notion about the need for VTE prophylaxis in surgical population gained acceptance. More recently, randomized controlled trials have highlighted the fact that the risk of VTE in patients with medical conditions is similar to that of some surgical patients.^{11,12} Additionally, some epidemiological studies have demonstrated that more than half of patients who develop symptomatic VTE have medical, not surgical conditions.¹³

Therefore, the analysis of the importance of risk factors in hospitalized medical patients is crucial to define the risk-benefit of VTE prophylaxis utilization. A systematic review of

risk factors for VTE was performed, evaluating the current evidence about the factors that could justify the use of VTE prophylaxis in this population.¹⁴

VTE risk stratification is performed by initially considering the patient's age, mobility level, and comorbidities. Individuals aged 40 years and over, with reduced mobility and at least one additional risk factor (among the following: stroke, cancer, central and Swan-Ganz catheters, bowel inflammatory disease, severe respiratory disease, acute rheumatic disease, pregnancy and postpartum, previous VTE history, acute myocardial infarction (AMI), class III or IV congestive heart failure (CHF), infections, arterial insufficiency, intensive care unit admission, obesity, lower limb weakness/paralysis, chemo/hormonal therapy, hormone replacement therapy, nephrotic syndrome, and thrombophilia) for VTE should be considered at risk. In the absence of contraindications, prophylaxis is indicated.¹⁵

Aims and Objectives

To identify hospitalized medical patients at risk of VTE and to determine the proportion of patients receiving effective VTE prophylaxis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

100 medical inpatients admitted at P.E.S Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Kuppam from November 2017 to April 2018 were randomly selected in this retrospective observational study using the case records as the primary source of data. These patients were assessed for VTE risk factors and effective prophylaxis patterns according to the American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) evidence-based consensus guidelines.

Inclusion Criteria

All the Hospitalised medical patients who were admitted for more than 72 hours.

Exclusion Criteria

All Patients with suspected or diagnosed venous thromboembolic disease on admission and the patients whose hospital stay was less than 72 hours were excluded.

RESULTS

Male	Female
49%	51%

Table 1. Gender Distribution of Medical Patients (n=100)

Age Groups	Number of Patients
< 40 Years	8%
41-60 Years	31%
61-80 Years	44%
>80 Years	17%

Table 2. Age distribution of Medical Patients

Risk Factors	Medical Patients
Immobility	29%
Cancer	15%
Cancer Therapy	10%
Age >70 Years	37%
Acute Medical Illness	28%
Obesity	6%
Pulmonary Diseases	38%
Heart Failure	12%
Other Cardiac Disorders	23%
Pregnancy/Postpartum Period	0%
Oral Contraceptives	0%

Table 3. Risk Factors for Venous Thromboembolism

Contraindications	Medical Patients
Significant renal impairment	11.59% (8/69)
Intracranial Haemorrhage	1.44% (1/69)
Low platelet count <1 L	4.34% (3/69)
Known bleeding disorder	0%
Hepatic Impairment	5.79% (4/69)
Bleeding at Admission	7.24% (5/69)
Active Gastroduodenal ulcer	4.34% (3/69)
Aspirin on Admission	15.94% (11/69)
NSAIDS on Admission	0%

Table 4. Contraindications to Pharmacoprophylaxis

Pharmacoprophylaxis	Medical Patients
LMWH	26% (18/69)
LDUH	2.89% (2/69)
FONDAPARINUX	0
OTHERS	0
Mechanical Prophylaxis	
IPC	4.37% (3/69)
GCS	5.79% (4/69)
FOOT PUMPS	0

Table 5. Types of VTE Prophylaxis

LMWH - Low Molecular Weight Heparin.
 LDUH - Low Dose Unfractionated Heparin.
 GCS – Graduated compression stockings,
 IPC – Intermittent Pneumatic Compression.

