



Stichting
Werkgroep
Antibioticabeleid

The Dutch Working Party on Antibiotic Policy (SWAB) recommendations for the diagnosis and management of febrile neutropenia in patients with cancer

Committee:

Jara de la Court (Coordinator), department infectious diseases, AmsterdamUMC
Anke Bruns (NVII), department of infectious diseases, UMCU
Anna Roukens (NVII), department of infectious diseases, LUMC
Inge Baas (NVMO), department of medical oncology, UMCU
Krista van Steeg (NVZA), department of clinical pharmacy and pharmacology, Radboud UMC
Marlous Toren-Wielema (NVZA), department of clinical pharmacy and pharmacology, UMCG
Matthijs Tersmette (NVMM), department of microbiology, Antonius hospital Nieuwegein
Nicole Blijlevens (NVvH), department of hematology, Radboud UMC
Robert Huis in 't Veld (NVMM), department of microbiology, UMCG
Tom Wolfs (NVK), Wim Tissing (NVK), department of pediatrics, UMCU
Yanka Kyuchukova (NVMM), department of microbiology, UMCG
Jarom Heijmans (Chairman), department of internal medicine and hematology AmsterdamUMC

NVII: Nederlandse Vereniging voor Internist-Infectiologen, (Dutch Society for Infectious Diseases)

NVvH: Nederlandse Vereniging voor Hematologie (Dutch Society for Hematology)

NVMO: Nederlandse Vereniging voor Medische Oncologie (Dutch Society for Medical Oncology)

NVZA: Nederlandse Vereniging van Ziekenhuisapothekers (Dutch Association of Hospital Pharmacists)

NVMM: Nederlandse Vereniging voor Medische Microbiologie (Dutch Society for Medical Microbiology)

NVK: Nederlandse Vereniging voor Kindergeneeskunde (Dutch Society for Pediatrics)

©2021 SWAB

www.swab.nl

Content

1. Summary and rationale of current guideline	4
2. Questions answered in this guideline	5
3. Synopsis of recommendations	6
4. Introduction.....	11
5. Method.....	11
6. Guideline content.....	14
1. Scope of the guideline/For which patient groups is this guideline written?	14
1.1 Chemotherapy-induced neutropenia.....	14
1.2 Fever.....	14
1.3 High- and standard-risk neutropenia	15
2. Most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia	16
2.1 Most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia in high-risk neutropenic patients.....	16
2.2 Most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia in standard-risk neutropenic patients.....	17
3. Choice of initial empirical antimicrobial therapy/ What is the most suitable empirical treatment for febrile neutropenia?	18
3.1 High-risk neutropenic episodes.....	18
3.2 Standard-risk neutropenic episodes – risk assessment	20
3.3 Standard-risk neutropenic patients with a low-risk of serious complications.....	21
3.4 Additional treatment for patients with central venous catheters	22
3.5 Hemodynamically unstable neutropenic patients/neutropenic patients admitted to the ICU	22
4. How is treatment adjusted in case of clinical or microbiological diagnosis?	24
4.1 Should empirical antibiotic therapy be adjusted in case of a clinically apparent focus?	24
4.2 Neutropenic enterocolitis	25
4.3 Should empirical antibiotic therapy be streamlined in retrieval of possible causative pathogen from blood culture.	25
5. What is the optimal duration of treatment for FUO?	26
6. What is the predictive value of surveillance cultures for infections with resistant bacteria? ..	27
7. What are the indications for removal of CVC in patients with febrile neutropenia?	28
8. What is the role for G-CSF in treatment of febrile neutropenia?	29
9. What additional investigations should be done to rule out an infective focus in patients with febrile of unknown origin?	30
9.1 Imaging	30

9.2	Urine analysis	30
7.	Funding and Conflict of Interest.....	32
8.	Applicability and Validity	33
9.	References.....	34

CONCEPT

1. Summary and rationale of current guideline

Fever is often the only sign of onset of infection in the neutropenic patient. In case of fever, prompt initiation of adequate empirical antimicrobial therapy reduces the risk of morbidity and mortality. To provide evidence-based recommendations for treatment of neutropenic patients with fever, we sourced all relevant clinical guidelines published since 2010 (Appendix A). If there was no consensus in these guidelines, we performed a systematic search of the recent literature (2010-2020). This guideline aims to provide clinicians guidance in choosing the best antibiotic strategy for patients with chemotherapy-induced febrile neutropenia in The Netherlands. When available, recommendations in this guideline distinguish between high- and standard-risk episodes and between pediatric and adult patients. Pre-emptive risk stratification based upon expected duration of neutropenia is recommended, however, standard-risk patients with critical illness (referral to ICU) should be treated as high-risk neutropenic patients. In absence of a generally accepted risk-score for children and limited data on oral outpatient treatment, all children with FUO should initially be treated with intravenous antibiotic agents as is done in high-risk neutropenic patients.

In high-risk neutropenic patients, antipseudomonal beta-lactams are the primary choice of antimicrobial therapy. Low-risk neutropenic patients (standard-risk neutropenia and low risk of complications) can be treated with oral antibiotics. Prior colonization or infection with multiresistant pathogens (e.g., ESBL-producing *Enterobacterales*) is the most important risk factor for (recurrent) infection with these pathogens and should guide alternative choice of therapy. Carbapenem monotherapy or the association of an anti-pseudomonal beta-lactam with a second antibiotic is recommended. After 72-hours of empirical therapy, discontinuation of antibiotic therapy should be considered in patients that have negative blood cultures, are clinically stable and at least 24 hours after resolution of fever. In patients with persistent fever who remain under observation and who are clinically stable with negative blood cultures, discontinuation of antibiotic treatment (revert to prophylaxis) may be considered.

2. Questions answered in this guideline

For this guideline a number of key questions was formulated. These questions were all separately investigated for patients with high-risk neutropenia (absolute neutrophil count (ANC) $< 0.5 \cdot 10^9/L$ neutrophils for > 7 days). And for standard-risk neutropenia (ANC $< 0.5 \cdot 10^9/L$ for ≤ 7 days). Questions were investigated separately for both children and adults.

1. For which patient groups is the current guideline written?
2. What are the most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia?
3. What is the most suitable empirical treatment for febrile neutropenia?
4. How is treatment adjusted in case of clinical or microbiological diagnosis?
5. What is the optimal duration of treatment for fever of unknown origin (FUO)?
6. What is the predictive value of surveillance cultures for infections with multiresistant bacteria?
7. What are the indications for removal of central venous catheters in patients with febrile neutropenia?
8. What is the role for G-CSF in treatment of febrile neutropenia?
9. What additional investigations should be done to rule out an infection in patients with FUO?

3. Synopsis of recommendations

1. For which patient groups is this guideline written?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Recommendation in this guideline are based on literature in which patients with chemotherapy induced neutropenia are included. No evidence-based recommendations can be made for febrile patients with neutropenia due to disease (e.g. MDS or aplastic anemia) or non-chemotherapeutical agents (e.g. hypomethylating agents, venetoclax).	Strong	High
2. fever is defined as a temperature of 38.3 °C or above measured once, or above 38.0 °C measured multiple times during one hour. For practical implementation, treatment threshold of 38.5 °C may be used.	Strong	Very low
3. Definition of neutropenia is absolute neutrophil count < 0.5 * 10 ⁹ /L.	Strong	High
4. Chemotherapy induced neutropenia in adults may be divided in standard-risk vs. high-risk based on expected duration of neutropenia. Standard-risk: ≤ 7 days, high-risk > 7 days.	Strong	Very low

3. What is the most suitable empirical treatment for febrile neutropenia?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Adult patients with fever of unknown origin (FUO) and high-risk neutropenia should be treated with monotherapy with one of following beta-lactam antibiotic drugs with antipseudomonal activity: 1 st choice: Ceftazidime 2000mg q8hr Cefepime 2000mg q8hr Piperacillin/Tazobactam 4000/500mg q6hr 2 nd choice: Meropenem 1000mg q8hr Imipenem/Cilastin 500/500mg q6hr	Strong	High
2. Since no reliable risk stratification can be made, all children with FUO should be treated with one of following beta-lactam antibiotic drugs with antipseudomonal activity: 1 st choice: Ceftazidime Cefepime Piperacillin/Tazobactam 2 nd choice: Meropenem Imipenem/Cilastin For dosages, see www.kinderformularium.nl	Strong	Low

3. In adults with FUO and standard-risk (e.g., ≤ 7 days expected) neutropenia, antibiotic treatment should be based on clinical burden and severity of illness as quantified using Multinational Association for Supportive Care in Cancer (MASCC) score or equivalent.	Strong	High
4. Adult patients with FUO during standard-risk neutropenia and a high MASCC score indicating low risk for serious complications can be treated with: Amoxicillin/clavulanate 500/125mg p.o. q8hr + ciprofloxacin 500mg p.o. q12hr or with moxifloxacin 400mg p.o. q24hr.	Strong	High
5. In patients with central venous catheters (CVC), addition of empirical Gram-positive coverage (e.g., glycopeptide or oxazolidones such as vancomycin or linezolid) is only recommended when infection of the CVC is clinically apparent.	Strong	High
6. In hemodynamically instable patients that are admitted to the ICU, vancomycin may be added in patients in which a CVC is present prior to development of fever.	Moderate	Very low
7. Adult patients with FUO and standard-risk neutropenia and a low MASCC score, indicating high risk for serious complications should be treated as per the local treatment protocol for sepsis.	Strong	Very low
8. Indication for empirical treatment with antifungal agents for covering of non-mold fungal infections (e.g. <i>Candida</i>) should be restricted to settings with high local incidence of invasive non-mold fungal infections in patients with high burden of disease (e.g. ICU admission, enterocolitis) in combination with one or more of following: Persistence of fungal spp. in surveillance culture Patient has not received antifungal prophylaxis	Adult: moderate Children: weak	Adult: moderate Children: very low

4. How is treatment adjusted in case of clinical or microbiological diagnosis?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. In patients in with a probable clinically apparent infectious origin for fever, antimicrobial coverage of empirical therapy should be expanded to include targeting of causative pathogens for that specific infection.	Strong	Moderate
2. When fever is possibly caused by a clinically apparent infection, antibiotic treatment should be streamlined according to this infection after 72 hours of initial empirical therapy, after resolution of fever in a patient that is clinically stable.	Weak	Very low (Expert opinion)
3. In case of neutropenic enterocolitis, antibiotic treatment is extended to cover anaerobic bacteria when initial empirical therapy	Strong	Low

has no antianaerobic activity (e.g. addition of metronidazole 500mg q8hr in case of initial ceftazidime or cefepime treatment).		
4. Upon identification of Gram-negative bacteria in blood cultures, prompt streamlining of initial empirical therapy is advised.	Strong	Very low (Expert opinion)
5. Upon identification of Gram-positive bacteria from blood culture that are considered causative for the febrile episode, targeted therapy is advised, but initial empirical coverage for Gram-negative bacteria should be continued for 72 hours.	Moderate	Very low (Expert opinion)

5. What is the optimal duration of treatment for FUO?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. if no fever persists, blood cultures are negative and the patient is clinically stable, empiric therapy should be discontinued after 72 hrs (and revert to prophylaxis).	Strong	Low
2. In patients that remain hospitalized and are clinically stable with negative blood cultures but with persisting fever: consider discontinuation of antibiotic treatment (revert to prophylaxis).	Weak	Very low

