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1	TITLE PAGE
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4	Article Title:
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ABSTRACT

The risk of venous thromboembolism (VTE) in outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy (OPAT) is not fully understood and the optimal strategy for thromboprophylaxis remains unclear. This systematic review investigated the incidence of VTE in OPAT settings (PROSPERO CRD42022381523). MEDLINE, CINAHL, EMCARE, EMBASE, Cochrane Library and grey literature were searched from earliest records to 18 January 2023. Eligible were primary studies reporting non-catheter-related or catheter-related thromboembolic (CRT) events in adults who received parenteral antibiotics in home or outpatient settings. In all, 43 studies involving 23,432 patient-episodes were reviewed. Four studies reported non-catheter related VTE while 39 included CRT. Based on generalised linear mixed-effects models, pooled risk estimates of non-catheterrelated VTE and CRT were 0.2% (95% confidence interval [CI], 0.0 - 0.7%) and 1.1% (95% CI, 0.8 - 1.5%; prediction interval [PI], 0.2 – 5.4%), respectively. Heterogeneity was largely attributed to risk of bias by meta-regression (R² = 21%). Excluding high-risk studies, CRT risk was 0.8% (95% CI, 0.5 - 1.2%; PI, 0.1 - 4.5%). From 25 studies, pooled CRT rate per 1,000 catheter-days was 0.37 (95% CI, 0.25 - 0.55; PI, 0.08 - 1.64). Our findings do not support universal thromboprophylaxis nor routine use of inpatient VTE risk assessment model in the OPAT setting. However, high index of suspicion should be maintained, especially for patients with known risk factors for VTE. An optimised protocol of OPAT-specific VTE risk assessment should be sought.

KEYWORDS:

Complications; deep vein thrombosis; outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy; risk assessment;
 systematic review; thromboembolism; vascular access device

62 **1. Introduction**

63 Outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy (OPAT) programmes are widely used to administer intravenous (IV) antibiotics via vascular access device to facilitate early hospital discharge and admission 64 avoidance of patients with infection. The effectiveness and safety of OPAT have been well documented [1-65 66 3]. Despite its benefits, patients receiving OPAT remain at risk of adverse events, including antibiotic-related and vascular access-related complications, which could result in unplanned hospital readmissions [4,5]. 67 68 Venous thromboembolism (VTE) is a common complication of intravascular access devices, and is 69 associated with interruption of antimicrobial therapy, unplanned readmission, increased healthcare costs, 70 post-thrombotic syndrome, and pulmonary embolism (PE) [6,7]. The potential risk of VTE in OPAT is further 71 increased by the presence of infection and restricted mobility [8]. VTE prophylaxis is an established standard of care for hospitalised patients after individualised risk assessment [9]. Appropriate 72 73 thromboprophylaxis in at-risk hospitalised patients has been shown to reduce risk of VTE and related mortality [10]. However, the risk of VTE in OPAT is not fully understood and the optimal strategy for 74 thromboprophylaxis for OPAT patients has not been established [11]. 75

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To guide strategy for optimal thromboprophylaxis in OPAT, this systematic review aims to examine the
 incidence of VTE in adult patients with infection treated with IV antimicrobials in home and outpatient
 settings.

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82 2. Material and methods

The protocol for this systematic review was registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews – PROSPERO (CRD42022381523) and complies with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) checklist (Supplementary Table A.1) [12].

86

87 2.1. Search strategy and Information sources

The search strategy and source of evidence were developed after an initial review of existing literature. In this systematic review, a three-step search strategy was utilised. An initial limited search of MEDLINE (PubMed) and CINAHL was undertaken followed by an analysis of the text words contained in the titles and abstracts, and of the index terms used to describe the articles. A second search using all identified keywords and index terms was then conducted across CINAHL, EMBASE (Ovid), Ovid Emcare, MEDLINE (PubMed) and the Cochrane Library. The reference lists of all identified articles were then searched for additional sources. Supplementary searches of clinical trial registries, Web of Science Conference Proceedings, Google/Google Scholar and the websites of the British Infection Association, European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, and Infectious Diseases Society of America were conducted to identify relevant unpublished work and grey literature. The search terms were generated based on the two main key terms (i.e., VTE and OPAT) and their corresponding alternative terms. The full search strategy is available in the Supplementary Table A.2. The search was not restricted by date of publication but was limited to studies published in English. The last electronic search was undertaken on 18 January 2023.

