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Clinical Characteristics of Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients and the Impact on Mortality: A Single-network, Retrospective Cohort Study from Pennsylvania State

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Clinical Characteristics of Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients and the Impact on Mortality: A Single-network, Retrospective Cohort Study from Pennsylvania State Kinjal P. Gadhiya,^{1*} Panupong Hansrivijit,^{1*} Mounika Gangireddy,^{1*} John D. Goldman² *equivalent contribution ¹Department of Internal Medicine, UPMC Pinnacle, Harrisburg, PA 17104, USA; kinjal268@gmail.com; hansrivijitp@upmc.edu; g.mounikareddy07@gmail.com ²Department of Infectious Diseases, UPMC Pinnacle, Harrisburg, PA 17104, USA; goldmanjd@upmc.edu Running title: COVID-19 and Clinical Impact: A Retrospective Study from Pennsylvania State Correspondence er revie Panupong Hansrivijit, M.D. 205 South Front Street, Suite 3C Harrisburg, PA 17104 hansrivijitp@upmc.edu Keywords: COVID-19, coronavirus, SARS-CoV-2, mortality, acute kidney injury Word count: 3,623 (excl. title page, abstract, legend, declarations, and references) Funding: None declared. Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest: The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest.

ABSTRACT

Objective: Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory disease caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) with highest burden in the United States. Data on clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients in U.S. population are limited. Thus, we aim to determine the clinical characteristics and risk factors for in-hospital mortality from COVID-19.

Design: Retrospective observational study.

Setting: Single-network hospitals in Pennsylvania state.

Participants: Patients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection who were hospitalized from March 1st to May 31st, 2020.

Primary and secondary outcome measures: Primary outcome was in-hospital mortality. Secondary outcomes were complications, such as acute kidney injury and acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS).

Results: Of 283 patients, 19.4% were non-survivors. The mean age of all patients was 64.1 ± 15.9 years. 56.2% were male and 50.2% were white. In adjusted multivariate analyses, increasing age (per 1-year increment; OR 1.075), hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%; OR 4.630), opacity/infiltrate on imaging (OR 3.077), leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL; OR 2.732), ferritin > 336 ng/mL (OR 4.016), lactate dehydrogenase > 200 U/L (OR 7.752), procalcitonin > 0.25 ng/mL (OR 2.404), troponin I > 0.03 ng/mL (OR 2.242), need for advanced oxygen support other than simple nasal cannula (OR 4.608-13.889), ICU admission/transfer (OR 13.699), renal replacement therapy (OR 21.277), need for vasopressor (OR 22.222), acute respiratory distress syndrome (OR 23.810), hydroxychloroquine (OR 2.165), ascorbic acid (OR 2.101), zinc (OR 3.425), convalescent plasma (OR 3.534), steroids therapy (OR 2.825), respiratory acidosis (OR

7.042), acute kidney injury (OR 3.571) and arrhythmias (OR 2.494) were significant risk factors for increased in-hospital death. The median survival time was 25.0 ± 7.0 days. **Conclusion:** We reported the characteristics of ethnically diverse, hospitalized patients with COVID-19 from Pennsylvania state.

Strengths and Limitation of This Study

Strength

- This study is first retrospective cohort study of COVID-19 patients from the state of Pennsylvania
- Our study is among one of few studies that reported the associations between ascorbic acid and zinc supplementation and in-hospital mortality from COVID-19
- Multivariate analysis (binary logistic regression model) was used to report the results

Limitation

- Non-randomized design
- Potential confounding factors should be considered

INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory disease caused by Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) which has become a pandemic in early 2020. The spread of this virus was originally started in Wuhan, China in December 2019 and rapidly escalated to 216 countries within five months with the highest number of infected cases

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in the United States.¹ The reported mortality of COVID-19 in the United States was 5.92% as of May 30th, 2020.¹

Guan, et al first described the clinical characteristics of 1,099 patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 across China.² In this study, the overall mortality was 1.4%. However, the association between clinical risk factors and mortality was not described. Later Du et al and Zhou et al demonstrated that older age, higher Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) score, D-dimer > 1 µg/mL, cardiac troponin I \ge 0.05 ng/mL, and pre-existing concurrent cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases were significant predictors for increased mortality from COVID-19.³⁴ However, these findings were primarily based on Chinese population; thus, it has been unconfirmed if the results can be applicable to other patient populations.

As of May 30th, 2020, the Department of Health has announced more than 69,916 confirmed cases of COVID-19 leading to 5,555 deaths in the state of Pennsylvania.⁵ To date, the characteristics of infected patients in the United States were reported in the state of Washington (n = 21), California (n = 1,299) and New York (n = 5,700) in chronological order.⁶⁻⁸ The mortality across the U.S. studies ranged from 6.3 to 24%, depending on the severity of COVID-19. However, clinical risk factors for increased mortality in the U.S. population have not been clearly established.

Clinical management of COVID-19 has been dynamic and variable based on available research, which has largely been *in vitro*, such as a combination of hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin,⁹ ascorbic acid,¹⁰ ivermectin,¹¹ and zinc.¹² These therapies have not been proven beneficial in clinical studies. In the current study, we provide our experience on treatment options for patients infected with SARS-CoV-2.

In this retrospective cohort, we aimed to demonstrate the clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients, treatment outcomes and the impact on in-hospital mortality. This study is intended to serve as one of the earliest cohorts of COVID-19 patients from the United States.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design

This is a retrospective cohort study from seven hospitals under UPMC Pinnacle network located across the state of Pennsylvania. The protocol of this study has been approved by UPMC Pinnacle Institutional Review Board and UPMC Pinnacle Ethic Committee (#20E024). Written informed consent was waived due to the retrospective, observational nature of the study. Our current study followed the Declaration of Helsinki.

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Patient and public involvement

No patient involved.

Data source and patient population

Data were collected by extracting electronic medical records from March 1st to May 31th, 2020 through UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry. Adult patients with age \geq 18 years who were hospitalized with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) from nasopharyngeal swab were included in this study. We excluded non-hospitalized patients, patients < 18 years of age, presumed SARS-CoV-2 infection, pregnant women, out-ofsystem transfer and patients enrolled in clinical trials. Transfer within the system was considered one admission. For patients with multiple admissions with study period, the first admission for COVID-19 was reviewed.

Data collection

Individual patient charts were reviewed. Collected data was divided into: demographics, comorbidities, signs and symptoms, laboratory findings, radiographic findings, treatments/interventions, complications and outcomes. *Supplemental Documents 1* summarizes the description of each variable in our cohort.

Estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was calculated using CKD-EPI equation.¹³ Acute kidney injury (AKI) was defined by an increase in serum creatinine by 0.3 mg/dL (27 μ mol/L) or \geq 1.5 times from the baseline value within 48 hours.¹⁴ Chronic kidney disease (CKD) was defined by the Kidney Diseases Improving Global Outcomes guidelines.¹⁵ Patients with history of end stage kidney disease (ESKD) on dialysis prior to admission, were not counted toward 'requirement of renal replacement therapy (RRT)/hemodialysis (HD)' during the hospital stay. Acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) was defined by the Berlin criteria.¹⁶ Arrhythmias as complications were defined either tachy- or bradyarrhythmia that were new-onset, occurred during hospitalization with COVID-19. In this study, prolongation of QT segment was defined as the QT duration > 500 milliseconds.

Study outcomes

The primary outcome was in-hospital mortality. The secondary outcome included treatment outcomes and complications such as recovery/discharge, AKI, ARDS, arrhythmias, QT prolongation, venous thromboembolism, arterial thrombosis, cerebrovascular events, heart failure, and myocardial infarction.

Statistical analysis

All analyses were conducted using SPSS software version 23.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Descriptive analyses were reported in percentage for categorical data and in mean \pm standard deviation (S.D.) or median (interquartile range; IQR) depending the data distribution.

Comparisons of outcomes for each variable were evaluated using Pearson's χ^2 tests or Fisher-Exact tests (for categorical data) and two-sample independent t-test (for continuous data). Fisher-Exact tests were opted if the total sample in any cell count was less than five. A p-value less than 0.05 is considered statistically significant.

Logistic regression analysis

Clinical risk factors that were significant from standard analyses were included in univariate binary logistic regression analysis. Odds ratios (OR) were reported along with 95% confidence interval (CI). An 95% CI greater than 1.0 or less than 1.0 is considered statistically significant. Variables that remained statistically significant on univariate analysis were included in multivariate analysis using logistic regression method to adjust for other covariates. For the analyses of overall mortality predictors, Model 1 was adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity and obesity. Model 2 was adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity and need for oxygen therapy. Model 3 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and need for oxygen therapy. Model 4 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, cronary artery disease, heart failure and history of arrhythmia/conduction disorder.

Sensitivity analysis

The goodness-of-fit tests of logistic regression analyses were evaluated by Hosmer-Lemeshow method. The validity and sustainability of the significant results from multivariate analysis were tested using the bootstrap method to estimate the end point with imputed sample size of 1,000.

Survival analysis

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Kaplan-Meier analysis was used to present the survival by plotting between cumulative survival against hospital stay in all included patients and in patients requiring ICU.

RESULTS

Baseline characteristics and patient outcomes

The flowchart of data selection from the UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry is depicted in Figure 1. A total of 322 patients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection were identified during the study period. Of 322 patients, 39 patients (12.1%) were outpatient and did not require hospitalization. After excluding these patients, 283 patients were included for further analysis. Table 1 summarizes the demographics and baseline characteristics of included patients. All patients had confirmed SARS-Cov-2 infection by RT-PCR. Of 283 patients, 80.6% were survivors and 19.4% were non-survivors. The mean age of all patients was 64.1 ± 15.9 years. 56.2% were male and 50.2% were Caucasian. Non-survivors were significantly older and had higher proportion of hypertension, CKD and had lower mean eGFR. Moreover, hypoxia on presentation, rales/crackles on physical examination, leukocytosis, lymphocytopenia, respiratory acidosis, transaminitis, and opacity/infiltrate on imaging were common presentations in non-survivors. Higher inflammatory markers, such as D-dimer, ferritin, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), C-reactive protein, and procalcitonin were significantly prevalent in deceased patients. The need for oxygen therapy regardless of the mode of oxygen delivery was higher among those who did not survive. Furthermore, non-survivors were more likely to have received intensive care unit (ICU) admission/transfer, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), RRT, use of vasopressors, use of antibiotics, azithromycin, hydroxychloroquine, steroids, ascorbic acid, zinc, tocilizumab and convalescent plasma. Of overall complications, the prevalence of AKI, ARDS, arrhythmias

and superimposed bacteremia was significantly higher in non-survivors. There was no significant difference in mean hospital stay between survivors and non-survivors. Up to 78.8% recovered or were discharged from the hospital. Only two patients remained hospitalized as of June 18, 2020. The mean hospital stay was similar between patients who received remdesivir vs. those who did not $(9.0 \pm 4.7 \text{ and } 7.6 \pm 7.8 \text{ days}, \text{ respectively; p} = 0.359)$. In contrast, patients who received tocilizumab had significantly longer hospital stay compared to those who did not receive tocilizumab $(15.3 \pm 11.7 \text{ and } 7.4 \pm 7.2 \text{ days}, \text{ respectively; p} < 0.001)$.

Univariate analysis

All factors except superimposed bacteremia remained significant on univariate analysis. The OR of each clinical predictor for overall in-hospital mortality is depicted in *Table 2*. Logistic regression analysis cannot be performed on the following variables: D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL), C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL), and the need for ECMO as at least one cell count was zero. Moreover, in a univariate analysis, we found that hydroxychloroquine treatment was associated with increased risk of QT prolongation (OR 3.401; 95%CI 1.473-7.874; p = 0.002).

Multivariate analysis

Variables that were significant on univariate analysis were included in multivariate logistic regression analysis (*Table 3*). In Model 1 (adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, and obesity), increasing patient age, hypoxia, opacity/infiltrate on imaging, leukocytosis, ferritin > 336 ng/mL, LDH (> 200 U/L), procalcitonin > 0.25 ng/mL, troponin I > 0.03 ng/mL, use of high-flow oxygen nasal cannula, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV), mechanical ventilation, ICU admission/transfer, RRT, vasopressor, antibiotics and ARDS were independent risk factors for increased in-hospital mortality. In Model 2 (adjusted for all variables in Model 1 including the need for oxygen therapy), hydroxychloroquine, ascorbic acid, zinc, and convalescent plasma were

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associated with increased mortality. In Model 3 (adjusted for all variables in Model 2 including asthma/COPD), respiratory acidosis and steroid therapy were associated with increased mortality. AKI and arrhythmias were independent risk factors for in-hospital mortality from COVID-19 from Model 4 and 5, respectively. Moreover, we also found that hydroxychloroquine therapy was associated with QT prolongation (OR 2.874; 95% CI 1.189-6.944; p = 0.019) after adjusted for covariates in Model 2. The association of these variables and overall mortality remained significant on bootstrap analysis when the sample size was imputed to 1,000.

Cohort of critically ill patients

A total 89 patients required intensive care during the study period. Of which, 47.2% died. The demographics and clinical characteristics of critically ill patients are demonstrated in *Table* 4. Deceased ICU patients had significantly higher proportion of AKI and ARDS compared to survived ICU patients. The treatments were similar between survivors and non-survivor patients. In multivariate analysis, AKI (OR 3.759, 95% CI 1.342-10.526; p = 0.012) and ARDS (OR 7.937; 95% CI 2.857-21.739; p < 0.001) are significantly predictive of in-hospital mortality among patients admitted the ICU after adjusted for age, sex, and ethnicity.

Survival analysis

Survival analysis was evaluated using Kaplan-Meier curve (*Figure 2*). In our analysis, the cumulative survival declined with increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival time was 25.0 days with standard error of 7.0.

DISCUSSION

In this single-network, retrospective observation study, we found that the overall inhospital mortality among hospitalized COVID-19 patients was 19.4%. The reported mortality

among Chinese cohorts ranged from 11.7% to 28.2%.^{3 4 17} However, our reported mortality rates appeared slightly lower than what previously described from New York City.⁸ Richardson et al found that the overall mortality of 5,700 hospitalized COVID-19 patients from 12 hospitals in New York City was 21%. However, one could argue that our study has significantly smaller sample size which might underestimate the actual mortality of COVID-19. Our data need confirmation from other studies with a larger sample size.

We identified several risk factors for mortality from COVID-19 using multivariate logistic regression analysis. Increasing age, hypoxia and opacity/infiltrate on imaging were associated with higher mortality. Moreover, we also found that patient survival diminished as the disease progressed, reflected by advancement in oxygen delivery (high-flow nasal cannula, NIPPV, and mechanical ventilation). Requiring a simple oxygen nasal cannula did not affect mortality. Such findings are similar to previous literature. Older age is an independent risk factor for severe COVID-19 and mortality.^{3 18} In line with Zhou et al, increasing oxygen requirement and need for advanced oxygen delivery were predictive of death from COVID-19.⁴

Here, we showed that COVID-19 patients requiring ICU had 13.7-fold increased risk of mortality. Critically ill patients generally had one or more organs in failure, and an increasing number of organ failure has been linked to elevated death in sepsis patients.¹⁹ For COVID-19 patients, we demonstrated that kidney (AKI, and RRT), pulmonary (respiratory acidosis, and ARDS), cardiovascular (arrhythmias, and vasopressor requirement) failure were predictive of inhospital mortality. These findings are in line with other cohorts and each factor has been demonstrated as an independent risk factor for mortality in critically ill patients.^{4 20-24} Although the complications from SARS-CoV-2 infection can be affected by multiple contributing factors, newer evidence has suggested the significance of cytokine storm leading to multi-organ failure.²⁵

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Here, we showed that elevated ferritin, LDH, procalcitonin, leukocytosis, troponin I and possibly D-dimer were associated with increased death. Although, the odds ratio for D-dimer cannot be calculated as one cell was zero, we observed that all deceased patients had elevated Ddimer level and the significance of elevated D-dimer toward in-hospital mortality cannot be ignored. Guan et al first demonstrated the importance of elevated inflammatory markers in COVID-19 in Chinese population² which has become a standard monitoring parameter for COVID-19 patients.²⁶ Elevated inflammatory markers should prompt physicians to evaluate and monitor the patients for cytokine storms and anticipated clinical deterioration. Elevated procalcitonin and leukocytosis may indicate concomitant bacterial infection, which has been shown to increase morbidity and mortality of viral pneumonia.²⁷ Interestingly, our study showed that elevated troponin I level was associated with significantly higher death similar to a recent meta-analysis.²⁸ Although the etiologies of elevated troponin levels were not determined in our cohort, other studies proposed several mechanisms for elevated troponin level in COVID-19 patients. These include myocarditis, cytokine mediated myocardial injury, microangiopathy of small coronary arteries, or silent coronary artery disease.²⁴ ²⁸

The pathophysiology of cytokine storm in SARS-CoV-2 is similar to that of other viruses or bacteria.²⁹ Cytokine storm is characterized by the overproduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF), IL-6, and IL-1β resulting in an increased vascular hyperpermeability, and activation of multiple coagulation pathways.^{25 30} In light of SARS-CoV-2-induced hypercoagulation, antithrombin III, tissue factor pathway inhibitor and the protein C system were impaired during active inflammation.³¹ These changes lead to thrombin hyperactivity resulting in the development of microthrombosis, disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC) and sequential multiorgan failure.²⁵ Moreover, new studies have

revealed the spectrum of hyperferritinemic syndromes induced by SARS-CoV-2 but they are beyond the scope of our article.³² Such syndromes include macrophage activation syndrome, adult-onset Still's disease, and catastrophic anti-phospholipid syndrome.³²

Hydroxychloroquine therapy was associated with a 3-fold increased risk of QT prolongation and a 2-fold increased risk of death. The concept of using hydroxychloroquine in COVID-19 patients derived from an early *in vitro* study.³³ The results from small non-randomized clinical trials also showed promising effects on viral load reduction.^{34 35} However, the clinical benefit of hydroxychloroquine was debated by a large observation study. Of 1,446 patients, Geleris et al observed that hydroxychloroquine had no effect on the death, length of stay or intubation.³⁶ Thus, the recommendation for use of hydroxychloroquine was recalled by the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) due to small sample size in previous clinical trials and concern for cardiac adverse effects, such as QT prolongation/torsade de pointe.³⁷ Whether hydroxychloroquine has clinical benefits is yet to be discovered in a multi-center randomized controlled trial (NCT04370782).

