



Original Contribution



Potentially modifiable ventilatory factors contributing to outcome in patients with pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS — An individual patient data analysis

Galina Dorland^{a,b,*}, Siebe G. Blok^a, Pien Swart^a, Fleur-Stefanie L.I.M. van der Ven^{a,d}, M.W. Hollmann^{b,c}, Luciano C. Azevedo^e, Giacomo Bellani^{f,g}, Michela Botta^a, Elisa Estensoro^h, Eddy Fanⁱ, Juliana Carvalho Ferreira^{j,k,l}, John G. Laffey^{m,n}, Ignacio Martin-Loeches^{o,p}, Ana Motos^{q,r,s}, Tai Pham^{t,u}, Oscar Peñuelas^{r,v,w}, Antonio Pesenti^x, Luigi Pisani^{a,y,z}, Ary Serpa Neto^{e,aa,ab,ac,ad}, Marcus J. Schultz^{a,c,z,ae,af}, Antoni Torres^{q,r,s,ag}, Anissa M. Tsonas^{a,ah}, Frederique Paulus^{a,ah}, Sabine N.T. Hemmes^{b,ai}, David M.P. van Meenen^{a,b}, for the ERICC-investigators¹, LUNG SAFE-investigators², ProVENT-COVID-investigators³, EPICCoV-investigators⁴, CIBERESUCICOVID-investigators⁵, SATI-COVID-19-investigators⁶

* Corresponding author at: Department of Intensive Care, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Meibergdreef 9, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, the Netherlands.
E-mail address: g.dorland@amsterdamumc.nl (G. Dorland).

¹ ERICC-investigators: Amadeu Martinez, Livia Leal, Antonio Jorge Pereira, Marcelo de Oliveira Maia, José Aires Neto, Claudio Piras, Eliana Bernadete Caser, Cora Lavigne Moreira, Pablo Braga Gusman, Dyanne Moyses Dalcomune, Alexandre Guilherme Ribeiro de Carvalho, Louise Aline Romão Gondim, Lívia Mariane Castelo Branco Reis, Daniel da Cunha Ribeiro, Leonardo de Assis Simões, Rafaela Siqueira Campos, José Carlos Fernandez Versiani dos Anjos, Frederico Bruzzi Carvalho, Rossine Ambrosio Alves, Lilian Batista Nunes, Álvaro Réa-Neto, Mirella Cristine de Oliveira, Luana Tannous, Brenno Cardoso Gomes, Fernando Borges Rodriguez, Priscila Abella, Marcelo E Lugarinho, Andre Japiassu, Hélder Konrad de Melo, Elton Afonso Lopes, Pedro Varaschin, Vicente Cés de Souza Dantas, Marcos Freitas Knibel, Micheli Ponte, Pedro Mendes de Azambuja Rodrigues, Rubens Carmo Costa Filho, Felipe Saddy, Théia Forny Wanderley Castellões, Suzana Alves Silva, Luiz Antonio Gomes Osorio, Dora Mannarino, Rodolfo Espinoza, Cassia Rigby, Marcio Soares, Jorge Salluh, Lilian Tanaka, Daniel Aragão, Maria Eduarda Tavares, Maura Goncalves Pereira Kehdi, Valéria Maria Campos Rezende, Roberto Carlos Cruz Carbonell, Cassiano Teixeira, Roselaine Pinheiro de Oliveira, Juçara Gasparetto Maccari, Priscylla Souza Castro, Paula Berto, Patricia Schwarz, André Peretti Torelly, Thiago Lisboa, Edison Moraes, Felipe Dal-Pizzolo, Cristiane Tomasi Damiani, Cristiane Ritter, Juliana Carvalho Ferreira, Ramon Teixeira Costa, Pedro Caruso, Cristina Prata Amendola, Amanda Maria RR de Oliveira, Ulysses VA Silva, Luciana Coelho Sanches, Rosana DS Almeida, Luciano Cesar Azevedo, Marcelo Park, Guilherme Schettino, Murillo Santucci Assunção, Eliezer Silva, Carlos Eduardo Barboza, Antonio Paulo Nassar Junior, Paulo Fernando GMMarzocchi Tierno, Luis Marcelo Malbouisson, Lucas Oliveira, Davi Cristovao, Manoel Leitão Neto, Ênio Rego, Fernanda Eugénia Fernandes, Marcelo Luz Pereira Romano, Alexandre Biasi Cavalcanti, Dalton de Souza Barros, Érica Aranha Suzumura, Karla Loureiro Meira, Gustavo Afonso de Oliveira, Paula Menezes Luciano, Evelin Drociunas Pacheco, Bruno Franco Mazza, Flavia Ribeiro Machado, Elaine Ferreira, Ronaldo Batista dos Santos, Alexandra Siqueira Colombo, Antonio Carlos Nogueira, Juliana Baroni Fernandes, Raquel Siqueira Nóbrega, Barbara do CS Martins, Francisco Soriano, Rafaela Deczka Morsch, Andre Luiz Baptiston Nunes, Juliano Pinheiro de Almeida, Ludhmila Hajjar, Sílvia Moulin, Fábio Poianas Giannini, Andre Luiz Baptiston Nunes.