101

102 *2.2. Eligibility criteria*

Eligibility criteria were based on the PICO framework (population, intervention, comparator, and outcome) [13]. Studies were eligible if they reported catheter-related thromboembolism (CRT) and/or non-catheterrelated VTE (outcome) in adult patients (>16 years old) with infection (population) who received parenteral antibiotics in home or outpatient settings (intervention). Studies of any research design were considered (with the exception of commentaries, editorials, reviews and guidelines). Studies which did not allow for calculation of incidence rate of VTE were excluded (Supplementary Table A.3).

109

Due to limited studies on non-catheter-related VTE in OPAT, we considered conference abstracts as recommended by Scherer et al [14]. Scherer et al suggested that conference abstracts should be considered in systematic reviews if available evidence is sparse or conflicting. Attempts were made to contact the authors of the abstracts to obtain further information on study methods and results. Conference abstracts meeting our eligibility criteria were included in this systematic review if there were no full-length publications or no response from the author.

116

117 2.3. Study selection and data extraction

118 All publications identified by the searches were imported into EndNote reference management software. 119 After removing duplicate records, all identified articles were screened independently against the eligibility 120 criteria by two reviewers (OCD and JC). Disagreements were resolved by consensus or with a third reviewer 121 (EIK). Data were extracted independently from retrieved studies by all reviewers (OCD, JC, EIK) using a standardised and piloted data extraction spreadsheet. Extracted data included citation details (first author, 122 123 year and type of publication), location, study purpose, design, sample size, number of CRT and non-124 catheter-related thromboembolic events, duration of follow-up and main findings. Any discrepancies in 125 data extraction were discussed and resolved.

127 2.4. Quality assessment

128 Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) version 2018 was used to access the methodological quality of the 129 included studies [15]. Quality appraisal was independently performed by two reviewers (OCD and JC). Any 130 disagreement was resolved by discussion between the authors, and no studies were excluded based on the 131 results of the evaluation. The developers of MMAT discourage the calculation of an overall numerical score, 132 and exclusion of studies with low methodological quality [16]. Based on MMAT results, we assessed 133 separately the risks of selection bias and information bias and produced a classification of overall risk as 134 low, moderate or high as shown in Supplementary Table A.4. We used the latter to examine heterogeneity 135 related to risk of bias in meta-regression and subgroup analyses.

136

137 2.5. Meta-analysis

The primary study outcome was incidence of CRT and non-catheter-related VTE. We estimated populationaveraged incidence proportions pooled over the studies using a random intercept logistic regression model with maximum likelihood estimation [17]. The model assumed a Binomial distribution for the observed number of VTE cases in each study and a normal distribution for the random effects following the logit transformation. This approach correctly incorporates studies reporting zero cases and maintains confidence limits of pooled proportions within the zero to one range. The resulting confidence interval (CI) estimates the expected (average) VTE risk of all possible studies.

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Higgin-Thompson's I² statistic was used as a summary index of the amount of variability of VTE incidence 146 across studies that cannot be attributed to sampling error. Because I² is usually high and may not be 147 148 discriminative for prevalence or incidence data [18], we additionally reported between-study variance (τ^2) 149 with respective 95% prediction interval (PI). The PI describes the range of VTE risks that can be expected in 150 new studies [19]. We constructed a forest plot to illustrate the distribution of VTE incidence across the 151 studies along with 95% CIs calculated by Wilson's score method. To examine potential sources of variation 152 in VTE incidence among the studies, we conducted multivariable meta-regression analysis with the 153 Binomial-Normal mixed-effects model. Adjusted odds ratios (aORs) with respective 95% CI summarised the strength and direction of associations between study-level covariates and VTE incidence. For each 154 covariate, a covariate-specific R² was calculated as the portion of between-study variance that was reduced 155 156 after the inclusion of that covariate in the model (in the presence of all other variables). Moreover, for each 157 covariate level we calculated pooled estimates of VTE incidence based on univariate subgroup analysis.

158 Candidate covariates for the regression analysis were decided a priori in our study protocol [20]. The 159 following variables were examined: publication year, geographical location (WHO region), study design, and 160 risk of bias (classified as either low-to-moderate or high).

161

Leave-one-out sensitivity analysis was carried out to assess the robustness of pooled estimates of VTE incidence against excessively influential studies. To address time-dependent confounding due to studies recording VTE incidence over different risk periods, we sought studies reporting OPAT duration statistics, calculated incidence density rates (expressed as number of events per 1,000 catheter-days) and estimated population-averaged incidence rates based on a Poisson-Normal mixed-effects model. All analyses were carried out in STATA (Version 17; Statcorp, College Station, TX, USA).