Recommendations for Venous Thromboembolism risk assessment¹⁶

1. The use of Modified Wells Score for pretest probability assessment in outpatients with clinical suspicion of DVT is suggested.
2. In hospitalized patients considered to be at high risk of VTE, the use of PADUA score, for risk assessment is suggested.
3. In patients who are undergoing general and abdominal-pelvic surgery, the use of Caprini score to assess the risk of VTE is suggested.

In our study we have used the Padua Prediction Score¹⁷ for risk assessment in medical inpatients.

Parameters	Score
Active cancer (local or distant metastases and/or in whom chemotherapy/ radiotherapy in previous 6 months).	3
Previous VTE (with the exclusion of superficial vein thrombosis)	3
Reduced mobility (Bed rest with bathroom privileges due to patient's limitations or on physician's order) for > 3 days.	3
Already known thrombophilic condition (Carriage of defects of Anti-thrombin, Protein C or S, Factor V Leiden, G20210A Prothrombin mutation, Anti-phospholipid syndrome)	3
Recent (<1 month) trauma and/or surgery	2
Elderly patient with age >70 years	1
Heart and/or respiratory failure	1
Acute myocardial infarction or ischemic stroke	1
Acute infection and/or rheumatologic disorder	1
Obesity (BMI >30 kg/m ²)	1
Ongoing hormonal treatment	1

Table 6. Padua Prediction Score

	Number of Patients	Effective Thromboprophylaxis	Ineffective Thromboprophylaxis	No Prophylaxis
High Risk	69%	30.43%(21)	4.33%(3)	65.21(45)
Low Risk	31%	9.67%(3)	9.67%(3)	80%(25)

Table 7

DISCUSSION

Hospitalised medical patients are at a particularly high risk of developing a thrombotic event. This study demonstrated high occurrence of patients at-risk for VTE. We also assessed the current thromboprophylaxis practice in order to optimize practice patterns for appropriate use of thromboprophylaxis. The proportion of Indian patients considered at risk for VTE (53.6%) was similar to that of the global patients at risk for VTE (51.8%).¹⁸ The global ENDORSE data showed that 50.2 per cent at-risk patients received ACCP-recommended prophylaxis, while in India, very low proportion of at-risk patients (17.4%) received ACCP-recommended prophylaxis.¹⁸

The Indian data from ENDORSE study revealed that despite a similar proportion of patients at risk in India and other participating countries, there is major underutilization of prophylaxis (17.4%) in India as compared to higher usage of prophylaxis globally (50.2%).¹⁸ According to the ENDORSE global study, higher percentage of at-risk medical patients received ACCP-recommended prophylaxis countries such as Germany (70%), Colombia (64%), Spain (64%) and Switzerland (61%).^{19,20,21,22}

A similar study done at a Lebanese hospital has shown appropriateness of VTE prophylaxis in 51.2 % to 67.2 % of the patients.²³

In the present study out of the 69% of the high risk medical patient population only 30.4% received effective thromboprophylaxis for VTE and 4.33% of the high-risk patients received ineffective thromboprophylaxis and 65.21% of the high risk medical patient population did not receive any effective thromboprophylaxis. Among the low risk population only 3% received effective

Interpretation

If the score is <4: Low risk of VTE
 If the score if ≥4: High risk of VTE

As per the Padua Prediction Score in our study 69% of the medical patients were at a high risk of developing VTE and 31 % were at a low risk to develop VTE.

As per the American College of Chest Physicians Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines out of the 69% of the high risk medical patient population only 30.4% received effective thromboprophylaxis for VTE and 4.33% of the high-risk patients received ineffective thromboprophylaxis and 65.21% of the high risk medical patient population did not receive any thromboprophylaxis and among the low risk group only 3% received effective thromboprophylaxis.

thromboprophylaxis. This could be either due to lack of identification of risk factors or risk assessment by the Padua Prediction Score due to lack of proper awareness and understanding of the guidelines.