A meta-analysis of four randomized trials and one retrospective study showed that the administration of intravenous vitamin C has vasopressor sparing effects and may reduce the need for mechanical ventilation in critically ill patients while there was no effect on the mortality.³⁸ However, given the lack of more supporting evidence, the standard use of ascorbic acid is not yet recommended especially in COVID-19 patients. A new clinical trial investigating the treatment outcome of vitamin C in severe COVID-19 is underway (NCT04264533).

Our study is the first cohort showing that zinc supplementation was associated with increased mortality in COVID-19 patients. A Brazilian study revealed that plasma zinc concentration in critically ill patients upon admission to the ICU was low and may make these

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patients more susceptible to oxidative stress.³⁹ Another prospective study showed that zinc supplementation in mechanically ventilated patients was related to less ventilator-associated pneumonia.⁴⁰ However, the mean duration of intubation in this study was prolonged (29 days), making it inconclusive if zinc supplementation can prevent pneumonia development in short-term intubation. Thus, the use of zinc supplementation in COVID-19 patients should be discouraged until supporting evidence from randomized controlled trials is available.

Steroid therapy in COVID-19 patients was associated with increased mortality. However, one limitation that a causal relationship between corticosteroids and mortality was difficult to establish given that our deceased patients had been generally more ill and sustained multi-organ failure, which predisposed them to receive several treatment interventions, including corticosteroids, which could result in significant statistical evaluation. A meta-analysis of 42 randomized controlled trials consisting of 10,194 patients has shown that corticosteroids possibly result in a small reduction in mortality and an increased risk of neuromuscular weakness among critically ill patients with sepsis.⁴¹ However, the theoretical concept for corticosteroid use in COVID-19 was to reduce cytokine storm caused by a reaction to SARS-CoV-2 infection.⁴² In early April 2020, the IDSA recommended against a routine use of corticosteroids in the treatment of COVID-19 due to lack of evidence.³⁷ This guidelines was updated on June 25th, 2020 after the result release of the RECOVERY trial showing that patients who received dexamethasone were more likely to be discharged from hospital at 28 days.⁴³ Thus, currently, the IDSA panel suggests glucocorticoids use in hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19.³⁷ Here, our findings contradict with the recommendation from the IDSA. The discrepancy could be resulted from several factor, such as selection bias, confounding bias and small sample size.

Our cohort demonstrated that remdesivir and tocilizumab were not associated with mortality and there was no significant improvement in hospital length of stay between in patients receiving these drugs. Recently, the preliminary report from a phase 3 randomized controlled trial revealed that remdesivir was superior to placebo in shortening the time to recovery in adults hospitalized with COVID-19.⁴⁴ Several retrospective studies reported that tocilizumab, an IL-6 inhibitor, was shown to reduce the levels of serum inflammatory markers. However, the impact on clinical improvement and mortality remained inconclusive.^{45.47} Although we reported no significant clinical benefits from tocilizumab, the consideration for compassionate use of tocilizumab is not discouraged but rather dependent on the judgment of clinicians based on current evidence. A phase 2 (TOCIVID-19; NCT04317092) and 3 randomized controlled trial (COVACTA; NCT04320615) of tocilizumab is being investigated for the treatment of COVID-19 pneumonia. The preliminary results are expected to release in late 2020.

Similarly, although we found that convalescent plasma was predictive of in-hospital mortality, one important limitation should be considered here. The safety of convalescent plasma was demonstrated in a single-center retrospective cohort of 25 patients⁴⁸ and in a preprint, non-peer review report.⁴⁹ However, the efficacy of convalescent plasma remained undetermined due to lack of control group. At our institution, convalescent plasma is considered if patients have severe symptoms and have contraindications to remdesivir, such as AKI and hepatic dysfunction. With these complications, the mortality is generally higher resulting in potential selection and confounding bias. The IDSA panel has recommended convalescent plasma only in the context of a clinical trials To date, at least one randomized controlled trila (NCT04342182) is being investigated to establish the clinical benefits in hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19.

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From our ICU cohort, AKI and ARDS were the only two variables that were predictive of mortality among patients admitted to the ICU. Interestingly, all treatment measures had no effect on mortality once patients were critically ill and required ICU. This could imply that these treatment interventions might be beneficial if given prior to clinical decompensation or ICU transfer. However, interpretation is restricted due to small sample size and examining only critically ill patients. Our hypothesis should be substantiated by studies from other institutions with larger sample sizes.

Our study has some limitations. The observational design made the results susceptible to selection bias. Analyses could be underpowered given the small sample size. However, we improved the validity of the results by performing bootstrapping analysis. Moreover, due to restricted availability, not many cases had received compassionate use of tocilizumab, remdesivir, and convalescent plasma, which may limit the applicability of our findings. More importantly, mortality can be affected by confounding factors. We minimize this risk by applying multivariate analysis. Most of the collected data were cross sectional, thus, making it difficult to conclude the causality between two variables.

In conclusion, COVID-19 is a serious condition with a significant in-hospital mortality rate. Multiple risk factors for in-hospital death were identified. Hydroxychloroquine, ascorbic acid, zinc supplementation, and corticosteroids therapy were not recommended due to increased mortality risk.

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Figure 1. Flowchart of subject selection from UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry from March 1 to May 31, 2020.

Figure 2. Survival analysis by Kaplan-Meier curves. **A)** The cumulative survival declined with increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival time was 25 days with standard error_(SE) of 7.0. **B)** ICU patients significantly lower survival probability with mean survival time of 22.3 days (SE 1.8) and 23.0 (SE 1.3) in ICU group vs. non-ICU group, respectively (p = 0.002).

DECLARATIONS

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Ethics Approval: UPMC Pinnacle Ethic Committee approved this study (#20E024).

Informed Consent: Not applicable.

Data sharing statement: No additional data.

Code availability: Not applicable.

Authors' contributions: K.P.G., P.H., M.G. collected the data. P.H. analyzed the data. K.P.G.

and P.H. drafted the manuscript. All authors edited and approved the manuscript for submission.

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Table 1. Demographics and baseline characteristics of included patients.

Characteristics	All patients (n = 283)	Survivors (n = 228)	Non-survivors (n = 55)	P-value
Male	159 (56.2)	125 (54.8)	34 (61.8)	0.348
Age (year)	64.1 (15.9)†	61.9 (15.8)†	72.8 (13.5)†	< 0.001*
Ethnicity				
Caucasian	143 (50.5)	111 (48.7)	32 (58.2)	
African-American	88 (31.1)	73 (32.0)	15 (27.3)	
Hispanic/Latino	32 (11.3)	27 (11.8)	5 (9.1)	0.705
Asian	17 (6.0)	14 (6.1)	3 (5.5)	
Others	3 (1.1)	3 (1.3)	0 (0)	
Co-morbidities				
Obesity (BMI \ge 30 kg/m ²)	132 (46.6)	102 (44.7)	30 (54.5)	0.191
Current/Former smokers	109 (38.5)	88 (38.6)	21 (38.2)	0.955
Hypertension	189 (66.8)	145 (63.6)	44 (80.0)	0.020*
Diabetes mellitus	108 (38.2)	81 (35.5)	27 (49.1)	0.063
Hyperlipidemia	121 (42.8)	94 (41.2)	27 (49.1)	0.290
Coronary artery disease	50 (17.7)	40 (17.5)	10 (18.2)	0.911
Heart failure/cardiomyopathy	53 (18.7)	40 (17.5)	13 (23.6)	0.299
Arrhythmia/conduction disorders	45 (15.9)	36 (15.8)	9 (16.4)	0.917
Chronic kidney disease	66 (23.3)	46 (20.2)	20 (36.4)	0.011*
End-stage kidney disease	13 (4.6)	12 (5.3)	1 (1.8)	0.474
Asthma/COPD	73 (25.8)	54 (23.7)	19 (34.5)	0.098
Cerebrovascular disease	40 (14.1)	32 (14.0)	8 (14.5)	0.922
Signs and symptoms				

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Cough Dyspnea	185 (65.4) 203 (71.7)	149 (65.4) 158 (69.3)	36 (65.5) 45 (81.8)	0.988 0.064
5 1			. ,	< 0.001
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%) Rhinorrhea	178 (62.9) 29 (10.2)	130 (57.0) 26 (11.4)	48 (87.3) 3 (5.5)	0.226
Fever/chills		· · ·	36 (65.5)	0.226
•	179 (63.3) 35 (12.4)	143 (62.7) 32 (14.0)	3 (5.5)	0.706
Chest pain Headache	. ,	. ,		0.105
	28 (9.9)	26 (11.4)	2 (3.6)	
Gastrointestinal symptoms	79 (27.9)	68 (29.8)	11 (20.0)	0.145
Asymptomatic Rales/crackles	8 (2.8) 57 (20.1)	8 (3.5)	0 (0)	0.361
	. ,	40 (17.5)	17 (30.9)	
Rhonchi	57 (20.1)	45 (19.7)	12 (21.8)	0.730
Reduced breath sound	63 (22.3)	48 (21.1)	15 (27.3)	0.32
Laboratory findings				
Leukopenia (WBC < 4,000 /uL)	56 (19.8)	46 (20.2)	10 (18.2)	0.739
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	80 (28.3)	53 (23.2)	27 (49.1)	< 0.00
Lymphocytopenia (ALC < 1,000 / uL)	109 (38.7)	78 (34.2)	31 (57.4)	0.002
Thrombocytopenia (< 140,000 /uL)	57 (20.1)	41 (18.0)	16 (29.1)	0.06
Thrombocytosis (> 400,000 /uL)	31 (11.0)	25 (11.0)	6 (10.9)	0.99
Respiratory acidosis	43 (21.3)	18 (11.8)	25 (50.0)	< 0.00
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	33 (12.4)	21 (9.9)	12 (21.8)	0.017
Serum creatinine (mg/dL) on admission	1.06 (0.72)‡	1.59 (1.88)†	1.64 (1.15)†	0.80
eGFR (mL/min/1.73m ²)	64.2 (51.0)†	66.7 (35.5)†	53.6 (25.3)†	0.002
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	91 (39.1)	61 (33.0)	30 (62.5)	< 0.00
I				
Inflammatory markers	125 (90.4)	101 (75.4)	24 (100)	< 0.00
D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL) Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	135 (80.4) 109 (65.3)	101 (75.4) 78 (59.1)	34 (100) 31 (88.6)	< 0.00
				0.00
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	108 (73.0)	77 (67.0)	31 (93.9)	0.002
C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL)	152 (87.4)	115 (83.9)	37 (100)	
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	73 (47.1)	50 (41.7)	23 (65.7)	0.012
ST-T change on EKG	84 (31.8)	63 (29.7)	21 (40.4)	0.13
Radiographic findings				
Opacity/infiltrate	209 (73.9)	162 (71.1)	47 (85.5)	0.029
Ground glass appearance	79 (27.9)	65 (28.5)	14 (25.5)	0.65
Pleural effusion	24 (8.5)	17 (7.5)	7 (12.7)	0.00
Pulmonary congestion	30 (10.6)	23 (10.1)	7 (12.7)	0.20
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Oxygen therapy/delivery	207 (72.1)	1(0 (50 0)		0.00
Nasal cannula	207 (73.1)	160 (70.2)	47 (85.5)	0.022
High-flow nasal cannula	36 (12.7)	18 (7.9)	18 (32.7)	< 0.00
NIPPV	28 (9.9)	10 (4.4)	18 (32.7)	< 0.00
Mechanical ventilation	58 (20.5)	25 (11.0)	33 (60.0)	< 0.00
Intervention				
Intensive care unit	89 (31.4)	47 (20.6)	42 (76.4)	< 0.00
ЕСМО	2 (0.7)	0 (0)	2 (3.6)	0.037
RRT	16 (5.7)	3 (1.3)	13 (23.6)	< 0.00
Vasopressor	53 (18.7)	19 (8.3)	34 (61.8)	< 0.00
Antibiotics	220 (77.7)	166 (72.8)	54 (98.2)	< 0.00
Treatment	100 ((4 0)	120 ((1.0)	42 (79.0)	0.017
Azithromycin	182 (64.3)	139 (61.0)	43 (78.2)	0.017
Hydroxychloroquine	67 (23.7)	45 (19.7)	22 (40.0)	0.002
Steroids	46 (16.3)	26 (11.4)	20 (36.4)	< 0.00
Ascorbic acid	57 (20.1)	38 (16.7)	19 (34.5)	0.003
Zinc Tocilizumab	54 (19.1)	33 (14.5)	21 (38.2)	< 0.00
	12 (4.2)	6 (2.6)	6 (10.9)	0.006

				0.0044
Convalescent plasma	36 (12.7)	19 (8.3)	17 (30.9)	< 0.001*
Remdesivir	25 (8.8)	20 (8.8)	5 (8.8)	0.940
Complications				
Acute kidney injury	115 (40.6)	75 (32.9)	40 (72.7)	< 0.001*
ARDS	53 (18.7)	17 (7.5)	36 (65.5)	< 0.001*
Arrhythmias	31 (11.0)	18 (7.9)	13 (23.6)	0.001*
QT prolongation	25 (8.8)	18 (7.9)	7 (12.7)	0.257
Venous thromboembolism	10 (3.5)	8 (3.5)	2 (3.6)	1.000
Arterial thrombosis	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	1.000
Cerebrovascular event	3 (1.1)	3 (1.3)	0 (0)	1.000
Myocardial infection	5 (1.8)	4 (1.8)	1 (1.8)	1.000
Heart failure	16 (5.7)	11 (4.8)	5 (9.1)	0.219
Superimposed bacteremia	19 (6.7)	12 (5.3)	7 (12.7)	0.047*
Hospital stay (day)	6.0 (7.0)‡	7.4 (7.53)†	9.2 (7.7)†	0.125
Outcome				
Recovery/discharge	223 (78.8)			
Remained hospitalized	2 (0.7)			
Death	55 (19.4)			

ALC, absolute lymphocyte count; ALT, alanine transaminase; ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI, body mass index; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; ECMO, extra-corporal membrane oxygenation; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; EKG, electrocardiography; IQR, interquartile range; NIPPV, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation; RRT, renal replacement therapy; SD, standard deviation; SpO2, oxygen saturation; UNL, upper normal limit; WBC, white blood cell.

*statistically significant

tmean (standard deviation)

‡ median (IQR)

Table 2. Clinical risk factors for overall in-hospital mortality using univariate binary logistic regression analysis.

Characteristics	Odds ratio	95% CI	P-value
Age (per 1-year increment)	1.051	1.028-1.075	< 0.001*
Hypertension	2.288	1.121-4.673	0.024*
Chronic kidney disease	2.262	1.195-4.274	0.012*
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	5.181	2.242-11.905	< 0.001*
Rales/crackles	2.101	1.080-4.098	0.029*
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	3.185	1.727-5.882	< 0.001*
Respiratory acidosis	7.463	3.546-15.625	< 0.001*
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	2.538	1.160-5.556	0.020*
eGFR (per 1.0 mL/min/1.73m ² increment)†	0.988	0.980-0.997	0.011*
D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL)‡	-	-	-
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	5.376	1.789-16.129	0.003*
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	7.634	1.739-33.333	0.007*
C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL)‡	-	-	-
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	2.681	1.222-5.882	0.014*
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	3.390	1.751-6.536	< 0.001*
Opacity/infiltrate on imaging	2.392	1.073-5.348	0.033*
Nasal cannula	2.494	1.120-5.556	0.025*
High-flow nasal cannula	5.682	2.703-11.905	< 0.001*
NIPPV	10.638	4.545-2.500	< 0.001*

Mechanical ventilation	12.195	6.173-23.810	< 0.001*
ICU admission/transfer	12.500	6.173-25.000	< 0.001*
ECMO‡	-	-	-
RRT	23.256	6.329-83.333	< 0.001*
Vasopressor	17.857	8.696-37.037	< 0.001*
Antibiotics	20.000	2.732-142.857	0.003*
Azithromycin	2.294	1.147-4.587	0.019*
Hydroxychloroquine	2.710	1.443-5.102	0.002*
Steroids	4.444	2.237-8.772	< 0.001*
Ascorbic acid	2.639	1.370-5.076	0.004*
Zinc	3.650	1.898-7.042	< 0.001*
Tocilizumab	4.525	1.403-14.706	0.012*
Convalescent plasma	4.921	2.348-10.314	< 0.001*
Acute kidney injury	5.435	2.825-10.417	< 0.001*
ARDS	23.256	11.236-50.000	< 0.001*
Arrhythmia	3.610	1.645-7.937	0.001*
Superimposed bacteremia	2.625	0.982-6.993	0.054

ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; ICU, intensive care unit; RRT, renal replacement therapy.

*statistically significant

ton admission

‡analyses cannot be performed as at least one cell is zero

Table 3. Clinical predictors for overall in-hospital mortality using multivariate binary logistic regression analysis.