² LUNG SAFE-investigators: Fernando Rios, Frank Van Haren, T Sottiaux, Fredy S Lora, Luciano C Azevedo, P Depuydt, Eddy Fan, Guillermo Bugeado, Haibo Qiu, Marcos Gonzalez, Juan Silesky, Vladimir Cerny, Jonas Nielsen, Manuel Jibaja, Tai Pham, Hermann Wrigge, Dimitrios Matamis, Jorge Luis Ranero, SM Hashemian, Pravin Amin, Kevin Clarkson, Giacomo Bellani, Kiyoyasu Kurahashi, Asisclo Villagomez, Amine Ali Zeggwagh, Leo M Heunks, Jon Henrik Laake, Jose Emmanuel Palo, Antero do Vale Fernandes, Dorel Sandesc, Yaasen Arabi, Vesna Bumbasierovic, Jose A Lorente, Anders Larsson, Lise Piquilloud, Fekri Abroug, Daniel F McAuley, Lia McNamee, Javier Hurtado, Ed Bajwa, Gabriel Démpaire, Guy M Francois, Hektor Sula, Lordian Nunci, Alma Cani, Alan Zazu, Christian Deller, Carolina S Insaurralde, Riso V Alejandro, Julio Daldin, Mauricio Vinzio, Ruben O Fernandez, Luis P Cardonnet, Lisandro R Bettini, Mariano Carboni Bisso, Emilio M Osman, Mariano G Setten, Pablo Lovazzano, Javier Alvarez, Veronica Villar, Cesar Milstein, Norberto C Pozo, Nicolas Grubissich, Gustavo A Plotnikow, Daniela N Vasquez, Santiago Ilutovich, Norberto Tiribelli, Ariel Chena, Carlos A Pellegrini, María G Saenz, Elisa Estensoro, Matias Brizuela, Hernan Gianinnetto, Pablo E Gomez, Valeria I Cerrato, Marco G Bezzi, Silvina A Borello, Flavia A Loiacono, Adriana M Fernandez, Serena Knowles, Claire Reynolds, Deborah M Inskip, Jennene J Miller, Jing Kong, Christina Whitehead, Shailesh Bihari, Aylin Seven, Amanda Krstevski, Helen J Rodgers, Rebecca T Millar, Toni E Mckenna, Irene M Bailey, Gabrielle C Hanlon, Anders Aneman, Joan M Lynch, Raman Azad, John Neal, Paul W Woods, Brigit L Roberts, Mark R Kol, Helen S Wong, Katharina C Riss, Thomas Staudinger, Xavier Wittebole, Caroline Berghe, Pierre A Bulpa, Alain M Dive, Rik Verstraete, Herve Lebbinck, Pieter Depuydt, Joris Vermassen, Philippe Meersseman, Helga Ceunen, Jonas I Rosa, Daniel O Beraldo, Claudio Piras, Adenilton MR Ampinelli, Antonio P Nassar, Jr., Sergio Mataloun, Marcelo Moock, Marlus M Thompson, Claudio H Gonçalves, Ana Carolina P Antônio, Aline Ascoli, Rodrigo S Biondi, Danielle C Fontenele, Danielle Nobrega, Vanessa M Sales, Suresh Shindhe, Dk Maizatul Aiman BPG Hj Ismail, John Laffey, Francois Beloncle, Kyle G Davies, Rob Cirone, Venika Manoharan, Mehvish Ismail, Ewan C Goligher, Mandeep Jassal, Erin Nishikawa, Areej Javeed, Gerard Curley, Nuttapol Rittayamai, Matteo Parotto, Niall D Ferguson, Sangeeta Mehta, Jenny Knoll, Antoine Pronovost, Sergio Canestrini, Alejandro R Bruhn, Patricio H Garcia, Felipe A Aliaga, Pamela A Farías, Jacob S Yumha,

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^a Department of Intensive Care, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

^b Department of Anaesthesiology, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

^c Laboratory of Experimental Intensive Care & Anaesthesiology (LEICA), Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

