Research Article

Meta-Analysis of the Effect of Glucocorticoids on Adult Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome

Haopeng Wu,1 Li Chen,2 Hui Lin,3 and Fen Sheng4

1Department of Emergency, Taizhou First People’s Hospital, Taizhou 318020, Zhejiang, China
2Department of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine, Enze Hospital, Taizhou Enze Medical Center (Group), Taizhou 318050, Zhejiang, China
3Department of General Practice, Taizhou First People’s Hospital, Taizhou 318020, Zhejiang, China
4Department of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine, Taizhou First People’s Hospital, Taizhou 318020, Zhejiang, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Fen Sheng; shengfen1986@163.com

Received 22 June 2022; Revised 11 July 2022; Accepted 19 July 2022; Published 10 August 2022

Academic Editor: Bo Li

Copyright © 2022 Haopeng Wu et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Objectives. The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of glucocorticoids in adult patients with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) by meta-analysis. Methods. PubMed, Cochrane Library, Embase, CNKI, Wanfang Database, and Chinese Biomedical literature database were searched. A randomized controlled trial (RCTS) on glucocorticoid therapy in adult patients with ARDS was conducted from the time of database construction to December 2021. The content is about the randomized controlled trial (RCT) of glucocorticoid treatment for adult patients with ARDS, without limiting the dose and course of glucocorticoid treatment. The quality of the included RCTS was evaluated by using the bias risk assessment tool of the Cochrane Collaboration network, and the basic information, clinical features, and target outcomes of the literature were extracted. The effects of glucocorticoids on mortality and oxygenation index (PaO2/FiO2) in adult ARDS patients were evaluated by meta-analysis. Results. A total of 1,441 ARDS patients in 10 RCTS were finally included, including 734 patients in the glucocorticoid treatment group (hormone group) and 707 patients in the conventional treatment group (control group). The 10 studies included have a good overall design and high quality. Compared with controls, glucocorticoid use was significantly associated with a decrease in mortality in adult ARDS patients (relative risk (RR) = 0.73, 95% confidence interval (95%CI) = 0.59–0.90, P = 0.003). Analysis showed that glucocorticoids significantly reduced the mortality in ARDS patients treated with medium and low doses of steroids (RR = 0.73, 95% CI = 0.58–0.92, P = 0.007). In patients with early administration of steroids, intervention with glucocorticoids was significantly associated with the decreased mortality in adult ARDS patients compared with controls (RR = 0.74, 95% CI 0.56–0.99, P = 0.04). Among patients with more than 7 days of hormone therapy, treatment with glucocorticoids was significantly associated with decreased mortality in adult ARDS patients (RR = 0.66, 95% CI = 0.50–0.88, P = 0.005) compared with controls. Glucocorticoids tended to improve PaO2/FiO2 in adult ARDS patients compared with controls, but the difference was not statistically significant (weighted mean difference (WMD) = 11.60, 95% CI = 15.02–38.22, P = 0.39). Conclusion. Glucocorticoid therapy can reduce mortality in adult ARDS patients, and the benefit is more pronounced in patients with medium- and low-dose hormone therapy, early hormone administration, and hormone therapy for more than 7 days. However, no improvement in PaO2/FiO2 by glucocorticoid treatment was found, which needs to be confirmed by further studies.

1. Introduction

Acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) is an inflammatory lung injury disease caused by various causes and characterized by increased permeability of pulmonary capillary endothelial cells and alveolar epithelial cells [1], which is mainly characterized by respiratory distress and severe hypoxemia. Lung involvement is common in severe pneumonia or systemic inflammatory reaction [2]. ARDS is a serious organ dysfunction disease with an estimated mortality of up to 40% in hospital. Timely diagnosis and treatment can effectively reduce the mortality of patients [3]. Studies have
shown that excessive inflammatory response may be an important cause of high mortality [4]. Inflammatory factors, including interleukin-1, interleukin-6 and C-reactive protein, mediate lung epithelial barrier damage and increased vascular permeability and promote the development of ARDS [5]. The effective treatment methods for ARDS are mainly protective lung ventilation strategy and prone position ventilation [6], but there is still a lack of effective drug treatment. Glucocorticoids are potent anti-inflammatory drugs commonly used in clinical practice and have the effects of antifibrosis and improving physical stress capacity [7]. Glucocorticoids may improve the prognosis of ARDS patients by reducing the levels of inflammatory factors and inhibiting the activation of inflammatory processes [8]. Recent studies suggest that small doses of hormone (methylprednisolone ≤2 mg·kg\(^{-1}·D^{-1}\)) can effectively reduce the level of inflammatory factors in ARDS patients, improve lung function, reduce the use of ventilators, and reduce the mortality of ARDS patients [9]. However, it has also been shown that glucocorticoids do not reduce the risk of death in ARDS patients [10]. Therefore, there are still controversies about the results of clinical studies in the use of glucocorticoids in the treatment of ARDS, and the timing, dose, and course of hormone use remain elusive. The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of glucocorticoids on the mortality and oxygenation index (PaO\(_2\)/FiO\(_2\)) in adult ARDS patients through a meta-analysis of published randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and to investigate the appropriate timing, dose, and course of hormone application.