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- 169

170 **3. Results**

171 *3.1.* Selection results and characteristics of the studies

172 Our initial electronic search yielded 18,436 different publications, of which 39 met the eligibility criteria. An 173 additional four articles were identified through hand-search of bibliographies and other sources. Hence, a 174 total of 43 publications (two conference abstracts [21,22], and 41 full-length articles [4,7,23-61]) were 175 included in our review (Fig. 1). Supplementary Table A.5 shows the details of the reviewed studies. The 176 studies were published between 2001 and 2023; and were carried out in the United States (n = 21) [25, 27, 177 32-34,36,37,40,42-47,50,53-56,58,59, United Kingdom (n = 6) [21,22,24,28,49,60], Australia (n = 6) 178 [7,29,48,51,52,57], New Zealand (n = 3) [30,31,61], Switzerland (n = 3) [26,37,39], Germany (n = 1) [23], 179 Canada (n = 1) [35], Netherlands (n = 1) [4], and Japan (n = 1) [41]. We did not find any studies conducted 180 in low-income countries. The period under study ranged from 6 months [17,33,36] to 13 years [49]. Study 181 sample sizes ranged from 11 to 4160 [23,29]. Overall, the reviewed studies included 23,432 (mean 545; 182 median, 231) patient-episodes, of whom 22,292 (mean 572; median, 247) and 1140 (mean 285; median, 183 154) were enrolled in studies that explored CRT and non-catheter-related thromboembolic events 184 respectively.

185

186 *3.2. Quality appraisal*

An overview of the quality appraisal is provided in Supplementary Tables A.6 and A.7. 15 (35%) studies were categorised as quantitative non-randomised studies [4,7,25,31,32,34,37,42-44,49,52-54,56], and 28 (65%) as quantitative descriptive studies [21-24,26-30,33,35,36,38-41,45-51,55,57-61]. There were no qualitative nor quantitative randomised controlled trials (RCTs). Using the MMAT tool, two studies [22,26] had one 'Yes' answer out of five criteria (weakest), while the strongest one [4] had five 'Yes' answers. Overall, six (14%) studies were assessed as having low risk of bias, 22 (51%) moderate, and 15 (35%) high risk of bias (Supplementary Table A.7). Inadequate information in the conference articles did not allow the rating questions to be adequately answered. Key quality issues were related to nonresponse bias, accounting for confounders, and appropriateness of the statistical analysis.

196

197 3.3. Incidence of VTE

198 Four studies (two full-length articles [24,52], and two conference abstracts [21,22]) examined the risk of 199 non-catheter-related VTE in OPAT. Barr et al. carried out a retrospective review over a 3-year period of 780 200 OPAT episodes who did not receive thromboprophylaxis and reported two cases of proximal lower limb 201 deep vein thrombosis (DVT) within 90 days of OPAT, giving a VTE incidence rate of 0.26% (95% CI, 0.03 – 202 0.92%) [24]. Kenyon et al. reported no VTE within 4 weeks of OPAT in their cohort of 94 patients over 40 203 years of age with cellulitis and who had no VTE prophylaxis [22]. Another study also reported zero incidence 204 of VTE among 214 patient episodes (who had no thromboprophylaxis) within 90 days of OPAT [21]. Ong et 205 al compared the outcomes of patients with cellulitis who received IV therapy in a Hospital in the Home 206 (HITH) programme with those treated in the hospital. They recorded one case of PE in the hospital group 207 but no VTE (PE/DVT) in the HITH group [52]. Pooling data from the four studies, the estimated incidence of 208 non-catheter-related VTE was 0.2% (95% CI, 0.0 – 0.7%) – Table 1. Heterogeneity statistics could not reliably 209 be estimated due to limited sample sizes, but heterogeneity should be considered low as the studies 210 consistently reported near zero events of non-catheter-related VTE.