² Claudia A Ortiz, Javier E Salas, Alejandro A Saez, Luis D Vega, Eduardo F Labarca, Felipe T Martinez, Nicolás G Carreño, Pilar Lora, Haitao Liu, Haibo Qiu, Ling Liu, Rui Tang, Xiaoming Luo, Youzhong An, Huiying Zhao, Yan Gao, Zhe Zhai, Zheng L Ye, Wei Wang, Wenwen Li, Qingdong Li, Ruiqiang Zheng, Wenkui Yu, Juanhong Shen, Xinyu Li, Tao Yu, Weihua Lu, Ya Q Wu, Xiao B Huang, Zhenyang He, Yuanhua Lu, Hui Han, Fan Zhang, Renhua Sun, Hua X Wang, Shu H Qin, Bao H Zhu, Jun Zhao, Jian Liu, Bin Li, Jing L Liu, Fa C Zhou, Qiong J Li, Xing Y Zhang, Zhou Li-Xin, Qiang Xin-Hua, Liangyan Jiang, Yuan N Gao, Xian Y Zhao, Yuan Y Li, Xiao L Li, Chunting Wang, Qingchun Yao, Rongguo Yu, Kai Chen, Huanzhang Shao, Bingyu Qin, Qing Q Huang, Wei H Zhu, Ai Y Hang, Ma X Hua, Yimin Li, Yonghao Xu, Yu D Di, Long L Ling, Tie H Qin, Shou H Wang, Junping Qin, Yi Han, Suming Zhou, Monica P Vargas, Juan I Silesky Jimenez, Manuel A González Rojas, Jaime E Solis-Quesada, Christian M Ramirez-Alfaro, Jan Máca, Peter Sklienka, Jakob Gjedsted, Aage Christiansen, Jonas Nielsen, Boris G Villamagua, Miguel Llano, Philippe Burtin, Gautier Buzancais, Pascal Beuret, Nicolas Pelletier, Satar Mortaza, Alain Mercat, Jonathan Chelly, Sébastien Jochmans, Nicolas Terzi, Cédric Daubin, Guillaume Carreaux, Nicolas de Prost, Jean-Daniel Chiche, Fabrice Daviaud, Tai Pham, Muriel Fartoukh, Guillaume Barberet, Jerome Biehler, Jean Dellamonica, Denis Doyen, Jean-Michel Arnal, Anais Briquet, Sami Hraiech, Laurent Papazian, Arnaud Follin, Damien Roux, Jonathan Messika, Evangelos Kalaitzis, Laurence Dangers, Alain Combes, Siu-Ming Au, Gaetan Béduneau, Dorothee Carpentier, Elie H Zogheib, Herve Dupont, Sylvie Ricome, Francesco L Santoli, Sebastien L Besset, Philippe Michel, Bruno Gelée, Pierre-Eric Danin, Bernard Goubaux, Philippe J Crova, Nga T Phan, Frantz Berkelmans, Julio C Badie, Romain Taponnier, Josette Gally, Samy Khebbab, Jean-Etienne Herbrecht, Francis Schneider, Pierre-Louis M Declercq, Jean-Philippe Rigaud, Jacques Duranteau, Anatole Harrois, Russell Chabanne, Julien Marin, Charlene Bigot, Sandrine Thibault, Mohammed Ghazi, Messabi Boukhasna, Salem Ould Zein, Jack R Richecoeur, Daniele M Comboux, Fabien Grelon, Charlene Le Moal, Elise P Sauvadet, Adrien Robine, Virginie Lemiale, Danielle Reuter, Martin Dres, Alexandre Demoule, Dany Goldgran-Toledano, Loredana Baboi, Claude Guérin, Ralph Lohner, Jens Kraßler, Susanne Schäfer, Kai D Zacharowski, Patrick Meybohm, Andreas W Reske, Philipp Simon, Hans-Bernd F Hopf, Michael Schuetz, Thomas Baltus, Metaxia N Papanikolaou, Theonymfi G Papavasiliopoulou, Giannis A Zacharas, Vasilis Ourailogloy, Eleni K Mouloudi, Eleni V Massa, Eva O Nagy, Electra E Stamou, Ellada V Kiourtzieva, Marina A Oikonomou, Luis E Avila, Cesar A Cortez, Johanna E Citalán, Sameer A Jog, Safal D Sable, Bhagyesh Shah, Mohan Gurjar, Arvind K Baronia, Mohammedfaruk Memon, Radhakrishnan Muthuchellappan, Venkatapura J Ramesh, Anitha Shenoy, Ramesh Unnikrishnan, Subhal B Dixit, Rachana R R Hayakar, Nagarajan Ramakrishnan, Vallish K Bhardwaj, Heera L Mahto, Sudha V Sagar, Vijayanand Palaniswamy, Deeban Ganesan, Seyed Mohammadreza Hashemian, Hamidreza Jamaati, Farshad Heidari, Edal A Meaney, Alistair Nichol, Karl M Knapman, Donall O'Croinin, Eimhin S Dunne, Dorothy M Breen, Kevin P Clarkson, Rola F Jaafar, Rory Dwyer, Fahd Amir, Olaitan O Ajetunmobi, Aogan C O'Muircheartaigh, Colin S Black, Nuala Treanor, Daniel V Collins, Wahid Altaf, Gianluca Zani, Maurizio Fusari, Savino Spadaro, Carlo A Volta, Romano Graziani, Barbara Brunettini, Salvatore Palmese, Paolo Formenti, Michele Umbrello, Andrea Lombardo, Elisabetta Pecci, Marco Botteri, Monica Savioli, Alessandro Protti, Alessia Mattei, Lorenzo Schiavoni, Andrea Tinnirello, Manuel Todeschini, Antonino Giarratano, Andrea Cortegiani, Sara Sher, Anna Rossi, Massimo M Antonelli, Luca M Montini, Paolo Casalena, Sergio Scafetti, Giovanna Panarello, Giovanna Occhipinti, Nicolò Patroniti, Matteo Pozzi, Roberto R Biscione, Michela M Poli, Ferdinando Raimondi, Daniela Albiero, Giulia Crapelli, Eduardo Beck, Vincenzo Pota, Vincenzo Schiavone, Alexandre Molin, Fabio Tarantino, Giacomo Monti, Elena Frati, Lucia Mirabella, Gilda Cinnella, Tommaso Fossali, Riccardo Colombo, Pierpaolo Terragni, Ilaria Pattarino, Francesco Mojoli, Antonio Braschi, Erika E Borotto, Andrea N Cracchiolo, Daniela M Palma, Francesco Raponi, Giuseppe Foti, Ettore R Vascotto, Andrea Coppadoro, Luca Brazzi, Leda Floris, Giorgio A Iotti, Aaron Venti, Osamu Yamaguchi, Shunsuke Takagi, Hiroki N Maeyama, Eizo Watanabe, Yoshihiro Yamaji, Kazuyoshi Shimizu, Kyoko Shiozaki, Satoru Futami, Sekine Ryosuke, Koji Saito, Yoshinobu Kameyama, Keiko Ueno, Masayo Izawa, Nao Okuda, Hiroyuki Suzuki, Tomofumi Harasawa, Michitaka Nasu, Tadaaki Takada, Fumihito Ito, Shin Nunomiya, Kansuke Koyama, Toshikazu Abe, Kohkichi Andoh, Kohei Kusumoto, Akira Hirata, Akihiro Takaba, Hiroyasu Kimura, Shuhei Matsumoto, Ushio Higashijima, Hiroyuki Honda, Nobumasa Aoki, Hiroshi Imai, Yasuaki Ogino, Ichiko Mizuguchi, Kazuya Ichikado, Kenichi Nitta, Katsunori Mochizuki, Tomoaki Hashida, Hiroyuki Tanaka, Tomoyuki Nakamura, Daisuke Niimi, Takeshi Ueda, Yoza Kashiwa, Akinori Uchiyama, Olegs Sabelnikovs, Peteris Oss, Youssef Haddad, Kong Y Liew, Silvio A Namendys-Silva, Yves D Jarquin-Badiola, Luis A Sanchez-Hurtado, Saira S Gomez-Flores, Maria C Marin, Asisclo J Villagomez, Jordana S Lemus, Jonathan M Fierro, Mavy Ramirez Cervantes, Francisco Javier Flores Mejia, Daniel R Gonzalez, Dulce M Dector, Claudia R Estrella, Jorge R Sanchez-Medina, Alvaro Ramirez-Gutierrez, Fernando G George, Janet S Aguirre, Juan A Buensuseso, Manuel Poblano, Tarek Dendane, Amine Ali Zeggwagh, Hicham Balkhi, Mina Elkhayari, Nacer Samkaoui, Hanane Ezzouine, Abdellatif Benslama, Mourad Amor, Wajdi Maazouzi, Nedim Cimic, Oliver Beck, Monique M Bruns, Jeroen A Schouten, Myra Rinia, Monique Raaijmakers, Leo M Heunks, Hellen M Van Wezel, Serge J Heines, Marc P Buisse, Fabienne D Simonis, Marcus J Schultz, Jennifer C Goodson, Troy SB rowne, Leanlove Navarra, Anna Hunt, Robyn A Hutchison, Mathew B Bailey, Lynette Newby, Colin McArthur, Michael Kalkoff, Alex Mcleod, Jonathan Casement, Danielle J Hacking, Finn H Andersen, Merete S Dolva, Jon H Laake, Andreas Barratt-Due, Kim Andre L Noremark, Eldar Søreide, Brit Å Sjøbø, Anne B Guttormsen, Hector HLeon Yoshido, Ronald Zumaran Aguilar, Fredy A Montes Oscanoa, Alain U Alisis, Joanne B Robles, Rossini Abbie B Pasanting-Lim, Beatriz C Tan, Pawel Andruszkiewicz, Karina Jakubowska, Cristina M Cox, António M Alvarez, Bruno S Oliveira, Gustavo M Montanha, Nelson C Barros, Carlos S Pereira, António M Messias, Jorge M Monteiro, Ana M Araujo, Nuno T Catorze, Susan M Marum, Maria J Bouw, Rui M Gomes, Vania A Brito, Silvia Castro, Joana M Estilita, Filipa M Barros, Isabel M Serra, Aurelia M Martinho, Dana R Tomescu, Alexandra Marcu, Ovidiu H Bedreag, Marius Papurica, Dan E Corneci, Silviu Ioan Negoita, Evgeny Grigoriev, Alexey I Gritsan, Andrey A Gazenkampf, Ghaleb Almekhlafi, Mohamad M Albarrak, Ghanem M Mustafa, Khalid A Maghrabi, Nawal Salahuddin, Tharwat M Aisa, Ahmed S Al Jabbar, Edgardo Tabhan, Yaseen M Arabi, Olivia A Trinidad, Hasan M Al Dorzi, Edgardo E Tabhan, Stefan Bolon, Oliver Smith, Jordi Mancebo, Herman Aguirre-Bermeo, Juan C Lopez-Delgado, Francisco Esteve, Gemma Rialp, Catalina Forteza, Candelaria De Haro, Antonio Artigas, Guillermo M Albaiceta, Sara De Cima-Iglesias, Leticia Seoane-Quiroga, Alexandra Ceniceros-Barros, Antonio L Ruiz-Aguilar, Luis M Claraco-Vega, Juan Alfonso Soler, Maria del Carmen Lorente, Cecilia Hermosa, Federico Gordo, Miryam Prieto-González, Juan B López-Messa, Manuel P Perez, Cesar P Pere, Raquel Montoiro Allue, Ferran Roche-Campo, Marcos Ibañez-Santacruz, Susana Temprano, Maria C Pintado, Raul De Pablo, Pilar Ricart Aroa Gómez, Silvia Rodriguez Ruiz, Silvia Iglesias Moles, M^a Teresa Jurado, Alfons Arizmendi, Enrique A Piacentini, Nieves Franco, Teresa Honrubia, Meisy Perez Cheng, Elena Perez Losada, Javier Blanco, Luis J Yuste, Cecilia Carbayo-Gorritz, Francisca G Cazorla-Barranquero, Javier G Alonso, Rosa S Alda, Ángela Algaba, Gonzalo Navarro, Enrique Cereijo, Esther Diaz-Rodriguez, Diego Pastor Marcos, Laura Alvarez Montero, Luis Herrera Para, Roberto Jimenez Sanchez, Miguel Angel Blasco Navalpotro, Ricardo Diaz Abad, Raquel Montiel González, Dácil Parrilla Toribio, Alejandro G Castro, Maria Jose D Artiga, Oscar Penuelas, Tomas P Roser, Moreno F Olga, Elena Gallego Curto, Rocío Manzano Sánchez, Vallverdu P Imma, Garcia M Elisabet, Laura Claverias, Monica Magret, Ana M Pellicer, Lucia L Rodriguez, Jesús Sánchez-Ballesteros, Ángela González-Salamanca, Antonio G Jimenez, Francisco P Huerta, Juan Carlos J Sotillo Diaz, Esther Bermejo Lopez, David D Linares Moya, Alec A Tallet Alfonso, Palazon Sanchez Eugenio Luis, Palazon Sanchez Cesar, Sánchez I Rafael, Corcoles G Virgilio, Noelia N Recio, Richard O Adamsson, Christian C Rylander, Bernhard Holzgraefe, Lars M Broman, Joanna Wessbergh, Linnea Persson, Fredrik Schiöler, Hans Kedelv, Anna Oscarsson Tibblin, Henrik Appelberg, Lars Hellelund, Johan Helleberg, Karin E Eriksson, Rita Glietsch, Niklas Larsson, Ingela Nygren, Silvia L Nunes, Anna-Karin Morin, Thomas Kander, Anne Adolfsson, Lise Piquilloud, Hervé O Zender, Corinne Leemann-Refondini, Souheil Elatrous, Slaheddine Bouchoucha, Imed Chouchene, Islem Ouanes, Asma Ben Souissi, Salma Kamoun, Oktay Demirkiran, Mustafa Aker, Emre Erbabacan, Ilkay Ceylan, Nermin Kelebek Girgin, Menekse Ozcelik, Necmettin Ünal, Basak Ceyda Meco, Onat O Akyol, Suleyman S Derman, Barry Kennedy, Ken Parhar, Latha Srinivasa, Lia McNamee, Danny McAuley, Jack Steinberg, Phil Hopkins, Clare Mellis, Frank Stansil, Vivek Kakar, Dan Hadfield, Christine Brown, Andre Vercueil, Kaushik Bhowmick, Sally K Humphreys, Andrew Ferguson, Raymond Mckee, Ashok S Raj, Danielle A Fawkes, Philip Watt, Linda Twohey, Rajeev RJha Matthew Thomas, Alex Morton, Varsha Kadaba, Mark J Smith, Anil P Hormis, Santhana G Kannan, Miriam Namih, Henrik Reschreiter, Julie Camsooksai, Alek Kumar, Szabolcs Rugonfalvi, Christopher Nutt, Orla Oneill, Colette Seaman, Ged Dempsey, Christopher J Scott, Helen E Ellis, Stuart Mckechnie, Paula J Hutton, Nora N Di Tomasso,