2. Data and Methods

2.1. Literature Retrieval. A literature search was conducted in PubMed, Cochrane Library, Embase, CNKI, Wanfang Database, and Chinese Biomedical literature database, and RCT studies on the treatment of adult ARDS patients with glucocorticoids published from the establishment of the database to December 2021 were included. English search terms include “acute respiratory distress syndrome,” “acute lung injury,” “ARDS,” “ALI,” “glucocorticoids,” “corticosteroid,” “methylprednisolone,” “hydrocortisone,” “dexamethasone,” and “hexadecadrol”; read the list of reviews and references searched for articles that meet the criteria.

2.2. Inclusion Criteria and Exclusion Criteria. Inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) the study design was an RCT; (2) patients aged ≥18 years, regardless of race and gender; (3) a definite diagnosis of ARDS, regardless of specific etiology; (4) the study included a control group receiving placebo or standard treatment with glucocorticoid intervention, and the study provided data on the starting time, dose, course of treatment, mortality in the two groups, and PaO\(_2\)/FiO\(_2\) of hormone therapy. The exclusion criteria were as follows: (1) animal studies, or studies in infants and children; (2) glucocorticoids for prevention rather than treatment of ARDS; (3) no diagnostic criteria for ARDS were given in the studies; (4) no required data were provided in the studies; and (5) types of literature such as conference abstracts, reviews, and case reports.

2.3. Data Extraction and Quality Assessment. Two independent investigators extracted data on the following variables from the included studies: author, year of publication, study design, sample size of both groups, demographic data, initiation of glucocorticoid therapy, hormone dose, hormone course, mortality, and PaO\(_2\)/FiO\(_2\), etc. The quality of the included RCTS was evaluated using the Cochrane Collaboration network bias risk assessment tool. A third evaluator worked together to resolve differences.

2.4. Outcome Indicators. Main outcome measure is mortality; secondary outcome measure is oxygenation index (PaO\(_2\)/FiO\(_2\)). Subgroup analysis was performed according to glucocorticoid initiation time, dose, and duration. Early administration of hormones was defined as the first 7 days of ARDS diagnosis and late administration as 7 days after ARDS diagnosis. Medium- and low-dose glucocorticoids were defined as methylprednisolone ≤2 mg·kg\(^{-1}·D^{-1}\), and high-dose was defined as methylprednisolone >2 mg·kg\(^{-1}·D^{-1}\), which was converted to an equivalent dose of methylprednisolone based on 20 mg hydrocortisone and 0.75 mg dexamethasone equivalent to 4.0 mg methylprednisolone.

2.5. Statistical Analysis. Mean ± standard deviation was used to represent continuous variables. Relative risk (RR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) were used to analyze mortality. Weighted mean difference (WMD) and 95% CI were used to analyze PaO\(_2\)/FiO\(_2\). \(\chi^2\) test was used to determine the heterogeneity between studies. When \(P ≥ 0.1\) and \(I^2 ≤ 50%\), the heterogeneity between studies was considered small, and the fixed-effect model was used. When \(P < 0.1\) and \(I^2 > 50%\), the random effect model was used. Bilateral \(P < 0.05\) indicated a statistically significant difference, and RevMan 5.3 software was used for meta-analysis.

3. Results

3.1. Literature Screening. As shown in Figure 1, the total number of screened articles was determined to be 5482 after database search, 2587 duplicate articles were excluded, and 2335 articles were excluded by reading the article title and abstract. Five hundred and sixty articles were reviewed in full text, and a total of 550 articles without outcome measures or only conference abstracts were excluded. Finally, a total of 10 RCTs were included in the analysis [11–20].

