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COMMENTARY

Low dose radiation therapy for COVID-19 pneumonia: is there any supportive evidence?

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Running title

Low dose radiotherapy for COVID-19 pneumonia

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Over the last two decades, humans have encountered three substantial outbreaks of new coronavirus (CoV) epidemics. The first, in the early 2000s, was caused by the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS)-CoV (Poon et al. 2004). The second, in the 2010s, was caused by the Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS)-CoV (Zumla et al. 2015). Lastly, the ongoing outbreak is caused by the SARS-CoV-2 (now termed Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) by the World Health Organization (WHO)) emerged in China in December 2019, resulting in more than 150,000 deaths as of 19 April 2020 (WHO 2020a). The lungs represent one of the organs most affected by COVID-19, and some patients develop life-threatening viral pneumonia and sepsis. There is also growing evidence for associations between multiple cardiovascular complications and COVID-19 (Driggin et al. 2020). Currently there are few clinical management options available for COVID-19 patients with pneumonia, beyond the supply of oxygen and administration of antibiotics to avoid co-infection, and possibly, though not recommended, administration of corticosteroids (WHO 2020b). Interestingly there is ongoing discussion of the potential use of diagnostic X-rays, most notably by computerized tomography (CT) scanning for COVID-19 related lung pathology (Chua et al. 2020; Hope et al. 2020; Huang et al. 2020). Clinical studies on several potential therapeutic agents are being conducted, such as favipiravir, lopinavir and remdesivir (Dong et al. 2020; Lu et al. 2020; UKCDR 2020).

In the first half of 20th century, uncoordinated individual attempts were made to treat various non-cancer diseases with ionizing radiation, including viral or bacterial pneumonia. In 2013, Calabrese and Dhawan (2013) reviewed 19 papers, mostly case reports, describing outcomes from low dose radiotherapy with X-rays (LDRT) for pneumonia, among them 3 papers published in 1905–1916 and 16 published between 1925–1943. Their review identified a total of 863 cases, among which 717 showed good clinical response within three days of treatment (Calabrese and Dhawan 2013). However, the human data reviewed were limited to case series, many based on small numbers of subjects, with in some instances comparisons to differently defined control groups, with various doses used (determined by treatment for other diseases), making the results difficult to interpret. There were three radiobiological studies assessed in the review, all from experiments done in the 1940s, namely Fried (1941) using a guinea pig model, Lieberman et al. (1941) using a canine model and Dubin et al. (1946) using a murine model, the first two of these for bacterially-induced pneumonia and the last for virally-induced pneumonia. The evidence for any effect of radiation post-inoculation is weak in the studies of Fried (1941) and Dubin et al. (1946) Only in the study of Lieberman et al. (1941) on bacterial pneumonia is there a conventionally statistically significant beneficial effect of radiotherapy; however, this effect is confined to a single treatment group, the third of three groups. Moreover, in the third group, most recovered animals received irradiation at 3 days after bacterial inoculation, which exceeded the

average lifetime of 2.1 days in control (infected but not irradiated) animals: this suggests an experimental selection bias. Importantly, only one study was performed using a highly pathogenic viral trigger for the pneumonia, that of Dubin et al. (1946) Based on this review, Kirkby and Mackenzie (2020) recently suggested that LDRT with a single acutely delivered dose to the lungs of 0.3–1 Gy of low-linear energy transfer (LET) radiation could be used to treat COVID-19 pneumonia with very low risk and with normal tissue toxicities avoided. Similarly, but with a slightly lower dose of low-LET radiation, Ghadimi-Moghadam et al. (2020) have also suggested that a priming dose with a few mGy followed by a single dose of 0.1, 0.18 or 0.25 Gy could be used to treat COVID-19 pneumonia (0.25 Gy was selected because it is lower than the maximum dose of ~0.26 Gy/year from natural background radiation in Ramsar, Iran). Both of these papers suggest clinical trials of LDRT for COVID-19 pneumonia (Ghadimi-Moghadam et al. 2020; Kirkby and Mackenzie 2020). However, the body of evidence for a proposed beneficial effect of low dose radiation on viral pneumonia is clearly extremely slight.

Set against these possible beneficial effects, there is abundant evidence that radiation causes lung cancer in both sexes, with higher risk in females and smokers than males and non-smokers, respectively. According to risk factors evaluated by the United Nations Scientific Committee on Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR 2008) based on the Japanese atomic bomb survivor data, the acutely delivered lung doses of 0.3–1 Gy proposed by Kirkby and Mackenzie (2020) would nominally induce 0.6–4.4 excess lung cancers in a hundred persons exposed. There is also accumulating evidence of association between moderate and low dose ionizing radiation and most types of circulatory disease (Little et al. 2012, 2016). Taken at face value a single 0.3–1 Gy lung dose (which the heart and aorta would also receive) would be associated with 0.8–7.6 extra deaths from circulatory disease in a hundred persons exposed (Little et al. 2012). It is vital that a risk-benefit and ethical evaluation of an exposure of the lungs of critically ill individuals with COVID-19 to a putatively therapeutic lung irradiation be conducted before a clinical trial could be recommended.