211

212 CRT events were more commonly reported than were non-catheter-related VTE. The incidence risk of CRT 213 ranged from 0% to 7.7% among the 39 reviewed studies [4,7,23,25-51,53-61]. Some studies also reported the incidence of CRT in events per OPAT/IV catheter days [7,29,34,36,42,43,55]. In these studies, the 214 215 incidence rate ranged between 0 and 0.9 events per 1000 OPAT/IV catheter days. Only three studies directly 216 assessed risk factors for CRT in the OPAT setting [7,25,32]. In other studies, CRTs were reported as an OPAT 217 complication. A case-control study by Ingram et al. found malposition of catheter tip and complicated 218 catheter insertion as risk factors for thrombosis [7]. Another study identified younger age, history of DVT, discharge to a skilled-nursing facility and therapy with amphotericin B as risk factors for peripherally 219 220 inserted central catheter (PICC)-associated venous thrombosis [32]. Batayneh et al [25] did not identify a 221 risk factor for PICC-related DVT among their cohorts but observed that patients with diabetic mellitus were

less likely to develop DVTs. The reason for this finding is unclear and needs further clarification. All but one

- studies differentiated between catheter-related superficial and deep vein thrombosis. Chemaly et al. [32]
- 224 reported that 44% of upper extremity venous thromboses in their cohort were superficial but found no
- significant difference in mean time to diagnosis between deep and superficial thromboses.
- 226

227 Using the Binomial-Normal mixed-effects model, the estimated population-averaged risk of CRT was 1.1% 228 (95% CI, 0.8 – 1.5%). However, accounting for heterogeneity, the 95% PI indicated that CRT incidence in 229 future studies can be expected to range between 0.2% and 5.4%, pointing out considerable predictive 230 uncertainty (Fig. 2). As seen in Table 2, multivariable meta-regression analysis showed no significant 231 variation of CRT incidence of in relation to year of study, region, or study design. However, risk of bias was 232 a main driver of heterogeneity, explaining 21% of the between-study variance. Studies with high risk of bias 233 had significantly greater incidence of CRT than studies classified as low or moderate risk of bias (adjusted odds ratio, 2.48; 95% CI, 1.20 - 5.14; p = 0.019). Excluding the high-risk studies, estimated average risk of 234 235 CRT was 0.8% (95% CI, 0.5 - 1.2%; 95% PI, 0.1 - 4.5%). Leave-one-out sensitivity analysis did not identify 236 excessively influential (outlier) studies (Supplementary Fig. A.1).

237

We retrieved data on follow-up OPAT/IV catheter-days from 25 studies, which reported 169 CRT events over 431,911 catheter-days in total. Based on the Poisson-Normal mixed-effects model, the estimated population-averaged incidence rate of CRT was 0.37 events (95% CI, 0.25 – 0.55; PI, 0.08 – 1.64) per 1,000 catheter-days. Fig. 3 presents the respective forest plot. Leave-one-out sensitivity analysis did not identify outlier studies (Supplementary Fig. A.2). Meta-regression analysis of the time-adjusted incidence density rates produced compatible results as those from the previous analysis of cumulative incidence proportions (Supplementary Table A.8).

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- 246

247 **4. Discussion**

The risk of VTE in hospitalised patients has been stratified into very low (< 0.5%), low (1.5%), moderate (3%) and high (6%) [62]. However, VTE risk in OPAT is not entirely clear. We present a systematic review of the current literature to establish the incidence of VTE in OPAT. The comprehensive analysis revealed a low incidence of thromboembolic events among patients who received OPAT. The pooled estimate for noncatheter-related VTE (0.2%) in our study is significantly lower than reported hospital-associated VTE incidence proportions (1.0% - 1.3%) among hospitalised patients [63-65]; but comparable to the rates in
 very low-risk hospitalised medical patients for whom thromboprophylaxis is not recommended [10,62,66].

256 In our review, the incidence of CRT varied among the studies, depending on the type of vascular access 257 device, indication for OPAT, antimicrobial agent administered, prior surgical intervention and underlying 258 comorbidities. IV catheters can cause endothelial injury, vein wall inflammation and haemodynamic flow 259 changes, which can lead to venous thrombosis [67]. The incidence risks of CRT we found in this review are 260 lower than the reported risks (5% - 15%) for critically ill populations and hospitalised patients [6]. The 261 relative low incidence of CRT in our review supports existing guidelines that do not recommend routine 262 prophylactic anticoagulation nor heparin flushes to prevent catheter thrombosis [68]. Nevertheless, 263 randomised controlled studies of the risks and benefits of pharmacological prophylaxis for CRT could 264 provide more convincing data. To minimise the risk of CRT in the OPAT setting, careful consideration of 265 modifiable risk factors and non-pharmacological methods such as type of vascular access device, insertion 266 techniques, location of insertion, line care and early switch to oral therapy may be more relevant [6,69]. 267