6. What is the predictive value of surveillance cultures for infections with resistant bacteria?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Choice of empirical antimicrobial treatment in high-risk neutropenia should be guided by surveillance cultures in which colonization with ESBL-producing <i>Enterobacterales</i> or multiresistant <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> is identified.	Strong	Very low

7. What are the indications for removal of central venous line in patients with febrile neutropenia?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Removal of a CVC is advised in all patients with fever and no medical requirement for the CVC.	Strong	Low
2. Removal of CVC in case of catheter associated blood stream infections should be in concordance with CLABSI guideline.	High	Very low

8. What is the role for G-CSF in treatment of febrile neutropenia?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. treatment with G-CSF as adjunctive modality in febrile neutropenia yields no survival benefit or reduction in infection related mortality at a cost of more adverse effects and is therefore not routinely recommended.	Strong	High

9. What additional investigations should be done to rule out an infective focus in patients with FUO?

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. In neutropenic patients with fever, routine conventional chest radiography (CXR) is not recommended.	Strong	Moderate
2. Obtain imaging (CXR or CT) within 24 hours in patients with clinical signs and symptoms of pneumonia. A CT-scan is preferred due to a higher sensitivity.	Adult: Strong Children: Strong	Adult: Low Children: Moderate
3. Urine culture should be performed when an UTI is clinically suspected or the patient has a history of recurrent UTI's.	Weak	Low

Febrile episode	Treatment [§]	Additional Considerations	Streamline	Discontinue
<p>Adults: High-Risk Neutropenia (duration of neutropenia > 7 days)</p> <p>Children: (all duration of neutropenia)</p>	<p>1st choice:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ceftazidime 2000mg q8hr Cefepime 2000mg q8hr Piperacillin/Tazobactam 4000/500mg q6hr <p>2nd choice:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meropenem 1000mg q8hr Imipenem/Cilastin 500/500 mg q6hr 	<p>ICU:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Remove CVC If not possible: add vancomycin <p>Clinical apparent infectious origin:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expand antimicrobial coverage of empirical therapy to include targeting of causative pathogens* 	<p>Gram negative bacteraemia:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prompt streamlining advised <p>Gram positive bacteriemia</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Streamline after 72 hours** 	<p>>72 hours of empirical therapy, clinically stable, negative blood cultures:</p> <p>Without fever: Discontinue empirical antibiotics (revert to prophylaxis)</p> <p>Persistent fever: Consider discontinuation of empirical antibiotics**</p>
<p>Adults: Standard-Risk Neutropenia (duration of neutropenia ≤ 7 days)</p>	<p>High risk (low MASCC score) Per protocol sepsis e.c.i.</p> <p>Low risk (high MASCC score)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Amoxicillin/clavulanate 500/125 mg p.o. q8hr + ciprofloxacin 500mg p.o. q12hr moxifloxacin 400mg p.o. q24hr. 			

[§] for dosages in children, see www.kinderformularium.nl

*Skin: Gram-positive coverage (e.g. flucloxacillin); CVC: Gram-positive coverage including CNS (e.g., glycopeptide or oxazolidones such as vancomycin or linezolid); neutropenic enterocolitis: anaerobic coverage (e.g. metronidazole).

**In case of neutropenic enterocolitis no streamlining or discontinuation is advised.

Figure 1 flow chart

4. Introduction

The Dutch Working Party on Antibiotic Policy (SWAB), established by the Dutch Society for Infectious Diseases, the Dutch Society for Medical Microbiology and the Dutch Association of Hospital Pharmacists, coordinates activities in the Netherlands aimed at optimization of antibiotic use, containment of the development of antimicrobial resistance, and limitation of the costs of antibiotic use. By means of the evidence-based development of guidelines, SWAB offers local antibiotic and formulary committees a guideline for the development of their own, local antibiotic policy. SWAB yearly reports on the use of antibiotics, on trends in antimicrobial resistance and on antimicrobial stewardship activities in The Netherlands in NethMap (available from www.swab.nl), in collaboration with the National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM-Cib).

Purpose and scope of this guideline

Patients that suffer from neutropenia as a result of chemotherapeutic treatments are at high risk for infectious complications resulting in significant morbidity and mortality [1]. Fever may be the only clinical symptom at the onset of infection and should prompt rapid initiation of empirical treatment with broad-spectrum antimicrobial therapy. This treatment reduces the risk of death for patients with febrile neutropenia [2]. No Dutch national guidelines are available to guide the choice of empirical antimicrobial therapy in this patient population leading to a variety of empirical therapy approaches across The Netherlands [3].

This guideline aims to provide clinicians guidance in choosing the best antibiotic strategy for patients with febrile neutropenia.

5. Method

The guideline committee consisted of members delegated by their respective professional bodies; the Dutch Society for Infectious Diseases, Dutch Society for Medical Microbiology, Dutch Society for Hematology, Dutch Society for Medical Oncology, Dutch Association of Hospital Pharmacists, and Dutch Society for Pediatrics. No patient input was sought for the development of this guideline. After consultation with the members of these professional societies, the definitive guideline was drawn up by the delegates and approved by the board of SWAB.

This guideline was developed according to the Dutch Antibiotic treatment Working Group (Stichting Werkgroep Antibioticabeleid, SWAB) tool guideline development and the AGREE-II tool for guideline development [4, 5]. The guideline committee used the European Committee on Antimicrobial

Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) breakpoints and their respective dosages for antimicrobial susceptibility. Empirical therapy advices were based on standard dosages that cover treatment of most pathogens, but often are not advised for treatment of *P. aeruginosa*. In case clinical trials consistently used other dosages (which was the case in ceftazidime), this dose was advised. Nine clinically relevant research questions with sub questions were formulated based on committee members clinical experience.

As literature source, the committee used a selection of clinical guidelines that had been published since 2010, presented in appendix A. The recommendations concerning the preformulated research questions in these guidelines were compared to each other and provided the basis for this new SWAB guideline. Comparisons were made on three levels: the recommendation itself, the strength of the recommendation and the level of evidence. Whenever source guidelines had high level of agreement, advise was adapted. Discrepancies between the guidelines lead to a new literature search.

For the review of the literature, references quoted in the respective guidelines were complemented with published articles on the subject found in PubMed up until 1-1-2020. Search terms were used (see appendix B for details) and all articles were screened based on title and abstract for full text review. Full text review of selected articles was carried out by a subgroup of at least three people of the guideline committee, which led to a recommendation that was plenary discussed by the full guideline committee and adopted after consensus was reached.

For classification of the strength of the recommendation the GRADE system was used [6]. The GRADE system is a method of classifying quality of evidence and the strength of the accompanying recommendation. The strength of recommendations was graded as Strong or Weak, taking the quality of evidence, patients' values, resources and costs, and the balance between benefits, harms and burdens into account (Figure 1). Quality of evidence is inherently linked to the strength of the recommendation: higher quality evidence leads to more certainty on effect of the intervention.

GRADE[6]

Strength of recommendation	Quality of evidence
Strong	High
Weak	Moderate
	Low
	Very low

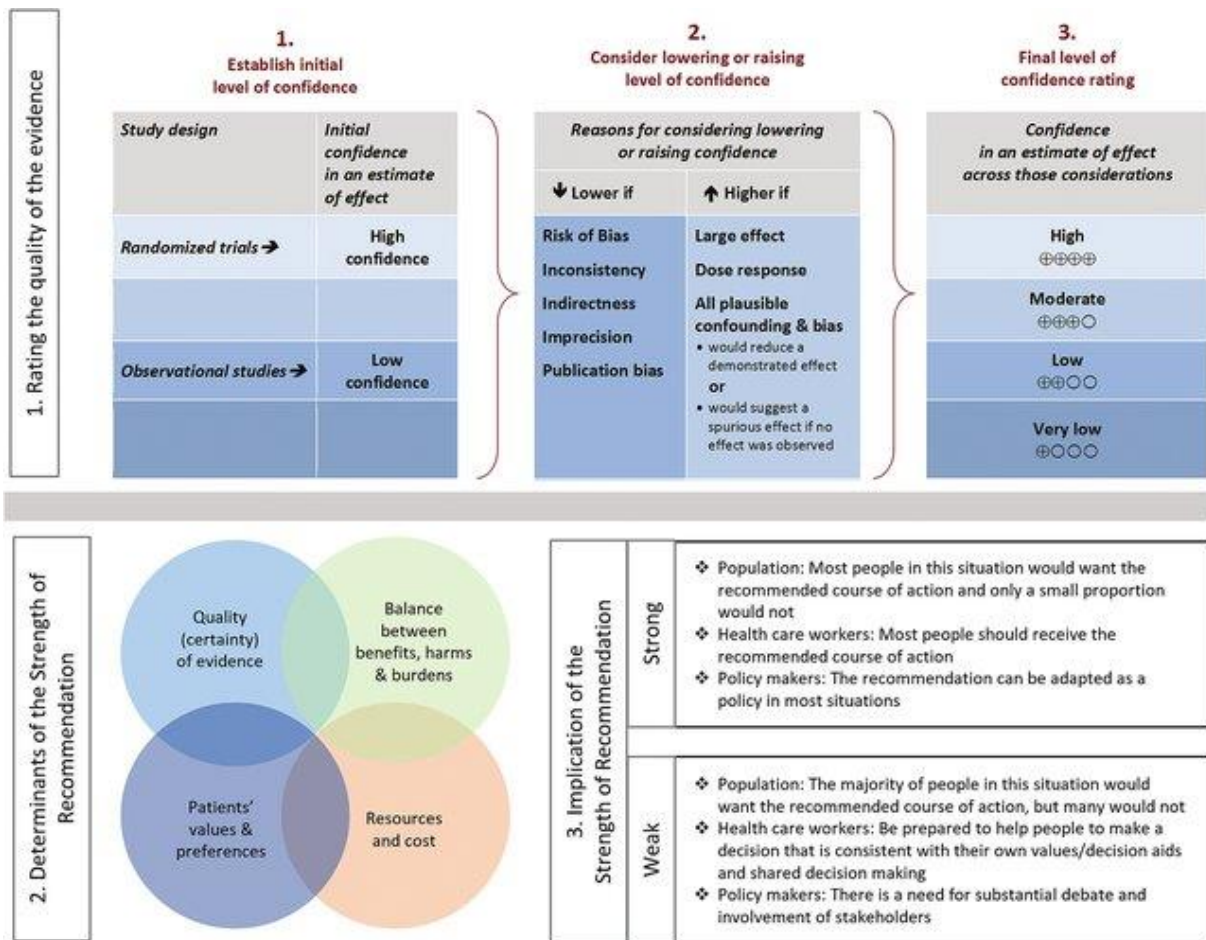


figure 1. Approach and implications to rating the quality of evidence and strength of recommendations using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) methodology

6. Guideline content

1. Scope of the guideline/For which patient groups is this guideline written?

1.1 Chemotherapy-induced neutropenia

During neutropenic episodes, the innate response against microbial disease is largely attenuated and fever may be the sole symptom of a life-threatening infection. Although neutropenia may result from myriad causes such as bone marrow failure, auto-immune disease or congenital syndromes, best recognized and studied causes of neutropenic episodes -during which fever should promptly be treated- result from myelosuppressive chemotherapy [1, 7, 8]. Treatment with these agents causes not only myelosuppression, but may also result in mucositis. Febrile episodes in patients that suffer from the combination of a disrupted epithelial barrier in combination with lack of neutrophils has been extensively investigated. In contrast, no trials have been performed in febrile neutropenic patients in which neutropenia results from causes other than chemotherapy. Therefore, the recommendations given in this guideline are applicable foremost to the classical chemotherapy-induced neutropenia population. For neutropenic patients treated with agents that are not categorized as classical chemotherapeutic agents (e.g., but not limited to hypomethylating agents (HMA) or venetoclax) or in whom neutropenia results from haematological disease (e.g., but not limited to MDS, aplastic anaemia or cytokine release as seen upon treatment with CAR-T cells), no recommendations can be made based on clinical trials, and treatment should be tailored individually.