		Statistics	
Characteristics	Odds ratio	95% CI	P-value
Model 1			
Age (per 1-year increment)	1.075	1.045-1.105	< 0.001*
Hypertension	1.264	0.572-2.793	0.562
Chronic kidney disease	1.232	0.590-2.571	0.578
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	4.630	1.934-1.111	0.001*
Rales/crackles	2.016	0.955-4.255	0.066
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	2.732	1.412-5.263	0.003*
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	2.137	0.890-5.128	0.089
eGFR (per 1.0 mL/min/1.73m ² decrement)†	1.002	0.990-1.013	0.795
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	4.016	1.195-13.514	0.025*
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	7.752	1.639-37.037	0.010*
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	2.404	1.011-5.714	0.047*
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	2.242	1.080-4.673	0.030*
Opacity/infiltrate on imaging	3.077	1.276-7.407	0.012*
Nasal cannula	1.883	0.799-4.444	0.148
High-flow nasal cannula	4.608	2.053-10.309	< 0.001*
NIPPV	7.246	2.899-18.182	< 0.001*

Mechanical ventilation	13.889	6.211-31.250	< 0.001*
ICU admission/transfer	13.699	6.135-30.303	< 0.001*
RRT	21.277	5.025-90.909	< 0.001*
Vasopressor	22.222	9.434-52.632	< 0.001*
Antibiotics	17.544	2.309-125.000	0.006*
ARDS	23.810	10.204-55.556	< 0.001*
Superimposed bacteremia	2.041	0.645-6.452	0.224
Model 2			
Azithromycin	2.058	0.918-4.608	0.080
Hydroxychloroquine	2.165	1.052-4.444	0.036*
Ascorbic acid	2.101	1.007-4.386	0.048*
Zinc	3.425	1.629-7.194	0.001*
Tocilizumab	3.279	0.911-11.765	0.069
Convalescent plasma	3.534	1.527-8.130	0.003*
Model 3			
Respiratory acidosis	7.042	2.915-16.949	< 0.001*
Steroids therapy	2.825	1.305-6.098	0.008*
Model 4			
Acute kidney injury	3.571	1.715-7.407	0.001*
	3.571	1./15-/.40/	0.001*
Model 5			
Arrhythmias as complications		1.002-6.211	0.050*

ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; CAD, coronary artery disease; CKD, chronic kidney disease; CI, confidence interval; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; ICU, intensive care unit; NIPPV, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation; RRT, renal replacement therapy.

*statistically significant

Model 1 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity and obesity

Model 2 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity and need for oxygen therapy

Model 3 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, asthma/COPD and need for oxygen therapy

Model 4 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, CKD and need for oxygen therapy Model 5 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, CAD, heart failure and history of arrhythmia/conduction disorder Table 4. Demographics and baseline characteristics of critically ill patients (n = 89).

Characteristics	All patients (n = 89)	Survivors (n = 47)	Non-survivors (n = 42)	P-value	
Male	61 (68.5)	30 (63.8)	31 (73.8)	0.365	
Age (year)	66.0 (14.2)†	69.1 (12.5)†	63.3 (15.2)†	0.052	
Ethnicity					
Caucasian	47 (52.8)	25 (53.2)	22 (52.4)		
African-American	25 (28.1)	12 (25.5)	13 (31.0)		
Hispanic/Latino	12 (13.5)	8 (17.0)	4 (9.5)	0.685	
Asian	5 (5.6)	2 (4.3)	3 (7.1)		
Others	-	-	-		
Treatment					
Azithromycin	69 (77.5)	34 (72.3)	35 (83.3)	0.215	
Hydroxychloroquine	42 (47.2)	23 (48.9)	19 (45.2)	0.727	
Steroids	39 (43.8)	19 (40.4)	20 (47.6)	0.495	
Ascorbic acid	39 (43.8)	22 (46.8)	17 (40.5)	0.548	
Zinc	40 (44.9)	21 (44.7)	19 (45.2)	0.958	
Tocilizumab	11 (12.4)	5 (10.6)	6 (14.3)	0.750	
Convalescent plasma	30 (33.7)	14 (29.8)	16 (38.1)	0.408	
Remdesivir	11 (12.4)	6 (12.8)	5 (11.9)	1.000	
Complications					
Acute kidney injury	56 (62.9)	22 (46.8)	34 (81.0)	0.001*	

ARDS	47 (52.8)	15 (31.9)	32 (76.2)	< 0.001*
Arrhythmias	21 (23.6)	10 (21.3)	11 (26.2)	0.586
QT prolongation	16 (18.0)	10 (21.3)	6 (14.3)	0.391
Venous thromboembolism	5 (5.6)	3 (6.4)	2 (4.8)	1.000
Hospital stay (day)	13.1 (9.6)†	10.4 (8.1)†	15.5 (10.3)†	0.125
Outcome				
Recovery/discharge	43 (48.3)			
Remained hospitalized	2 (2.2)			
Death	42 (47.2)			

ARDs, acute respiratory distress syndrome. *statistically significant tmean (standard deviation)

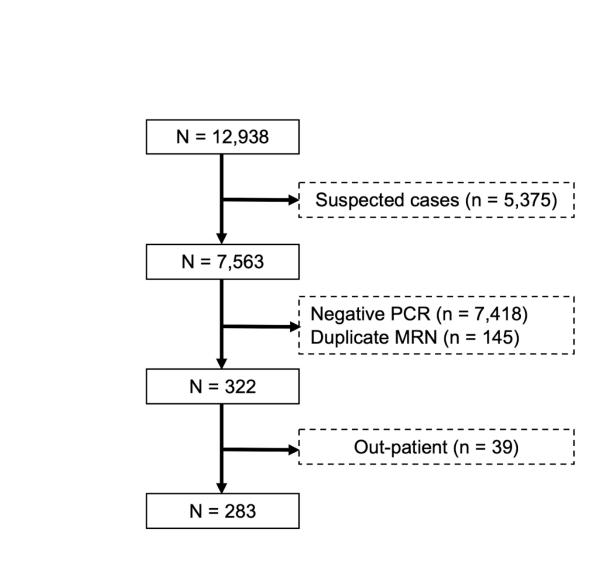
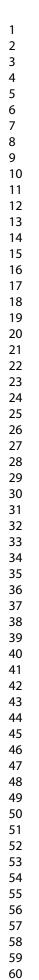
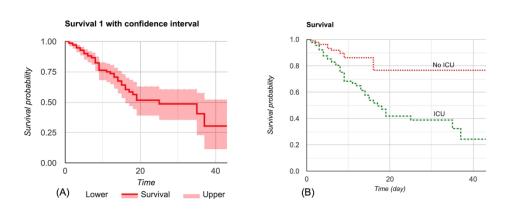
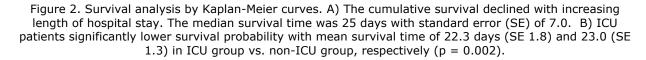


Figure 1. Flowchart of subject selection from UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry from March 1 to May 31, 2020.

127x117mm (300 x 300 DPI)







203x81mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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The demographic data included age, sex, and ethnicity. Co-morbidities included current/prior history of smoking, obesity (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, coronary artery disease, heart failure/cardiomyopathy, arrhythmia, chronic kidney disease, end-stage kidney disease (ESKD), asthma/chronic pulmonary obstructive disease, and cerebrovascular diseases.

Laboratory findings were recorded: leukocytosis (white blood cells count > 9,500/µL), leukopenia (white blood cells count < $3,900/\mu$ L), lymphocytopenia (absolute lymphocytes count < $600/\mu$ L), thrombocytosis (platelets > $400,000/\mu$ L), and thrombocytopenia (platelets < 140,000/µL), respiratory acidosis (arterial pH < 7.35 and arterial partial pressure of CO₂ > 45 mmHg), transaminitis (alanine transaminase > 3 times of upper normal limit). Serum creatinine (mg/dL) was measured by enzymatic assay. Elevation of serum D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL), ferritin (> 336 ng/mL) lactate dehydrogenase (LDH; > 200 U/L), C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL), procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL), and troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL) were recorded.

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Clinical Characteristics of Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients and the Impact on Mortality: A Single-network, Retrospective Cohort Study from Pennsylvania State

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3 4	1	Clinical Characteristics of Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients and the Impact on Mortality:		
5 6	2	A Single-network, Retrospective Cohort Study from Pennsylvania State		
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43 44 45	19	interest.		
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3 4	24	ABSTRACT
5 6 7	25	Objective: Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory disease caused by severe
7 8 9	26	acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) with highest burden in the United
10 11	27	States. Data on clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients in U.S. population are limited.
12 13 14	28	Thus, we aim to determine the clinical characteristics and risk factors for in-hospital mortality
15 16	29	from COVID-19.
17 18	30	Design: Retrospective observational study.
19 20 21	31	Setting: Single-network hospitals in Pennsylvania state.
22 23	32	Participants: Patients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection who were hospitalized from
24 25	33	March 1 st to May 31 st , 2020.
26 27 28	34	Primary and secondary outcome measures: Primary outcome was in-hospital mortality.
29 30	35	Secondary outcomes were complications, such as acute kidney injury and acute respiratory
31 32	36	distress syndrome (ARDS).
33 34	37	Results: Of 283 patients, 19.4% were non-survivors. The mean age of all patients was $64.1 \pm$
35 36 37	38	15.9 years. 56.2% were male and 50.2% were white. In adjusted multivariate analyses,
38 39	39	increasing age (per 1-year increment; OR 1.075), hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%; OR 4.630),
40 41	40	opacity/infiltrate on imaging (OR 3.077), leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL; OR 2.732), ferritin >
42 43 44	41	336 ng/mL (OR 4.016), lactate dehydrogenase > 200 U/L (OR 7.752), procalcitonin > 0.25
44 45 46	42	ng/mL (OR 2.404), troponin I > 0.03 ng/mL (OR 2.242), need for advanced oxygen support
47 48	43	other than simple nasal cannula (OR 4.608-13.889), ICU admission/transfer (OR 13.699), renal
49 50	44	replacement therapy (OR 21.277), need for vasopressor (OR 22.222), acute respiratory distress
51 52 53 54 55 56 57	45	syndrome (OR 23.810), respiratory acidosis (OR 7.042), and acute kidney injury (OR 3.571).

1		
2 3 4	46	When critically ill patients were analyzed independently, increasing SOFA score (OR 1.544),
5 6	AKI (OR 2.128), and ARDS (OR 6.410) were predictive of in-hospital mortality.	
7 8	48	Conclusion: We reported the characteristics of ethnically diverse, hospitalized patients with
9 10 11	49	COVID-19 from Pennsylvania state.
12 13	50	
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16 17 18	52	Strengths and Limitations of This Study
19 20	53	- Individual patient's chart was reviewed.
21 22 23	54	- Multivariate analysis (binary logistic regression model) was used to report the results.
24 25	55	- Retrospective, observational design.
26 27	56	- Limited sample size.
28 29 30	57	- Only hospitalized patients were included in the studies.
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	71	INTRODUCTION
	72	Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory disease caused by Severe Acute
	73	Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) which has become a pandemic in early
	74	2020. The spread of this virus was originally started in Wuhan, China in December 2019 and
	75	rapidly escalated to 216 countries within five months with the highest number of infected cases
	76	in the United States. ¹ As of August 29th, 2020, the reported cumulated number of confirmed
21 22	77	cases in the United States was close to 6 million with a mortality rate of 3.09%. ¹
23 24 25	78	As of August 29th, 2020, the Pennsylvania Department of Health has announced more
26 27	79	than 129,056 confirmed cases of COVID-19 leading to 7,671 deaths, making Pennsylvania the
28 29	80	13 th state with the highest confirmed cases. ² To date, the characteristics of infected patients in the
30 31 32 33 34 35 36	81	United States were reported in the state of Washington ($n = 21$), California ($n = 1,299$) and New
	82	York (n = 5,700) in chronological order. ³⁻⁵ The mortality across the U.S. studies ranged from 6.3
	83	to 24%, depending on the severity of COVID-19. Although the characteristics of hospitalized
37 38 39	84	COVID-19 patients have been reported in other states, there are some limitations that preclude
40 41	85	the generalization of the results toward our patient population. Studies from Washington and
41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52	86	California were conducted in pre-remdesivir era and multivariate analysis was not performed in
	87	the New York City cohort. The association between clinical characteristics and in-hospital
	88	mortality in the U.S. population have not been clearly established.
	89	Guan, et al first described the clinical characteristics of 1,099 patients infected with
	90	SARS-CoV-2 across China. ⁶ In this study, the overall mortality was 1.4%. However, the
53 54 55	91	association between clinical risk factors and mortality was not described. Later Du et al and
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92 Zhou et al demonstrated that older age, higher Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) 93 score, D-dimer > 1 μ g/mL, cardiac troponin I ≥ 0.05 ng/mL, and pre-existing concurrent cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases were significant predictors for increased mortality 94 from COVID-19.78 However, these findings were primarily based on Chinese population; thus, it 95 96 has been unconfirmed if the results can be applicable to other patient populations. 97 Clinical management of COVID-19 has been dynamic and variable based on available 98 research, which has largely been in vitro, such as a combination of hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin,⁹ ascorbic acid,¹⁰ ivermectin,¹¹ and zinc.¹² These therapies have not been proven 99 100 beneficial in clinical studies. In the current study, we provide our experience on treatment options 101 for patients infected with SARS-CoV-2. 102 In this retrospective cohort, we aimed to demonstrate the clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients, treatment outcomes and the impact on in-hospital mortality in an ethnically diverse 103 icz population. 104 105 106 **MATERIALS AND METHODS** 107 Study design This is a retrospective cohort study from seven hospitals under UPMC Pinnacle network 108 109 located across the state of Pennsylvania. The protocol of this study has been approved by UPMC 110 Pinnacle Institutional Review Board and UPMC Pinnacle Ethic Committee (#20E024). Written 111 informed consent was waived due to the retrospective, observational nature of the study. Our 112 current study followed the Declaration of Helsinki. 113 Patient and public involvement 114 No patient involvement.

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115 Data source and patient population

Data were collected by extracting electronic medical records from March 1st to May 31th, 2020 through UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry. Adult patients with age \geq 18 years who were hospitalized with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) from nasopharyngeal swab were included in this study. We excluded non-hospitalized patients, patients < 18 years of age, presumed SARS-CoV-2 infection, pregnant women, out-of-system transfer and patients enrolled in clinical trials. Transfer within the system was considered one admission. For patients with multiple admissions with study period, the first admission for COVID-19 was reviewed.

124 Data collection

Individual patient charts were reviewed by three independent authors to prevent observer
bias. Collected data was divided into: demographics, comorbidities, signs and symptoms,
laboratory findings, radiographic findings, treatments/interventions, complications and outcomes. *Supplemental Documents 1* summarizes the description of each variable in our cohort as well as
the cutoff values for each variable.

The Sequential Organ failure Assessment (SOFA) score¹³ was calculated on the first day of ICU admission. Estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was calculated using CKD-EPI equation.¹⁴ Acute kidney injury (AKI) was defined by an increase in serum creatinine by 0.3 mg/dL (27 μ mol/L) or ≥ 1.5 times from the baseline value within 48 hours.¹⁵ Chronic kidney disease (CKD) was defined by the Kidney Diseases Improving Global Outcomes guidelines.¹⁶ Patients with history of end stage kidney disease (ESKD) on dialysis prior to admission, were not counted toward 'requirement of renal replacement therapy (RRT)/hemodialysis (HD)' during the hospital stay. Acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) was defined by the Berlin criteria.¹⁷

Arrhythmias as complications were defined either tachy- or bradyarrhythmia that were new-onset,occurred during hospitalization with COVID-19. In this study, prolongation of QT segment was

140 defined as the QT duration > 500 milliseconds.

141 Study outcomes

The primary outcome was in-hospital mortality. The secondary outcome included
treatment outcomes and complications such as recovery/discharge, AKI, ARDS, arrhythmias, QT
prolongation, venous thromboembolism, arterial thrombosis, cerebrovascular events, heart
failure, and myocardial infarction.

146 Statistical analysis

147All analyses were conducted using SPSS software version 23.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk,148NY, USA). Descriptive analyses were reported in percentage for categorical data and in mean \pm 149standard deviation (S.D.) or median (interquartile range; IQR) depending the data distribution.150Comparisons of outcomes for each variable were evaluated using Pearson's χ^2 tests or Fisher-151Exact tests (for categorical data) and two-sample independent t-test (for continuous data). Fisher-152Exact tests were opted if the total sample in any cell count was less than five. A p-value less than1530.05 is considered statistically significant. Missing data were not included in the analysis.