3.2. Clinical Features Included in the Study. As shown in Table 1, a total of 1,441 ARDS patients were included, including 734 in the steroid group and 707 in the control group. Patients in both groups received standard treatment such as mechanical ventilation, expectorant, anti-asthmatic, and anti-infective. The mean age ranged from 47.0 to 66.6 years in the hormone group and from 49.0 to 64.3 years in the control group. The types of hormones used included hydrocortisone, methylprednisolone, and dexamethasone.
The doses of hydrocortisone used were 50 mg/6h and 240 mg/day. Methylprednisolone was used at doses of 1 mg/kg/day, 2 mg/kg/day, 120 mg/day and 1 g/day. Dexamethasone was used at doses of 1 mg/kg/day and 20 mg/day. The duration of hormonal therapy ranged from 1 day to 32 days.

3.3. Quality Evaluation of Included Studies. As shown in Figure 2, the overall design of the study was scientific and of high quality. Four RCTs were low-risk. Four RCTs had unclear results of selective reports and bias from other sources. One RCT had unclear grouping hidden, unclear selective report results, and unclear bias from other sources.
Annane 2006
Random sequence generation (selection bias)
Allocation concealment (selection bias)
Binding of participants and personnel (performance bias)
Binding of outcome assessment (detection bias)
Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)
Selective reporting (reporting bias)
Other bias

Azevedo 2011
Bernard 1987
Confalonieri 2005
Meduri 1998
Meduri 2007
Steinberg 2006
Tongyoo 2016
Villar 2020
Wan 2011

Figure 2: Risk of bias for included studies.

| Study or Subgroup | Glucocorticoid Events | Control Events | Total Events | Total Weight (%) | Risk Ratio M-H, Random, 95% CI |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------|--------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| Annane 2006       | 45                     | 85             | 62           | 95               | 19.6 0.81 [0.63, 1.04]        |
| Azevedo 2011      | 20                     | 133            | 40           | 133              | 11.2 0.50 [0.31, 0.81]        |
| Bernard 1987      | 30                     | 50             | 31           | 49               | 17.0 0.95 [0.69, 1.29]        |
| Confalonieri 2005  | 0                      | 23             | 7            | 23               | 0.5 0.07 [0.00, 1.10]         |
| Meduri 1998       | 2                      | 16             | 5            | 8                | 2.1 0.20 [0.05, 0.81]         |
| Meduri 2007       | 15                     | 63             | 12           | 28               | 8.1 0.56 [0.38, 1.03]         |
| Steinberg 2006    | 18                     | 89             | 24           | 91               | 9.7 0.77 [0.45, 1.31]         |
| Tongyoo 2016      | 34                     | 98             | 40           | 99               | 15.0 0.86 [0.60, 1.23]        |
| Villar 2020       | 33                     | 139            | 50           | 138              | 14.6 0.66 [0.45, 0.95]        |
| Wan 2011          | 5                      | 38             | 3            | 43               | 2.2 1.89 [0.48, 7.37]         |
| Total (95% CI)    | 734                    | 707            | 100.0        |                  | 0.73 [0.59, 0.90]             |

Total events: 734

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.04; Chi² = 15.98, df = 9 (P = 0.07); I² = 44%
Test for overall effect: Z = 3.00 (P = 0.003)

Figure 3: Effect of glucocorticoids on mortality of adult ARDS patients.
The remaining 1 RCT had an unclear random grouping method, unclear grouping hiding, unclear selective report results, and unclear bias from other sources.

3.4. Effects of Glucocorticoids on Mortality in Adult ARDS Patients. Figure 3 includes a total of 10 studies showing the effect of glucocorticoids on mortality in adults with ARDS. Compared with the control group, glucocorticoid use was significantly associated with reduced mortality in adult ARDS patients (RR = 0.73, 95% CI = 0.59–0.90, I² = 44%, P = 0.003).