To distinguish between high- and standard-risk neutropenic episodes depth and duration of neutropenia is most often used. Often, high-risk patients receive prophylactic antibiotics, are hospitalized for the total duration of the neutropenic period for supportive treatment of cytopenias and mucositis, and are at higher risk for non-bacterial causes of infections such as invasive fungal disease. Whenever possible, advice in this guideline distinguishes between high- and standard-risk episodes. Moreover, when possible, recommendations distinguish between pediatric and adult patient populations.

1.2 Fever

In clinical guidelines and trials on the topic of febrile neutropenia, the definitions of fever and methods by which body temperature is measured are not consistent. Most consistently, fever is defined as a temperature measured orally of ≥ 38.3 °C measured once, or as ≥ 38.0 °C lasting for at least 1 h or measured twice within 12 h [9]. The guideline committee recognizes that a pragmatic approach of defining fever as a temperature of ≥ 38.5 °C at one time point is often employed and long-term experience with this approach has confirmed its safety.

1.3 High- and standard-risk neutropenia

Pre-emptive risk stratification for infectious complications can be done by anticipating the depth and duration of neutropenia [10]. We utilized the following definition of high-risk versus standard-risk neutropenia in adults[9].

High-risk: absolute neutrophil count (ANC) $< 0.5 * 10^9/L$ or an ANC that is expected to decrease to $< 0.5 * 10^9/L$ over the next 48 hours with an expected duration of neutropenia > 7 days

Standard-risk: ANC $< 0.5 * 10^9/L$ or an ANC that is expected to decrease to $< 0.5 * 10^9/L$ over the next 48 hours with an expected duration of neutropenia ≤ 7 days

Patients assigned to the standard-risk group may exhibit individual characteristics, such as critical illness, justifying escalation of antibiotic treatment. We therefore propose different treatment for patients in which admission to the intensive care unit (ICU) is required for support of the febrile episode (see paragraph 3.2).

In absence of a generally accepted risk-score for children and little data on oral outpatient treatment, there is no distinction between standard-risk and high-risk neutropenic episodes in children with FUO.

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Recommendation in this guideline are based on literature in which patients with chemotherapy induced neutropenia are included. No evidence-based recommendations can be made for febrile patients with neutropenia due to disease (e.g. MDS or aplastic anemia) or non-chemotherapeutical agents (e.g. hypomethylating agents, venetoclax).	Strong	High
2. fever is defined as a temperature of 38.3 °C or above measured once, or above 38.0 °C measured multiple times during one hour. For practical implementation, treatment threshold of 38.5 °C may be used	Strong	Very low
3. Definition of neutropenia is absolute neutrophil count $< 0.5 * 10^9/L$.	Strong	High
4. Chemotherapy induced neutropenia in adults may be divided in standard-risk vs. high-risk based on expected duration of neutropenia. Standard-risk: ≤ 7 days, high-risk > 7 days.	Strong	Very low

2. Most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia

In case of fever in the neutropenic patient microbiological documentation is only possible in 20–30% of the cases and blood cultures are positive in 10–25% with a blood stream infection (BSI) incidence as high as 13–60% in myeloablative hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT) recipients [11-13].

2.1 Most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia in high-risk neutropenic patients

A summary of trials describing microbiological results of adult high-risk febrile neutropenic patients with and without antibiotic prophylaxis was made (Table 1) [14-19]. Gram-positive bacteria were most frequently (3-31%) identified in high-risk neutropenic patients, in all [14-17, 19, 20] but one study [18]. In comparison Gram-negative bacteria were less frequently found. The proportion of patients with febrile neutropenia with positive Gram-negative blood cultures differed between the group receiving antibiotic prophylaxis compared to the group without prophylaxis; 1-8% in patients with and 4-13% in patients without antibiotic prophylaxis. Of the study patients, 0-4% had positive blood cultures for *P. aeruginosa* and 0-3% were positive for *Staphylococcus aureus* (table 1). In high-risk neutropenic pediatric patients, the same distribution of pathogens was found as in the adult patients described above. In a randomized control trial that included 617 children with high-risk neutropenia (198 children with acute leukemia and 419 children undergoing stem cell transplants) the likelihood of bacteremia between those receiving levofloxacin prophylaxis was compared to those without prophylaxis [21]. Gram-positive bacteremia was most frequent with viridans group streptococci as most common pathogen. None of the children receiving levofloxacin prophylaxis developed a *S. aureus* bacteremia. Prophylaxis with levofloxacin reduced Gram-negative bacteremia (GNB) from 34 without prophylaxis to 11 in the groups with prophylaxis.

		Gram-positive bacteria, n (%)	<i>S. aureus</i> , n (%)	Gram-negative bacteria, n (%)	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> , n (%)	Total N
Chong 2011	With prophylaxis (N = febrile neutropenic episodes)	51 (6.7)	2 (0.3)	9 (1.2)	2 (0.3)	762

Adult	Without prophylaxis (N = febrile neutropenic episodes)	71 (7.6)	2 (0.2)	75 (8.1)	23 (2.5)	931
Garnica 2014 Adult	With prophylaxis	N = 28	4 (1.8)	N = 29	3 (1.4)	219
	Without prophylaxis	N = 24	1 (0.9)	N = 17	4 (3.6)	110
Sohn 2012 Adult	With prophylaxis (N = autologous stem cell transplantation cases)	8 (7.0)	2 (1.8)	5 (4.4)	N/A	114
	Without prophylaxis (N = cycles of chemotherapy)	10 (8.5)	4 (3.4)	5 (4.2)	N/A	118
Vehreschild 2012 Adult	With prophylaxis	1 (2.9)	1 (2.9)	2 (5.9)	1 (2.9)	34
	Without prophylaxis	5 (15.6)	1 (3.1)	4 (12.5)	0 (0.0)	32
Wolska 2012 Adult	With prophylaxis	5 (10.0)	N/A	4 (8.0)	N/A	50
	Without prophylaxis	1 (1.9)	N/A	7 (13.0)	N/A	54
Alexander 2018 Paediatric	With prophylaxis	37 (12.1)	0 (0.0)	11 (3.6)	1 (0.3)	306
	Without prophylaxis	54 (17.5)	4 (1.3)	34 (11.1)	6 (2.0)	307

Table 1. Distribution of bloodstream isolates recovered from patients with or without ciprofloxacin or levofloxacin prophylaxis during neutropenia.

2.2 Most common microbiological causes of febrile neutropenia in standard-risk neutropenic patients

Likewise, a summary of microbiological data from trials describing neutropenic patients with low risk for complications, who were eligible for outpatient treatment was made for adults. In these studies, definition of risk was not standardized. Most studies included patients with an estimated duration of neutropenia less than 7 days and low burden of disease (these patients had a high MASCC score or would be expected to have a high MASCC score) (table 2) [22-27].

In this low-risk patient population *P. aeruginosa* ≤ 1.3% and *S. aureus* ≤ 1.2% bloodstream infections are rare. Overall Gram-positive bacteria were more prevalent compared to Gram-negative bacteria in blood cultures from low-risk patients, 1.6-6.4% versus 2.3-4.4%.

	Gram-positive bacteria, n (%)	<i>S. aureus</i> , n (%)	Gram-negative bacteria, n (%)	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> , n (%)	Total N
Hidalgo 1999	5 (6.4)	0 (0.0)	3 (3.8)	1 (1.3)	78
Innes 2003	2 (1.6)	0 (0.0)	3 (2.3)	1 (0.8)	126
Kern 2013	20 (5.9)	N/A	15 (4.4)	2 (0.6)	341
Malik 1995	6 (3.6)	2 (1.2)	6 (3.6)	2 (1.2)	169
Minotti 1999	11 (6.0)	1 (0.5)	6 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	183

Table 2. Distribution of bloodstream isolates recovered from low-risk adult neutropenic patients.

In pediatric patients, no generally accepted definition exists to identify patients with a low risk for complications and pediatric studies included in the aforementioned meta-analysis all had different in- and exclusion criteria, of which some studies included only patients with negative blood cultures and are therefore of little value.

3. Choice of initial empirical antimicrobial therapy/ What is the most suitable empirical treatment for febrile neutropenia?

3.1 High-risk neutropenic episodes

Initial treatment of high-risk neutropenic patients consists of intravenous beta-lactam antibiotic drugs with antipseudomonal activity. This practice dates from the 1960s when *P. aeruginosa* emerged as a common cause of blood-stream infection in the immunocompromised. Despite a declining incidence since, *P. aeruginosa* remains a serious cause of bacteremia with a very high mortality rate, ranging from 18% to 61% in neutropenic patients in more recent literature [28, 29]. When comparing antipseudomonal beta-lactam monotherapy treatments, the most recent Cochrane meta-analysis showed that - besides cefepime - carbapenems, ceftazidime and piperacillin-tazobactam have comparative efficacy and toxicity and can all be used for febrile neutropenia [30]. Although all-cause mortality was lower with piperacillin-tazobactam versus all other antibiotics, no statistical significant difference was found for infectious-related mortality and clinical failure overall [30]. The possible excess mortality of cefepime demonstrated in an earlier meta-analysis was not confirmed by a data re-evaluation performed by the US FDA, which resulted in maintenance of the FDA approval for cefepime [31-33]. Based on this re-evaluation and extensive clinical experience, all but one of reference guideline have included cefepime as primary empirical treatment, with none recommending against. Cefepime is a fourth generation cephalosporine with broad coverage of Gram-negative bacteria including *P. aeruginosa* and *ampC* carrying *Enterobacterales* such as *Enterobacter* spp.

Moreover, cefepime is effective against streptococci (including streptococci with reduced penicillin sensitivity) and methicillin sensitive *S. aureus*. It is not effective against anaerobic bacteria and ESBL producing *Enterobacteriales*. Even though cefepime has been used internationally for more than 25 years it has only recently been registered in The Netherlands for treatment of patients with fever and neutropenia and other indications. Several Dutch hospitals have adopted its use since.

A large number of trials, summarized in a systematic meta-analysis, have evaluated the use of aminoglycoside-containing combination therapy compared to antipseudomonal monotherapy. No advantage has been identified for the combination regimens although toxicity emanating from these agents is occasionally problematic [34-36]. For children with high-risk febrile neutropenia, intravenous monotherapy with antipseudomonal beta-lactams was found to be similarly appropriate [37].