^d Department of Intensive Care, Rode Kruis Ziekenhuis, Beverwijk, the Netherlands

^e Department of Critical Care Medicine, Hospital Israelita Albert Einstein, São Paulo, Brazil

^f Department of Anesthesia and Intensive Care, Santa Chiara Hospital, APSS, Trento, Italy

^g Centre for Medical Sciences - CISMED, University of Trento, Trento, Italy

^h Department of Intensive Care, Hospital Interzonal de Agudos General San Martín La Plata, Buenos Aires, Argentina

ⁱ Interdepartmental Division of Critical Care Medicine, and Institute of Health Policy, Management and Evaluation, University of Toronto, Ontario, Canada

^j Department of Pulmonology, Hospital das Clínicas HCFMUSP, Faculdade de Medicina, Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil

² Michela N Vitale, Ruth O Griffin, Michael N Dean, Julius H Cranshaw, Emma L Willett, Nicholas Ioannou, Sarah Gillis, Peter Csabi, Rosaleen Macfadyen, Heidi Dawson, Pieter D Preez, Alexandra J Williams, Owen Boyd, Laura Ortiz-Ruiz De Gordoia, Jon Bramall, Sophie Symmonds, Simon K Chau, Tim Wenham, Tamas Szakmany, Pirooska Toth-Tarsoly, Katie H Mccalman, Peter Alexander, Lorraine Stephenson, Thomas Collyer, Rhiannon Chapman, Raphael Cooper, Russell M Allan, Malcolm Sim, David W Wrathall, Donald A Irvine, Kim S Zantua, John C Adams, Andrew J Burtenshaw, Gareth P Sellers, Ingeborg D Welters, Karen E Williams, Robert J Hessel, Matthew G Oldroyd, Ceri E Battle, Suresh Pillai, Istvan Kajtor, Mageswaran Shivashanmugave, Sinead C Okane, Adrian Donnelly, Aniko D Frigyyik, Jon P Careless, Martin M May, Richard Stewart, TJohn Trinder, Samantha H Hagan, Matt P Wise, Jade M Cole, Caroline C MacFie, Anna T Dowling, Javier Hurtado, Nicolás Nin, Javier Hurtado, Edgardo Nuñez, Gustavo Pittini, Ruben Rodriguez, María C Imperio, Cristina Santos, Ana G França, Alejandro Ebeid, Alberto Deicas, Carolina Serra, Aditya Uppalapati, Ghassan Kamel, Valerie M Banner-Goodspeed, Jeremy R Beitler, Satyanarayana Reddy Mukkera, Shreedhar Kulkarni, Jarone Lee, Tomaz Mesar, John O Shinn III, Dina Gomaa, Christopher Tainter, Tomaz Mesar, RAdams Cowley, Dale J Yeatts, Jessica Warren, Michael J Lanspa, Russel R Miller, Colin K Grissom, Samuel M Brown, Philippe R Bauer, Ryan J Gosselin, Barrett T Kitch, Jason E Cohen, Scott H Beegle, Renaud M Gueret, Aiman Tulaimat, Shazia Choudry, William Stigler, Hitesh Batra, Nidhi G Huff, Keith D Lamb, Trevor W Oetting, Nicholas M Mohr, Claine Judy, Shigeki Saito, Fayez M Kheir, Adam B Schlichting, Angela Delsing, Mary Elmasri, Daniel R Crouch, Dina Ismail, Thomas C Blakeman, Kyle R Dreyer, Dina Gomaa, Rebecca M Baron, Carolina Quintana Grijalba, Peter C Hou, Raghu Seethala, Imo Aisiku, Galen Henderson, Gyorgy Frendl, Sen-Kuang Hou, Robert L Owens, Ashley Schomer, Vesna Bumbasirevic, Bojan Jovanovic, Maja Surbatovic, and Milic Veljovic.