The Indian data are in agreement with the results of earlier studies from India and emphasize the underutilization of prophylaxis.²⁴ The Prospective Registry on venous thromboembolic Events (PROVE) study showed that only 7 per cent of patients with confirmed symptomatic DVT received appropriate thromboprophylaxis.²⁴ Although critically ill patients require more intensive and prolonged thromboprophylaxis, earlier studies have demonstrated that only half the patients in multidisciplinary critical care units (44-47%) had received thromboprophylaxis.^{25,26}

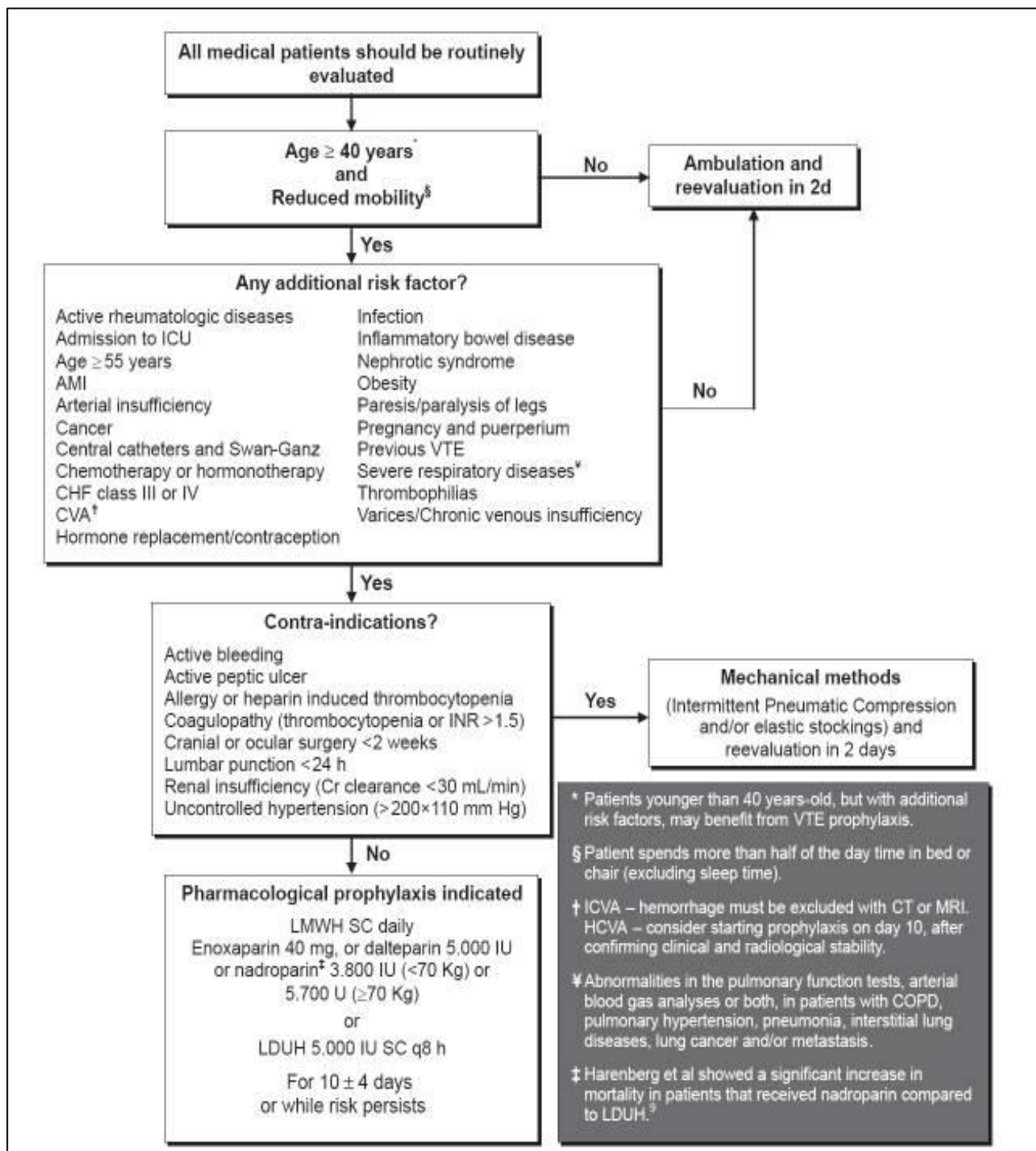
The most common reasons for the underutilization might be bleeding complications as contraindications to anticoagulants.²⁷ However, the inadequacy of thromboprophylaxis cannot be explained only by contraindications to anticoagulant use, since mechanical thromboprophylaxis was also underutilized. Earlier evidence has shown that LMWH is as effective and safe as UFH for treatment of VTE.^{28,29} However, since LMWH is associated with lower incidence of thrombocytopenia and osteoporosis during long-term use, it is generally preferred over UFH despite its high cost.³⁰