3.5. Subgroup Analysis of Effects of Glucocorticoids on Mortality in Adult ARDS Patients. As shown in Table 2, the analysis was performed according to the hormone dose, the starting time of the hormone, and the duration of the hormone. Among patients treated with medium-dose and low-dose steroids, glucocorticoids could significantly reduce the mortality of ARDS patients (RR = 0.73, 95% CI = 0.58–0.92, I² = 34%, P = 0.007). Among patients treated with high-dose steroids, glucocorticoids tended to reduce mortality, but the difference was not statistically significant (RR = 0.70, 95% CI = 0.36–1.38, I² = 82%, P = 0.31). In patients with early hormone administration, glucocorticoid intervention was significantly associated with the decreased mortality in adult ARDS patients compared with controls (RR = 0.74, 95% CI = 0.56–0.99, I² = 55%, P = 0.04), and a trend toward decreased mortality could also be observed in patients with late hormone administration (RR = 0.68, 95% CI = 0.47–0.99, I² = 38%, P = 0.05). In patients treated with corticosteroids for more than 7 days, it can be seen that compared with the control group, there was a significant correlation between the treatment of glucocorticoids and the mortality of adult ARDS patients, but this correlation was not observed in patients treated with corticosteroids for less than 7 days.

3.6. Effects of Glucocorticoids on PaO₂/FiO₂ in Adult ARDS Patients. Figure 4 includes a total of 8 studies showing the effect of glucocorticoids on PaO₂/FiO₂ in adult ARDS patients. Compared with the control group, glucocorticoids tended to improve PaO₂/FiO₂ in adult ARDS patients, but the difference was not statistically significant (WMD = 11.60, 95% CI, 15.02 to 38.22, I² = 97%, P = 0.39).

4. Discussion

In this study, glucocorticoid use was significantly associated with the reduced mortality in adults with ARDS compared with the control group. Notably, benefits were more pronounced in patients who received low doses of hormone therapy, early hormone administration, and hormone therapy for longer than 7 days. In addition, compared with the control group, glucocorticoids tended to improve PaO₂/FiO₂ in adult ARDS patients, but the difference was not statistically significant.

---

**Table 2: Subgroup analysis of glucocorticoids on mortality in adult ARDS patients.**

| Group                      | Sample size (hormone group/control group) | Events (hormone group/control group) | RR  | 95% CI  | P    | I² (%) |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----|---------|------|--------|
| **Hormone doses**          |                                          |                                      |     |         |      |        |
| Medium and small dose      | 551/525                                  | 152/203                              | 0.73| 0.58–0.92| 0.007| 34     |
| High doses                 | 183/182                                  | 50/71                                | 0.70| 0.36–1.38| 0.31 | 82     |
| **The start time of hormone therapy** |                                |                                      |     |         |      |        |
| Early delivery             | 468/481                                  | 133/193                              | 0.74| 0.56–0.99| 0.04 | 55     |
| Late delivery              | 266/226                                  | 69/81                                | 0.68| 0.47–0.99| 0.05 | 38     |
| **Duration of hormone therapy** |                                      |                                      |     |         |      |        |
| Within 7 days              | 319/324                                  | 89/114                               | 0.81| 0.57–1.15| 0.24 | 55     |
| More than 7 days           | 415/383                                  | 113/160                              | 0.66| 0.50–0.88| 0.005| 40     |

**Figure 4: Effects of glucocorticoids on PaO₂/FiO₂ in adult ARDS patients.**
The pathophysiologic changes of ARDS are some pathogenic factors causing increased vascular permeability and exudation of large amounts of fluid into the alveolar space causing pulmonary edema, while alveolar epithelium is damaged, resulting in a reduced pulmonary surfactant synthesis and increased pulmonary surface tension, both of which act together to cause hypoxemia [1]. The activation of inflammatory processes and the involvement of inflammatory factors further promote the development of ARDS [21]. At present, the mortality rate of ARDS is still high, and timely and effective treatment measures can improve the prognosis of patients [22].

A meta-analysis involving five studies showed that glucocorticoid treatment may be associated with a decreasing trend in mortality, but the sample size of the study was small [23]. This study included 1,441 patients with ARDS, and pooled analysis showed that glucocorticoid use was significantly associated with a decrease in mortality in adult ARDS patients (RR = 0.73, 95% CI = 0.59–0.90, \( P = 0.003 \)). However, other studies have shown that short-term and high-dose glucocorticoid therapy may even worsen the risk of ARDS or patients with ARDS [24]. Inconsistencies in the abovementioned studies may be attributed to patient population characteristics, sample size, and hormone dose and duration.