268 Most cases of hospital-associated VTE are diagnosed post-hospital discharge [63,64]. In our review, the 269 highest incidence of VTE (7.7%) was observed in a small cohort of patients with osteomyelitis, most of 270 whom had surgical interventions [26]. Surgery is a major risk factor for VTE [70,71]. Extending 271 thromboprophylaxis in the outpatient period for up to 35 days post-operatively is recommended in selected 272 patients who had major orthopaedic surgery [71]. However, extended thromboprophylaxis after hospital 273 discharge in medical patients is not routinely recommended due to increased risk of adverse events and 274 uncertainty about its benefit in preventing major or fatal thromboembolic events [72]. A systematic review 275 of hospitalised medical patients found no significant effect of thromboprophylaxis on mortality but did 276 result in more bleeding events (risk ratio, 1.34; 9 events per 1000 patients treated) [73]. Thus, the low risk 277 of thromboembolic events found in our review indicates that extending thromboprophylaxis for all patients 278 receiving OPAT may cause unnecessary harm. Apart from hospitalised patients, OPAT is also administered 279 to patients with no prior hospitalisation to prevent admission.

280

The lower rate of non-catheter-related VTE in our review compared to hospital-associated VTE rates reported in literature [63-65] also suggests that validated risk assessment tools for VTE prevention in hospitalised patients may not be appropriate for patients receiving OPAT [24]. Hospitalised patients are often relatively less mobile and sicker than OPAT patients. Hence, there is need for an OPAT-specific VTE risk assessment protocol based a robust analysis of the risk-benefit balance. It is possible that thrombotic events, especially CRT, are underdiagnosed in the OPAT settings due to lack of symptoms or signs to prompt a diagnostic test [32,74]. A high index of suspicion should be maintained, especially in patients with known risk factors, and appropriate diagnostic work-up should be performed. Confirmed cases should be treated promptly according to existing guidelines or standards of care [75], to minimise risk of embolisation and post-thrombotic syndrome without interrupting OPAT treatment.

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292 The main strengths of this systematic review are its robust and iterative methodology approach to identify 293 all relevant literature, the large sample size, and the sensitivity analysis to assess the robustness of pooled 294 estimates of each outcome. However, there are a number of potential limitations. Since the relevant data 295 were not consistently reported in the reviewed articles, we were unable to examine potential risk factors 296 for VTE in OPAT (e.g., patient factors, history of VTE, catheter type and insertion techniques) [6,70]; 297 concomitant anticoagulation in patients who had CRT; and CRT occurring after completion of OPAT. 298 Moreover, it can be presumed that in studies with shorter mean follow-up, the number of thromboembolic 299 events would be higher if the patients were followed for a longer duration; as most studies did not clearly 300 report the risk period during which they sought for thromboembolic events, our pooled estimates of VTE 301 risk are subject to confounding from this time-dependency. Nevertheless, our analysis of time-adjusted 302 incidence density rates based on about 65% of the studies provides assurance that the risk of VTE is low 303 even when considering duration of IV catheter use for OPAT. We were also unable to differentiate between 304 superficial and deep vein catheter-related thrombosis; and between the incidence of VTE in patients with 305 and those without prior hospitalisation. We included two conference abstracts due to limited publications 306 on non-catheter-related VTE in OPAT. Conference abstracts are often not peer-reviewed and reported 307 outcomes are often preliminary and/or based on limited analyses. However, inclusion of conference 308 abstracts can provide a broader overview and reduce the potential impact of publication bias [14]. Non-309 English language articles were not assessed due to lack of language resources (i.e., professional translators), 310 and it may have resulted in some language bias. The existing OPAT-VTE literature comprises mainly 311 observational studies. The lack of high-quality RCTs comparing VTE in OPAT with hospital-associated VTE limits the conclusions of this review. Finally, as it is well known, the findings of meta-analyses of 312 observational studies are limited by risk of systematic and random biases, unmeasured confounders, and 313 314 high heterogeneity [76]. Our meta-regression and subgroup analyses may have mitigated some of these 315 concerns.