In non-neutropenic patients with sepsis, current guidelines advise extended or continuous infusion of specific beta-lactam antibiotics to optimize achievement of appropriate pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic (PK/PD) targets [38]. It has been advocated that PK/PD targets may be higher in patients without alternative defense mechanisms, such as neutropenic patients [39], and administration by prolonged infusion may yield the highest chances of reaching the required PK/PD target. Clinical data on effects of the beta-lactam infusion mode in neutropenic patients are however scarce. A retrospective study showed that 4-hr extended infusion led to better clinical outcome than conventional intermittent infusion. It was independently associated with clinical success at day 5, fewer additional antibiotics, faster defervescence and more rapid decrease of C-reactive protein but no differences in length of hospital stay or mortality were found [40]. A randomized open label trial performed in Israel has studied efficacy of extended infusion of ceftazidime and/or piperacillin-tazobactam versus bolus infusions in the neutropenic patient population. In this study it was shown that extended infusion was superior in reaching a composite endpoint of clinical infectious response. No differences were found analyzing any of the single components of the outcome (defervescence, clinical failure, antibiotic switch, persistent BSI, mortality, length of hospitalization)[41]. Another study comparing extended (3 hour) infusion of cefepime to standard infusion reported a shorter time to defervescence in neutropenic patients with fever receiving extended infusion, but no differences were found for clinical success, in-hospital mortality, length of hospital stay, and need for additional antimicrobials [42]. Based on paucity of clinical evidence and in expectation of data from studies on this topic that are currently performed [43] there is no preference for bolus, continuous or extended infusion treatments in non-septic patients.

In an era of increasing antimicrobial resistance, restricting the use of carbapenems is considered good practice and antimicrobial resistance can be threatening on the population level as well as for the individual patient [44]. Benefits of carbapenems emanate from its broad antibiotic spectrum (including activity against ESBL-producing *Enterobacteriales*, methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus*, and

viridans group streptococci, and the equal effectivity compared to other antipseudomonal beta-lactam antibiotics in the treatment of febrile neutropenia). The broad spectrum of carbapenems may result in reduced requirement of additional antibiotic agents, that in turn could cause medication interactions or toxicity. Its disadvantages, encompassing collateral damage to the (intestinal) microbiome that is caused by the use of unnecessary broad-spectrum antibiotics is increasingly recognized. In particular use of carbapenems may be associated with selection of multidrug-resistant bacilli, predisposition to fungal infections and development of *Clostridioides difficile*-associated diarrhea [45-48]. However, in addition to reduced prescription of carbapenem antibiotics, antibiotic stewardship depends on proper indication and timely discontinuation of antibiotics. Local bacterial epidemiology, prevalent resistance patterns and patients risk factors for infection caused by resistant bacteria (e.g., ESBL-colonization), should be taken into account when selecting an agent for empirical antibiotic therapy. Based on these considerations, a majority of the guideline committee members favored the recommendation of non-carbapenem agents (ceftazidime, cefepime, piperacillin/tazobactam) as a 1st choice for the treatment of neutropenic patients during high-risk episodes. Carbapenems (meropenem, imipenem/cilastin) are 2nd choice.

In conclusion, we recommend to use any of the following beta-lactam antibiotic drugs with antipseudomonal activity for adult patients with FUI and high-risk neutropenia and all children with FUI: 1st choice: Ceftriaxone 2000mg q8hr; Cefepime 2000mg q8hr; Piperacillin/Tazobactam 4000/500mg q6hr. 2nd choice: Meropenem 1000mg q8hr; Imipenem/Cilastin 500/500mg q6hr. Dosages for children should be altered according to age and weight ().

3.2 Standard-risk neutropenic episodes – risk assessment

For standard-risk neutropenic patients oral and outpatient treatment can be considered if there is an individual low-risk for serious complications. To aid risk identification for the individual patient the following risk scores are frequently recommended by international guidelines: Multinational Association for Supportive Care in Cancer (MASCC) risk index [49], the Talcott risk-scoring system [50] or the Clinical Index of Stable Febrile Neutropenia (CISNE). For patients with solid tumors the CISNE is recommended and some guidelines suggest performing CISNE scores in all patients in which MASCC scores indicate low risk for complications (ASCO/IDSA 2018) [51]. Although different risk-scores may thus be used, most experience is obtained with the MASCC score. Furthermore, trials using this score included patients with both solid tumors and hematological malignancies, making it a simple scoring method that can be performed in all emergency departments.

The ASCO guideline for pediatric patients with febrile neutropenia cited 6 different risk-scores that rely on a single assessment at presentation and that have been validated in different pediatric populations

but were unable to clearly recommend any single prediction rule [52-58]. In addition, these scores were not used in trials examining oral outpatient treatment in children at low risk for complications. Due to the absence of a generally accepted risk-score for children and little data on oral outpatient treatment, all children with FUO should initially be treated with intravenous antibiotic agents.

3.3 Standard-risk neutropenic patients with a low-risk of serious complications

For low-risk neutropenic patients (standard-risk neutropenia and a high MASCC score) oral antibiotic treatment is safe. Several clinical trials have demonstrated equal effectivity of the combination of amoxicillin-clavulanate in combination with a fluoroquinolone in comparison to intravenous antibiotics [23, 59, 60]. In two trials, monotherapy with moxifloxacin has also shown to be safe and effective [25, 61] although moxifloxacin has no activity against *P. aeruginosa* [62, 63]. Due to exceedingly low prevalence of *P. aeruginosa* in this low-risk patient population (<1%) and due to the fact that patients with invasive *P. aeruginosa* infections will likely be identified by high burden of illness, there is no clear preference between moxifloxacin or the combination of amoxicillin-clavulanate plus ciprofloxacin [25]. In settings with a high prevalence of ESBL-producing *Enterobacterales* and fluoroquinolone resistance, inpatient treatment with a carbapenem is advised in low-risk neutropenic patients [64]. In The Netherlands, national surveillance data (Nethmap) on inpatient departments shows a background fluoroquinolone resistance of *Enterobacterales* and non-fermenters of 4-14% (ciprofloxacin resistance of *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, *P. mirabilis*, *E. cloacae* complex, *P. aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* spp.) and an estimated percentage of ESBL carrying *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* of 6-9% [65]. Considering the Dutch antimicrobial resistance rates, both the combination of amoxicillin-clavulanate plus ciprofloxacin or moxifloxacin monotherapy can be used in this population. In patients that have gastrointestinal complaints, a once-daily single pill regimen as with moxifloxacin, may be regarded as more favorable.

Although fluoroquinolone prophylaxis is not advised in non-high risk neutropenic patients that generally have short duration neutropenia, in selected cases, patients may still receive this. Since all oral treatment regimens contain a fluoroquinolone, oral outpatient treatment is not recommended for patients in which fever develops during prophylactic treatment with fluoroquinolones. These patients should be regarded as high risk for complications and hospital admission and intravenous antibiotic treatment is advised.

In conclusion, we recommend to treat adult patients with FUO and standard-risk neutropenia and a high MASCC score, indicating low risk for serious complications, with the combination of amoxicillin/clavulanate 500/125 mg p.o. q8hr plus ciprofloxacin 500mg p.o. q12hr or with monotherapy moxifloxacin 400mg p.o. q24hr.

3.4 Additional treatment for patients with central venous catheters

A number of trials summarized in a systematic meta-analysis [66] have shown that empirical addition of Gram-positive coverage using glycopeptides or addition of beta-lactam antibiotics directed against gram positive pathogens (e.g. flucloxacillin or amoxicillin/clavulanic acid) used for treatment of febrile neutropenia does not improve clinical outcome (defined as survival or infection related mortality) at the cost of increased side effects. This only applies when there is no clear CVC entry infection. Patients included in the trials that were reviewed in this meta-analysis did were not stratified according to the presence of a CVC but the majority of the patients in the trials did have a CVC. Most bacteria associated with CVC-infection which are insufficiently treated with single agent beta-lactam regimens advised for febrile neutropenia are low-virulence organisms (CNS and enterococci) which do not require immediate empirical antimicrobial treatment. Treatment of these low-virulence pathogens can be initiated when identified from blood cultures. Therefore, additional Gram-positive coverage (e.g. but not limited to vancomycin) is reserved for settings in which infection of the CVC is clinically apparent. This recommendation does not apply to neutropenic patients admitted to the ICU as these patients were not included in any of the trials included in the aforementioned systematic review [66].

3.5 Hemodynamically unstable neutropenic patients/neutropenic patients admitted to the ICU

Randomized controlled trials of neutropenic patients admitted to the ICU are lacking and ICU referral is often a study endpoint. Therefore, recommendations are based on expert opinion. Moreover, most neutropenic patients that are hemodynamically unstable at presentation of fever have been excluded from clinical trials examining use of empirical antibiotic regimens. Although antipseudomonal beta-lactam monotherapy is the first choice for all high-risk neutropenic patients, guidelines commenting on the hemodynamically unstable (requiring relocation to the ICU) patients, leave room for the addition of a second gram-negative agent or a glycopeptide [11, 12, 44, 58, 67-69]. The IDSA guideline only recommends to broaden coverage for resistant Gram-negative bacteria in hemodynamic unstable patients with persistent fever after initial doses with standard agents for neutropenic fever [11]. Evaluating the evidence for non-ICU patients, the addition of aminoglycoside, as described above, was not associated with better survival in high-risk neutropenic patients with fever. The routine addition of glycopeptides in high-risk neutropenic patients does not influence survival [66, 70]. Intravenous antipseudomonal beta-lactams remain the first-choice empirical therapy for children and high-risk neutropenic patients admitted to the ICU and should be given without delay [69]. Nonetheless, in neutropenic hemodynamically unstable (requiring ICU admission) patients with a CVC, the addition of a glycopeptide or oxazolidone (e.g., vancomycin, teicoplanin, linezolid) to treat possible CLABSI with coagulase negative staphylococci or enterococci may be considered, pending microbiological results.

Empirical treatment for non-mold fungal infections (e.g., *Candida* spp.) can be considered in settings associated with increased prevalence of non-mold fungal infections: high risk neutropenia without prophylaxis against fungal spp. or patients in which colonization with fungal spp. persist despite prophylaxis, especially when accompanied by mucositis. The choice to start treatment with empirical *Candida*-active agents (e.g., echinocandins) should only be considered in patients with high burden of disease (e.g., ICU admission, enterocolitis) in settings with high local incidence. .

There is no evidence supporting a difference in the treatment of sepsis and septic shock in patients with neutropenia compared to non-neutropenic septic patients. We therefore recommend to treat adult patient with FUO and standard-risk neutropenia and a low MASCC score (indicating high risk for serious complications) as per the local treatment protocol for sepsis [38].