In the Present Study

1. The maximum number of patients (44%) were in the age group of 60-80 years.
2. The most common risk factor for VTE was pulmonary diseases (38%).

3. The most common contraindication for pharmacoprophylaxis was use of aspirin on admission (15.94%).

4. The most common type of thromboprophylaxis used was LMWH (26%).



Algorithm for VTE Prevention in Hospitalized Medical Patients.¹⁴

Medical Conditions

1. For acutely ill medical patients admitted to the hospital with CHF or severe respiratory disease, or who are confined to bed and have one or more additional risk factors, including active cancer, previous VTE, sepsis, acute neurologic disease, or inflammatory bowel disease, we recommend thromboprophylaxis with

LMWH (Grade 1A), low-dose UFH (Grade 1A), or fondaparinux (Grade 1A).
 2. For medical patients with risk factors for VTE and for whom there is a contraindication to anticoagulant thromboprophylaxis, we recommend the optimal use of mechanical thromboprophylaxis with GCSs or IPC devices (Grade 1A).

3. For acutely ill hospitalized medical patients at low risk of thrombosis, we recommend against the use of pharmacologic prophylaxis or mechanical prophylaxis (Grade 1B).

Acute Ischemic Stroke

1. For acute stroke patients with restricted mobility, we recommend prophylactic low-dose subcutaneous heparin or LMWH (Grade 1A).
2. For patients who have contraindications to anticoagulants, we recommend IPC devices or elastic stockings (Grade 1B).

Critical Care

1. For patients admitted to a critical care unit, we recommend routine assessment for VTE risk and routine thromboprophylaxis in most (Grade 1A).
2. For critical care patients who are at moderate risk for VTE (eg, medically ill or postoperative general surgery patients), we recommend using LMWH or low-dose UFH thromboprophylaxis (Grade 1A).
3. For critical care patients who are at high risk for bleeding, we recommend the optimal use of mechanical thromboprophylaxis with GCSs and/or IPC devices at least until the bleeding risk decreases (Grade 1A). When the high bleeding risk decreases, we recommend that pharmacologic thromboprophylaxis be substituted for or added to the mechanical thromboprophylaxis (Grade 1C).

Selected Recommendations on VTE Prevention from the ACCP Guidelines (9th Edition).³¹

CONCLUSION

Our results showed a high occurrence of VTE risk in hospitalised medical patients and underutilization of effective thromboprophylaxis to a large extent. This confirms the need for increasing awareness about VTE risk, use of risk assessment scores, and improved effective implementation of appropriate thromboprophylaxis in at-risk hospitalized patients. This will help in successful management of VTE and prevent the morbidity and mortality due to VTE.