³ PROVENT-COVID-investigators: Jesse P. van Akkeren, Anna Geke Algera, Cheetel K. Algoe, Rombout B. van Amstel, Onno L. Baur, Pablo van de Berg, Alida E. van den Berg, Dennis C.J.J. Bergmans, Dido I. van den Berselaar, Freke A. Bertens, Alexander J.G.H. Bindels, Milou M. de Boer, Sylvia den Boer, Leonoor S. Boers, Margriet Bogerd, Lieuwe D.J. Bos, Michela Botta, Jennifer S. Breel, Hendrik de Bruin, Sanne de Bruin, Caro L. Bruna, Laura A. Buiteman-Kruizinga, Olaf L. Cremer, Rogier M. Determann, Willem Dieperink, Dave A. Dongelmans, Hildegard S. Franke, Michal S. Galek-Aldridge, Mart J. de Graaff, Laura A. Hagens, Jasper J. Haringman, Sebastiaan T. van der Heide, Pim L.J. van der Heiden, Nanon F.L. Heijnen, Stephan J.P. Hiel, Lotte L. Hoijmakers, Liselotte Hol, Markus W. Hollmann, Marga E. Hoogendoorn, Janneke Horn, Robrecht van der Horst, Evy L.K. Ie, Dimitri P. Ivanov, Nicole Juffermans, Eline Kho, Eline S. de Klerk, Ankie W.M.M. Koopman-van Gemert, Matty Koopmans, Songul Kucukcelebi, Michael A. Kuiper, Dylan W. de Lange, Niels van Mourik, Sunny G.L.H. Nijbroek, Marisa Onrust, Evelien A.N. Oostdijk, Frederique Paulus, Charlotte J. Pennartz, Janesh Pillay, Luigi Pisani, Ilse M. Purmer, Thijs C.D. Rettig, Jan-Paul Roozeman, Michiel T.U. Schuijt, Marcus J. Schultz, Ary Serpa Neto, Mengalvio E. Sleeswijk, Marry R. Smit, Peter E. Spronk, Willemke Stilma, Aart C. Strang, Anissa M. Tsonas, Pieter R. Tuinman, Christel M.A. Valk, Felicia L. Veen-Schra, Lars I. Veldhuis, Patricia van Velzen, Ward H. van der Ven, Alexander P.J. Vlaar, Peter van Vliet, Peter H.J. van der Voort, Louis van Welie, Henrico J.F.T. Wesselink, Hermien H. van der Wier-Lubbers, Bas van Wijk, Tineke Winters, Wing Yi Wong, and Arthur R.H. van Zanten.

⁴ EPICCoV-investigators: Juliana C. Ferreira, Yeh-Li Ho, Bruno A. M. P. Besen, Luiz M. S. Malbuisson, Leandro U. Taniguchi, Pedro Mendes IV, Eduardo L. V. Costa, Marcelo Park, Renato Daltro-Oliveira, Roberta M. L. Roepke, João M. Silva, Jr., Maria José C. Carmona, Carlos Roberto Ribeiro Carvalho, Adriana Hirota, Alberto Kendy Kanasiro, Alessandra Crescenzi, Amanda Coelho Fernandes, Anna Miethke-Morais, Arthur Petrillo Bellintani, Artur Ribeiro Canasiro, Bárbara Vieira Carneiro, Beatriz Keiko Zambon, Bernardo Pinheiro De Senna Nogueira Batista, Bianca Ruiz Nicolao, Bruno Adler Maccagnan Pinheiro Besen, Bruno Biselli, Bruno Rocha De Macedo, Caio Machado Gomes De Toledo, Carlos Eduardo Pompilio, Carlos Roberto Ribeiro De Carvalho, Caroline Gomes Mol, Cassio Stipanich, Caue Gasparotto Bueno, Cibele Garzillo, Clarice Tanaka, Daniel Neves Forte, Daniel Joelsons, Daniele Robira, Eduardo Leite Vieira Costa, Elson Mendes Da Silva Júnior, Fabiane Aliotti Regalio, Gabriela Cardoso Segura, Gustavo Brasil Marcelino, Giulia Sefrin Louro, Yeh-Li Ho, Isabela Argollo Ferreira, Jeison de Oliveira Gois, Joao Manoel Da Silva Junior, Jose Otto Reusing Junior, Julia Fray Ribeiro, Juliana Carvalho Ferreira, Karine Vusberg Galletti, Katia Regina Silva, Larissa Padrao Insensee, Larissa dos Santos Oliveira, Leandro Utino Taniguchi, Leila Suemi Letaif, Lígia Trombetta Lima, Lucas Yongsoo Park, Lucas Chaves Netto, Luciana Cassimiro Nobrega, Luciana Haddad, Ludhmila Hajjar, Luiz Marcelo Malbouisson, Manuela Cristina Adsuara Pandolfi, Marcelo Park, Maria José Carvalho Carmona, Maria Castilho Prandini H De Andrade, Mariana Moreira Santos, Mathues Pereira Bateloch, Mayra Akimi Suizama, Mayron Faria de Oliveira, Mayson Laercio Sousa, Michelle Louvaes, Natassja Huemer, Pedro Mendes, Paulo Ricardo Gessolo Lins, Pedro Gaspar Dos Santos, Pedro Ferreira Paiva Moreira, Renata Mello Guazzelli, Renato Batista Dos Reis, Renato Daltro De Oliveira, Roberta Muriel Longo Roepke, Rodolpho Augusto De Moura Pedro, Rodrigo Kondo, Samia Zahi Rached, Sergio Roberto Silveira Da Fonseca, Thais Sousa Borges, Thalissa Ferreira, Vilson Cobello Junior, Vivian Vieira Tenório Sales, and Willaby Serafim Cassa Ferreira.