317 4.1. Implications for research

Further research is needed to develop accurate VTE risk assessment tools appropriate for OPAT. Since a 318 319 substantial proportion of hospital-associated VTE occur after hospital discharge [63,64], future studies 320 should also differentiate between the risks of VTE in OPAT patients who had prior admission (early hospital 321 discharge) and those who did not (admission avoidance). We encourage OPAT services (especially those in 322 low-income countries) to publish their experiences to provide more prospective data on the risk of VTE. 323 Decision-analytic modelling can be conducted using existing data to compare the benefits, risks and costs 324 of thromboprophylaxis in OPAT. It would help determine the risk threshold at which prophylaxis provides 325 optimal clinical benefit. The findings from decision-analytic modelling techniques would require validation.

326

327 4.2. Implications for practice

Our findings of low risk of VTE among patients receiving OPAT do not support universal 328 thromboprophylaxis, nor anticoagulation and heparin flushes for routine prevention of CRT in this setting. 329 330 A validated risk assessment model for inpatients identifies one bleeding event in 52 (1.9%) low-risk medical 331 patients who had pharmacological thromboprophylaxis [66]. Thus, the risk of bleeding may outweigh the 332 benefits of thromboprophylaxis in OPAT settings. Furthermore, in agreement with Barr et al. [24], we 333 suggest that OPAT patients should not be routinely assessed for VTE risk using inpatient risk assessment 334 tools due to differences in risk profile. Risk assessment models appropriate to OPAT have been proposed 335 [22]. In the interim, as recommended by the UK OPAT guidelines [11], patients deemed at high risk of VTE 336 during hospitalisation (e.g., post-major orthopaedic surgery) should be carefully considered for extended 337 thromboprophylaxis during OPAT after an individualised risk-benefit assessment if the risk persists. OPAT 338 clinicians should maintain a high index of suspicion for prompt diagnosis and appropriate treatment of 339 VTE/catheter-related thrombosis, especially in high-risk patients.

340 341

342 **5. Conclusions**

This study gives insight into the risk of VTE in OPAT. Within its constraints, this review suggests that patient receiving OPAT are at low risk of VTE and adds to the growing evidence that OPAT is a safe alternative to inpatient care. The current findings provide a strong rationale and foundation for future studies on the optimal assessment strategy for OPAT thromboprophylaxis. In the interim, a mindful individualised approach that weighs the pros and cons of prophylaxis seems prudent.

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TABLES

Table 1. Results of random-effects meta-analysis of the incidence of non-catheter-related

 thromboembolic events in outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy

Study	n/N	VTE Incidence, %	95% CI
Barr et al 2014	2/780	0.3	0.0 - 0.9
Keeley et al 2020	0/214	0.0	0.0 - 1.7
Kenyon et al 2011	0/94	0.0	0.0 - 3.8
Ong et al 2019	0/52	0.0	0.0 - 6.8
Population-averaged estimate	2/1140	0.2	0.0 - 0.7

CI, confidence interval; n/N, number of non-catheter-related thromboembolic events over the total number of patients at risk in each study; VTE, venous thromboembolism.

Study characteristic	Levels	n	CRT incidence (CI; PI), %	Adjusted OR (CI)	P-value	R ²
Year of publication	≤2019	22	1.3 (0.8 - 1.9; 0.3 - 6.0)	Ref.	0.942	0.0%
	≥2020	17	0.9 (0.5 - 1.4; 0.1 - 5.6)	0.98 (0.51 - 1.88)		
Region	Europe	8	0.7 (1.9 - 2.9; 1.9 - 3.0)	Ref.	0.657	6.5%
	N. America	22	1.3 (1.9 - 2.9; 1.9 - 2.9)	1.45 (0.66 - 3.16)		
	Western Pacific	9	0.9 (1.9 - 2.9; 1.9 - 3.0)	1.27 (0.52 - 3.12)		
Study design	Descriptive (single arm)	25	1.0 (0.7 - 1.4; 0.3 - 3.6)	Ref.	0.282	9.0%
	Comparative non-randomised	14	1.1 (0.6 - 2.0; 0.1 - 9.3)	1.39 (0.77 - 2.49)		
Risk of bias	Low/moderate	26	0.8 (0.5 - 1.2; 0.1 - 4.5)	Ref.	0.019	21.2
	High	13	2.4 (1.9 - 2.9; 1.9 - 2.9)	2.48 (1.20 - 5.14)		

Table 2. Multivariable meta-regression analysis of the associations between study-level characteristics and the incidence of catheter

 related venous thromboembolism in outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy