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
<p>1. Adult patients with fever of unknown origin (FUO) and high-risk neutropenia should be treated with monotherapy with one of following beta-lactam antibiotic drugs with antipseudomonal activity:</p> <p>1st choice: Ceftazidime 2000mg q8hr Cefepime 2000mg q8hr Piperacillin/Tazobactam 4000/500mg q6hr</p> <p>2nd choice: Meropenem 1000mg q8hr Imipenem/Cilastin 500/500mg q6hr</p>	Strong	High
<p>2. Since no reliable risk stratification can be made, all children with FUO should be treated with one of following beta-lactam antibiotic drugs with antipseudomonal activity:</p> <p>1st choice: Ceftazidime Cefepime Piperacillin/Tazobactam</p> <p>2nd choice: Meropenem Imipenem/Cilastin</p> <p>For dosages, see www.kinderformularium.nl</p>	Strong	Low
<p>3. In adults with FUO and standard-risk (e.g., ≤ 7 days expected) neutropenia, antibiotic treatment should be based on clinical burden and severity of illness as quantified using Multinational Association for Supportive Care in Cancer (MASCC) score or equivalent.</p>	Strong	High

4. Adult patients with FUO during standard-risk neutropenia and a high MASCC score indicating low risk for serious complications can be treated with: Amoxicillin/clavulanate 500/125mg p.o. q8hr + ciprofloxacin 500mg p.o. q12hr or with moxifloxacin 400mg p.o. q24hr.	Strong	High
5. In patients with central venous catheters (CVC), addition of empirical Gram-positive coverage (e.g., glycopeptide or oxazolidones such as vancomycin or linezolid) is only recommended when infection of the CVC is clinically apparent.	Strong	High
6. In hemodynamically instable patients that are admitted to the ICU, vancomycin may be added in patients in which a CVC is present prior to development of fever.	Moderate	Very low
7. Adult patients with FUO and standard-risk neutropenia and a low MASCC score, indicating high risk for serious complications should be treated as per the local treatment protocol for sepsis.	Strong	Very low
8. Indication for empirical treatment with antifungal agents for covering of non-mold fungal infections (e.g. <i>Candida</i>) should be restricted to settings with high local incidence of invasive non-mold fungal infections in patients with high burden of disease (e.g. ICU admission, enterocolitis) in combination with one or more of following: Persistence of fungal spp. in surveillance culture Patient has not received antifungal prophylaxis	Adult: moderate Children: weak	Adult: moderate Children: very low

4. How is treatment adjusted in case of clinical or microbiological diagnosis?

4.1 Should empirical antibiotic therapy be adjusted in case of a clinically apparent focus?

In the majority of febrile episodes in neutropenic patients no specific origin can be identified. Nevertheless, fever should always prompt clinical evaluation including patient history and physical examination since upon finding a potential infectious focus site specific cultures may be taken and empirical antibiotic therapy may be altered. It should be taken into account that a clinically apparent infection in neutropenic patients may have other causative agents than in otherwise healthy patients (e.g., alternative bacterial, fungal or viral pathogens). Certain foci may require extension of the spectrum of the initial empirical antibiotic regimen. For example, in skin infections coverage of Gram-positive agents including *S. aureus* is warranted, especially in hospitals in which ceftazidime is the empirical treatment. For suspected urinary tract infections and pneumonia, no additional treatment is required. Special care should be taken in case of a suspected central nervous system infection and

immediate consultation with a specialist should be initiated. Therapy should be targeted to treat a clinical apparent focus in clinically stable patients with resolution of fever after 72h of initial empirical therapy as addressed as in chapter 3, based upon the spectrum of microorganisms typically involved in the respective clinically documented infection.

4.2 Neutropenic enterocolitis

Severe and prolonged neutropenia may result in reduced intramucosal defense against gut pathogens and enterocolitis may develop, often resulting in abdominal pain, diarrhea and cecal wall thickening in combination with “fat stranding” on CT scan, a clinical syndrome known as neutropenic enterocolitis or typhlitis. Neutropenic enterocolitis is difficult to distinguish from or may be accompanied by enterocolitis caused by *C. difficile*, and the imminent diagnosis warrants testing for *C. difficile* in all patients [71, 72]. Anaerobes and Gram-negative organisms predominate as causative agents in neutropenic enterocolitis and treatment regimens may consist of a combination of an antipseudomonal cephalosporin plus metronidazole or monotherapy with piperacillin-tazobactam or a carbapenem [11]. Furthermore, vigilance for infections with yeast species is warranted for patients that suffer neutropenic enterocolitis as per chapter 6.

4.3 Should empirical antibiotic therapy be streamlined in retrieval of possible causative pathogen from blood culture.

Although the evidence is very low, guidelines are equivocal about the advice that when a causative microorganism is identified, initial antimicrobial agents should be streamlined accordingly. When altering antibiotic therapy based on positive blood cultures it is important to consider the etiologic relevance of the positive blood culture. Although Gram-negative bacteria are generally considered of etiologic relevance, the clinical relevance of Gram-positive bacteremia is variable depending on the bacterial species identified. Moreover, blood cultures may yield multiple findings. It is therefore advised to continue Gram-negative treatment for 72h before streamlining to Gram-positive treatment to assure initial appropriate treatment for possible Gram-negative bacteria that may still be cultured.

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. In patients in with a probable clinically apparent infectious origin for fever, antimicrobial coverage of empirical therapy should be expanded to include targeting of causative pathogens for that specific infection.	Strong	Moderate

2. When fever is possibly caused by a clinically apparent infection, antibiotic treatment should be streamlined according to this infection after 72 hours of initial empirical therapy, after resolution of fever in a patient that is clinically stable.	Weak	Very low (Expert opinion)
3. In case of neutropenic enterocolitis, antibiotic treatment is extended to cover anaerobic bacteria when initial empirical therapy has no antianaerobic activity (e.g. addition of metronidazole 500mg q8hr in case of initial ceftazidime or cefepime treatment).	Strong	Low
4. Upon identification of Gram-negative bacteria in blood cultures, prompt streamlining of initial empirical therapy is advised.	Strong	Very low (Expert opinion)
5. Upon identification of Gram-positive bacteria from blood culture that are considered causative for the febrile episode, targeted therapy is advised, but initial empirical coverage for Gram-negative bacteria should be continued for 72 hours.	Moderate	Very low (Expert opinion)

5. *What is the optimal duration of treatment for FUO?*

In patients with FUO (defined as lack of microbiological or clinically documented infection), no definitive evidence on optimal duration of treatment has been published. Traditionally, prolonged treatment was proposed until resolution of neutropenia based on the assumption that fever resulted from translocation of bacterial antigens through a damaged digestive tract. Once a focus for infection, repeated bacterial translocation would ensue [11, 73]. To date, the American and Korean guidelines adhere to this advice [11, 67] and propose that long term experience with this strategy has resulted in confirmation of its safety and efficacy. More recently, antibiotic stewardship, bacterial resistance, and other negative implications of reducing microbiome diversity, such as possible long-term effects on graft versus host disease, have resulted in the tendency to shorten treatment courses. Several authoritative guidelines advocate this strategy [9, 44, 68, 74]. A number of studies that have been performed primarily in children have confirmed safety of stopping antibiotic treatment after defervescence after 48 hours [75, 76]. Of note, only children that had low risk of infectious complications were included in these studies (no reasons for prolonged hospitalization, underlying cancer in remission) and these children mostly had diagnoses of which treatment would have resulted in low-risk neutropenia in adults, being reflected in absence of mortality in these studies.

In adults with high-risk neutropenia prophylactic antibiotic regimens will mostly be resumed upon discontinuation of empirical antibiotics, resulting in maintained antibiotic treatment for the duration of neutropenia in most high-risk neutropenia patients. Several guidelines advise a treatment duration with empirical antibiotics of five days after defervescence [9, 11, 74], with little evidence-based

support. A number of observational publications have advocated safety of a three-day treatment course in patients that have become free of fever [77, 78] and a Spanish observational study showed that the vast majority of blood cultures become positive within the first 24 hours, obviating the need for long-term treatment in order to cover pathogens that require long culture times [79]. A recently completed Dutch trial compared a three-day treatment course with nine days of treatment with meropenem. In this trial, antibiotics were also discontinued in patients that remained febrile. Results of this study have not been published. Presumed safety of short-term regimens in combination with a preference to treat as short as possible in order to reduce antimicrobial resistance led to the recommendation to discontinue empirical antibiotic treatment in stable patients if no fever persists. In patients that remain febrile, discontinuation of empirical antibiotic treatment is under increased scrutiny. Outside the aforementioned unpublished Dutch trial, no data underlie treatment advice. In patients in which antibacterial prophylaxis is given, reverting to this prophylactic regimen may be prudent in clinically stable patients that remain hospitalized with the goal of reducing treatment duration of broad-spectrum empirical antibiotics and complications resulting from these agents (e.g., *C. difficile* infections, candidemia) [80, 81].

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. if no fever persists, blood cultures are negative and the patient is clinically stable, empiric therapy should be discontinued after 72 hrs (and revert to prophylaxis).	Strong	Low
2. In patients that remain hospitalized and are clinically stable with negative blood cultures but with persisting fever: consider discontinuation of antibiotic treatment (revert to prophylaxis).	Weak	Very low

6. *What is the predictive value of surveillance cultures for infections with resistant bacteria?*

In previous studies the sensitivity of colonization with Multi-Drug-Resistant (MDR) bacteria for MDR-BSI in the hematologic patient population ranged from 45-91% [82-89]. With most evidence for and very high negative predictive value of ESBL-E colonization for ESBL-E bacteremia (73.9-99.8%) [82, 84, 85, 87, 88]. Two studies showed that *P. aeruginosa* colonization independent of resistance can be predictive for infection [86, 90]. The ECIL-4 guidelines conclude that colonization or infection by resistant organisms is the most important risk factor for infection with resistant pathogens [44]. Adjustment of treatment based on colonization with specific pathogens or the selection of narrow-spectrum empirical antibiotic therapy based on the absence of (resistant) pathogens in routine surveillance cultures has not been studied. Most Gram-negative bacteria are covered by the empirical

antibiotic therapy recommended by this guideline (chapter 3). When patients are colonized with ESBL-producing *Enterobacterales* or *P. aeruginosa* resistant to these antibiotics, empirical antimicrobial treatment should be adjusted accordingly.

Initial empirical treatment does not include the coverage of VRE, penicillin resistant viridans streptococci and/or *Candida* species. VRE colonization is found to be predictive of VRE infection in several studies [85, 91-95], but enterococci are not covered in empirical antibiotic regimens for febrile neutropenia due to the fact that they are of low pathogenicity. Therefore, the adjustment of antibiotic therapy due to VRE colonization is only recommended when infection with enterococci is highly suspected or in critically ill patients (e.g., ICU admission, see chapter 3.3). Evidence for the relationship between colonization and infection with penicillin resistant viridans streptococci is scarce and no evidence-based recommendations can be made [96, 97]. Colonization with *Candida* species, especially multiple site colonization, is found to be a risk factor for candidemia or invasive candidiasis [98-100]. However, incidence of candidemia and/or invasive candidiasis is low and therefore the coverage of *Candida* species is not included in the empirical antimicrobial therapy recommended by this guideline (chapter 2). Initiating empirical anti-fungal therapy may result in excess cost and treatment-related toxicities that may not be justified. Therefore, empirical therapy with antifungal agents is not recommended. Pre-emptive antifungal therapy should be considered in patients with high burden of disease (e.g., ICU admission, enterocolitis) in combination with one or more of following (chapter 3.2):

- Persistence of yeast species in surveillance culture
- Absence of antifungal prophylaxis

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Choice of empirical antimicrobial treatment in high-risk neutropenia should be guided by surveillance cultures in which colonization with ESBL-producing <i>Enterobacterales</i> or multiresistant <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> is identified.	Strong	Very low

7. What are the indications for removal of CVC in patients with febrile neutropenia?

All foreign bodies carry the risk of being a source for colonization and infection and consequently may cause fever. CVC's should be evaluated for potential site of infection in a febrile episode. In all patients, CVC removal is advised if there is no medical requirement.