⁵ CIBERESUCICOVID-investigators: Rafael Mañez, Felipe Rodríguez de Castro, María Mora Aznar, Mateu Torres, María Martínez, Cynthia Alegre, Sofía Contreras, Javier Trujillano, Montse Vallverdú, Miguel León, Mariona Badía, Begoña Balsaera, Lluís Servià, Judit Vilanova, Silvia Rodríguez, Neus Montserrat, Silvia Iglesias, Javier Prados, Sula Carvalho, Mar Miralbé, Josman Monclou, Gabriel Jiménez, Jordi Codina, Estela Val, Pablo Pagliarini, Jorge Rubio, Dulce Morales, Andrés Pujol, Àngels Furro, Beatriz García, Gerard Torres, Javier Vengoechea, David de Gozalo Calvo, Jessica González, Silvia Gomez, Lorena Forcelledo Espina, Emilio García Prieto, Paula Martín Vicente, Cecilia del Busto Martínez, María Aguilar Cabello, Carmen Eulalia Martínez Fernández, María Luisa Blasco Cortés, Ainhoa Serrano Lázaro, Mar Juan Díaz, María Teresa Bouza Vieiro, Inés Esmorís Arijón, David Campi Hermoso, Rafaela Nogueiras Salinas., Teresa Farre Monjo., Ramon Nogue Bou., Gregorio Marco Naya., Núria Ramon Coll, Juan Carlos Montejó-González, Gloria Renedo Sanchez-Giron, Juan Bustamante-Munguira, Ramon Echeudez Avila, Nuria Mamolar Herrera, Alexander Agrifoglio, Lucia Cachafeiro, Emilio Maseda, Albert Figueras, María Teresa Janer, Laura Soliva, Marta Ocón, Luisa Clar, J Ignacio Ayestarán, Sandra Campos Fernández, Eva Forcadell Ferreres, Immaculada Salvador-Adell, Neus Bofill, Berta Adell-Serrano, Josep Pedregosa Díaz, Núria Casacuberta-Barberà, Luis Urrelle-Cerrón, Àngels Piñol-Tena, Ferran Roche-Campo, Pablo Ryan Murúa, Covadonga Rodríguez Ruíz, Laura CarriónGarcía, Juan I Lazo Álvarez, Desire Macías Guerrero, Daniel Tognetti, Carlos García Redruello, David Mosquera Rodríguez, Eva María Menor Fernández, Sabela Vara Adrio, Vanesa Gómez Casal, Marta Segura Pensado, María Digna Rivas Vilas, Amaia García Sagastume, Raul de Pablo Sánchez, David Pestaña Laguna, Tommaso Bardi, Carmen Gómez Gonzalez, María Luisa Gascón Castillo, José Garnacho-Montero, Joan Ramon Masclans, Ana Salazar Degracia, Judit Bigas, Rosana Muñoz-Bermúdez, Clara Vilà-Vilardel, Francisco Parrilla, Irene Dot, Ana Zapatero, Yolanda Díaz, María Pilar Gracia, Purificación Pérez, Andrea Castellví, Cristina Climent, Lidia Serra, Laura Barbena, Iosune Cano, Alba Herraiz, Pilar Marcos, Laura Rodríguez, María Teresa Sariñena, Ana Sánchez, Juan Fernando Masa Jimenez, Gemma Gomà, Mercedes Ibarz, Diego De Mendoza, Enric Barbeta, Victoria Alcaraz-Serrano, Joan Ramon Badia, Manuel Castella, Leticia Bueno, Laia Fernandez Barat, Catia Cillóniz, Pamela Conde, Javier Fernández, Albert Gabarrus, Karsa Kiarostami, Alexandre López Gavín, Cecilia L. Mantellini, Carla Speziale, Nil Vázquez, Hua Yang, Minlan Yang, Carlos Ferrando, Pedro Castro, Marta Arrieta, Jose Maria Nicolas, Rut Andrea, Marta Barroso, Sergio Álvarez, Dario Garcia-Gasulla, Adrián Tormos, Cesar Aldecoa, Rubén Herrán-Monge, José Ángel Berezo García, Pedro Enríquez Girauo, Pablo Cardinal Fernández, Alberto Rubio López, Orville Báez Pravia, Leire Pérez Bastida, Antonjo Alvarez Ruiz, Anna Parera Pous, Ana López Lago, Eva Saborido Paz, Patricia Barral Segade, Manuel Valledor Mendez, Luciano Aguilera, Esther López-Ramos, Ángela Leonor Ruiz-García, Belén Beteré, Rafael Blancas, Cristina Dólera, Gloria Perez Planelles, Enrique Marmol Peis, María Dolores Martinez Juan, Miriam Ruiz Miralles, Eva Perez Rubio, María Van der Hofstadd Martin-Montalvo, Tatiana Villada Warrington, Sara Guadalupe Moreno Cano, Federico Gordo, Basilisa Martinez Palacios, María Teresa Nieto, Sergio Ossa, Ana Ortega, Miguel Sanchez, Bitor Santacoloma.

^k Department of Intensive Care, AC Camargo Cancer Center, São Paulo, Brazil

^l Brazilian Research in Intensive Care Network (BRIC-Net), São Paulo, Brazil

^m Department of Anaesthesiology and Intensive Care, Galway University Hospitals, Galway, Ireland

ⁿ School of Medicine, University of Galway, Galway, Ireland

^o Department of Intensive Care, Multidisciplinary Intensive Care Research Organization (MICRO), St James' Hospital, Dublin, Ireland

^p Department of Intensive Care, Hospital Clínic de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

^q Departament de Pulmonologia, Institut d'Investigacions Biomèdiques August Pi I Sunyer (IDIBAPS), Hospital Clínic de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

^r Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red en Enfermedades Respiratorias (CIBERES), Institute of Health Carlos III, Madrid, Spain

^s University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

^t Equipe d'Epidémiologie Respiratoire Intégrative, Université Paris-Saclay, Paris, France

^u Department of Intensive Care, Hôpital de Bicêtre, Paris, France

^v Critical Care Unit, Hospital Universitario de Getafe, Getafe, Spain

^w Faculty of Medicine, Health and Sport, European University, Madrid, Spain

^x Fondazione IRCCS Ca' Granda Ospedale Maggiore Policlinico, Milan, Italy

^y Department of Anesthesia and Intensive Care, Miulli Regional Hospital, Acquaviva Delle Fonti, Italy

^z Mahidol-Oxford Tropical Medicine Research Unit (MORU), Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand

^{aa} Australian and New Zealand Intensive Care Research Centre (ANZIC-RC), School of Public Health and Preventive Medicine, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

^{ab} Department of Intensive Care, Austin Hospital, Melbourne, Australia

^{ac} Department of Critical Care, Melbourne Medical School, University of Melbourne, Austin Hospital, Melbourne, Australia

^{ad} Data Analytics Research and Evaluation (DARE) Centre, Austin Hospital, Melbourne, Australia

^{ae} Nuffield Department of Medicine, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

^{af} Department of Anesthesia, General Intensive Care and Pain Management, Division of Cardiothoracic and Vascular Anesthesia & Critical Care Medicine, Medical University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria

^{ag} Catalan Institution for Research and Advanced Studies (ICREA), Barcelona, Spain

^{ah} Center of Expertise Urban Vitality, Faculty of Health, Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

^{ai} Department of Anaesthesiology, Antoni van Leeuwenhoek - Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

HIGHLIGHTS

- ΔP was associated with 60-day mortality in pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS.
- The association between ΔP and 60-day mortality differed by ARDS subphenotypes.
- RR was associated with 60-day mortality, with no difference between ARDS subphenotypes.
- Tidal volume was not associated with 60-day mortality.