Glucocorticoids have a potent effect and can indirectly play a role by inhibiting the activation of inflammatory processes, including inhibiting the gene transcription of proinflammatory factors, inhibiting the expression of inducible nitric oxide, and promoting the production of interleukin-10 and interleukin-4 [25]. In addition, glucocorticoids can also improve coagulation and inhibition response, thereby normalizing the ventilation/blood flow ratio [26]. Based on the abovementioned effects of hormones, they should theoretically significantly improve the oxygenation index in ARDS patients, but the clinical results are inconsistent. This study found that glucocorticoids tended to improve \( \text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 \) in adult ARDS patients compared with the control group, but the difference was not statistically significant (WMD = 11.60, 95% CI, 15.02 to 38.22, \( P = 0.39 \)). This suggests that glucocorticoids may have other possible ways to reduce the mortality.

Initiation time, dose, and course of glucocorticoid therapy are also important factors affecting the prognosis of adult ARDS patients [27]. Similar to the results of this study, some studies suggest that early administration and low-dose administration of glucocorticoids can significantly improve the prognosis of ARDS patients [10]. In addition, glucocorticoid treatment was significantly associated with reduced mortality in adult ARDS patients treated for more than 7 days compared with the control group (RR 0.66, 95% CI 0.50–0.88, \( P = 0.005 \)). However, no such correlation was observed in patients who received hormone therapy within 7 days (\( P > 0.05 \)).

This study also has the following limitations: (1) The analysis of the literature can only provide exploratory results but does not suggest a clear correlation, and further inflammation is needed in the future. (2) The safety of glucocorticoids was not evaluated in this study, and previous studies suggest that glucocorticoids may increase the risk of hyperglycemia and new infection [28]. (3) Meta-analysis can only suggest a correlation relationship, and a large sample of RCTs is needed in the future to further evaluate the role of glucocorticoids in adult ARDS patients.

In summary, glucocorticoid therapy reduces the mortality in adult ARDS patients, and the benefit is more pronounced in patients with medium- and low-dose hormone therapy, early administration of hormones, and hormone therapy for more than 7 days. However, no improvement in \( \text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2 \) by glucocorticoid treatment was found, which needs to be confirmed by further studies.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

References

[1] B. T. Thompson, R. C. Chambers, and K. D. Liu, “Acute respiratory distress syndrome,” New England Journal of Medicine, vol. 377, no. 6, pp. 562–572, 2017.
[2] S. Kaku, C. D. Nguyen, N. N. Htet et al., “Acute respiratory distress syndrome: etiology, pathogenesis, and summary on management,” Journal of Intensive Care Medicine, vol. 35, no. 8, pp. 723–737, 2020.
[3] M. A. Matthay and R. L. Zemans, “The acute respiratory distress syndrome: pathogenesis and treatment,” Annual Review of Pathology: Mechanisms of Disease, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 147–163, 2011.
[4] R. S. Nanchal and J. D. Truwit, “Recent advances in understanding and treating acute respiratory distress syndrome,” F1000Res, vol. 7, 2018.
[5] M. M. Gouda, S. B. Shaikh, and Y. P. Bhandary, “Inflammatory and fibrinolytic system in acute respiratory distress syndrome,” Lung, vol. 196, no. 5, pp. 609–616, 2018.
[6] J. M. Lee, W. Bae, Y. J. Lee, and Y. J. Cho, “The efficacy and safety of prone positional ventilation in acute respiratory distress syndrome: updated study-level meta-analysis of 11 randomized controlled trials,” Critical Care Medicine, vol. 42, no. 5, pp. 1252–1262, 2014.
[7] S. Noreen, I. Maqbool, and A. Madni, “Dexamethasone: therapeutic potential, risks, and future projection during COVID-19 pandemic,” European Journal of Pharmacology, vol. 894, Article ID 173854, 2021.
[8] S. Y. Ruan, H. H. Lin, C. T. Huang, P. H. Kuo, H. D. Wu, and C. J. Yu, “Exploring the heterogeneity of effects of corticosteroids on acute respiratory distress syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis,” Critical Care, vol. 18, no. 2, p. R63, 2014.
[9] G. U. Meduri, R. A. C. Siemieniuk, R. A. Ness, and S. J. Seyler, “Prolonged low-dose methylprednisolone treatment is highly effective in reducing duration of mechanical ventilation and mortality in patients with ARDS,” Journal of Intensive Care, vol. 6, no. 1, p. 53, 2018.
[10] F. Lamontagne, M. Briél, G. H. Guyatt, D. J. Cook, N. Bhattacharjee, and M. Meade, “Corticosteroid therapy for acute lung injury, acute respiratory distress syndrome, and
severe pneumonia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials, "Journal of Critical Care, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 420–435, 2010.