VTE prophylaxis is recommended for acutely ill, hospitalized medical patients, age 40 years or older, with reduced mobility and at least one additional risk factor for VTE. Patients younger than 40 years of age, but presenting with important risk factors, may benefit from prophylaxis. When the algorithm for risk assessment indicates that VTE prophylaxis is recommended, LMWH once a day (enoxaparin 40 mg, dalteparin 5000 IU, nadroparin 3800 IU if ≤ 70 Kg or 5700 IU if ≥ 70 Kg) or LDUH 5000 IU SC every 8 h should be used. For patients older than 60 years, fondaparinux 2.5 mg once a day is also an option.

If there is contraindication for pharmacological prophylaxis, mechanical prophylaxis may be considered. However, all patients must be frequently re-evaluated for

the appearance of new indications or contraindications for prophylaxis during the hospitalization.

REFERENCES

- [1] Michota FA. Bridging the gap between evidence and practice in venous thromboembolism prophylaxis: the quality improvement process. *J Gen Intern Med* 2007;22(12):1762-1770.
- [2] Gallagher M, Oliver K, Hurwitz M. Improving the use of venous thromboembolism prophylaxis in an Australian teaching hospital. *Qual Saf Health Care* 2009;18(5):408-412.
- [3] Geerts WH, Bergqvist D, Pineo GF, et al. Prevention of venous thromboembolism: American College of Chest Physicians Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines (8th edition). *Chest* 2008;133(6 Suppl):381S-453S.
- [4] Goldhaber SZ, Tapson VF. A prospective registry of 5, 451 patients with ultrasound-confirmed deep vein thrombosis. *Am J Cardiol* 2004;93(2):259-262.
- [5] Maffei FH, Falleiros AT, Venezian CA, et al. Incidence and pathological anatomy of pulmonary thromboembolism in autopsies (author's transl). *AMB Rev Assoc Med Bras* 1980;26(1):7-10.
- [6] Anderson FA, Wheeler HB, Goldberg RJ, et al. A population based perspective of the hospital incidence and case-fatality rates of deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism. The Worcester DVT Study. *Arch Intern Med* 1991;151(5):933-938.
- [7] Lindblad B, Sternby NH, Bergqvist D. Incidence of venous thromboembolism verified by necropsy over 30 years. *BMJ* 1991;302(6778):709-711.
- [8] Golin V, Sprovieri SR, Bedrikow R, et al. Pulmonary thromboembolism: retrospective study of necropsies performed over 24 years in a university hospital in Brazil. *Sao Paulo Med J* 2002;120(4):105-108.
- [9] Pineda LA, Hathwar VS, Grant BJ. Clinical suspicion of fatal pulmonary embolism. *Chest* 2001;120(3):791-795.
- [10] Yoo HH, Mendes FG. Achados clinicopatológicos na tromboembolia pulmonar: estudo de 24 anos de autópsias. *J Bras Pneumol* 2004;30(5):426-432.
- [11] Kleber FX, Witt C, Vogel G, et al. Randomized comparison of enoxaparin with unfractionated heparin for the prevention of venous thromboembolism in medical patients with heart failure or severe respiratory disease. *Am Heart J* 2003;145(4):614-621.
- [12] Leizorovicz A, Cohen AT, Turpie AG, et al. Randomized, placebo controlled trial of dalteparin for the prevention of venous thromboembolism in acutely ill medical patients. *Circulation* 2004;110(7):874-879.
- [13] Goldhaber SZ, Kett DH, Cusumano CJ. Low molecular weight heparin versus mini-dose unfractionated heparin for prophylaxis against venous thromboembolism in medical intensive care unit patients: a randomized controlled trial (abstract). *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2000;35(Suppl):325A.