154 Logistic regression analysis

155 Clinical risk factors that were significant from standard analyses (Pearson's χ^2 tests, Fisher-156 Exact tests, t-tests) were included in univariate binary logistic regression analysis. Odds ratios 157 (OR) were reported along with 95% confidence interval (CI). The analysis is considered 158 statistically significant if the 95% CI crosses 1.0.¹⁸ Variables that remained statistically significant 159 on univariate analysis were included in multivariate analysis using logistic regression method to 160 adjust for other covariates. For the analyses of overall mortality predictors, Model 1 was adjusted

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161 for age, sex, ethnicity and obesity. Model 2 was adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity and need 162 for oxygen therapy. Model 3 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, asthma/chronic obstructive 163 pulmonary disease (COPD), the need for oxygen therapy, and ICU admission. Model 4 is adjusted 164 for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, CKD, the need for oxygen therapy, and ICU admission. Model 5 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, coronary artery disease, heart failure, history of 165 166 arrhythmia/conduction disorder, and ICU admission. The rationale for each Model adjustment in 167 multivariate analysis is available in Supplemental Document 2. 168 Sensitivity analysis 169 The goodness-of-fit tests of logistic regression analyses were evaluated by Hosmer-170 Lemeshow method. The validity and sustainability of the significant results from multivariate 171 analysis were tested using the bootstrap method to estimate the end point with imputed sample 172 size of 1,000. Survival analysis 173 Kaplan-Meier analysis was used to present the survival by plotting between cumulative 174 survival against hospital stay in all included patients and in patients requiring ICU. 175 176 177 RESULTS **Baseline characteristics and patient outcomes** 178 A total of 12,938 patients were identified during the study period. Thirty-nine patients were 179 180 outpatient and did not require hospitalization. After excluding patients with negative PCR (n =

182 = 2), 283 patients were included for further analysis. The flowchart of data selection from the
183 UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry is depicted in *Figure 1. Table 1* summarizes the demographics

7,374), duplicate medical records (n = 145), pregnant woman (n = 3), and clinical trial patients (n

and baseline characteristics of included patients. All patients had confirmed SARS-Cov-2 infection by RT-PCR. Of 283 patients, 80.6% were survivors and 19.4% were non-survivors. The mean age of all patients was 64.1 ± 15.9 years. 56.2% were male and 50.2% were Caucasian. Non-survivors were significantly older and had higher proportion of hypertension, CKD and had lower mean eGFR. Moreover, hypoxia on presentation, rales/crackles on physical examination, leukocytosis, lymphocytopenia, respiratory acidosis, transaminitis, and opacity/infiltrate on imaging were common presentations in non-survivors. Higher inflammatory markers, such as D-dimer, ferritin, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), C-reactive protein, and procalcitonin were significantly prevalent in deceased patients. The need for oxygen therapy regardless of the mode of oxygen delivery was higher among those who did not survive. Furthermore, non-survivors were more likely to have received intensive care unit (ICU) admission/transfer, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), RRT, use of vasopressors, use of antibiotics, azithromycin, hydroxychloroquine, steroids, ascorbic acid, zinc, tocilizumab and convalescent plasma. Of overall complications, the prevalence of AKI, ARDS, arrhythmias and superimposed bacteremia was significantly higher in non-survivors. There was no significant difference in mean hospital stay between survivors and non-survivors. Up to 78.8% recovered or were discharged from the hospital. Only two patients remained hospitalized as of June 18, 2020. The mean hospital stay was similar between patients who received remdesivir vs. those who did not $(9.0 \pm 4.7 \text{ and } 7.6 \pm 7.8 \text{ days, respectively; p} =$ 0.359). In contrast, patients who received tocilizumab had significantly longer hospital stay compared to those who did not receive tocilizumab (15.3 ± 11.7 and 7.4 ± 7.2 days, respectively; p < 0.001). Univariate analysis

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All factors except superimposed bacteremia remained significant on univariate analysis.

207 The OR of each clinical predictor for overall in-hospital mortality is depicted in *Table 2*. Logistic

208 regression analysis cannot be performed on the following variables: D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL), C-

209 reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL), and the need for ECMO as at least one cell count was zero.

210 Moreover, in a univariate analysis, we found that hydroxychloroquine treatment was associated

with increased risk of QT prolongation (OR 3.401; 95%CI 1.473-7.874; p = 0.002).

212 Multivariate analysis

Variables that were significant on univariate analysis were included in multivariate logistic regression analysis (Table 3). In Model 1 (adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, and obesity), increasing patient age, hypoxia, opacity/infiltrate on imaging, leukocytosis, ferritin > 336 ng/mL, LDH (> 200 U/L), procalcitonin > 0.25 ng/mL, troponin I > 0.03 ng/mL, use of high-flow oxygen nasal cannula, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV), mechanical ventilation, ICU admission/transfer, RRT, vasopressor, antibiotics and ARDS were independent risk factors for increased in-hospital mortality. In Model 2 (adjusted for all variables in Model 1 plus the need for oxygen therapy, and ICU admission), hydroxychloroquine, ascorbic acid, zinc, and convalescent plasma were not associated with increased mortality. In Model 3 (adjusted for all variables in Model 2 plus asthma/COPD), respiratory acidosis was associated with increased mortality. Moreover, AKI was an independent risk factor for in-hospital mortality from COVID-19 from Model 4. In addition, we also found that hydroxychloroquine therapy was associated with QT prolongation (OR 2.874; 95% CI 1.189-6.944; p = 0.019) after adjusted for covariates in Model 2. The association of these variables and overall mortality remained significant on bootstrap analysis when the sample size was imputed to 1,000.

228 Cohort of critically ill patients

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229	A total 89 patients required intensive care during the study period. Of which, 47.2% died.
230	The demographics and clinical characteristics of critically ill patients are demonstrated in Table
231	4. Deceased ICU patients had significantly higher proportion of AKI and ARDS compared to
232	survived ICU patients. The treatments were similar between survivors and non-survivor patients.
233	In multivariate analysis, each 1-point increment of SOFA score was associated with increased
234	death (OR 1.544; 95% CI 1.168-2.039; p 0.002) after adjusted for age, sex, and ethnicity.
235	Similarly, AKI (OR 2.128, 95% CI 1.111-6.667; p = 0.034) and ARDS (OR 6.410; 95% CI
236	2.237-18.182; $p = 0.023$) are significantly predictive of in-hospital mortality among patients
237	admitted the ICU after adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, and SOFA score.
238	Survival analysis
239	Survival analyses were evaluated using Kaplan-Meier curve (Figure 2). In our analysis,
240	the cumulative survival declined with increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival
241	time was 25.0 days with standard error of 7.0.
242	time was 25.0 days with standard error of 7.0.
243	DISCUSSION
244	In this single-network, retrospective observation study, we found that the overall in-
245	hospital mortality among hospitalized COVID-19 patients was 19.4%. The reported mortality
246	among Chinese cohorts ranged from 11.7% to 28.2%.7819 However, our reported mortality rates
247	appeared slightly lower than what previously described from New York City.5 Richardson et al
248	found that the overall mortality of 5,700 hospitalized COVID-19 patients from 12 hospitals in
249	New York City was 21%. However, one could argue that our study has significantly smaller
250	sample size which might underestimate the actual mortality of COVID-19. Our data need
251	confirmation from other studies with a larger sample size.

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252 We identified several risk factors for mortality from COVID-19 using multivariate 253 logistic regression analysis. Increasing age, hypoxia and opacity/infiltrate on imaging were 254 associated with higher mortality. Moreover, we also found that patient survival diminished as the 255 disease progressed, reflected by advancement in oxygen delivery (high-flow nasal cannula, 256 NIPPV, and mechanical ventilation). Requiring a simple oxygen nasal cannula did not affect 257 mortality. Such findings are similar to previous literature. Older age is an independent risk factor 258 for severe COVID-19 and mortality.^{7 20} In line with Zhou et al, increasing oxygen requirement 259 and need for advanced oxygen delivery were predictive of death from COVID-19.8

260 Here, we showed that COVID-19 patients requiring ICU had 13.7-fold increased risk of 261 mortality. Critically ill patients generally had one or more organs in failure, and an increasing number of organ failure has been linked to elevated death in sepsis patients.²¹ For COVID-19 262 263 patients, we demonstrated that kidney (AKI, and RRT), pulmonary (respiratory acidosis, and 264 ARDS), cardiovascular (vasopressor requirement) failure were predictive of in-hospital mortality. These findings are in line with other cohorts and each factor has been demonstrated as 265 266 an independent risk factor for mortality in critically ill patients.^{8 22-26} Although the complications 267 from SARS-CoV-2 infection can be affected by multiple contributing factors, newer evidence has suggested the significance of cytokine storm leading to multi-organ failure.²⁷ 268

Here, we showed that elevated ferritin, LDH, procalcitonin, leukocytosis, troponin I and
possibly D-dimer were associated with increased death. Although, the odds ratio for D-dimer
cannot be calculated as one cell was zero, we observed that all deceased patients had elevated Ddimer level and the significance of elevated D-dimer toward in-hospital mortality cannot be
ignored. Guan et al first demonstrated the importance of elevated inflammatory markers in
COVID-19 in Chinese population⁶ which has become a standard monitoring parameter for

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275	COVID-19 patients. ²⁸ Elevated inflammatory markers should prompt physicians to evaluate and
276	monitor the patients for cytokine storms and anticipated clinical deterioration. Elevated
277	procalcitonin and leukocytosis may indicate concomitant bacterial infection, which has been
278	shown to increase morbidity and mortality of viral pneumonia. ²⁹ Interestingly, our study showed
279	that elevated troponin I level was associated with significantly higher death similar to a recent
280	meta-analysis. ³⁰ Although the etiologies of elevated troponin levels were not determined in our
281	cohort, other studies proposed several mechanisms for elevated troponin level in COVID-19
282	patients. These include myocarditis, cytokine mediated myocardial injury, microangiopathy of
283	small coronary arteries, or silent coronary artery disease. ^{26 30}
284	The pathophysiology of cytokine storm in SARS-CoV-2 is similar to that of other viruses
285	or bacteria. ³¹ Cytokine storm is characterized by the overproduction of pro-inflammatory
286	cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF), IL-6, and IL-1 β resulting in an increased
287	vascular hyperpermeability, and activation of multiple coagulation pathways. ^{27 32} In light of
288	SARS-CoV-2-induced hypercoagulation, antithrombin III, tissue factor pathway inhibitor and
289	the protein C system were impaired during active inflammation. ³³ These changes lead to
290	thrombin hyperactivity resulting in the development of microthrombosis, disseminated
291	intravascular coagulation (DIC) and sequential multiorgan failure. ²⁷ Moreover, new studies have
292	revealed the spectrum of hyperferritinemic syndromes induced by SARS-CoV-2 but they are
293	beyond the scope of our article. ³⁴ Such syndromes include macrophage activation syndrome,
294	adult-onset Still's disease, and catastrophic anti-phospholipid syndrome. ³⁴
295	Hydroxychloroquine therapy was associated with a 3-fold increased risk of QT
296	prolongation but not associated with increased risk of death. The concept of using
297	hydroxychloroquine in COVID-19 patients derived from an early in vitro study. ³⁵ The results

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from small non-randomized clinical trials also showed promising effects on viral load reduction.^{36 37} However, the clinical benefit of hydroxychloroguine was debated by a large observation study. Of 1,446 patients, Geleris et al observed that hydroxychloroguine had no effect on the death, length of stay or intubation.³⁸ Later, the efficacy of hydroxychloroquine with or without azithromycin has been demonstrated in a recent multicenter, randomized, open-label, controlled trial in hospitalized patients with mild-to-moderate COVID-19.39 In this study, the authors found that the use of hydroxychloroguine, alone or with azithromycin did not improve the clinical outcome at 15 days compared to the standard treatment. Thus, the recommendation for use of hydroxychloroquine was recalled by the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) due to small sample size in previous clinical trials and concern for cardiac adverse effects, such as QT prolongation/torsade de pointe.⁴⁰ A meta-analysis of four randomized trials and one retrospective study showed that the administration of intravenous vitamin C has vasopressor sparing effects and may reduce the need for mechanical ventilation in critically ill patients while there was no effect on the mortality.⁴¹ However, given the lack of more supporting evidence, the standard use of ascorbic acid is not yet recommended especially in COVID-19 patients. A new clinical trial investigating the treatment outcome of vitamin C in severe COVID-19 is underway (NCT04264533). Although our study also showed that zinc supplementation was not associated with increased mortality in COVID-19 patients, the routine use of zinc supplementation could not be

supported due to lack of randomized controlled trials. A Brazilian study revealed that plasma
zinc concentration in critically ill patients upon admission to the ICU was low and may make
these patients more susceptible to oxidative stress.⁴² Another prospective study showed that zinc
supplementation in mechanically ventilated patients was related to less ventilator-associated

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pneumonia.⁴³ However, the mean duration of intubation in this study was prolonged (29 days),
 making it inconclusive if zinc supplementation can prevent pneumonia development in short term intubation.

Steroid therapy in COVID-19 patients was not associated with increased mortality. A meta-analysis of 42 randomized controlled trials consisting of 10,194 patients has shown that corticosteroids possibly result in a small reduction in mortality and an increased risk of neuromuscular weakness among critically ill patients with sepsis.⁴⁴ However, the theoretical concept for corticosteroid use in COVID-19 was to reduce cytokine storm caused by a reaction to SARS-CoV-2 infection.⁴⁵ In early April 2020, the IDSA recommended against a routine use of corticosteroids in the treatment of COVID-19 due to lack of evidence.⁴⁰ This guidelines was updated on June 25th, 2020 after the results of the RECOVERY trial was released showing that patients who received dexamethasone were more likely to be discharged from hospital at 28 days compared to non-steroids group.⁴⁶ Thus, currently, the IDSA panel suggests glucocorticoids use in hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19.40 Here, our study is in line with the recommendation from the IDSA.

We have observed that remdesivir and tocilizumab were not associated with mortality and there was no significant improvement in hospital length of stay between patients receiving these drugs. However, given the observational, non-randomized design of this study, it is difficult to determine the efficacy of such treatment. Recently, the preliminary report from a phase 3 randomized controlled trial revealed that remdesivir was superior to placebo in shortening the time to recovery in adults hospitalized with COVID-19.47 Several retrospective studies reported that tocilizumab, an IL-6 inhibitor, was shown to reduce the levels of serum inflammatory markers. However, the impact on clinical improvement and mortality remained

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inconclusive.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ Although we reported no significant clinical benefits from tocilizumab, the
consideration for compassionate use of tocilizumab is not discouraged but rather dependent on
the judgment of clinicians based on current evidence. A phase 2 (TOCIVID-19; NCT04317092)
and 3 randomized controlled trial (COVACTA; NCT04320615) of tocilizumab is being
investigated for the treatment of COVID-19 pneumonia. The preliminary results are expected to
release in late 2020.

350 Similarly, we found that convalescent plasma was not associated with in-hospital 351 mortality. The safety of convalescent plasma was demonstrated in a single-center retrospective cohort of 25 patients⁵¹ and in a preprint, non-peer review report.⁵² However, the efficacy of 352 353 convalescent plasma remained undetermined due to lack of control group. The IDSA panel has 354 recommended convalescent plasma only in the context of a clinical trials. However, at our 355 institution, convalescent plasma is considered if patients have severe symptoms and have 356 contraindications to remdesivir, such as AKI and hepatic dysfunction. Although we did not observe mortality adverse effect from convalescent plasma, the final recommendations on its 357 358 efficacy and safety are dependent on the randomized controlled trials. To date, at least one randomized controlled trial (NCT04342182) is being investigated to establish the clinical 359 benefits in hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19. 360

From our ICU cohort, the SOFA score, AKI and ARDS were the only variables that were predictive of mortality among patients admitted to the ICU. Interestingly, all treatment measures had no effect on mortality once patients were critically ill and required ICU. This could imply that these treatment interventions might be beneficial if given prior to clinical decompensation or ICU transfer. However, interpretation is restricted due to small sample size and examining only

366 critically ill patients. Our hypothesis should be substantiated by studies from other institutions367 with larger sample sizes.

Our study has some limitations. The observational design made the results susceptible to selection bias. Analyses could be underpowered given the small sample size. However, we improved the validity of the results by performing bootstrapping analysis. Moreover, due to restricted availability, not many cases had received compassionate use of tocilizumab, remdesivir, and convalescent plasma, which may limit the applicability of our findings. More importantly, the mortality can be affected by confounding factors. We minimize this risk by applying multivariate analysis. Most of the collected data were cross sectional, thus, making it difficult to conclude the causality between the two variables. Furthermore, our binary logistic regression analyses may not strictly follow the one-in-ten rule which may lead to over-fitting effect. However, our statistical rationale is supported by newer simulation studies by McCulloch et al.⁵³ and Smeden et al.⁵⁴ Moreover, we advised the readers to consider their patient population to determine the applicability of our results. In conclusion, COVID-19 is a serious condition with a significant in-hospital mortality rate. Multiple risk factors for in-hospital death were identified. Increasing SOFA score, AKI and ARDS are significant risk factors for increased death in critically ill patients. Acknowledgement We would like to thank UPMC Pinnacle IT support for medical record procurement and Mrs. Yijin Wert for constructing the Kaplan-Meier curves.

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19 20	396	Figure 1. Flowchart of subject selection from UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry from March 1
21 22 23	397	to May 31, 2020.
23 24 25	398	Figure 2. Survival analysis by Kaplan-Meier curves. A) The cumulative survival declined with
26 27	399	increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival time was 25 days with standard error (SE)
28 29	400	of 7.0. B) ICU patients significantly lower survival probability with mean survival time of 22.3
30 31 32	401	days (SE 1.8) and 23.0 (SE 1.3) in ICU group vs. non-ICU group, respectively ($p = 0.002$). C) The
33 34 35 36	402	cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute respiratory distress syndrome (p
	403	= 0.302). D) The cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute kidney injury
37 38 39	404	(p = 0.504).
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19 20	419	DECLARATIONS
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26 27	422	interest.
28 29 20	423	Ethics Approval: UPMC Pinnacle Ethic Committee approved this study (#20E024).
30 31 32	424	Informed Consent: Not applicable.
33 34	425	Data availability: Raw data are available upon reasonable request.
35 36 27	426	Authors' contributions: K.P.G., P.H., M.G. collected the data. P.H. analyzed the data. K.P.G.,
37 38 39	427	P.H., and J.D.G. drafted the manuscript. All authors edited and approved the manuscript for
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Table 1. Demographics and baseline characteristics of included patients.