Use of radiotherapy (RT) for non-malignant diseases, in particular mild tissue inflammation, is common in some countries. Every year about 50,000 patients in Germany are treated for non-malignant disorders, mainly those with painful degenerative joint disorders by using ionizing radiation applied in more than 300 RT facilities, as reviewed by Seegenschmiedt et al. (2015). Patients treated for non-malignant indications represent about 10–30% of all patients treated with RT in most academic, public and private radiotherapy facilities in Germany, which is an exceptionally high rate compared to many other countries. However, there have been no studies on use of RT for pneumonia, and sensitive tissues are typically avoided in therapy planning. Importantly, Seegenschmiedt *et al.* address the possible placebo effect

in the studies reviewed: “In previously published double-blinded studies from the 1970s, which did not fulfil current quality criteria of prospective clinical trials, a variety of different degenerative skeletal diseases were treated with LDRT. In contrast to the reported data from all studies above, these studies could not prove a significantly higher response for the RT group in comparison to the placebo group” (Seegenschmiedt et al. 2015).

At extremely high dose (≥ 10 kGy), low-LET radiation has been reported to inactivate MERS-CoV and SARS-CoV (Kumar et al. 2015; Feldmann et al. 2019). On the other hand, at much lower dose, viral reactivation may occur as reported for various viruses, such as Epstein-Barr virus (EBV, e.g., at ≥ 0.1 Gy of gamma-rays (Mehta et al. 2018)), hepatitis B/C virus (HBV/HCV), and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), although the impact on CoV remains unknown.

Unlike the sites treated by LDRT for benign inflammatory conditions, the lung is radiosensitive. In radiotherapy for pulmonary neoplasms, breast carcinoma, esophageal carcinoma or Hodgkin’s disease, the risk of complications to the normal pulmonary tissues is a major limitation in the prescription of the therapeutic dose (Jain and Berman 2018). Radiation-induced edema, pneumonitis and fibrosis are well-documented complications in such radiotherapy patients. Early reactions develop within days or weeks, whereas late reactions require months or years. The clinical presentation of radiation-induced lung damage principally depends on the lung volume irradiated, the radiation dose and the pre-existing lung disease. There is some evidence that pretreatment inflammation in the lung would make pulmonary tissue more susceptible to radiation induced lung injury (Petit et al. 2011; Castillo et al. 2014; Chaudhuri et al. 2016; Jain and Berman 2018). Pulmonary inflammation manifests as enhanced uptake of [^{18}F]fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG), hence allowing for quantitative assessment. Petit et al. (2011) performed a retrospective study of 101 patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and evaluated the correlation between radiation-induced symptomatic lung toxicities (RILT) and pre-RT FDG positron emission tomography (PET) evidence of pulmonary inflammation. They demonstrated that the 95th percentile of the standard uptake value (SUV_{95}) within the lungs was predictive of RILT on multivariate analysis ($p = 0.016$), suggesting that SUV_{95} can be used to predict the risk of RILT during thoracic RT treatment planning. However, there is currently no knowledge on the response of COVID-19-infected lung tissue to low dose exposures or whether the low doses increase the risk of pulmonary complications. A viral infection taking place after the radiation exposure may also increase mortality, as shown for the influenza A virus (Manning et al. 2013; Misra et al. 2015).

There is a substantial body of radiobiological data which suggests that certain cytokines and adhesion molecules related to endothelial function and modulating immunological responses are differentially up- or downregulated with a boundary

around 0.5 Gy, as reviewed elsewhere (Little et al. 2008; Averbeck et al. 2018). In a recent study, Schröder et al. (2019) investigated the immune modulatory properties of low doses of ionizing radiation on endothelial cells with respect to an early response to inflammatory stimuli solely and in combination with low dose radiation. They measured the levels of a total of 27 inflammatory cytokines. While the test panel also included anti-inflammatory markers, only pro-inflammatory cytokines were detected, after doses as low as 10 and 50 mGy (Schröder et al. 2019). Overall, the evidence on anti-inflammatory vs pro-inflammatory effects at very low doses is not clear-cut but rather a balance between the two types of effect. There is radiobiological evidence that low dose irradiation induces pro-inflammatory responses due to spatiotemporal propagation of damage signals caused by nontargeted effects of low dose radiation exposure (Hamada et al. 2011). Examination of the totality of cytokine data suggests that the overall anti-inflammatory response at low doses is, at best, modest and unlikely to reach therapeutic levels against the cytokine storm typical for the COVID-19 pneumonia.

Onoda et al. (1999) reported that low dose radiation (0.5–2 Gy) produces significant changes in the morphology and microfilament organization of pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells (PMEC) characterized by retraction and the resulting loss of close contact between individual cells within the monolayer. They used the radiation dose levels and time course for PMEC retraction *in vitro* to design studies to determine radiation-induced acute edema in a murine *in vivo* model and demonstrated that low dose thoracic radiation induces pulmonary edema characterized by increased lung wet weight. The incidence of increased weight was radiation dose-dependent up to 2 Gy and was coincident with the time course for radiation-induced endothelial retraction *in vitro*. They determined that pretreatment of animals with 25 μ M nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA, a non-specific lipoxygenase inhibitor), 15 min prior to radiation exposure inhibited radiation induced edema. These observations were consonant with their *in vitro* studies. Therefore, the PMEC model system may prove useful for the screening of compounds and physical agents that may prove clinically useful for the prevention of acute and late radiation injuries to the lungs and other normal tissues.

In conclusion, there is very little, if any, supportive evidence that LDRT will be a curative or palliative treatment for COVID-19 pneumonia or be superior to any of potential therapeutic agents currently under clinical trials. It would appear to us to be difficult to justify an immediate initiation of clinical trials at this point, based on inadequate data from clinical and experimental studies on viral pneumonia, dose levels and timing of the irradiation. The prudent course would appear to be further (and perhaps better) experimental studies, for example those using the PMEC system (Onoda et al. 1999). However, even if some supportive evidence becomes available, irradiating

COVID-19 patients will be impractical without significant medical justification, given the logistical concerns for safety and patient care needs.

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