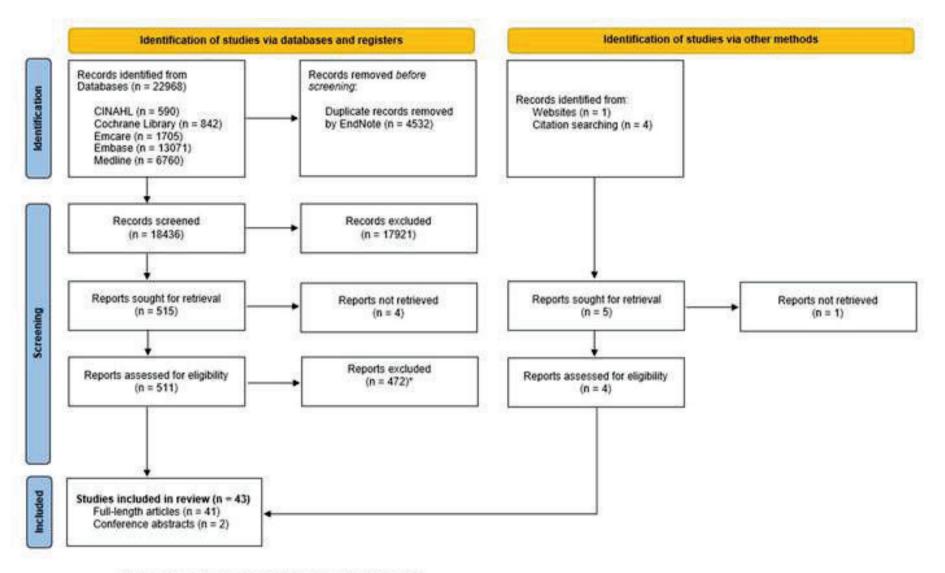
CI, 95% confidence interval; CRT, catheter-related venous thromboembolism; n, number of studies; OR, odds ratio; PI, 95% prediction interval.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) 2020 flow diagram of the systematic review process [13].

Fig. 2. Forest plot of the results of the random-effects meta-analysis of the risk of catheter-related venous thromboembolism in outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy (OPAT). n/N denotes the number of catheter-related thromboembolic (CRT) events over the total number of patients at risk in each study. The diamond's centre is the population-averaged CRT incidence proportion. The diamond's length and the respective grey vertical area indicate the 95% confidence interval of the pooled average estimate. The extended blue line continuing through the confidence interval and the respective bluish-grey vertical area indicate the 95% prediction interval of CRT incidence expected in new studies. Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; CRT, catheter-related venous thromboembolism.

Fig. 3. Forest plot of the results of the random-effects meta-analysis of the incidence density rate of catheter-related venous thromboembolism in outpatient parenteral antimicrobial therapy. n/N denotes the number of CRT cases over the total number of OPAT/IV catheter-days in each study. The diamond's centre is the population-averaged CRT incidence rate. The diamond's length and the respective grey vertical area indicate the 95% confidence interval of the pooled average estimate. The extended blue line continuing through the confidence interval and the respective bluish-grey vertical area indicate the 95% prediction interval of CRT incidence expected in new studies. Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; CRT, catheter-related venous thromboembolism



"Reasons for exclusion are stated in Supplementary Material S3.