Characteristics	All patients (n = 283)	Survivors (n = 228)	Non-survivors (n = 55)	P-value
Male	159 (56.2)	125 (54.8)	34 (61.8)	0.348
Age (year)	64.1 (15.9)†	61.9 (15.8)†	72.8 (13.5)†	< 0.001*
Ethnicity				
Caucasian	143 (50.5)	111 (48.7)	32 (58.2)	1
African-American	88 (31.1)	73 (32.0)	15 (27.3)	
Hispanic/Latino	32 (11.3)	27 (11.8)	5 (9.1)	0.705
Asian	17 (6.0)	14 (6.1)	3 (5.5)	0.703
Others	. ,			
Others	3 (1.1)	3 (1.3)	0 (0)	1
Co-morbidities				
Obesity (BMI \ge 30 kg/m ²)	132 (46.6)	102 (44.7)	30 (54.5)	0.191
Current/Former smokers	109 (38.5)	88 (38.6)	21 (38.2)	0.955
Hypertension	189 (66.8)	145 (63.6)	44 (80.0)	0.020*
Diabetes mellitus	108 (38.2)	81 (35.5)	27 (49.1)	0.063
Hyperlipidemia	121 (42.8)	94 (41.2)	27 (49.1)	0.290
Coronary artery disease	50 (17.7)	40 (17.5)	10 (18.2)	0.911
Heart failure/cardiomyopathy	53 (18.7)	40 (17.5)	13 (23.6)	0.299
Arrhythmia/conduction disorders	45 (15.9)	36 (15.8)	9 (16.4)	0.917
Chronic kidney disease	66 (23.3)	46 (20.2)	20 (36.4)	0.011*
End-stage kidney disease	13 (4.6)	12 (5.3)	1 (1.8)	0.474
Asthma/COPD	73 (25.8)	54 (23.7)	19 (34.5)	0.098
Cerebrovascular disease	40 (14.1)	32 (14.0)	8 (14.5)	0.922
Signs and symptoms				
Cough	185 (65.4)	149 (65.4)	36 (65.5)	0.988
Dyspnea	203 (71.7)	158 (69.3)	45 (81.8)	0.064
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	178 (62.9)	130 (57.0)	48 (87.3)	< 0.001
Rhinorrhea	29 (10.2)	26 (11.4)	3 (5.5)	0.226
Fever/chills	179 (63.3)	143 (62.7)	36 (65.5)	0.706
Chest pain	35 (12.4)	32 (14.0)	3 (5.5)	0.109
Headache	28 (9.9)	26 (11.4)	2 (3.6)	0.128
Gastrointestinal symptoms	79 (27.9)	68 (29.8)	11 (20.0)	0.120
Asymptomatic	8 (2.8)	8 (3.5)	0 (0)	0.361
Rales/crackles	57 (20.1)	40 (17.5)	17 (30.9)	0.027*

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Rhonchi	57 (20.1)	45 (19.7)	12 (21.8)	0.73
Reduced breath sound	63 (22.3)	48 (21.1)	15 (27.3)	0.32
Laboratory findings	F((10 0)	4((20.0)	10 (10 0)	0.72
Leukopenia (WBC < 4,000 /uL)	56 (19.8)	46 (20.2)	10 (18.2)	0.73
Leukocytosis (WBC > $10,000 / uL$)	80 (28.3)	53 (23.2)	27 (49.1)	< 0.00
Lymphocytopenia (ALC < $1,000 / uL$)	109 (38.7)	78 (34.2)	31 (57.4)	0.002
Thrombocytopenia (< 140,000 /uL) Thrombocytosis (> 400,000 /uL)	57 (20.1)	41 (18.0) 25 (11.0)	16 (29.1) 6 (10.9)	0.06 0.99
Respiratory acidosis	31 (11.0) 43 (21.3)	18 (11.8)	25 (50.0)	< 0.00
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	33 (12.4)	21 (9.9)	12 (21.8)	0.00
Serum creatinine (mg/dL) on admission	1.06 (0.72)‡	1.59 (1.88)†	1.64 (1.15)†	0.80
eGFR (mL/min/1.73m ²)	64.2 (51.0)†	66.7 (35.5)†	53.6 (25.3)†	0.002
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	91 (39.1)	61 (33.0)	30 (62.5)	< 0.00
	51 (55.1)	01 (55.0)	30 (02.3)	< 0.00
Inflammatory markers				
D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL)	135 (80.4)	101 (75.4)	34 (100)	< 0.00
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	109 (65.3)	78 (59.1)	31 (88.6)	0.001
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	108 (73.0)	77 (67.0)	31 (93.9)	0.002
C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL)	152 (87.4)	115 (83.9)	37 (100)	0.005
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	73 (47.1)	50 (41.7)	23 (65.7)	0.012
ST-T change on EKG	84 (31.8)	63 (29.7)	21 (40.4)	0.13
			<u> </u>	0.10
Radiographic findings		1/0 /01 1		0.05
Opacity/infiltrate	209 (73.9)	162 (71.1)	47 (85.5)	0.029
Ground glass appearance	79 (27.9)	65 (28.5)	14 (25.5)	0.65
Pleural effusion	24 (8.5)	17 (7.5)	7 (12.7)	0.20
Pulmonary congestion	30 (10.6)	23 (10.1)	7 (12.7)	0.56
Oxygen therapy/delivery				
Nasal cannula	207 (73.1) 🦢	160 (70.2)	47 (85.5)	0.022
High-flow nasal cannula	36 (12.7)	18 (7.9)	18 (32.7)	< 0.00
NIPPV	28 (9.9)	10 (4.4)	18 (32.7)	< 0.00
Mechanical ventilation	58 (20.5)	25 (11.0)	33 (60.0)	< 0.00
Intervention				
Intensive care unit	89 (31.4)	47 (20.6)	42 (76.4)	< 0.00
ECMO	2 (0.7)	0 (0)	2 (3.6)	0.037
RRT	16 (5.7)	3 (1.3)	13 (23.6)	< 0.00
Vasopressor	53 (18.7)	19 (8.3)	34 (61.8)	< 0.00
Antibiotics	220 (77.7)	166 (72.8)	54 (98.2)	< 0.00
Treatment	100 ((1.0)	100 / / 1 0		0.01
Azithromycin	182 (64.3)	139 (61.0)	43 (78.2)	0.012
Hydroxychloroquine	67 (23.7)	45 (19.7)	22 (40.0)	0.002
Steroids	46 (16.3)	26 (11.4)	20 (36.4)	< 0.00
Ascorbic acid	57 (20.1)	38 (16.7)	19 (34.5)	0.003
Zinc	54 (19.1)	33 (14.5)	21 (38.2)	< 0.00
Tocilizumab	12 (4.2)	6 (2.6)	6 (10.9)	0.006
Convalescent plasma	36 (12.7)	19 (8.3)	17 (30.9)	< 0.00
Remdesivir	25 (8.8)	20 (8.8)	5 (8.8)	0.94
Complications				
Acute kidney injury	115 (40.6)	75 (32.9)	40 (72.7)	< 0.00
ARDS	53 (18.7)	17 (7.5)	36 (65.5)	< 0.00
Arrhythmias	31 (11.0)	18 (7.9)	13 (23.6)	0.001
QT prolongation	25 (8.8)	18 (7.9)	7 (12.7)	0.25
Venous thromboembolism	10 (3.5)	8 (3.5)	2 (3.6)	1.00
Arterial thrombosis	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	1.00

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Cerebrovascular event	3 (1.1)	3 (1.3)	0 (0)	1.00
Myocardial infection	5 (1.8)	4 (1.8)	1 (1.8)	1.00
Heart failure	16 (5.7)	11 (4.8)	5 (9.1)	0.21
Superimposed bacteremia	19 (6.7)	12 (5.3)	7 (12.7)	0.042
Hospital stay (day)	6.0 (7.0)‡	7.4 (7.53)†	9.2 (7.7)†	0.12
Outcome				
Recovery/discharge	223 (78.8)			
Remained hospitalized	2 (0.7)			
Death	55 (19.4)			

ALC, absolute lymphocyte count; ALT, alanine transaminase; ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI, body mass index; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; ECMO, extra-corporal membrane oxygenation; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; EKG, electrocardiography; IQR, interquartile range; NIPPV, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation; RRT, renal replacement therapy; SD, standard deviation; SpO2, oxygen saturation; UNL, upper normal limit; WBC, white blood cell.

*statistically significant

tmean (standard deviation) ‡ median (IQR)

Table 2. Clinical risk factors for overall in-hospital mortality using univariate binary logistic regression analysis.

Characteristics	Odds ratio	95% CI	P-value
Age (per 1-year increment)	1.051	1.028-1.075	< 0.001*
Hypertension	2.288	1.121-4.673	0.024*
Chronic kidney disease	2.262	1.195-4.274	0.012*
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	5.181	2.242-11.905	< 0.001*
Rales/crackles	2.101	1.080-4.098	0.029*
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	3.185	1.727-5.882	< 0.001*
Respiratory acidosis	7.463	3.546-15.625	< 0.001*
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	2.538	1.160-5.556	0.020*
eGFR (per 1.0 mL/min/1.73m ² increment)†	0.988	0.980-0.997	0.011*
D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL)‡	-	-	-
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	5.376	1.789-16.129	0.003*
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	7.634	1.739-33.333	0.007*
C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL)‡	-	-	-
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	2.681	1.222-5.882	0.014*
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	3.390	1.751-6.536	< 0.001*
Opacity/infiltrate on imaging	2.392	1.073-5.348	0.033*
Nasal cannula	2.494	1.120-5.556	0.025*
High-flow nasal cannula	5.682	2.703-11.905	< 0.001*
NIPPV	10.638	4.545-2.500	< 0.001*
Mechanical ventilation	12.195	6.173-23.810	< 0.001*
ICU admission/transfer	12.500	6.173-25.000	< 0.001*
ECMO‡	-	-	-
RRT	23.256	6.329-83.333	< 0.001*
Vasopressor	17.857	8.696-37.037	< 0.001*
Antibiotics	20.000	2.732-142.857	0.003*
Azithromycin	2.294	1.147-4.587	0.019*

Hydroxychloroquine	2.710	1.443-5.102	0.002*
Steroids	4.444	2.237-8.772	< 0.001*
Ascorbic acid	2.639	1.370-5.076	0.004*
Zinc	3.650	1.898-7.042	< 0.001*
Tocilizumab	4.525	1.403-14.706	0.012*
Convalescent plasma	4.921	2.348-10.314	< 0.001*
Acute kidney injury	5.435	2.825-10.417	< 0.001*
ARDS	23.256	11.236-50.000	< 0.001*
Arrhythmia	3.610	1.645-7.937	0.001*
Superimposed bacteremia	2.625	0.982-6.993	0.054

ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; ICU, intensive care unit; RRT, renal replacement therapy. *statistically significant ton admission ‡analyses cannot be performed as at least one cell is zero

629 Table 3. Clinical predictors for overall in-hospital mortality using multivariate binary logistic regression analysis.

		Statistics	
Characteristics	Odds ratio	95% CI	P-value
Model 1			
Age (per 1-year increment)	1.075	1.045-1.105	< 0.001*
Hypertension	1.264	0.572-2.793	0.562
Chronic kidney disease	1.232	0.590-2.571	0.578
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	4.630	1.934-1.111	0.001*
Rales/crackles	2.016	0.955-4.255	0.066
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	2.732	1.412-5.263	0.003*
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	2.137	0.890-5.128	0.089
eGFR (per 1.0 mL/min/1.73m ² decrement)†	1.002	0.990-1.013	0.795
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	4.016	1.195-13.514	0.025*
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	7.752	1.639-37.037	0.010*
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	2.404	1.011-5.714	0.047*
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	2.242	1.080-4.673	0.030*
Opacity/infiltrate on imaging	3.077	1.276-7.407	0.012*
Nasal cannula	1.883	0.799-4.444	0.148
High-flow nasal cannula	4.608	2.053-10.309	< 0.001*
NIPPV	7.246	2.899-18.182	< 0.001*
Mechanical ventilation	13.889	6.211-31.250	< 0.001*
ICU admission/transfer	13.699	6.135-30.303	< 0.001*
RRT	21.277	5.025-90.909	< 0.001*
Vasopressor	22.222	9.434-52.632	< 0.001*
Antibiotics	17.544	2.309-125.000	0.006*
ARDS	23.810	10.204-55.556	< 0.001*
Superimposed bacteremia	2.041	0.645-6.452	0.224

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4		Model 2				
5			1.01/	0 500 4 451	0.150	
6		Azithromycin	1.916	0.788-4.651	0.152	
7		Hydroxychloroquine Ascorbic acid	1.057	0.467-2.392	0.894	
8 9		Zinc	1.008	0.440-2.313	0.985	
10			1.517	0.651-3.546	0.334	
11		Tocilizumab	1.499	0.381-5.917	0.562	
12		Convalescent plasma	1.513	0.600-3.817	0.381	
13						
14		Model 3				
15 16		Respiratory acidosis	3.745	1.443-9.709	0.007*	
17		Steroids therapy	1.107	0.459-2.667	0.821	
18						
19		Model 4				
20		Acute kidney injury	2.268	1.025-5.025	0.043*	
21						
22 23		Model 5				
23		Arrhythmias as complications	1.161	0.428-3.155	0.769	
25						
26	630					
27	631	ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; CA	AD, coronary artery	disease; CKD, cł	ronic kidney diseas	se; CI,
28		confidence interval; COPD, chronic obstructive	pulmonary disease;	eGFR, estimated	glomerular filtration	n rate;
29 30	632	ICU, intensive care unit; NIPPV, non-invasive p	ositive pressure ver	ntilation; RRT, ren	al replacement thera	apy.
30 31		*statistically significant Model 1 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity and ol	hesity			
32	633	Model 2 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesi		therapy, and ICU	admission	
33		Model 3 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesit				ission
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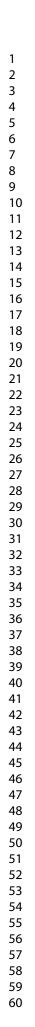
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Table 4. Demographics and baseline characteristics of critically ill patients (n = 89).

Characteristics	All patients	Survivors	Non-survivors	P-value
Characteristics	(n = 89)	(n = 47)	(n = 42)	1-value
Male	61 (68.5)	30 (63.8)	31 (73.8)	0.365
Age (year)	66.0 (14.2)†	69.1 (12.5)†	63.3 (15.2)†	0.052
SOFA score†‡	4.3 (2.0)	3.6 (1.7)	5.1 (1.9)	< 0.001*
Ethnicity				
Caucasian	47 (52.8)	25 (53.2)	22 (52.4)	
African-American	25 (28.1)	12 (25.5)	13 (31.0)	
Hispanic/Latino	12 (13.5)	8 (17.0)	4 (9.5)	0.685
Asian	5 (5.6)	2 (4.3)	3 (7.1)	
Others	-	-	-	
Treatment				
Azithromycin	69 (77.5)	34 (72.3)	35 (83.3)	0.215
Hydroxychloroquine	42 (47.2)	23 (48.9)	19 (45.2)	0.727
Steroids	39 (43.8)	19 (40.4)	20 (47.6)	0.495
Ascorbic acid	39 (43.8)	22 (46.8)	17 (40.5)	0.548
Zinc	40 (44.9)	21 (44.7)	19 (45.2)	0.958
Tocilizumab	11 (12.4)	5 (10.6)	6 (14.3)	0.750
Convalescent plasma	30 (33.7)	14 (29.8)	16 (38.1)	0.408
Remdesivir	11 (12.4)	6 (12.8)	5 (11.9)	1.000
Complications				
Acute kidney injury	56 (62.9)	22 (46.8)	34 (81.0)	0.001*
ARDS	47 (52.8)	15 (31.9)	32 (76.2)	< 0.001*
Arrhythmias	21 (23.6)	10 (21.3)	11 (26.2)	0.586
QT prolongation	16 (18.0)	10 (21.3)	6 (14.3)	0.391
Venous thromboembolism	5 (5.6)	3 (6.4)	2 (4.8)	1.000
Hospital stay (day)	13.1 (9.6)†	10.4 (8.1)†	15.5 (10.3)†	0.125
Outcome				

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2	
3 Recovery/discharge	43 (48.3)
4 Remained hospitalize	
5 Death	42 (47.2)
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7 654	
-	tory distress syndrome; SOFA, Sequential Organ Failure Assessment
9 *statistically signific	
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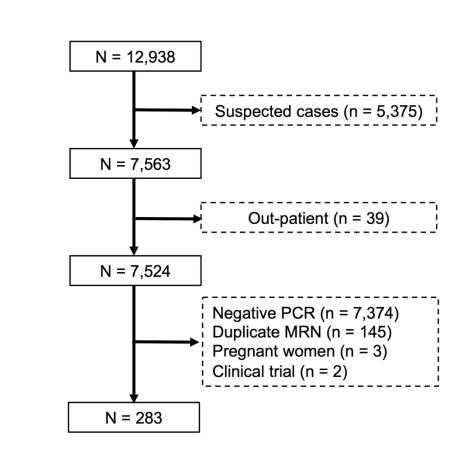
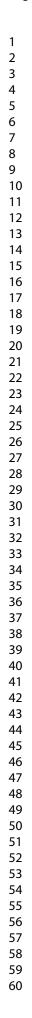


Figure 1. Flowchart of subject selection from UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry from March 1 to May 31, 2020.

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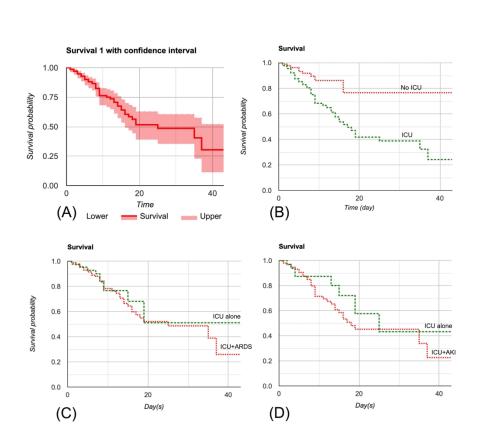


Figure 2. Survival analysis by Kaplan-Meier curves. A) The cumulative survival declined with increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival time was 25 days with standard error (SE) of 7.0. B) ICU patients significantly lower survival probability with mean survival time of 22.3 days (SE 1.8) and 23.0 (SE 1.3) in ICU group vs. non-ICU group, respectively (p = 0.002). C) The cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute respiratory distress syndrome (p = 0.302). D) The cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute kidney injury (p = 0.504).

254x228mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Data collection (con't):

The demographic data included age, sex, and ethnicity. Co-morbidities included current/prior history of smoking, obesity (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, coronary artery disease, heart failure/cardiomyopathy, arrhythmia, chronic kidney disease, end-stage kidney disease (ESKD), asthma/chronic pulmonary obstructive disease, and cerebrovascular diseases.