- [14] Rocha AT, Paiva EF, Lichtenstein A, et al. Risk-assessment algorithm and recommendations for venous thromboembolism prophylaxis in medical patients. *Vasc Health Risk Manag* 2007;3(4):533-553.
- [15] Kerbauy MN, de Moraes FY, Kerbauy LN, et al. Venous thromboprophylaxis in medical patients: an application review. *Rev Assoc Med Bras* 2013;59(3):258-264.
- [16] Parakh R, Krishna PR, Amin P, et al. Consensus on management of deep vein thrombosis with emphasis on NOACs (Non-Vitamin K Antagonist Oral Anticoagulants): recommendations from Inter-Disciplinary Group of Indian Experts. *J Assoc Physicians India* 2016;64(9):7-26.
- [17] Barbar S, Noventa F, Rossetto V, et al. A risk assessment model for the identification of hospitalized medical patients at risk for venous thromboembolism: the Padua Prediction Score. *J Thromb Haemost* 2010;8(11):2450-2457.
- [18] Cohen AT, Tapson VF, Bergmann JF, et al. Venous thromboembolism risk and prophylaxis in the acute hospital care setting (ENDORSE study): a multinational cross-sectional study. *Lancet* 2008;371(9610):387-394.
- [19] Zotz RB, Kauschat-Brüning D, Bramlage P, et al. Thromboembolic risk and prophylaxis in hospitalized surgical and internal medicine patients. German results of the international ENDORSE study. *Dtsch Med Wochenschr* 2009;134(43):2163-2169.
- [20] Dennis RJ, Roa JH, Villadiego J, et al. Venous thromboembolism prophylaxis in Colombian surgical and medical patients: results for Colombia of the ENDORSE study. *Biomedica* 2011;31(2):200-208.
- [21] Nieto Rodríguez JA. Venous thromboembolism risk and antithrombotic prophylaxis among patients admitted to Spanish hospitals (ENDORSE study). *Med Clin (Barc)* 2009;133(1):1-7.
- [22] Chopard P, Spirk D, Beer HJ, et al. Swiss results from a global observational study of venous thromboembolism risk and prophylaxis use in the acute care hospital setting: analysis from the ENDORSE study. *Swiss Med Wkly* 2009;139(43-44):630-635.
- [23] Zeitoun AA, Dimassi HI, El Kary DY, et al. An evaluation of practice pattern for venous thromboembolism prevention in Lebanese hospitals. *J Thromb Thrombolysis* 2009;28(2):192-199.
- [24] Pinjala RK, Agarwal MB, Turpie AGG, et al. A characterization of patients with symptomatic DVT in India. *J Thromb Haemost* 2005;3(Suppl 1):1043.
- [25] Todi SK, Sinha S, Chakraborty A, et al. Utilization of deep venous thrombosis prophylaxis in medical/surgical intensive care units. *Indian J Critical Care Med* 2003;7(2):103-105.
- [26] Ansari K, Dalal K, Patel M. Risk stratification and utilisation of thrombo-embolism prophylaxis in a medical-surgical ICU: a hospital-based study. *J Indian Med Assoc* 2007;105(9):536-538.
- [27] Mavalankar AP, Majmundar D, Rani S. Routine chemoprophylaxis for deep venous thrombosis in Indian patients: is it really justified? *Indian J Orthop* 2007;41(3):188-193.
- [28] Parakh R, Kakkar VV, Kakkar AK, et al. Management of venous thromboembolism. *J Assoc Physician India* 2007;55:49-70.
- [29] Agarwal S, Lee AD, Raju RS, et al. Venous thromboembolism: a problem in the Indian/Asian population? *Indian J Urol* 2009;25(1):11-16.
- [30] Lindhoff-Last E, Nakov R, Misselwitz F, et al. Incidence and clinical relevance of heparin-induced antibodies in patients with deep vein thrombosis treated with unfractionated or low-molecular-weight heparin. *Br J Haematol* 2002;118(4):1137-1142.
- [31] Kahn SR, Lim W, Dunn AS, et al. Prevention of VTE in nonsurgical patients: antithrombotic therapy and prevention of thrombosis, 9th ed: American College of Chest Physicians Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines. *Chest* 2012;141(2 Suppl):e195S-e226S.