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ABSTRACT

Background: Previous studies have identified potentially modifiable factors associated with mortality from acute respiratory stress syndrome (ARDS), however these studies did not differentiate between underlying causes of ARDS. As the etiology of ARDS may influence patient outcomes, we aimed to identify potentially modifiable factors associated with 60-day mortality from pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS.

Methods: Secondary pooled analysis of six observational studies on mechanical ventilation in patients with pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS. The primary endpoint was mortality at day 60 after inclusion. Exploratory outcomes included length of stay in hospital and ICU, duration of ventilation and ventilator-free days at day 28.

Results: Out of 7934 patients with pulmonary or extrapulmonary ARDS, 3402 (43%) did not survive. Potentially modifiable factors associated with 60-day mortality included high driving pressure (ΔP) and high respiratory rate (RR). There was an interaction between etiology of ARDS and ΔP on 60-day mortality, with ΔP showing a stronger association in pulmonary ARDS compared with extrapulmonary ARDS ($p < 0.001$). In a sensitivity analysis excluding COVID-19 patients, RR was no longer associated with 60-day mortality, whereas ΔP remained associated. Tidal volume was not associated with 60-day mortality in either pulmonary or extrapulmonary ARDS. No interaction was found between ARDS etiology and RR or tidal volume on 60-day mortality.

⁶ SATI-COVID-19-investigators: Elisa Estenssoro, Arnaldo Dubin, Cecilia Inés Loudet, Fernando Ríos, Vanina Siham, Kanoore Edul, Gustavo Plotnikow, Rosa Reina Macarena Andrian, Julián Ivacachi, Ignacio Romero, Carla Garay, Damián Piezny, Judith Sagardía, Marco Bezzi, Silvia Borello, Verónica Mandich, Daniel Chiacchiera, Carla Groer, Constanza García Almirón, Ana Kovac, Sebastián Torres, Cristian Cesio, Cristina Orlandi, Rosana Hernández, Paolo Nahuel Rubatto Birri, Matías Mugno, Florencia Valenti, Raúl Alejandro Gómez, Eleonora Cunto, Viviana Chediack, María Gabriela Sáenz, Cecilia Marchena, Norberto Tiribelli, María Guayma, Vanina Aphalo, Daniela Vazquez, Yasmin Saad, Diego Sanchez, Federico Iglesias, Pablo Casteluccio, Bernardo Lattanzio, Sebastián Eiguren, Diego Noval, Sebastián Fredes, Gabriela Izzo, Horacio Cabrera, Mario Pozo, Santiago Sac, Nicolás Tornatore, Julia Sakugawa, Celeste Villafañe, Antonio Di Sibio, Patricio Maskin, Pablo Rodríguez, Nicolás Nihany, Mariela Mogadouro, Fernando Pálizas, Emiliano Cornú, Mariano Esperatti, Juan Manuel Pintos, Gustavo Badariotti, Gonzalo Echevarría, Ana María Mazzola, Cecilia Giuggia, Nahuel Dargains, Alejandra Turano, Florencia Pugliese, Marcos Zec Baskarad, Mariana Chamadoira, Juan Carlos Medina, Marina Búsico, Fernando Villarejo, Hugo Collazos, Tania Huanca, Juan Carlos Pendino, Lionel Talamonti, Fernando Skrzypiec, Claudia Tascón, Gabriela Genovese, Hugo Alul, Agustina Zavattieri, Ana Julieta Herrera, Norma Rosales, María Gabriela Quintana, Alejandro Risso Vazquez, Martín Lugaro, Eduardo Díaz Rousseaux, Marcelo Falcone, Fernando Kurban, Matías Cini, Graciela Zakalik, Carlos Pellegrini, Gabriela Fernández, Juan Pablo Sottile, Sol Barrios, Orlando Hamada, Verónica Mendiluce, Darío Villalba, Florencia Sacco, Vito Mezzina, Carlos Servin, Mónica Quinteros, Hernán Nuñez, María Luz Campassi, David Banegas, Carina Balasini, Victoria Leiva, Franco Maicol, Gustavo Domeniconi, Verónica Vilaseca, Alejandra Barrientos, Florencia Larocca, Liliana Kumar, Rosa Luna, Martín Deheza Lonardi, Agustina Oholeguy, Joaquín Carnero Echeagaray, Carla Marazzi, Plácido Helca Regis, Federico Rópolo, Adrián Bobadilla, Vivian Thomas, Nydia Funes Nelson, Cintia Villavicencio, Pedro Machare, Norma Aramayo, Cecilia González, Mariano Ferriccioni, Judith Bergesio.

Conclusion: High ΔP and high RR were associated with 60-day mortality in patients with pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS receiving mechanical ventilation, with ΔP showing a stronger association in pulmonary ARDS compared with extrapulmonary ARDS.

Registration: The pooled database was registered at [ClinicalTrials.gov](https://www.clinicaltrials.gov) (identifier NCT05650957).

1. Introduction

While ventilatory variables are associated with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) outcomes, including mortality and duration of ventilation [1–4], the role of the underlying cause of ARDS in these associations has been less well studied [5]. ARDS represents a major clinical challenge among critically ill patients. Despite advances in critical care, ARDS remains associated with high morbidity and mortality rates worldwide [6,7]. ARDS is recognized as a clinically and biologically heterogeneous syndrome and can be triggered by various pulmonary and extrapulmonary conditions. Pulmonary ARDS results from direct lung injury, typically caused by conditions such as pneumonia, aspiration or lung contusion, where the lungs are directly affected leading to more localized damage. In contrast, extrapulmonary ARDS typically involves more diffuse lung injury secondary to systemic conditions such as sepsis, pancreatitis, trauma or blood transfusion [8]. It has been suggested that different subtypes of ARDS may respond differently to management strategies [9].

Recent perspectives in critical care research have highlighted the importance of identifying modifiable factors as a strategy to improve patient outcomes [10]. While certain factors that affect ARDS outcomes, such as age and comorbidities are non-modifiable [11], there are also potentially modifiable factors. In particular, ventilatory variables play an important role in influencing outcomes. High airway pressures and high respiratory rate (RR) have been associated with worse outcomes in patients with ARDS, as these factors can exacerbate lung injury [2,4,12–15].