Laboratory findings were recorded: leukocytosis (white blood cells count > 9,500/µL), leukopenia (white blood cells count < $3,900/\mu$ L), lymphocytopenia (absolute lymphocytes count < $600/\mu$ L), thrombocytosis (platelets > $400,000/\mu$ L), and thrombocytopenia (platelets < $140,000/\mu$ L), respiratory acidosis (arterial pH < 7.35 and arterial partial pressure of CO₂ > 45 mmHg), transaminitis (alanine transaminase > 3 times of upper normal limit). Serum creatinine (mg/dL) was measured by enzymatic assay. Elevation of serum D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL), ferritin (> 336 ng/mL) lactate dehydrogenase (LDH; > 200 U/L), C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL), procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL), and troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL; Backman Coulter DxI).

Please note that the cutoff values were determined by the National Reference Laboratory.

Rationale for multivariate analysis models

Model 1 is adjusted for the baseline co-morbidities (age, sex, ethnicity, obesity). Some of these co-variates showed significant association with death on univariate analysis. Without these adjustments, the aforementioned co-variates will act as confounding factors.

Model 2 is adjusted for all factors in Model 1 plus "the need for oxygen therapy" because the interventions included in Model 2 (azithromycin, hydroxychloroquine, ascorbic acid, zinc, tocilizumab, convalescent plasma) were usually given in patients who required oxygen therapy. Thus, in this Model, "the need for oxygen therapy" was held constant allowing us to determine if these interventions were associated with death.

For Model 3, "respiratory acidosis, and steroids therapy" are usually seen in patients with asthma, COPD, critical illnesses and those who required oxygen therapy. These factors are potential confounders. Thus, we adjusted this Model for "asthma/COPD"; "the need for oxygen therapy"; and "ICU admission" to determine the true association between the variables and death.

In Model 4, "acute kidney injury" is defined by serum creatinine elevation. Patients with CKD would also have some elevation of serum creatinine levels. Thus, CKD would be a potential confounder. That is why we adjusted the Model for "CKD"; "need for oxygen therapy"; and "ICU admission" as all of these factors may contribute to death.

In Model 5, "arrhythmias" is a cardiac complication, hence we adjusted for every variable that could be the confounding factor, such as CAD, heart failure, history of arrhythmia/conduction disorder, and ICU admission.

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Section/Topic	ltem #	Recommendation	Reported on page #
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	Page 2, Line 31-32
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	Page 2
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	Page 4
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	Page 5, Line 129-131
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	Page 5, Line 134
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data	Page 6, Line 159-166
		collection	
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	Page 6, Line 159-166
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	N/A
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if	Page 6, Line 168-183
		applicable	Supplemental
			Document 1
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe	Supplemental
measurement		comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	Document 1
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	Page 6, Line 168-169
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	Page 6, Line 159-166
		Page 7, Line 190-196	
Statistical methods	12	(<i>a</i>) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	Page 7-8, Line 189-
			221
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	N/A
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	Page 7, Line 196
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	N/A

		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	Page 8, Line 215-218
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	Page 8, Line 225-228
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	N/A
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	Figure 1
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	Table 1
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	N/A
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	Table 1
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	Table 1
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence	Table 2-3
		interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	N/A
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	N/A
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	Page 10-11, Line
			271-302
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	Page 11-16, Line 309-467
Limitations			
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	Page 16-17, Line 468-491
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	Page 17, Line 490- 491
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	Page 19, Line 538

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

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.cklist item and gives m. .. y available on the Web sites of Pt. ., www.epidem.com/). Information on the St Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.

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Clinical Characteristics of Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients and the Impact on Mortality: A Single-network, Retrospective Cohort Study from Pennsylvania State

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3 4	1	Clinical Characteristics of Hospitalized COVID-19 Patients and the Impact on Mortality:
5 6	2	A Single-network, Retrospective Cohort Study from Pennsylvania State
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3 4	24	ABSTRACT
5 6	25	Objective: Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory disease caused by severe
7 8 9	26	acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) with highest burden in the United
9 10 11	27	States. Data on clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients in U.S. population are limited.
12 13	28	Thus, we aim to determine the clinical characteristics and risk factors for in-hospital mortality
14 15	29	from COVID-19.
16 17 18	30	Design: Retrospective observational study.
19 20	31	Setting: Single-network hospitals in Pennsylvania state.
21 22	32	Participants: Patients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection who were hospitalized from
23 24	33	March 1 st to May 31 st , 2020.
25 26 27	34	Primary and secondary outcome measures: Primary outcome was in-hospital mortality.
28 29	35	Secondary outcomes were complications, such as acute kidney injury and acute respiratory
30 31	36	distress syndrome (ARDS).
32 33 34	37	Results: Of 283 patients, 19.4% were non-survivors. The mean age of all patients was $64.1 \pm$
35 36	38	15.9 years. 56.2% were male and 50.2% were white. Several factors were identified from our
37 38	39	adjusted multivariate analyses to be associated with in-hospital mortality: increasing age (per 1-
39 40	40	year increment; OR 1.07 [1.045-1.105]), hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%; OR 4.630 [1.934-1.111]),
41 42 43	41	opacity/infiltrate on imaging (OR 3.077 [1.276-7.407]), leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL; OR
44 45	42	2.732 [1.412-5.263]), ferritin > 336 ng/mL (OR 4.016 [1.195-13.514]), lactate dehydrogenase >
46 47	43	200 U/L (OR 7.752 [1.639-37.037]), procalcitonin > 0.25 ng/mL (OR 2.404 [1.011-5.714]),
48 49 50	44	troponin I > 0.03 ng/mL (OR 2.242 [1.080-4.673]), need for advanced oxygen support other than
50 51 52	45	simple nasal cannula (OR 4.608-13.889 [2.053-31.250]), ICU admission/transfer (OR 13.699
53 54	46	[6.135-30.303]), renal replacement therapy (OR 21.277 [5.025-90.909]), need for vasopressor
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3 4	47	(OR 22.222 [9.434-52.632]), acute respiratory distress syndrome (OR 23.810 [10.204-55.556]),	
5 6	48	respiratory acidosis (OR 7.042 [2.915-16.949]), and acute kidney injury (OR 3.571 [1.715-	
7 8	49	7.407]). When critically ill patients were analyzed independently, increasing SOFA score (OR	
9 10 11	50	1.544 [1.168-2.039]), AKI (OR 2.128 [1.111-6.667]), and ARDS (OR 6.410 [2.237-18.182])	
12 13	51	were predictive of in-hospital mortality.	
14 15	52	Conclusion: We reported the characteristics of ethnically diverse, hospitalized patients with	
16 17 18	53	COVID-19 from Pennsylvania state.	
19 20	54		
21 22	55		
23 24	56	Strengths and Limitations of This Study	
25 26 27	57	- Individual patient's chart was reviewed.	
27 28 29	58	- Multivariate analysis (binary logistic regression model) was used to report the results.	
30 31	59	- Retrospective, observational design.	
32 33 34	60	- Limited sample size.	
35 36	61	- Only hospitalized patients were included in the studies.	
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70 INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory disease caused by Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) which has become a pandemic in early 2020. The spread of this virus was originally started in Wuhan, China in December 2019 and rapidly escalated to 216 countries within five months with the highest number of infected cases in the United States.¹ As of August 29th, 2020, the reported cumulated number of confirmed cases in the United States was close to 6 million with a mortality rate of 3.09%.¹

As of August 29th, 2020, the Pennsylvania Department of Health has announced more 77 78 than 129,056 confirmed cases of COVID-19 leading to 7,671 deaths, making Pennsylvania the 79 13th state with the highest confirmed cases.² To date, the characteristics of infected patients in the United States were reported in the state of Washington (n = 21), California (n = 1,299) and New 80 York (n = 5,700) in chronological order.³⁻⁵ The mortality across the U.S. studies ranged from 6.3 81 to 24%, depending on the severity of COVID-19. Although the characteristics of hospitalized 82 COVID-19 patients have been reported in other states, there are some limitations that preclude 83 84 the generalization of the results toward our patient population. Studies from Washington and California were conducted and published during an early stage of the pandemic where treatment 85 86 options, such as remdesivir, or dexamethasone were not recommended as the standard of care. In addition, multivariate analysis was not performed in the New York City cohort. The association 87 88 between clinical characteristics and in-hospital mortality in the U.S. population have not been 89 clearly established.

Guan, et al first described the clinical characteristics of 1,099 patients infected with
SARS-CoV-2 across China.⁶ In this study, the overall mortality was 1.4%. However, the
association between clinical risk factors and mortality was not described. Later Du et al and

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93 Zhou et al demonstrated that older age, higher Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) score, D-dimer > 1 μ g/mL, cardiac troponin I ≥ 0.05 ng/mL, and pre-existing concurrent 94 95 cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases were significant predictors for increased mortality from COVID-19.78 However, these findings were primarily based on Chinese population; thus, it 96 97 has been unconfirmed if the results can be applicable to other patient populations. 98 Clinical management of COVID-19 has been dynamic and variable based on available 99 research, which has largely been in vitro, such as a combination of hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin,⁹ ascorbic acid,¹⁰ ivermectin,¹¹ and zinc.¹² These therapies have not been proven 100 101 beneficial in clinical studies. In the current study, we provide our experience on treatment options 102 for patients infected with SARS-CoV-2. 103 In this retrospective cohort, we aimed to demonstrate the clinical characteristics of COVID-19 patients, treatment outcomes and the impact on in-hospital mortality in an ethnically diverse 104 iez population. 105 106 107 **MATERIALS AND METHODS** 108 Study design This is a retrospective cohort study from seven hospitals under UPMC Pinnacle network 109 located across the state of Pennsylvania. The protocol of this study has been approved by UPMC 110 111 Pinnacle Institutional Review Board and UPMC Pinnacle Ethic Committee (#20E024). Written 112 informed consent was waived due to the retrospective, observational nature of the study. Our 113 current study followed the Declaration of Helsinki. 114 Patient and public involvement 115 No patient involvement.

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116 Data source and patient population

Data were collected by extracting electronic medical records from March 1st to May 31th, 2020 through UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry. Adult patients with age \geq 18 years who were hospitalized with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) from nasopharyngeal swab were included in this study. We excluded non-hospitalized patients, patients < 18 years of age, presumed SARS-CoV-2 infection, pregnant women, out-of-system transfer and patients enrolled in clinical trials. Transfer within the system was considered one admission. For patients with multiple admissions with study period, the first admission for COVID-19 was reviewed.

125 Data collection

Individual patient charts were reviewed by three independent authors to prevent observer
bias. Collected data was divided into: demographics, comorbidities, signs and symptoms,
laboratory findings, radiographic findings, treatments/interventions, complications and outcomes. *Supplemental Documents 1* summarizes the description of each variable in our cohort as well as
the cutoff values for each variable.

The Sequential Organ failure Assessment (SOFA) score¹³ was calculated on the first day of ICU admission. Estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was calculated using CKD-EPI equation.¹⁴ Acute kidney injury (AKI) was defined by an increase in serum creatinine by 0.3 mg/dL (27 μ mol/L) or ≥ 1.5 times from the baseline value within 48 hours.¹⁵ Chronic kidney disease (CKD) was defined by the Kidney Diseases Improving Global Outcomes guidelines.¹⁶ Patients with history of end stage kidney disease (ESKD) on dialysis prior to admission, were not counted toward 'requirement of renal replacement therapy (RRT)/hemodialysis (HD)' during the hospital stay. Acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) was defined by the Berlin criteria.¹⁷

Arrhythmias as complications were defined either tachy- or bradyarrhythmia that were new-onset, occurred during hospitalization with COVID-19. In this study, prolongation of QT segment was defined as the QT duration > 500 milliseconds. Study outcomes The primary outcome was in-hospital mortality. The secondary outcome included treatment outcomes and complications such as recovery/discharge, AKI, ARDS, arrhythmias, QT prolongation, venous thromboembolism, arterial thrombosis, cerebrovascular events, heart failure, and myocardial infarction. Statistical analysis All analyses were conducted using SPSS software version 23.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Descriptive analyses were reported in percentage for categorical data and in mean \pm standard deviation (S.D.) or median (interquartile range; IQR) depending the data distribution. Comparisons of outcomes for each variable were evaluated using Pearson's χ^2 tests or Fisher-Exact tests (for categorical data) and two-sample independent t-test (for continuous data). Fisher-Exact tests were opted if the total sample in any cell count was less than five. A p-value less than 0.05 is considered statistically significant. Missing data were not included in the analysis. Logistic regression analysis Clinical risk factors that were significant from standard analyses (Pearson's χ^2 tests, Fisher-Exact tests, t-tests) were included in univariate binary logistic regression analysis. Odds ratios (OR) were reported along with 95% confidence interval (CI). A 95% CI that crosses 1.0 and a p-value of less than 0.05 is considered statistically significant.¹⁸ Variables that remained statistically significant on univariate analysis were included in multivariate analysis using logistic regression

method to adjust for other covariates. For the analyses of overall mortality predictors, each variable

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was analyzed by only one model that was adjusted for several potential confounding factors for that particular variable. Model 1 was adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity and obesity. Model 2 was adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity and need for oxygen therapy. Model 3 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, asthma/chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), the need for oxygen therapy, and ICU admission. Model 4 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, CKD, the need for oxygen therapy, and ICU admission. Model 5 is adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, obesity, coronary artery disease, heart failure, history of arrhythmia/conduction disorder, and ICU admission. The rationale for each Model adjustment in multivariate analysis is available in Supplemental Document 2. Survival analysis Kaplan-Meier analysis was used to present the survival by plotting between cumulative survival against hospital stay in all included patients and in patients requiring ICU. 4.04 RESULTS **Baseline characteristics and patient outcomes** A total of 12,938 patients were identified during the study period. Thirty-nine patients were outpatient and did not require hospitalization. After excluding patients with negative PCR (n = 7,374), duplicate medical records (n = 145), pregnant woman (n = 3), and clinical trial patients (n= 2), 283 patients were included for further analysis. The flowchart of data selection from the UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry is depicted in Figure 1. Table 1 summarizes the demographics and baseline characteristics of included patients. All patients had confirmed SARS-Cov-2 infection by RT-PCR. Of 283 patients, 80.6% were survivors and 19.4% were non-survivors. The mean age of all patients was 64.1 ± 15.9 years. 56.2% were male and 50.2% were Caucasian. Non-survivors

were significantly older and had higher proportion of hypertension, CKD and had lower mean eGFR. Moreover, hypoxia on presentation, rales/crackles on physical examination, leukocytosis, lymphocytopenia, respiratory acidosis, transaminitis, and opacity/infiltrate on imaging were common presentations in non-survivors. Higher inflammatory markers, such as D-dimer, ferritin, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), C-reactive protein, and procalcitonin were significantly prevalent in deceased patients. The need for oxygen therapy regardless of the mode of oxygen delivery was higher among those who did not survive. Furthermore, non-survivors were more likely to have received intensive care unit (ICU) admission/transfer, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), RRT, use of vasopressors, use of antibiotics, azithromycin, hydroxychloroquine, steroids, ascorbic acid, zinc, tocilizumab and convalescent plasma. Of overall complications, the prevalence of AKI, ARDS, arrhythmias and superimposed bacteremia was significantly higher in non-survivors. There was no significant difference in mean hospital stay between survivors and non-survivors. Up to 78.8% recovered or were discharged from the hospital. Only two patients remained hospitalized as of June 18, 2020. The mean hospital stay was similar between patients who received remdesivir vs. those who did not $(9.0 \pm 4.7 \text{ and } 7.6 \pm 7.8 \text{ days, respectively; } p =$ 0.359). In contrast, patients who received tocilizumab had significantly longer hospital stay compared to those who did not receive tocilizumab (15.3 ± 11.7 and 7.4 ± 7.2 days, respectively; p < 0.001).

203 Univariate analysis

All factors except superimposed bacteremia remained significant on univariate analysis. The OR of each clinical predictor for overall in-hospital mortality is depicted in *Table 2*. Logistic regression analysis cannot be performed on the following variables: D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL), Creactive protein (> 1 mg/dL), and the need for ECMO as at least one cell count was zero.

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Moreover, in a univariate analysis, we found that hydroxychloroquine treatment was associated

with increased risk of QT prolongation (OR 3.401; 95%CI 1.473-7.874; p = 0.002).

210 Multivariate analysis

Variables that were significant on univariate analysis were included in multivariate logistic regression analysis (*Table 3*). In Model 1 (adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, and obesity), increasing patient age, hypoxia, opacity/infiltrate on imaging, leukocytosis, ferritin > 336 ng/mL, LDH (> 200 U/L), procalcitonin > 0.25 ng/mL, troponin I > 0.03 ng/mL, use of high-flow oxygen nasal cannula, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV), mechanical ventilation, ICU admission/transfer, RRT, vasopressor, antibiotics and ARDS were independent risk factors for increased in-hospital mortality. In Model 2 (adjusted for all variables in Model 1 plus the need for oxygen therapy, and ICU admission), hydroxychloroquine, ascorbic acid, zinc, and convalescent plasma were not associated with increased mortality. In Model 3 (adjusted for all variables in Model 2 plus asthma/COPD), respiratory acidosis was associated with increased mortality. Moreover, AKI was an independent risk factor for in-hospital mortality from COVID-19 from Model 4. In addition, we also found that hydroxychloroquine therapy was associated with QT prolongation (OR 2.874; 95% CI 1.189-6.944; p = 0.019) after adjusted for covariates in Model 2.

224 Cohort of critically ill patients

A total 89 patients required intensive care during the study period. Of which, 47.2% died. The demographics and clinical characteristics of critically ill patients are demonstrated in *Table 4*. Deceased ICU patients had significantly higher proportion of AKI and ARDS compared to survived ICU patients. The treatments were similar between survivors and non-survivor patients. In multivariate analysis, each 1-point increment of SOFA score was associated with increased death (OR 1.544; 95% CI 1.168-2.039; p 0.002) after adjusted for age, sex, and ethnicity.