Five trials performed specifically involving neutropenic patients with CVC's are published [101-105] In none of these CVC removal versus maintenance is investigated in the setting of a putative CVC

infection. Therefore, the recommendation on CVC maintenance versus removal and CVC salvage using antimicrobial treatment is adopted from guidelines on catheter related infections in immunocompetent patients [106]. Risk balance between recurrence of blood stream infection (BSI) and removal of CVC should be made in all patients with CVC. A lower threshold of CVC removal in neutropenic patients that have had a Gram-negative bacteremia or who are critically ill is justified. Immediate CVC removal is indicated for bacteremia with *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus*, and *Candida* species as per the central line-associated BSI (CLABSI), *S. aureus* bacteremia and Candidemia guidelines.

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. Removal of a CVC is advised in all patients with fever and no medical requirement for the CVC.	Strong	Low
2. Removal of CVC in case of catheter associated blood stream infections should be in concordance with CLABSI guideline.	High	Very low

8. *What is the role for G-CSF in treatment of febrile neutropenia?*

In neutropenic patients that suffer from fever, reducing the duration of neutropenia may reduce the duration of the febrile period and aid in the treatment of febrile patients. To this end, treatment with granulocyte colony stimulating factor (G-CSF) has been evaluated in patients with cancer in a number of randomized controlled trials, largely summarized in a systematic review [107]. In these studies, febrile patients were treated with antibiotics and with G-CSF, in contrast with treating with G-CSF prophylactically [108-110]. These studies equivocally exhibited reduced length of neutropenia without beneficial effects on duration of fever, length of hospital stay or mortality. Although these studies have not been powered to evaluate use in specific infections (e.g., mold infections), the guideline committee advises against standard use of G-CSF as adjunctive treatment in febrile neutropenia.

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. treatment with G-CSF as adjunctive modality in febrile neutropenia yields no survival benefit or reduction in infection related mortality at a cost of more adverse effects and is therefore not routinely recommended.	Strong	High

9. *What additional investigations should be done to rule out an infective focus in patients with febrile of unknown origin?*

The initial diagnostic approach of the neutropenic patient with fever aims to establish a clinical and microbiologic diagnosis, which leads to targeted (antibiotic) treatment and thereby improving the patient's prognosis. In neutropenic patients with fever this should at least include clinical history, physical examination and the drawing of blood cultures before antibiotic therapy is administered (peripheral and CVC).

9.1 Imaging

In patients with clinical signs and symptoms of pneumonia radiographic imaging (conventional chest X-ray radiography (CXR) or chest CT-scan) is recommended and should be obtained within 24 hours. In one study, sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, and negative predictive value for conventional radiography were 36%, 93%, 50% and 88%, and for low-dose CT-scan 73%, 91%, 62% and 94% respectively [111]. Therefore, chest CT-scan is the preferred modality due to the higher sensitivity and specificity [111, 112]. The optimal timing of radiological imaging is not known, in studies and in clinical practice CXR or chest CT-scan are often performed within 24 hours [111, 113].

In asymptomatic children, previous studies show that chest radiography rarely shows a pneumonia, and if CXR was not obtained no significant adverse clinical consequences were observed [37, 114-116]. The lack of consequence of the rare abnormal CXR in absence of respiratory symptoms/signs has been confirmed in adults [113, 117]. Therefore, routine radiography in the work-up of febrile neutropenia (CXR or chest CT-scan) without symptoms of a respiratory infection is not recommended. This advice specifically concerns radiography in the first 24 hours of fever and does not involve chest imaging aimed at diagnosing invasive fungal infections in patients with persistent fever.

9.2 Urine analysis

During neutropenia, the diagnosis of a urinary tract infection (UTI) can be challenging, as pyuria is not a reliable parameter in neutropenic patients with UTI [118]. In addition, UTI symptoms can be atypical or even absent [119], while a positive culture may reflect contamination of colonization instead of infection. For the diagnosis of a urinary tract infection, a positive urine culture combined with the clinical suspicion of an UTI remain the gold standard. Furthermore, routine urine analysis in absence of complaints may result in excessive invasive procedures (as catheterization may be required in children) or therapeutic delay in absence of therapeutic consequences.

In conclusion, routine urinalysis or urine cultures are not beneficial in patients that do not exhibit urinary tract complaints and may be unnecessarily invasive (e.g., requiring catheterization). Therefore,

in both children and adults, urine cultures are recommended only when UTI is suspected or if the patient has a history of recurrent UTI's.

Recommendation	Strength	Quality of evidence
1. In neutropenic patients with fever, routine conventional chest radiography (CXR) is not recommended.	Strong	Moderate
2. Obtain imaging (CXR or CT) within 24 hours in patients with clinical signs and symptoms of pneumonia. A CT-scan is preferred due to a higher sensitivity.	Adult: Strong Children: Strong	Adult: Low Children: Moderate
3. Urine culture should be performed when an UTI is clinically suspected or the patient has a history of recurrent UTI's.	Weak	Low

CONCEPT

7. Funding and Conflict of Interest

For the development of this guideline, the SWAB was funded by the National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (RIVM-Cib), the Netherlands.

The SWAB employs strict guidelines with regard to potential conflicts of interests, as described in the SWAB Format for Guideline Development (www.swab.nl). All members of the guideline committee complied with the SWAB policy on conflicts of interest, which requires disclosure of any financial or other interest that might be construed as constituting an actual, potential, or apparent conflict. Members of the guideline committee were provided the SWAB conflict of interest disclosure statement and were asked to identify ties to companies developing products or other parties that might be affected by the guideline. Information was requested regarding employment, honoraria, consultancies, stock ownership, research funding, and membership on company advisory committees. The panel made decisions on a case-by-case basis as to whether an individual's role should be limited as a result of a conflict.

Potential conflicts are listed at the bottom of the guideline.

CONCEPT

8. Applicability and Validity

The guideline articulates the prevailing professional standard in diagnosis and management of febrile neutropenia in patients with cancer and contains general recommendations for the antibiotic treatment of hospitalized adults and children and outpatient treatment of adults. It is possible that these recommendations are not applicable in an individual patient case. The applicability of the guideline in clinical practice is the responsibility of the treating physician. There may be facts or circumstances which, in the interest of proper patient care, non-adherence to the guideline is desirable.

SWAB intends to revise their guidelines every 5 years. The potential need for earlier revisions will be determined by the SWAB board at annual intervals, on the basis of an examination of current literature. If necessary, the guidelines committee will be reconvened to discuss potential changes. When appropriate, the committee will recommend expedited revision of the guideline to the SWAB board.

Therefore, in 2026 or earlier if necessary, the guideline will be reevaluated.

CONCEPT

9. References

1. Kuderer, N.M., et al., *Mortality, morbidity, and cost associated with febrile neutropenia in adult cancer patients*. *Cancer*, 2006. **106**(10): p. 2258-66.
2. Zuckermann, J., et al., *Compliance with a critical pathway for the management of febrile neutropenia and impact on clinical outcomes*. *Ann Hematol*, 2008. **87**(2): p. 139-45.
3. Jara de la Court, J.J., Nick de Jonge, Marije Bomers, Merel Lambregts, Sjoukje Woudt, Marianne Kuijvenhoven, Tjomme van der Bruggen, Rogier Schade, Kim Sigaloff, *Empirische antibiotische therapie voor koorts bij neutropenie in Nederland*. *Ned Tijdschr Med Microbiol* 2018, 2018. **26**(3).
4. Brouwers, M.C., et al., *AGREE II: advancing guideline development, reporting and evaluation in health care*. *Cmaj*, 2010. **182**(18): p. E839-42.
5. SWAB. *Format richtlijnontwikkeling* <https://www.swab.nl> [updated 29 september 2017]

Available from:

<https://www.swab.nl/swab/cms3.nsf/viewdoc/A4D8293A248F3EFFF12581AD00319A53>.

6. Castellini, G., et al., *Assessing imprecision in Cochrane systematic reviews: a comparison of GRADE and Trial Sequential Analysis*. *Syst Rev*, 2018. **7**(1): p. 110.
7. Lyman, G.H. and N.M. Kuderer, *Epidemiology of Febrile Neutropenia*. *Supportive Cancer Therapy*, 2003. **1**(1): p. 23-35.
8. Crawford, J., D.C. Dale, and G.H. Lyman, *Chemotherapy-induced neutropenia: risks, consequences, and new directions for its management*. *Cancer*, 2004. **100**(2): p. 228-37.
9. Heinz, W.J., et al., *Diagnosis and empirical treatment of fever of unknown origin (FUO) in adult neutropenic patients: guidelines of the Infectious Diseases Working Party (AGIHO) of the German Society of Hematology and Medical Oncology (DGHO)*. *Ann Hematol*, 2017. **96**(11): p. 1775-1792.
10. Bodey, G.P., et al., *Quantitative relationships between circulating leukocytes and infection in patients with acute leukemia*. *Ann Intern Med*, 1966. **64**(2): p. 328-40.
11. Freifeld, A.G., et al., *Clinical practice guideline for the use of antimicrobial agents in neutropenic patients with cancer: 2010 update by the infectious diseases society of america*. *Clin Infect Dis*, 2011. **52**(4): p. e56-93.
12. Carmona-Bayonas, A., et al., *SEOM clinical practice guideline: management and prevention of febrile neutropenia in adults with solid tumors (2018)*. *Clin Transl Oncol*, 2019. **21**(1): p. 75-86.
13. Liu, C.Y., et al., *Impact of bloodstream infections on outcome and the influence of prophylactic oral antibiotic regimens in allogeneic hematopoietic SCT recipients*. *Bone Marrow Transplantation*, 2011. **46**(9): p. 1231-1239.
14. Garnica, M., et al., *Ciprofloxacin prophylaxis in high risk neutropenic patients: effects on outcomes, antimicrobial therapy and resistance*. *BMC Infectious Diseases*, 2013. **13**(1): p. 356.
15. Mikulska, M., et al., *Fluoroquinolone prophylaxis in haematological cancer patients with neutropenia: ECIL critical appraisal of previous guidelines*. *Journal of Infection*, 2018. **76**(1): p. 20-37.
16. Sohn, B.S., et al., *The role of prophylactic antimicrobials during autologous stem cell transplantation: a single-center experience*. *European Journal of Clinical Microbiology & Infectious Diseases*, 2012. **31**(7): p. 1653-1661.
17. Vehreschild, J.J., et al., *Efficacy and safety of moxifloxacin as antibacterial prophylaxis for patients receiving autologous haematopoietic stem cell transplantation: a randomised trial*. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 2012. **39**(2): p. 130-134.
18. Wolska, A., et al., *Ciprofloxacin prophylaxis for patients undergoing high-dose chemotherapy and autologous stem cell transplantation (ASCT) - a single-center experience*. *Adv Med Sci*, 2012. **57**(1): p. 118-23.
19. Chong, Y., et al., *Clinical impact of fluoroquinolone prophylaxis in neutropenic patients with hematological malignancies*. *Int J Infect Dis*, 2011. **15**(4): p. e277-81.

