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3 1 **Baseline use of hydroxychloroquine in systemic lupus erythematosus does not preclude**
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5 2 **SARS-CoV-2 infection and severe COVID-19**
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43 The use of hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) in the prophylaxis and treatment of Coronavirus disease
44 2019 (COVID-19) has received significant attention by politicians and media figures. This has
45 occurred despite limited data supporting its efficacy in COVID-19 as well as considerable concern
46 about its safety when used at high doses (>400 mg daily) and in combination with other QT
47 interval-prolonging drugs [1–4].

49 An inaccurate narrative has emerged in recent weeks that patients with systemic lupus
50 erythematosus (SLE) who are taking HCQ as a baseline therapy are less affected by or do not
51 develop COVID-19 [5–7]. This assumption has been challenged by Monti et al. [8], referencing

52 data from the COVID-19 Global Rheumatology Alliance registry on patients with rheumatic
 53 disease which previously identified 19/110 (17%) patients with SLE [9]. A case series of 17
 54 patients with lupus or antiphospholipid syndrome who developed COVID-19 on a median HCQ
 55 dose of 400 mg daily (median HCQ blood level of 648 ng/mL) has since become available [10].
 56 As of April 17, 2020, we have now identified 80 patients with SLE and COVID-19 in the global
 57 physician-reported registry. Patients were predominantly female (72/80, 90%) and less than 65
 58 years of age (69/80, 86%). Importantly, 64% (51/80) of SLE patients were taking an antimalarial
 59 (HCQ or chloroquine) prior to infection with SARS-CoV-2 (30% as monotherapy). Notably, 21.1%
 60 (121/573) of all reported patients with rheumatic disease in the registry were treated with an
 61 antimalarial prior to onset of COVID-19, yet 49.6% (60/121) required hospitalization. In patients
 62 with SLE, frequency of hospitalization with COVID-19 did not differ between individuals using an
 63 antimalarial vs non-users (55% [16/29] vs 57% [29/51], p=ns; chi-squared test). In lupus patients,
 64 escalation to maximum level of care (non-invasive ventilation, invasive ventilation, or ECMO) was
 65 required regardless of HCQ use (Table 1). Thus, patients with lupus – even if they are using an
 66 antimalarial such as HCQ as baseline therapy – can develop SARS-CoV-2 infection and severe
 67 COVID-19 at similar frequency as lupus patients not on antimalarials.

69 **Table 1. Coronavirus disease 2019 severity in patients with SLE by antimalarial use**
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	All SLE (n=80)	Antimalarial Yes (n=51)	Antimalarial No (n=29)
Hospitalized	45 (56%)	29 (57%)	16 (55%)
Level of Care*			
Did not require supplemental oxygen	48 (60%)	33 (65%)	15 (52%)

Required supplemental oxygen, non-invasive or invasive ventilation or ECMO	30 (38%)	17 (33%)	13 (45%)
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71 *Information unknown for 2 cases

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74 There are currently >40 ongoing clinical trials examining HCQ in the prophylaxis or treatment of
 75 SARS-CoV-2 infection which employ highly variable strategies with regards to dosing (total oral
 76 loading dose 400-1400 mg), duration, and time of initiation [11]. However, dosing considerations
 77 of HCQ in COVID-19 may be critical to understand why patients with lupus may not be protected
 78 from SARS-CoV-2 infection.

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80 Similar to *in-vitro* studies indicating activity of antimalarial 4-aminoquinoline derivatives against
 81 SARS-CoV-1 and MERS-CoV [12,13], a putative role for HCQ in the treatment of COVID-19 has
 82 been suggested by its antiviral effect in cell culture systems [14,15]. Given the assumptions made
 83 when moving from a cell-based model to a complex *in vivo* system, *in vitro* potency cannot be
 84 expected to translate into *in vivo* efficacy [16], as observed for chloroquine in a mouse model of
 85 SARS-CoV-1 infection [17]. To date, no *in vivo* exposure response data are available for HCQ in
 86 COVID-19. Few data are available to extrapolate what drug concentrations must be achieved to
 87 observe *in vivo* efficacy, and in which compartment (e.g. whole blood vs. epithelial lining fluid vs.
 88 lung parenchyma). Even for influenza and approved antiviral drugs (oseltamivir), the direct
 89 relationship between drug concentration and *in vivo* activity is uncertain [18,19]. Current *in vitro*
 90 data suggests that the concentration of HCQ at which 50% of the maximal activity against SARS-
 91 CoV-2 is obtained (EC50) is 0.72-4.51 μM (i.e. ~242-1,515 ng/mL) [14,15], similar to the EC50
 92 observed in SARS-CoV-1 and MERS-CoV [13]. Ninety percent inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 (EC90)
 93 with HCQ was achieved at ~5-15 μM (~1,679-5,038 ng/mL), while clearance required ~20 μM
 94 (~6,717 ng/mL) [14,15]. Importantly, both EC50 and EC90 concentrations may be insufficient to

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3 95 improve clinical outcomes. Instead, the concentration of HCQ required to *eliminate* SARS-CoV-2
4
5 96 may be a more meaningful target [20]. Such concentrations of HCQ (i.e. ~6,700 ng/mL), however,
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7 97 are not safely achievable in whole blood, and little is known about the concomitant concentrations
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9 98 obtainable in lung parenchymal cells in humans (assuming this represents a critical site for
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11 99 antiviral activity in COVID-19). Without an understanding of effective HCQ concentrations in target
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13 100 tissues, effective therapeutic doses remain difficult to predict by simulation. For dosing strategies
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15 101 to be informed, an intricate understanding of HCQ transfer constants between the blood and the
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17 102 lung tissue is required.
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22 104 HCQ used in the treatment of SLE is typically prescribed at doses of 5.0-6.5 mg/kg, with a
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24 105 maximum dose of 400 mg daily. The majority of patients with SLE on chronic HCQ treatment do
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26 106 not achieve whole blood concentrations of 5-15 μ M (~1,679-5,038 ng/mL) [21,10], corresponding
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28 107 to the EC90 for SARS-CoV-2 [14,15]. While pulmonary drug concentrations in mice are known to
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30 108 reach much higher levels than in blood, these HCQ concentrations may be required to achieve
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32 109 meaningful antiviral activity in blood. The difficulty of achieving potentially meaningful blood
33
34 110 concentrations at HCQ doses typically prescribed in SLE may have important implications for trial
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36 111 design in COVID-19, and needs to be considered when interpreting outcomes of these studies.
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38 112 Notably, results from an open-label, randomized, controlled trial using doses as high as HCQ
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40 113 1200 mg for three days (followed by a maintenance dose of 800 mg daily for 2-3 weeks) did not
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42 114 suggest efficacy of HCQ in suppressing viral replication [22]. These efficacy data, and the
43
44 115 irrefutable clinical data collected through the COVID-19 Global Rheumatology Alliance registry,
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46 116 establishes that lupus patients on baseline therapy with HCQ are not universally protected from
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48 117 COVID-19.
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