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231 Similarly, AKI (OR 2.128, 95% CI 1.111-6.667; p = 0.034) and ARDS (OR 6.410; 95% CI

232 2.237-18.182; p = 0.023) are significantly predictive of in-hospital mortality among patients

admitted the ICU after adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, and SOFA score.

234 Survival analysis

Survival analyses were evaluated using Kaplan-Meier curve of all patients were
presented in *Figure 2A*. The median survival time was 25.0 days with standard error of 7.0. The
Kaplan-Meier curves for ICU and no ICU patients were illustrated in *Figure 2B*.

239 **DISCUSSION**

In this single-network, retrospective observation study, we found that the overall in-240 hospital mortality among hospitalized COVID-19 patients was 19.4%. The reported mortality 241 among Chinese cohorts ranged from 11.7% to 28.2%.^{7 8 19} However, our reported mortality rates 242 243 appeared slightly lower than what previously described from New York City.⁵ Richardson et al 244 found that the overall mortality of 5,700 hospitalized COVID-19 patients from 12 hospitals in 245 New York City was 21%. However, one could argue that our study has a significantly smaller 246 sample size. Our data need confirmation from other studies with a larger sample size. 247 We identified several risk factors for mortality from COVID-19 using multivariate

logistic regression analysis. Increasing age, hypoxia and opacity/infiltrate on imaging were
associated with higher mortality. Moreover, we also found that patient survival diminished as the
disease progressed, reflected by advancement in oxygen delivery (high-flow nasal cannula,

NIPPV, and mechanical ventilation). Requiring a simple oxygen nasal cannula did not affect

252 mortality. Such findings are similar to previous literature. Older age is an independent risk factor

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2 3 4	253	for severe COVID-19 and mortality. ^{7 20} In line with Zhou et al, increasing oxygen requirement
5 6 7 8	254	and need for advanced oxygen delivery were predictive of death from COVID-19.8
	255	Here, we showed that COVID-19 patients requiring ICU had 13.7-fold increased risk of
9 10 11	256	mortality. Critically ill patients generally had one or more organs in failure, and an increasing
12 13	257	number of organ failure has been linked to elevated death in sepsis patients. ²¹ For COVID-19
14 15	258	patients, we demonstrated that kidney (AKI, and RRT), pulmonary (respiratory acidosis, and
16 17	259	ARDS), cardiovascular (vasopressor requirement) failure were predictive of in-hospital
18 19 20	260	mortality. These findings are in line with other cohorts and each factor has been demonstrated as
21 22	261	an independent risk factor for mortality in critically ill patients. ^{8 22-26} Although the complications
23 24	262	from SARS-CoV-2 infection can be affected by multiple contributing factors, newer evidence
25 26 27 28 29	263	has suggested the significance of cytokine storm leading to multi-organ failure. ²⁷
	264	Here, we showed that elevated ferritin, LDH, procalcitonin, leukocytosis, troponin I and
30 31	265	possibly D-dimer were associated with increased death. Although, the odds ratio for D-dimer
32 33 34 35 36	266	cannot be calculated as one cell was zero, we observed that all deceased patients had elevated D-
	267	dimer level and the significance of elevated D-dimer toward in-hospital mortality cannot be
37 38	268	ignored. Guan et al first demonstrated the importance of elevated inflammatory markers in
39 40	269	COVID-19 in Chinese population ⁶ which has become a standard monitoring parameter for
41 42 43	270	COVID-19 patients. ²⁸ Elevated inflammatory markers should prompt physicians to evaluate and
44 45	271	monitor the patients for cytokine storms and anticipated clinical deterioration. Elevated
46 47	272	procalcitonin and leukocytosis may indicate concomitant bacterial infection, which has been
48 49	273	shown to increase morbidity and mortality of viral pneumonia. ²⁹ Interestingly, our study showed
50 51 52	274	that elevated troponin I level was associated with significantly higher death similar to a recent
53 54	275	meta-analysis. ³⁰ Although the etiologies of elevated troponin levels were not determined in our
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3 4	276	cohort, other studies proposed several mechanisms for elevated troponin level in COVID-19
5 6	277	patients. These include myocarditis, cytokine mediated myocardial injury, microangiopathy of
7 8 9	278	small coronary arteries, or silent coronary artery disease. ^{26 30}
9 10 11	279	The pathophysiology of cytokine storm in SARS-CoV-2 is similar to that of other viruses
12 13	280	or bacteria. ³¹ Cytokine storm is characterized by the overproduction of pro-inflammatory
14 15	281	cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF), IL-6, and IL-1 β resulting in an increased
16 17 18	282	vascular hyperpermeability, and activation of multiple coagulation pathways. ^{27 32} In light of
19 20	283	SARS-CoV-2-induced hypercoagulation, antithrombin III, tissue factor pathway inhibitor and
21 22	284	the protein C system were impaired during active inflammation. ³³ These changes lead to
23 24 25	285	thrombin hyperactivity resulting in the development of microthrombosis, disseminated
26 27	286	intravascular coagulation (DIC) and sequential multiorgan failure. ²⁷ Moreover, new studies have
28 29	287	revealed the spectrum of hyperferritinemic syndromes induced by SARS-CoV-2 but they are
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41	288	beyond the scope of our article. ³⁴ Such syndromes include macrophage activation syndrome,
	289	adult-onset Still's disease, and catastrophic anti-phospholipid syndrome.34
	290	Hydroxychloroquine therapy was associated with a 3-fold increased risk of QT
	291	prolongation but not associated with increased risk of death. The concept of using
	292	hydroxychloroquine in COVID-19 patients derived from an early in vitro study. ³⁵ The results
42 43	293	from small non-randomized clinical trials also showed promising effects on viral load
44 45	294	reduction. ^{36 37} However, the clinical benefit of hydroxychloroquine was debated by a large
46 47 48	295	observation study. Of 1,446 patients, Geleris et al observed that hydroxychloroquine had no
49 50	296	effect on the death, length of stay or intubation. ³⁸ A recent multicenter, randomized, open-label,
51 52	297	controlled trial in hospitalized patients with mild-to-moderate COVID-19 found that the use of
53 54 55	298	hydroxychloroquine, alone or with azithromycin did not improve the clinical outcome at 15 days
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compared to the standard treatment.³⁹ Thus, the recommendation for use of hydroxychloroquine
 was recalled by the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) due to small sample size in
 previous clinical trials and concern for cardiac adverse effects, such as QT prolongation/torsade
 de pointe.⁴⁰

A meta-analysis of four randomized trials and one retrospective study showed that the administration of intravenous vitamin C has vasopressor sparing effects and may reduce the need for mechanical ventilation in critically ill patients while there was no effect on the mortality.⁴¹ However, given the lack of more supporting evidence, the standard use of ascorbic acid is not yet recommended especially in COVID-19 patients. A new clinical trial investigating the treatment outcome of vitamin C in severe COVID-19 is underway (NCT04264533).

Although our study also showed that zinc supplementation was not associated with increased mortality in COVID-19 patients, the routine use of zinc supplementation could not be supported due to lack of randomized controlled trials. A Brazilian study revealed that plasma zinc concentration in critically ill patients upon admission to the ICU was low and may make these patients more susceptible to oxidative stress.⁴² Another prospective study showed that zinc supplementation in mechanically ventilated patients was related to less ventilator-associated pneumonia.⁴³ However, the mean duration of intubation in this study was prolonged (29 days), making it inconclusive if zinc supplementation can prevent pneumonia development in shortterm intubation.

Steroid therapy in COVID-19 patients was not associated with increased mortality. A meta-analysis of 42 randomized controlled trials consisting of 10,194 patients has shown that corticosteroids possibly result in a small reduction in mortality and an increased risk of neuromuscular weakness among critically ill patients with sepsis.⁴⁴ However, the theoretical

322	concept for corticosteroid use in COVID-19 was to reduce cytokine storm caused by a reaction
323	to SARS-CoV-2 infection. ⁴⁵ In early April 2020, the IDSA recommended against a routine use of
324	corticosteroids in the treatment of COVID-19 due to lack of evidence. ⁴⁰ This guidelines was
325	updated on June 25th, 2020 after the results of the RECOVERY trial was released showing that
326	patients who received dexamethasone were more likely to be discharged from hospital at 28 days
327	compared to non-steroids group. ⁴⁶ Thus, currently, the IDSA panel suggests glucocorticoids use
328	in hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19.40 Here, our study is in line with the
329	recommendation from the IDSA.
330	We have observed that remdesivir and tocilizumab were not associated with mortality
331	and there was no significant improvement in hospital length of stay between patients receiving

these drugs. However, given the observational, non-randomized design of this study, it is difficult to determine the efficacy of such treatment. Recently, the preliminary report from a phase III randomized controlled trial revealed that remdesivir was superior to placebo in shortening the time to recovery in adults hospitalized with COVID-19.47 Several retrospective studies reported that tocilizumab, an IL-6 inhibitor, was shown to reduce the levels of serum inflammatory markers. However, the impact on clinical improvement and mortality remained inconclusive.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ Although we reported no significant clinical benefits from tocilizumab, the consideration for compassionate use of tocilizumab is not discouraged but rather dependent on the judgment of clinicians based on current evidence. A phase 2 (TOCIVID-19; NCT04317092) and 3 randomized controlled trial (COVACTA; NCT04320615) of tocilizumab is being investigated for the treatment of COVID-19 pneumonia. The preliminary results are expected to release in late 2020.

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344 Similarly, we found that convalescent plasma was not associated with in-hospital 345 mortality. The safety of convalescent plasma was demonstrated in a single-center retrospective cohort of 25 patients⁵¹ and in a preprint, non-peer review report.⁵² However, the efficacy of 346 347 convalescent plasma remained undetermined due to lack of control group. The IDSA panel has 348 recommended convalescent plasma only in the context of a clinical trials. However, at our 349 institution, convalescent plasma is considered if patients have severe symptoms and have 350 contraindications to remdesivir, such as AKI and hepatic dysfunction. Although we did not observe mortality adverse effect from convalescent plasma, the final recommendations on its 351 352 efficacy and safety are dependent on the randomized controlled trials. To date, at least one 353 randomized controlled trial (NCT04342182) is being investigated to establish the clinical benefits in hospitalized patients with severe COVID-19. 354

From our ICU cohort, the SOFA score, AKI and ARDS were the only variables that were predictive of mortality among patients admitted to the ICU. Interestingly, all treatment measures had no effect on mortality once patients were critically ill and required ICU. This could imply that these treatment interventions might be beneficial if given prior to clinical decompensation or ICU transfer. However, interpretation is restricted due to small sample size and examining only critically ill patients. Our hypothesis should be substantiated by studies from other institutions with larger sample sizes.

Our study has some limitations. The observational design made the results susceptible to selection bias. Analyses could be underpowered given the small sample size. Moreover, due to restricted availability, not many cases had received compassionate use of tocilizumab, remdesivir, and convalescent plasma, which may limit the applicability of our findings. More importantly, the mortality can be affected by confounding factors. We minimize this risk by applying multivariate

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367	analysis with models designed to cover all possible confounding factors for each analyzed variable.
368	Most of the collected data were cross sectional, thus, making it difficult to conclude the causality
369	between the two variables. Furthermore, our binary logistic regression analyses may not strictly
370	follow the one-in-ten rule which may lead to over-fitting effect. However, our statistical rationale
371	is supported by newer simulation studies by McCulloch et al., ⁵³ and Smeden et al. ⁵⁴ The length of
372	stay was computed in the Kaplan-Meier analysis to represent the time to death. It is worth noting
373	that the non-survivors had a curtailed length of stay. Moreover, we advised the readers to consider
374	their patient population to determine the applicability of our results.
375	In conclusion, COVID-19 is a serious condition with a significant in-hospital mortality
376	rate. Multiple risk factors for in-hospital death were identified. Increasing SOFA score, AKI and
377	ARDS are significant risk factors for increased death in critically ill patients.
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379	Acknowledgement
380	We would like to thank UPMC Pinnacle IT support for medical record procurement and Mrs.
381	Yijin Wert for constructing the Kaplan-Meier curves.
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12 13	394	Figure 1. Flowchart of subject selection from UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry from March 1
14 15 16	395	to May 31, 2020.
10 17 18	396	Figure 2. Survival analysis by Kaplan-Meier curves. A) The cumulative survival declined with
19 20	397	increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival time was 25 days with standard error (SE)
21 22	398	of 7.0. B) ICU patients significantly lower survival probability with mean survival time of 22.3
23 24 25	399	days (SE 1.8) and 23.0 (SE 1.3) in ICU group vs. non-ICU group, respectively ($p = 0.002$). C) The
26 27	400	cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute respiratory distress syndrome (p
28 29	401	= 0.302). D) The cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute kidney injury
30 31 32	402	(p = 0.504).
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12 13	417	DECLARATIONS
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19 20	420	interest.
21 22 23	421	Ethics Approval: UPMC Pinnacle Ethic Committee approved this study (#20E024).
23 24 25	422	Informed Consent: Not applicable.
26 27	423	Data availability: Raw data are available upon reasonable request.
28 29 30 31 32	424	Authors' contributions: K.P.G., P.H., M.G. collected the data. P.H. analyzed the data. K.P.G.,
	425	P.H., and J.D.G. drafted the manuscript. All authors edited and approved the manuscript for
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Table 1. Demographics and baseline characteristics of included patients.

Characteristics	All patients (n = 283)	Survivors (n = 228)	Non-survivors (n = 55)	P-value
Male	159 (56.2)	125 (54.8)	34 (61.8)	0.348
Age (year)	64.1 (15.9)†	61.9 (15.8)†	72.8 (13.5)†	< 0.001*
Ethnicity				
Caucasian	143 (50.5)	111 (48.7)	32 (58.2)	
African-American	88 (31.1)	73 (32.0)	15 (27.3)	
Hispanic/Latino	32 (11.3)	27 (11.8)	5 (9.1)	0.705
Asian	17 (6.0)	14 (6.1)	3 (5.5)	
Others	3 (1.1)	3 (1.3)	0 (0)	
Co-morbidities				
Obesity (BMI \ge 30 kg/m ²)	132 (46.6)	102 (44.7)	30 (54.5)	0.191
Current/Former smokers	109 (38.5)	88 (38.6)	21 (38.2)	0.955
Hypertension	189 (66.8)	145 (63.6)	44 (80.0)	0.020*
Diabetes mellitus	108 (38.2)	81 (35.5)	27 (49.1)	0.063
Hyperlipidemia	121 (42.8)	94 (41.2)	27 (49.1)	0.290
Coronary artery disease	50 (17.7)	40 (17.5)	10 (18.2)	0.911
Heart failure/cardiomyopathy	53 (18.7)	40 (17.5)	13 (23.6)	0.299
Arrhythmia/conduction disorders	45 (15.9)	36 (15.8)	9 (16.4)	0.917
Chronic kidney disease	66 (23.3)	46 (20.2)	20 (36.4)	0.011*
End-stage kidney disease	13 (4.6)	12 (5.3)	1 (1.8)	0.474
Asthma/COPD	73 (25.8)	54 (23.7)	19 (34.5)	0.098
Cerebrovascular disease	40 (14.1)	32 (14.0)	8 (14.5)	0.922
Signs and symptoms				
Cough	185 (65.4)	149 (65.4)	36 (65.5)	0.988
Dyspnea	203 (71.7)	158 (69.3)	45 (81.8)	0.064
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	178 (62.9)	130 (57.0)	48 (87.3)	< 0.001
Rhinorrhea	29 (10.2)	26 (11.4)	3 (5.5)	0.226
Fever/chills	179 (63.3)	143 (62.7)	36 (65.5)	0.706
Chest pain	35 (12.4)	32 (14.0)	3 (5.5)	0.109
Headache	28 (9.9)	26 (11.4)	2 (3.6)	0.128
Gastrointestinal symptoms	79 (27.9)	68 (29.8)	11 (20.0)	0.145
Asymptomatic	8 (2.8)	8 (3.5)	0 (0)	0.361
Rales/crackles	57 (20.1)	40 (17.5)	17 (30.9)	0.027*
Rhonchi	57 (20.1)	45 (19.7)	12 (21.8)	0.730
Reduced breath sound	63 (22.3)	48 (21.1)	15 (27.3)	0.320
Laboratory findings				
Leukopenia (WBC < 4,000 /uL)	56 (19.8)	46 (20.2)	10 (18.2)	0.739
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	80 (28.3)	53 (23.2)	27 (49.1)	< 0.001
Lymphocytopenia (ALC < 1,000 / uL)	109 (38.7)	78 (34.2)	31 (57.4)	0.002*
Thrombocytopenia (< 140,000 /uL)	57 (20.1)	41 (18.0)	16 (29.1)	0.065
Thrombocytosis (> 400,000 /uL)	31 (11.0)	25 (11.0)	6 (10.9)	0.991
Respiratory acidosis	43 (21.3)	18 (11.8)	25 (50.0)	< 0.001
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	33 (12.4)	21 (9.9)	12 (21.8)	0.017*
Serum creatinine (mg/dL) on admission	1.06 (0.72)‡	1.59 (1.88)†	1.64 (1.15)†	0.808
eGFR (mL/min/1.73m ²)	64.2 (51.0)†	66.7 (35.5)†	53.6 (25.3)†	0.002*
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	91 (39.1)	61 (33.0)	30 (62.5)	< 0.001