20. Verlinden, A., et al., *Clinical and microbiological impact of discontinuation of fluoroquinolone prophylaxis in patients with prolonged profound neutropenia*. European Journal of Haematology, 2014. **93**(4): p. 302-308.
21. Alexander, S., et al., *Effect of Levofloxacin Prophylaxis on Bacteremia in Children With Acute Leukemia or Undergoing Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplantation: A Randomized Clinical Trial*. JAMA, 2018. **320**(10): p. 995-1004.
22. Hidalgo, M., et al., *Outpatient therapy with oral ofloxacin for patients with low risk neutropenia and fever: a prospective, randomized clinical trial*. Cancer, 1999. **85**(1): p. 213-9.
23. Innes, H.E., et al., *Oral antibiotics with early hospital discharge compared with in-patient intravenous antibiotics for low-risk febrile neutropenia in patients with cancer: a prospective randomised controlled single centre study*. Br J Cancer, 2003. **89**(1): p. 43-9.
24. Malik, I.A., et al., *Feasibility of outpatient management of fever in cancer patients with low-risk neutropenia: results of a prospective randomized trial*. Am J Med, 1995. **98**(3): p. 224-31.
25. Kern, W.V., et al., *Oral antibiotics for fever in low-risk neutropenic patients with cancer: a double-blind, randomized, multicenter trial comparing single daily moxifloxacin with twice daily ciprofloxacin plus amoxicillin/clavulanic acid combination therapy--EORTC infectious diseases group trial XV*. J Clin Oncol, 2013. **31**(9): p. 1149-56.
26. Minotti, V., et al., *Domiciliary treatment of febrile episodes in cancer patients: a prospective randomized trial comparing oral versus parenteral empirical antibiotic treatment*. Support Care Cancer, 1999. **7**(3): p. 134-9.
27. Rivas-Ruiz, R., et al., *Outpatient treatment for people with cancer who develop a low-risk febrile neutropaenic event*. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, 2019(3).
28. Chatzinikolaou, I., et al., *Recent experience with Pseudomonas aeruginosa bacteremia in patients with cancer: Retrospective analysis of 245 episodes*. Arch Intern Med, 2000. **160**(4): p. 501-9.
29. Kang, C.-I., et al., *Pseudomonas aeruginosa Bacteremia: Risk Factors for Mortality and Influence of Delayed Receipt of Effective Antimicrobial Therapy on Clinical Outcome*. Clinical Infectious Diseases, 2003. **37**(6): p. 745-751.
30. Paul, M., et al., *Anti-pseudomonal beta-lactams for the initial, empirical, treatment of febrile neutropenia: comparison of beta-lactams*. Cochrane Database Syst Rev, 2010(11): p. CD005197.*
31. Yahav, D., et al., *Efficacy and safety of cefepime: a systematic review and meta-analysis*. Lancet Infect Dis, 2007. **7**(5): p. 338-48.
32. Kim, P.W., et al., *Meta-analysis of a possible signal of increased mortality associated with cefepime use*. Clin Infect Dis, 2010. **51**(4): p. 381-9.
33. Rockville, M.F.a.D.A., *Information for healthcare professionals: Cefepime (marketed as Maxipime)*. 2009.
34. Paul, M., et al., *Beta lactam monotherapy versus beta lactam-aminoglycoside combination therapy for sepsis in immunocompetent patients: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised trials*. Bmj, 2004. **328**(7441): p. 668.
35. Paul, M., et al., *Beta-lactam versus beta-lactam-aminoglycoside combination therapy in cancer patients with neutropenia*. Cochrane Database Syst Rev, 2013. **2013**(6): p. Cd003038.
36. Furno, P., G. Bucaneve, and A. Del Favero, *Monotherapy or aminoglycoside-containing combinations for empirical antibiotic treatment of febrile neutropenic patients: a meta-analysis*. Lancet Infect Dis, 2002. **2**(4): p. 231-42.
37. Robinson, P.D., et al., *Strategies for Empiric Management of Pediatric Fever and Neutropenia in Patients With Cancer and Hematopoietic Stem-Cell Transplantation Recipients: A Systematic Review of Randomized Trials*. J Clin Oncol, 2016. **34**(17): p. 2054-60.
38. al, E.s.e., *The Dutch Working Party on Antibiotic Policy (SWAB) guideline for empirical antibacterial therapy of sepsis in adults*. 2020.

39. Mouton, J.W. and J.G. den Hollander, *Killing of Pseudomonas aeruginosa during continuous and intermittent infusion of ceftazidime in an in vitro pharmacokinetic model*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 1994. **38**(5): p. 931-6.
40. Fehér, C., et al., *Effect of meropenem administration in extended infusion on the clinical outcome of febrile neutropenia: a retrospective observational study*. J Antimicrob Chemother, 2014. **69**(9): p. 2556-62.
41. Ram, R., et al., *Extended vs Bolus Infusion of Broad-Spectrum β -Lactams for Febrile Neutropenia: An Unblinded, Randomized Trial*. Clin Infect Dis, 2018. **67**(8): p. 1153-1160.
42. Wrenn, R.H., et al., *Extended infusion compared to standard infusion cefepime as empiric treatment of febrile neutropenia*. Journal of Oncology Pharmacy Practice, 2018. **24**(3): p. 170-175.
43. Laporte-Amargos, J., et al., *Efficacy of extended infusion of β -lactam antibiotics for the treatment of febrile neutropenia in haematologic patients: protocol for a randomised, multicentre, open-label, superiority clinical trial (BEATLE)*. Trials, 2020. **21**(1): p. 412.
44. Averbuch, D., et al., *European guidelines for empirical antibacterial therapy for febrile neutropenic patients in the era of growing resistance: summary of the 2011 4th European Conference on Infections in Leukemia*. Haematologica, 2013. **98**(12): p. 1826-35.
45. Gudiol, C., et al., *Bacteraemia due to multidrug-resistant Gram-negative bacilli in cancer patients: risk factors, antibiotic therapy and outcomes*. J Antimicrob Chemother, 2011. **66**(3): p. 657-63.
46. Ben-Ami, R., et al., *Antibiotic Exposure as a Risk Factor for Fluconazole-Resistant Candida Bloodstream Infection*. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy, 2012. **56**(5): p. 2518-2523.
47. Satlin, M.J., et al., *Bacteremia due to carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae in neutropenic patients with hematologic malignancies*. Journal of Infection, 2016. **73**(4): p. 336-345.
48. Ballo, O., et al., *Use of carbapenems and glycopeptides increases risk for Clostridioides difficile infections in acute myeloid leukemia patients undergoing intensive induction chemotherapy*. Annals of Hematology, 2020. **99**(11): p. 2547-2553.
49. Klastersky, J., et al., *The Multinational Association for Supportive Care in Cancer risk index: A multinational scoring system for identifying low-risk febrile neutropenic cancer patients*. J Clin Oncol, 2000. **18**(16): p. 3038-51.
50. Talcott, J.A., et al., *Risk assessment in cancer patients with fever and neutropenia: a prospective, two-center validation of a prediction rule*. J Clin Oncol, 1992. **10**(2): p. 316-22.
51. Carmona-Bayonas, A., et al., *Prognostic evaluation of febrile neutropenia in apparently stable adult cancer patients*. Br J Cancer, 2011. **105**(5): p. 612-7.
52. Rackoff, W.R., et al., *Predicting the risk of bacteremia in children with fever and neutropenia*. J Clin Oncol, 1996. **14**(3): p. 919-24.
53. Alexander, S.W., et al., *Evaluation of risk prediction criteria for episodes of febrile neutropenia in children with cancer*. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol, 2002. **24**(1): p. 38-42.
54. Rondinelli, P.I., C. Ribeiro Kde, and B. de Camargo, *A proposed score for predicting severe infection complications in children with chemotherapy-induced febrile neutropenia*. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol, 2006. **28**(10): p. 665-70.
55. Santolaya, M.E., et al., *Prospective, multicenter evaluation of risk factors associated with invasive bacterial infection in children with cancer, neutropenia, and fever*. J Clin Oncol, 2001. **19**(14): p. 3415-21.
56. Ammann, R.A., et al., *Identification of children presenting with fever in chemotherapy-induced neutropenia at low risk for severe bacterial infection*. Med Pediatr Oncol, 2003. **41**(5): p. 436-43.
57. Ammann, R.A., et al., *Predicting adverse events in children with fever and chemotherapy-induced neutropenia: the prospective multicenter SPOG 2003 FN study*. J Clin Oncol, 2010. **28**(12): p. 2008-14.

58. Lehrnbecher, T., et al., *Guideline for the Management of Fever and Neutropenia in Children With Cancer and Hematopoietic Stem-Cell Transplantation Recipients: 2017 Update*. J Clin Oncol, 2017. **35**(18): p. 2082-2094.
59. Kern, W.V., et al., *Oral versus intravenous empirical antimicrobial therapy for fever in patients with granulocytopenia who are receiving cancer chemotherapy*. International Antimicrobial Therapy Cooperative Group of the European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer. N Engl J Med, 1999. **341**(5): p. 312-8.
60. Freifeld, A., et al., *A double-blind comparison of empirical oral and intravenous antibiotic therapy for low-risk febrile patients with neutropenia during cancer chemotherapy*. N Engl J Med, 1999. **341**(5): p. 305-11.
61. Rolston, K.V., et al., *Oral moxifloxacin for outpatient treatment of low-risk, febrile neutropenic patients*. Support Care Cancer, 2010. **18**(1): p. 89-94.
62. Grillon, A., et al., *Comparative Activity of Ciprofloxacin, Levofloxacin and Moxifloxacin against Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Stenotrophomonas maltophilia Assessed by Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations and Time-Kill Studies*. PLoS One, 2016. **11**(6): p. e0156690.
63. Rolston, K.V., et al., *In vitro antimicrobial activity of moxifloxacin compared to other quinolones against recent clinical bacterial isolates from hospitalized and community-based cancer patients*. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis, 2003. **47**(2): p. 441-9.
64. Taplitz, R.A., et al., *Outpatient Management of Fever and Neutropenia in Adults Treated for Malignancy: American Society of Clinical Oncology and Infectious Diseases Society of America Clinical Practice Guideline Update*. J Clin Oncol, 2018. **36**(14): p. 1443-1453.
65. de Greeff, S., A. Schoffelen, and C. Verduin, *NethMap 2020: Consumption of antimicrobial agents and antimicrobial resistance among medically important bacteria in the Netherlands in 2019 / MARAN 2020: Monitoring of Antimicrobial Resistance and Antibiotic Usage in Animals in the Netherlands in 2019*. 2020, Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu RIVM.
66. Paul, M., et al., *Empirical antibiotics targeting Gram-positive bacteria for the treatment of febrile neutropenic patients with cancer*. Cochrane Database Syst Rev, 2014(1): p. Cd003914.
67. Lee, D.G., et al., *Evidence-based guidelines for empirical therapy of neutropenic fever in Korea*. Korean J Intern Med, 2011. **26**(2): p. 220-52.
68. Bate, J., et al., *Neutropenic sepsis: prevention and management of neutropenic sepsis in cancer patients (NICE Clinical Guideline CG151)*. Arch Dis Child Educ Pract Ed, 2013. **98**(2): p. 73-5.
69. Kochanek, M., et al., *Management of sepsis in neutropenic cancer patients: 2018 guidelines from the Infectious Diseases Working Party (AGIHO) and Intensive Care Working Party (iCHOP) of the German Society of Hematology and Medical Oncology (DGHO)*. Ann Hematol, 2019. **98**(5): p. 1051-1069.
70. Vardakas, K.Z., et al., *Role of glycopeptides as part of initial empirical treatment of febrile neutropenic patients: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials*. Lancet Infect Dis, 2005. **5**(7): p. 431-9.
71. Cardona Zorrilla, A.F., et al., *Systematic review of case reports concerning adults suffering from neutropenic enterocolitis*. Clinical and Translational Oncology, 2006. **8**(1): p. 31-38.
72. Pugliese, N., et al., *Ultrasonography-driven combination antibiotic therapy with tigecycline significantly increases survival among patients with neutropenic enterocolitis following cytarabine-containing chemotherapy for the remission induction of acute myeloid leukemia*. Cancer Med, 2017. **6**(7): p. 1500-1511.
73. Pizzo, P.A., et al., *Duration of empiric antibiotic therapy in granulocytopenic patients with cancer*. Am J Med, 1979. **67**(2): p. 194-200.
74. Klastersky, J., et al., *Management of febrile neutropenia: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines*. Ann Oncol, 2016. **27**(suppl 5): p. v111-v118.
75. Klaassen, R.J., U. Allen, and J.J. Doyle, *Randomized Placebo-Controlled Trial of Oral Antibiotics in Pediatric Oncology Patients at Low-Risk With Fever and Neutropenia*. Journal of Pediatric Hematology/Oncology, 2000. **22**(5).