[11] D. Annane, V. Sebille, and E. Bellissant, “Effect of low doses of corticosteroids in septic shock patients with or without early acute respiratory distress syndrome,” Critical Care Medicine, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 22–30, 2006.

[12] A. F. C. Azevedo, D. de B. Miranda-Filho, G. T. Henriques-Filho, A. Leite, and R. A. Ximenes, "Randomized controlled trial of pulse methyl prednisolone vs placebo in treatment of pulmonary involvement associated with severe leptospirosis. [ISRCTN74625030]," BMC Infectious Diseases, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 186, 2011.

[13] G. R. Bernard, J. M. Luce, C. L. Sprung et al., "High-dose corticosteroids in patients with the adult respiratory distress syndrome," New England Journal of Medicine, vol. 317, no. 25, pp. 1565–1570, 1987.

[14] M. Confalonieri, R. Urbino, A. Potena et al., "Hydrocortisone infusion for severe community-acquired pneumonia: a preliminary randomized study," American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine, vol. 171, no. 3, pp. 242–248, 2005.

[15] G. U. Meduri, E. Golden, A. X. Freire et al., “Methylprednisolone infusion in early severe ARDS: results of a randomized controlled trial,” Chest, vol. 131, no. 4, pp. 954–963, 2007.

[16] G. U. Meduri, A. S. Headley, E. Golden et al., “Effect of prolonged methylprednisolone therapy in unresolving acute respiratory distress syndrome: a randomized controlled trial,” JAMA, vol. 280, no. 2, pp. 159–165, 1998.

[17] K. P. Steinberg, L. D. Hudson, R. B. Goodman et al., "Efficacy and safety of corticosteroids for persistent acute respiratory distress syndrome," New England Journal of Medicine, vol. 354, no. 16, pp. 1671–1684, 2006.

[18] S. Tongyoo, C. Permpikul, W. Mongkolpun et al., "Hydrocortisone treatment in early sepsis-associated acute respiratory distress syndrome: results of a randomized controlled trial," Critical Care, vol. 20, no. 1, p. 329, 2016.

[19] J. Villar, C. Ferrando, D. Martinez et al., “Dexamethasone treatment for the acute respiratory distress syndrome: a multicentre, randomised controlled trial,” The Lancet Respiratory Medicine, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 267–276, 2020.

[20] M. H. Wan, J. Li, H. L. Gong et al., "Clinical observation on the effect of dexamethasone and Chinese herbal decoction for purgation in severe acute pancreatitis patients," Chinese Journal of Integrative Medicine, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 141–145, 2011.

[21] C. Mason, N. Dooley, and M. Griffiths, "Acute respiratory distress syndrome," Clinical Medicine, vol. 16, no. Suppl 6, pp. s66–s70, 2016.

[22] N. Qadir and S. Y. Chang, "Pharmacologic treatments for acute respiratory distress syndrome," Critical Care Clinics, vol. 37, no. 4, pp. 877–893, 2021.

[23] J. V. Peter, P. John, P. L. Graham, J. L. Moran, I. A. George, and A. Bersten, "Corticosteroids in the prevention and treatment of acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) in adults: meta-analysis," BMJ, vol. 336, pp. 1006–1009, 2008.

[24] B. T. Thompson, "Corticosteroids for ARDS," Minerva Anestesiologica, vol. 76, no. 6, pp. 441–447, 2010.

[25] G. U. Meduri, D. Annane, M. Confalonieri et al., "Pharmacological principles guiding prolonged glucocorticoid treatment in ARDS," Intensive Care Medicine, vol. 46, no. 12, pp. 2284–2296, 2020.

[26] Z. Junhai, H. Bangchuan, G. Shijin, Y. Jing, and L. Li, "Glucocorticoids for acute respiratory distress syndrome: a systematic review with meta-analysis and trial sequential analysis," European Journal of Clinical Investigation, vol. 51, no. 6, Article ID e13496, 2021.

[27] P. E. Marik, G. U. Meduri, P. R. Rocco, and D. Annane, "Glucocorticoid treatment in acute lung injury and acute respiratory distress syndrome," Critical Care Clinics, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 589–607, 2011.

[28] Z. G. Yang, X. L. Lei, and X. L. Li, "Early application of low-dose glucocorticoid improves acute respiratory distress syndrome: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials," Experimental and Therapeutic Medicine, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 1215–1224, 2017.