<i>Inflammatory markers</i> D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL)	135 (80.4)	101 (75.4)	34 (100)	< 0
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	135 (80.4) 109 (65.3)	78 (59.1)	34 (100) 31 (88.6)	0.0
. 0 ,				
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	108 (73.0)	77 (67.0)	31 (93.9)	0.0
C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL)	152 (87.4)	115 (83.9)	37 (100)	0.0
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	73 (47.1)	50 (41.7)	23 (65.7)	0.0
ST-T change on EKG	84 (31.8)	63 (29.7)	21 (40.4)	0.
Radiographic findings				
Opacity/infiltrate	209 (73.9)	162 (71.1)	47 (85.5)	0.0
Ground glass appearance	79 (27.9)	65 (28.5)	14 (25.5)	0.
Pleural effusion	24 (8.5)	17 (7.5)	7 (12.7)	0.
Pulmonary congestion	30 (10.6)	23 (10.1)	7 (12.7)	0.
Oxygen therapy/delivery				
Nasal cannula	207 (73.1)	160 (70.2)	47 (85.5)	0.0
High-flow nasal cannula	36 (12.7)	18 (7.9)	18 (32.7)	< 0.
NIPPV	28 (9.9)	10 (4.4)	18 (32.7)	< 0.
Mechanical ventilation	58 (20.5)	25 (11.0)	33 (60.0)	< 0
Intervention				
Intensive care unit	89 (31.4)	47 (20.6)	42 (76.4)	< 0.
ECMO	2 (0.7)	0 (0)	2 (3.6)	0.0
RRT	16 (5.7)	3 (1.3)	13 (23.6)	< 0.
Vasopressor	53 (18.7)	19 (8.3)	34 (61.8)	< 0.
Antibiotics	220 (77.7)	166 (72.8)	54 (98.2)	< 0
Treatment				
Azithromycin	182 (64.3)	139 (61.0)	43 (78.2)	0.0
Hydroxychloroquine	67 (23.7)	45 (19.7)	22 (40.0)	0.0
Steroids	46 (16.3)	26 (11.4)	20 (36.4)	< 0.
Ascorbic acid	57 (20.1)	38 (16.7)	19 (34.5)	0.0
Zinc	54 (19.1)	33 (14.5)	21 (38.2)	< 0.
Tocilizumab	12 (4.2)	6 (2.6)	6 (10.9)	0.0
Convalescent plasma	36 (12.7)	19 (8.3)	17 (30.9)	< 0.
Remdesivir	25 (8.8)	20 (8.8)	5 (8.8)	0.
Comulications				
Complications Acute kidney injury	115 (40.6)	75 (22.0)	40 (72 7)	< 0
5 5 5	115 (40.6)	75 (32.9)	40 (72.7)	< 0.
ARDS	53 (18.7)	17 (7.5)	36 (65.5)	< 0.
Arrhythmias OT prolongation	31 (11.0)	18 (7.9)	13 (23.6)	0.0
QT prolongation	25 (8.8)	18 (7.9)	7 (12.7)	0.
Venous thromboembolism	10 (3.5)	8 (3.5)	2 (3.6)	1.
Arterial thrombosis	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	1.
Cerebrovascular event	3 (1.1)	3 (1.3)	0 (0)	1.
Myocardial infection	5 (1.8)	4 (1.8)	1 (1.8)	1.
Heart failure	16 (5.7)	11 (4.8)	5 (9.1)	0.
Superimposed bacteremia	19 (6.7)	12 (5.3)	7 (12.7)	0.0
Hospital stay (day)	6.0 (7.0)‡	7.4 (7.53)†	9.2 (7.7)†	0.
Outcome				
Recovery/discharge	223 (78.8)			
Remained hospitalized	2 (0.7)			
Death	55 (19.4)			

 index; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; ECMO, extra-corporal membrane oxygenation; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; EKG, electrocardiography; IQR, interquartile range; NIPPV, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation; RRT, renal replacement therapy; SD, standard deviation; SpO2, oxygen saturation; UNL, upper normal limit; WBC, white blood cell. *statistically significant peer review only - http://bmjopen.bmj.com/site/about/guidelines.xhtml

ALC, absolute lymphocyte count; ALT, alanine transaminase; ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI, body mass

tmean (standard deviation)

‡ median (IQR)

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Table 2. Clinical risk factors for overall in-hospital mortality using univariate binary logistic regression analysis.

Characteristics	Odds ratio	95% CI	P-valu
Age (per 1-year increment)	1.051	1.028-1.075	< 0.001
Hypertension	2.288	1.121-4.673	0.024
Chronic kidney disease	2.262	1.195-4.274	0.012
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	5.181	2.242-11.905	< 0.002
Rales/crackles	2.101	1.080-4.098	0.029
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	3.185	1.727-5.882	< 0.00
Respiratory acidosis	7.463	3.546-15.625	< 0.00
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	2.538	1.160-5.556	0.020
eGFR (per 1.0 mL/min/1.73m ² increment)†	0.988	0.980-0.997	0.011
D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL)‡	-	-	-
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	5.376	1.789-16.129	0.003
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	7.634	1.739-33.333	0.007
C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL)‡	-	-	-
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	2.681	1.222-5.882	0.014
Troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL)	3.390	1.751-6.536	< 0.00
Opacity/infiltrate on imaging	2.392	1.073-5.348	0.033
Nasal cannula	2.494	1.120-5.556	0.025
High-flow nasal cannula	5.682	2.703-11.905	< 0.00
NIPPV	10.638	4.545-2.500	< 0.00
Mechanical ventilation	12.195	6.173-23.810	< 0.00
ICU admission/transfer	12.500	6.173-25.000	< 0.00
ECMO‡	-	-	-
RRT	23.256	6.329-83.333	< 0.00
Vasopressor	17.857	8.696-37.037	< 0.00
Antibiotics	20.000	2.732-142.857	0.003
Azithromycin	2.294	1.147-4.587	0.019
Hydroxychloroquine	2.710	1.443-5.102	0.002
Steroids	4.444	2.237-8.772	< 0.00
Ascorbic acid	2.639	1.370-5.076	0.004
Zinc	3.650	1.898-7.042	< 0.00
Tocilizumab	4.525	1.403-14.706	0.012
Convalescent plasma	4.921	2.348-10.314	< 0.00
Acute kidney injury	5.435	2.825-10.417	< 0.00
ARDS	23.256	11.236-50.000	< 0.00
Arrhythmia	3.610	1.645-7.937	0.001
Superimposed bacteremia	2.625	0.982-6.993	0.054

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ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; ICU, intensive care unit; RRT, renal replacement therapy.

*statistically significant ton admission

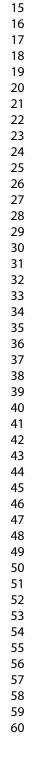
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627 Table 3. Clinical predictors for overall in-hospital mortality using multivariate binary logistic regression analysis.

		Statistics	
Characteristics	Odds ratio	95% CI	P-value
Model 1			
Age (per 1-year increment)	1.075	1.045-1.105	< 0.001*
Hypertension	1.264	0.572-2.793	0.562
Chronic kidney disease	1.232	0.590-2.571	0.578
Hypoxia (SpO2 < 95%)	4.630	1.934-1.111	0.001*
Rales/crackles	2.016	0.955-4.255	0.066
Leukocytosis (WBC > 10,000 /uL)	2.732	1.412-5.263	0.003*
Transaminitis (ALT > 3X UNL)	2.137	0.890-5.128	0.089
eGFR (per 1.0 mL/min/1.73m² decrement)†	1.002	0.990-1.013	0.795
Ferritin (> 336 ng/mL)	4.016	1.195-13.514	0.025*
Lactate dehydrogenase (> 200 U/L)	7.752	1.639-37.037	0.010*
Procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL)	2.404	1.011-5.714	0.047*
Troponin I (>0.03 ng/mL)	2.242	1.080-4.673	0.030*
Opacity/infiltrate on imaging	3.077	1.276-7.407	0.012*
Nasal cannula	1.883	0.799-4.444	0.148
High-flow nasal cannula	4.608	2.053-10.309	< 0.001*
NIPPV	7.246	2.899-18.182	< 0.001*
Mechanical ventilation	13.889	6.211-31.250	< 0.001*
ICU admission/transfer	13.699	6.135-30.303	< 0.001*
RRT	21.277	5.025-90.909	< 0.001*
Vasopressor	22.222	9.434-52.632	< 0.001*
Antibiotics	17.544	2.309-125.000	0.006*
ARDS	23.810	10.204-55.556	< 0.001*
Superimposed bacteremia	2.041	0.645-6.452	0.224
Model 2			
Azithromycin	1.916	0.788-4.651	0.152
Hydroxychloroquine	1.057	0.467-2.392	0.894
Ascorbic acid	1.008	0.440-2.313	0.985
Zinc	1.517	0.651-3.546	0.334
Tocilizumab	1.499	0.381-5.917	0.562
Convalescent plasma	1.513	0.600-3.817	0.381
Model 3			
Respiratory acidosis	3.745	1.443-9.709	0.007*
Steroids therapy	1.107	0.459-2.667	0.821



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> Table 4. Demographics and baseline characteristics of critically ill patients (n = 89).

Characteristics	All patients	Survivors	Non-survivors	P-value
Characteristics	(n = 89)	(n = 47)	(n = 42)	P-value
Male	61 (68.5)	30 (63.8)	31 (73.8)	0.365
Age (year)	66.0 (14.2)†	69.1 (12.5)†	63.3 (15.2)†	0.052
SOFA score†‡	4.3 (2.0)	3.6 (1.7)	5.1 (1.9)	< 0.001*
Ethnicity				
Caucasian	47 (52.8)	25 (53.2)	22 (52.4)	
African-American	25 (28.1)	12 (25.5)	13 (31.0)	
Hispanic/Latino	12 (13.5)	8 (17.0)	4 (9.5)	0.685
Asian	5 (5.6)	2 (4.3)	3 (7.1)	
Others	-	-	-	
Treatment				
Azithromycin	69 (77.5)	34 (72.3)	35 (83.3)	0.215
Hydroxychloroquine	42 (47.2)	23 (48.9)	19 (45.2)	0.727
Steroids	39 (43.8)	19 (40.4)	20 (47.6)	0.495
Ascorbic acid	39 (43.8)	22 (46.8)	17 (40.5)	0.548
Zinc	40 (44.9)	21 (44.7)	19 (45.2)	0.958
Tocilizumab	11 (12.4)	5 (10.6)	6 (14.3)	0.750
Convalescent plasma	30 (33.7)	14 (29.8)	16 (38.1)	0.408
Remdesivir	11 (12.4)	6 (12.8)	5 (11.9)	1.000
Complications				
Acute kidney injury	56 (62.9)	22 (46.8)	34 (81.0)	0.001*
ARDS	47 (52.8)	15 (31.9)	32 (76.2)	< 0.001*
Arrhythmias	21 (23.6)	10 (21.3)	11 (26.2)	0.586
QT prolongation	16 (18.0)	10 (21.3)	6 (14.3)	0.391
Venous thromboembolism	5 (5.6)	3 (6.4)	2 (4.8)	1.000
	12 1 (0 ())			0.405
Hospital stay (day)	13.1 (9.6)†	10.4 (8.1)†	15.5 (10.3)†	0.125
Outcome				
Recovery/discharge	43 (48.3)			
Remained hospitalized	2 (2.2)			
Death	42 (47.2)			

*statistically significant tmean (standard deviation)

collected on the first day of ICU admission

ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; SOFA, Sequential Organ Failure Assessment

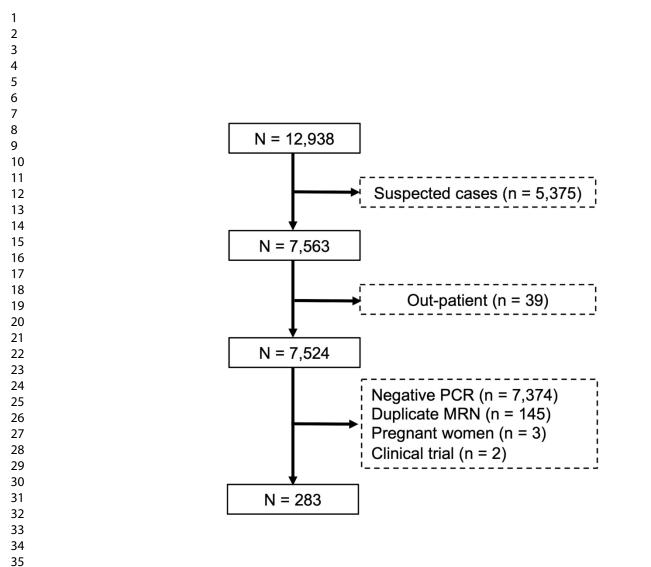
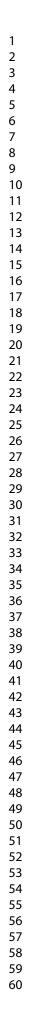


Figure 1. Flowchart of subject selection from UPMC Pinnacle COVID-19 registry from March 1 to May 31, 2020.

203x185mm (300 x 300 DPI)



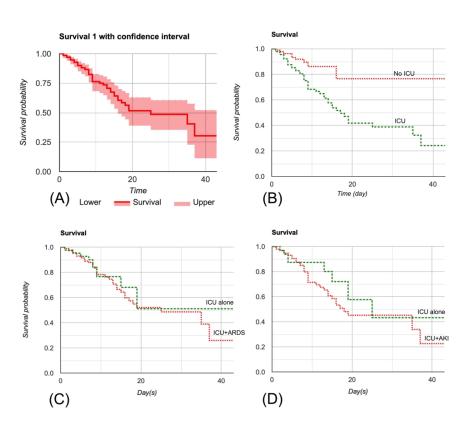


Figure 2. Survival analysis by Kaplan-Meier curves. A) The cumulative survival declined with increasing length of hospital stay. The median survival time was 25 days with standard error (SE) of 7.0. B) ICU patients significantly lower survival probability with mean survival time of 22.3 days (SE 1.8) and 23.0 (SE 1.3) in ICU group vs. non-ICU group, respectively (p = 0.002). C) The cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute respiratory distress syndrome (p = 0.302). D) The cumulative survival between ICU patients with and without acute kidney injury (p = 0.504).

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Data collection (con't):

The demographic data included age, sex, and ethnicity. Co-morbidities included current/prior history of smoking, obesity (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, coronary artery disease, heart failure/cardiomyopathy, arrhythmia, chronic kidney disease, end-stage kidney disease (ESKD), asthma/chronic pulmonary obstructive disease, and cerebrovascular diseases.

Laboratory findings were recorded: leukocytosis (white blood cells count > 9,500/µL), leukopenia (white blood cells count < $3,900/\mu$ L), lymphocytopenia (absolute lymphocytes count < $600/\mu$ L), thrombocytosis (platelets > $400,000/\mu$ L), and thrombocytopenia (platelets < 140,000/µL), respiratory acidosis (arterial pH < 7.35 and arterial partial pressure of CO₂ > 45 mmHg), transaminitis (alanine transaminase > 3 times of upper normal limit). Serum creatinine (mg/dL) was measured by enzymatic assay. Elevation of serum D-dimer (> 500 ng/mL), ferritin (> 336 ng/mL) lactate dehydrogenase (LDH; > 200 U/L), C-reactive protein (> 1 mg/dL), procalcitonin (> 0.25 ng/mL), and troponin I (> 0.03 ng/mL; Backman Coulter DxI).

Please note that the cutoff values were determined by the National Reference Laboratory.

Rationale for multivariate analysis models

Model 1 is adjusted for the baseline co-morbidities (age, sex, ethnicity, obesity). Some of these co-variates showed significant association with death on univariate analysis. Without these adjustments, the aforementioned co-variates will act as confounding factors.

Model 2 is adjusted for all factors in Model 1 plus "the need for oxygen therapy" because the interventions included in Model 2 (azithromycin, hydroxychloroquine, ascorbic acid, zinc, tocilizumab, convalescent plasma) were usually given in patients who required oxygen therapy. Thus, in this Model, "the need for oxygen therapy" was held constant allowing us to determine if these interventions were associated with death.

For Model 3, "respiratory acidosis, and steroids therapy" are usually seen in patients with asthma, COPD, critical illnesses and those who required oxygen therapy. These factors are potential confounders. Thus, we adjusted this Model for "asthma/COPD"; "the need for oxygen therapy"; and "ICU admission" to determine the true association between the variables and death.

In Model 4, "acute kidney injury" is defined by serum creatinine elevation. Patients with CKD would also have some elevation of serum creatinine levels. Thus, CKD would be a potential confounder. That is why we adjusted the Model for "CKD"; "need for oxygen therapy"; and "ICU admission" as all of these factors may contribute to death.

In Model 5, "arrhythmias" is a cardiac complication, hence we adjusted for every variable that could be the confounding factor, such as CAD, heart failure, history of arrhythmia/conduction disorder, and ICU admission.

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Section/Topic	Item #	Recommendation	Reported on page #
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	Page 2, Line 31-32
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	Page 2
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	Page 4
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	Page 5, Line 129-131
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	Page 5, Line 134
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	Page 6, Line 159-166
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	Page 6, Line 159-166
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	N/A
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	Page 6, Line 168-183 Supplemental Document 1
Data sources/	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe	Supplemental
measurement	-	comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	Document 1
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	Page 6, Line 168-169
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	Page 6, Line 159-166
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	Page 7, Line 190-196
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	Page 7-8, Line 189-
			221
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	N/A
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	Page 7, Line 196
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	N/A

STROBE 2007 (v4) Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of *cohort studies*

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		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	Page 8, Line 215-218
Results			
Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed	Page 8, Line 225-228
		eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	N/A
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	Figure 1
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential	Table 1
	_	confounders	
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	N/A
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	Table 1
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	Table 1
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence	Table 2-3
		interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	N/A
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	N/A
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	Page 10-11, Line
			271-302
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	Page 11-16, Line
			309-467
Limitations			
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from	Page 16-17, Line
		similar studies, and other relevant evidence	468-491
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	Page 17, Line 490-
			491
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on	Page 19, Line 538
		which the present article is based	

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Lind gives met. . in the Web sites of PLo. . in.com/). Information on the STK Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.

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