Study	n/N	Proportion (95% CI), %		
Baecker et al 2019	0/11	0.0 (0.0, 25.9)	* 13	\rightarrow
Bernard et al 2001	3/39	7.7 (2.7, 20.3)		
Batayneh et al 2022	24/438	5.5 (3.7, 8.0)	i (i)	
Bhagat et al 2023	4/281	1.4 (0.6. 3.6)	1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1	
Bodycot et al 2021	11/1084	1.0 (0.6, 1.8)		
Browning et al 2022	15/4160	0.4 (0.2. 0.6)	- (1) i	
Chamber et al 2002	1/153	0.7 (0.1, 3.6)	1 d 1 1	
Chamber et al 2019	9/407	22(12.4.1)		
Chemaly et al 2002	51/2063	25(19.32)	i iii i	
Coursen et al 2020	1/336	0.3 (0.1, 1.7)	4 CU.	
Cox et al 2007	0/231	0.0 (0.0, 1.6)	₩ <u>₩</u>	
Dargan et al 2007	1/66	15(0.3,8.1)		
Doulyeb et al 2022	2/247	0.8 (0.2, 2.9)	()	
Duggal et al 2009	2/74	27(0.7,93)		
Erba et al 2020	1/462	02(00,12)		
Farry et at 2009	2/60	3.3 (0.9, 11.4)	1 (
Gardiol et al 2016	2/179	1.1 (0.3, 4.0)	1 (4)	
Gross et al 2002	1/16	6.3 (1.1, 28.3)	1 12	
Hase et al 2020	0/66	00(0.0, 5.5)	P	
ingram of al 2022	19/1803	1.1 (0.7. 1.6)	(101)	
Kaul et al 2022	10/1704	0.6 (0.3, 1.1)		
Koller et al 2018	12/339	35(20,61)		
Keller et al 2020	21/664	32(2.1.4.8)	· · · · ·	
Lai et al 2013	1/393	03(0.0.1.4)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Larioza et al 2011	1/33	3.0 (0.5, 15.3)		
Lin et al 2005	3/177	1.7 (0.6, 4.9)	(<u></u>	
Marsh et al 2020	4/180	22(0.9.56)	1 100 - 1	
Matthews et al 2007	6/2009	03(01,07)		
Ng et al 2021	1/602	02(00,09)	- 41) j	
O'Callaghan et al 2019	0/38	00(00,92)	1 (1)	
Price et al 2020	0/20	0.0 (0.0, 16.1)		
Seo et al 2020	2/100	20(0.6.7.0)	1	
Shrestha et al 2016	12/1461	0.8 (0.5, 1.4)	1	
Shrestha et al 2020	3/497	06(02.18)		
Sriskandarajah et al 2020	1/100	10(0.2, 5.4)		
Suleyman et al 2017	2/102	2.0 (0.5, 6.9)	1-00-	
Tice et al 2002	21/1053	20(13,30)		
Underwood et al 2019	3/544	0.6 (0.2. 1.6)	HELIN	
Upton et al 2004	1/100	1.0 (0.2.5.4)	L	
Pooled estimate of CRT incidence %	253/22292	1.1 (0.8, 1.5)		
With 95% prediction interval	\$2000-S-80666	(0.2, 5.4)		
1' = 73%, Q = x ² (38) = 138.3 (P < 0.001), t ² = 0.665				

Study	n/N	Rate (95% CI), per 1,000 catheter-days	
Baecker et al 2019	0/9570	0.00 (0.00, 0.39)	<u>∔ 88</u> ;
Bhagat et al 2023	4/10327	0.39 (0.11, 0.99)	
Bodycot et al 2021	11/28673	0.38 (0.19, 0.69)	1 121 - 1
Browning et al 2022	15/88432	0.17 (0.09, 0.28)	
Chamber et al 2019	9/8999	1.00 (0.46, 1.90)	1 11
Chemaly et al 2002	51/38578	1.32 (0.98, 1.74)	
Cox et al 2007	0/6946	0.00 (0.00, 0.53)	
Dargan et al 2007	1/1802	0.55 (0.01, 3.09)	
Farry et at 2009	2/3111	0.64 (0.08, 2.32)	
Gardiol et al 2016	2/2533	0.79 (0.10, 2.85)	
fase et al 2020	0/923	0.00 (0.00, 3.99)	
ngram et al 2022	19/32896	0.58 (0.35, 0.90)	
Kaul et al 2022	10/52632	0.19 (0.09, 0.35)	H
Keller et al 2018	12/16399	0.73 (0.38, 1.28)	() • • • • •
Lai et al 2013	1/8322	0.12 (0.00, 0.67)	+
arioza et al 2011	1/957	1.04 (0.03, 5.81)	
Marsh et al 2020	4/4217	0.95 (0.26, 2.43)	1 111
Aatthews et al 2007	6/66579	0.09 (0.03, 0.20)	
D'Callaghan et al 2019	0/724	0.00 (0.00, 5.08)	
Price et al 2020	0/570	0.00 (0.00, 6.45)	
Seo et al 2020	2/707	2.83 (0.34, 10.18)	
Shrestha et al 2016	12/33579	0.36 (0.18, 0.62)	1 🚟 1
Shrestha et al 2020	3/6711	0.45 (0.09, 1.31)	
Sriskandarajah et al 2020	1/2110	0.47 (0.01, 2.64)	
Underwood et al 2019	3/5614	0.53 (0.11, 1.56)	
Pooled CRT incidence per 1,000 catheter-days	169/431911	0.37 (0.25, 0.55)	
With 95% prediction interval		(0.08, 1.64)	2 Post
$\dot{r}^{2} = 74\%$, $Q = \chi^{2}(24) = 93.2$ ($P < 0.001$), $\tau^{2} = 0.540$			