76. Cherif, H., et al., *A prospective, randomized study comparing cefepime and imipenem-cilastatin in the empirical treatment of febrile neutropenia in patients treated for haematological malignancies*. Scand J Infect Dis, 2004. **36**(8): p. 593-600.
77. Slobbe, L., et al., *Three-day treatment with imipenem for unexplained fever during prolonged neutropaenia in haematology patients receiving fluoroquinolone and fluconazole prophylaxis: a prospective observational safety study*. Eur J Cancer, 2009. **45**(16): p. 2810-7.
78. Le Clech, L., et al., *Early discontinuation of empirical antibacterial therapy in febrile neutropenia: the ANTIBIOSTOP study*. Infect Dis (Lond), 2018: p. 1-11.
79. Puerta-Alcalde, P., et al., *Current time-to-positivity of blood cultures in febrile neutropenia: a tool to be used in stewardship de-escalation strategies*. Clin Microbiol Infect, 2019. **25**(4): p. 447-453.
80. Jensen, J.U., et al., *Invasive Candida infections and the harm from antibacterial drugs in critically ill patients: data from a randomized, controlled trial to determine the role of ciprofloxacin, piperacillin-tazobactam, meropenem, and cefuroxime*. Crit Care Med, 2015. **43**(3): p. 594-602.
81. Ortíz Ruiz, G., et al., *Risk factors for candidemia in non-neutropenic critical patients in Colombia*. Med Intensiva, 2016. **40**(3): p. 139-44.
82. Cornejo-Juárez, P., et al., *Fecal ESBL Escherichia coli carriage as a risk factor for bacteremia in patients with hematological malignancies*. Supportive Care in Cancer, 2016. **24**(1): p. 253-259.
83. Forcina, A., et al., *Clinical Impact of Pretransplant Multidrug-Resistant Gram-Negative Colonization in Autologous and Allogeneic Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplantation*. Biol Blood Marrow Transplant, 2018. **24**(7): p. 1476-1482.
84. Kömürçü, B., et al., *Rectal colonization with multidrug-resistant gram-negative bacteria in patients with hematological malignancies: a prospective study*. Expert Rev Hematol, 2020: p. 1-5.
85. Liss, B.J., et al., *Intestinal colonisation and blood stream infections due to vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE) and extended-spectrum beta-lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae (ESBLE) in patients with haematological and oncological malignancies*. Infection, 2012. **40**(6): p. 613-9.
86. Neshar, L., et al., *Fecal colonization and infection with Pseudomonas aeruginosa in recipients of allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation*. Transpl Infect Dis, 2015. **17**(1): p. 33-8.
87. Satlin, M.J., et al., *Colonization With Levofloxacin-resistant Extended-spectrum β -Lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae and Risk of Bacteremia in Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant Recipients*. Clin Infect Dis, 2018. **67**(11): p. 1720-1728.
88. Vehreschild, M.J., et al., *A multicentre cohort study on colonization and infection with ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae in high-risk patients with haematological malignancies*. J Antimicrob Chemother, 2014. **69**(12): p. 3387-92.
89. Narimatsu, H., et al., *Value of pretransplant screening for colonization of Pseudomonas aeruginosa in reduced-intensity umbilical cord blood transplantation for adult patients*. Ann Hematol, 2007. **86**(6): p. 449-51.
90. Nguyen, A.D., et al., *A single-center evaluation of the risk for colonization or bacteremia with piperacillin-tazobactam- and cefepime-resistant bacteria in patients with acute leukemia receiving fluoroquinolone prophylaxis*. J Oncol Pharm Pract, 2016. **22**(2): p. 303-7.
91. Kamboj, M., et al., *The changing epidemiology of vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus (VRE) bacteremia in allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplant (HSCT) recipients*. Biol Blood Marrow Transplant, 2010. **16**(11): p. 1576-81.
92. Matar, M.J., A. Safdar, and K.V.I. Rolston, *Relationship of colonization with vancomycin-resistant enterococci and risk of systemic infection in patients with cancer*. Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America, 2006. **42**(10): p. 1506-1507.
93. Tsiatis, A.C., et al., *Incidence and clinical complications of vancomycin-resistant enterococcus in pediatric stem cell transplant patients*. Bone Marrow Transplant, 2004. **33**(9): p. 937-41.

94. Weinstock, D.M., et al., *Colonization, bloodstream infection, and mortality caused by vancomycin-resistant enterococcus early after allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplant*. Biol Blood Marrow Transplant, 2007. **13**(5): p. 615-21.
95. Zirakzadeh, A., et al., *Vancomycin-resistant enterococcal colonization appears associated with increased mortality among allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients*. Bone Marrow Transplant, 2008. **41**(4): p. 385-92.
96. Bochud, P.Y., T. Calandra, and P. Francioli, *Bacteremia due to viridans streptococci in neutropenic patients: a review*. Am J Med, 1994. **97**(3): p. 256-64.
97. Richard, P., et al., *Viridans streptococcal bacteraemia in patients with neutropenia*. The Lancet, 1995. **345**(8965): p. 1607-1609.
98. Murali, S. and A. Langston, *Advances in antifungal prophylaxis and empiric therapy in patients with hematologic malignancies*. Transpl Infect Dis, 2009. **11**(6): p. 480-90.
99. Bow, E.J., *Considerations in the approach to invasive fungal infection in patients with haematological malignancies*. Br J Haematol, 2008. **140**(2): p. 133-52.
100. Kullberg, B.J. and M.C. Arendrup, *Invasive Candidiasis*. N Engl J Med, 2015. **373**(15): p. 1445-56.
101. Schwartz, C., et al., *Prevention of bacteremia attributed to luminal colonization of tunneled central venous catheters with vancomycin-susceptible organisms*. J Clin Oncol, 1990. **8**(9): p. 1591-7.
102. Smith, S.R., et al., *Randomized prospective study comparing vancomycin with teicoplanin in the treatment of infections associated with Hickman catheters*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 1989. **33**(8): p. 1193-7.
103. Lazarus, H.M., et al., *A prospective randomized trial of central venous catheter removal versus intravenous amphotericin B in febrile neutropenic patients*. JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr, 1984. **8**(5): p. 501-5.
104. Atkinson, J.B., K. Chamberlin, and B.A. Boody, *A prospective randomized trial of urokinase as an adjuvant in the treatment of proven Hickman catheter sepsis*. J Pediatr Surg, 1998. **33**(5): p. 714-6.
105. La Quaglia, M.P., et al., *A prospective randomized double-blind trial of bolus urokinase in the treatment of established Hickman catheter sepsis in children*. J Pediatr Surg, 1994. **29**(6): p. 742-5.
106. Manian, F.A., *IDSA guidelines for the diagnosis and management of intravascular catheter-related bloodstream infection*. Clin Infect Dis, 2009. **49**(11): p. 1770-1; author reply 1771-2.
107. Clark, O.A., et al., *Colony-stimulating factors for chemotherapy-induced febrile neutropenia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials*. J Clin Oncol, 2005. **23**(18): p. 4198-214.
108. Maher, D.W., et al., *Filgrastim in patients with chemotherapy-induced febrile neutropenia. A double-blind, placebo-controlled trial*. Ann Intern Med, 1994. **121**(7): p. 492-501.
109. Uyl-de Groot, C.A., et al., *Treatment costs and quality of life with granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor in patients with antineoplastic therapy-related febrile neutropenia. Results of a randomised placebo-controlled trial*. Pharmacoeconomics, 1997. **12**(3): p. 351-60.
110. Aktaş, D., et al., *A randomized case-controlled study of recombinant human granulocyte colony stimulating factor for the treatment of sepsis in preterm neutropenic infants*. Pediatr Neonatol, 2015. **56**(3): p. 171-5.
111. Gerritsen, M.G., et al., *Improving early diagnosis of pulmonary infections in patients with febrile neutropenia using low-dose chest computed tomography*. PLoS One, 2017. **12**(2): p. e0172256.
112. Zaleska-Dorobisz, U., et al., *Low-dose computed tomography in assessment of pulmonary abnormalities in children with febrile neutropenia suffering from malignant diseases*. Adv Clin Exp Med, 2017. **26**(4): p. 695-701.
113. Yolin-Raley, D.S., et al., *The utility of routine chest radiography in the initial evaluation of adult patients with febrile neutropenia patients undergoing HSCT*. J Natl Compr Canc Netw, 2015. **13**(2): p. 184-9.

114. Cox, J.A., et al., *The diagnostic utility of routine chest radiography in the evaluation of the initial fever in patients undergoing hematopoietic stem cell.* *Pediatr Blood Cancer*, 2011. **57**(4): p. 666-8.
115. Phillips, R.S., et al., *Updated systematic review and meta-analysis of the performance of risk prediction rules in children and young people with febrile neutropenia.* *PLoS One*, 2012. **7**(5): p. e38300.
116. Roberts, S.D., et al., *Diagnostic value of routine chest radiography in febrile, neutropenic children for early detection of pneumonia and mould infections.* *Support Care Cancer*, 2012. **20**(10): p. 2589-94.
117. Estacio, O., et al., *Limited utility of routine chest X-ray in initial evaluation of neutropenic fever in patients with haematological diseases undergoing chemotherapy.* *Intern Med J*, 2018. **48**(5): p. 556-560.
118. Klaassen, I.L., et al., *Pyuria is absent during urinary tract infections in neutropenic patients.* *Pediatr Blood Cancer*, 2011. **56**(5): p. 868-70.
119. Sandoval, C., et al., *Urinary tract infections in pediatric oncology patients with fever and neutropenia.* *Pediatr Hematol Oncol*, 2012. **29**(1): p. 68-72.

CONCEPT