Therefore, the aim of this analysis was to assess whether the association between ventilatory variables and outcomes differs between pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS. We hypothesized that the association between ventilatory variables and mortality may be modified by the underlying etiology of ARDS, using pooled individual data of ARDS patients in six observational invasive ventilation studies.

2. Methods

2.1. Study design

For this analysis, we used pooled individual data of patients with ARDS included in six observational studies on invasive ventilation. This database included ‘ERICC – Epidemiology of Respiratory Insufficiency in Critical Care’ [16], ‘LUNG -SAFE - Large Observational Study to Understand the Global Impact of Severe Acute Respiratory Failure’ study [7], ‘Practice of VENTilation in COVID-19 patients’ (PROVENT-COVID) [17], ‘Epidemiology of COVID-19 patients in the ICU’ (EPICCoV) [18], ‘SATI-COVID-19 - Clinical Characteristics and Outcomes of Patients With COVID-19 on Mechanical Ventilation in Argentina: a Prospective, Multicenter Cohort Study’ [19] and CIBERESUCICOVID - Personalized Risk and Prognosis Factors and Follow-up at One Year of the Patients Hospitalized in the Spanish Intensive Care Units Infected with COVID-19’ [20]. The studies included in the pooled database adhered to local legislation. The study protocols of the original studies were approved by Institutional Review Boards when applicable, and the need for individual patient informed consent was waived for all studies due to their observational designs. Details of all studies can be found in the original publications. The creation of the pooled database did not require additional ethical approval. This study was conducted and reported in accordance with the STROBE statement for observational studies [21].

2.2. Patients

The inclusion and exclusion criteria from the original studies are detailed in the original publications. For the current analysis, patients were eligible if they: (1) were >18 years old; (2) received invasive mechanical ventilation; and (3) met the Berlin definition of ARDS at the start of ventilation [6]. We limited the analysis to patients with evidence of absence of spontaneous ventilation.

2.3. Data collected

The pooled database included baseline characteristics such as sex, age, weight and height, Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) score; comorbidities including heart failure, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, liver failure and active neoplasm, ARDS risk factor including COVID-19, pneumonia from another infection, aspiration, inhalation injury, contusion, vasculitis, sepsis, trauma, pancreatitis, burns, non-cardiac shock, drug overdose, transfusion-related acute lung injury (TRALI) or unknown; ventilation variables were collected shortly after study inclusion and included tidal volume (V_T), maximum airway pressure in pressure-controlled ventilation, plateau pressure (P_{lat}) in volume-controlled ventilation, positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP), fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO₂), RR and arterial blood gas analyses results; rescue strategies and therapy including prone positioning, neuromuscular blockade, recruitment maneuvers, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), continuous sedation, vasopressor use, tracheostomy, renal replacement therapy; and mortality at day 60.

2.4. Endpoint

The primary endpoint was 60-day mortality, defined as mortality at 60 days after study inclusion. Exploratory endpoints were length of stay in hospital and ICU, duration of ventilation and ventilator-free days at day 28 (VFD-28).

2.5. Definitions

ARDS severity was defined according to the Berlin definition of ARDS: mild (PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio 201–300 mmHg), moderate (PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio 101–200 mmHg), and severe (PaO₂/FiO₂ ratio ≤100 mmHg). Patients were categorized as having either pulmonary or extrapulmonary ARDS. Pulmonary ARDS was defined by the presence of one or more lung-related risk factors (e.g., COVID-19, pneumonia from another infection, aspiration, lung contusion) and extrapulmonary was defined by the presence of one or more extrapulmonary risk factors (e.g., sepsis, trauma, TRALI) [8]. Patients with both types of risk factors were considered as pulmonary. We stratified the study sample according to V_T (≤8 vs. >8 mL/kg PBW), PEEP (≤12 vs. >12 cmH₂O), ΔP (≤14 vs. >14 cmH₂O) and RR (≤20 vs. >20 breaths/min) as measured on the first day of ventilation at study inclusion. The V_T cut-off of 8 mL/kg PBW was selected based on its common use as a threshold for lung-protective ventilation [22]. The thresholds for PEEP, RR and ΔP were chosen based on previous studies [12,23]. P_{max} was defined as maximum airway in pressure-controlled assist modes and P_{plat} in volume-controlled assist modes, when available [24]. Ventilator-free days at day 28 (VFD-28) were defined as the number of calendar days alive and free from invasive mechanical ventilation between intubation and day 28 after study inclusion.

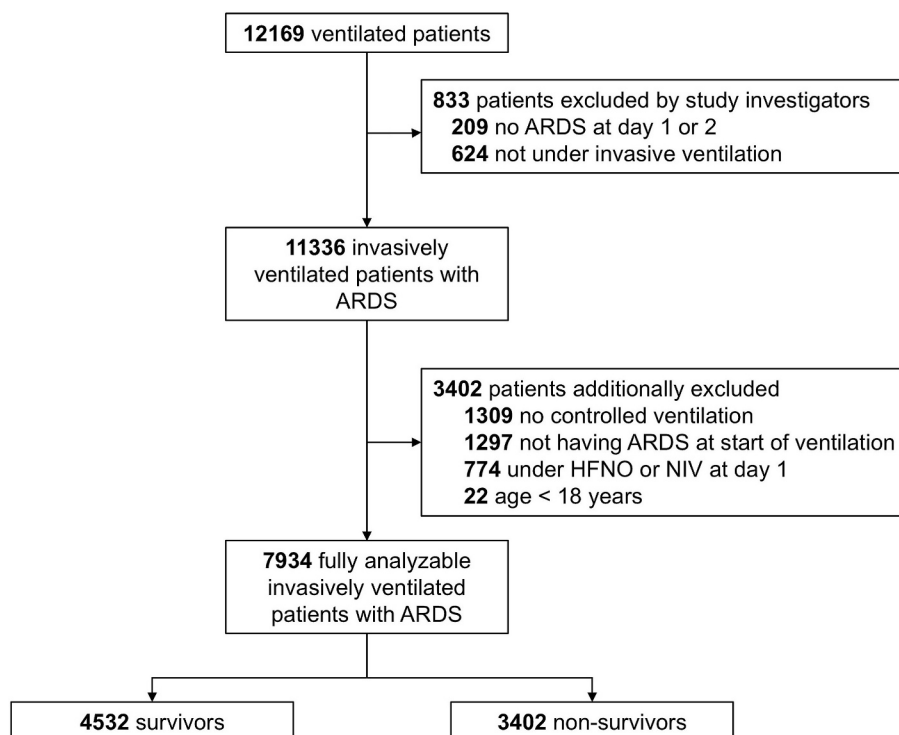


Fig. 1. CONSORT flow chart.

2.6. Calculations

V_T was expressed per predicted body weight (PBW). The PBW of male patients was calculated using the following formula: $50 + 0.91$ (centimeters of height—152.4); in females: $45.5 + 0.91$ (centimeters of height—152.4). Driving pressure (ΔP) was calculated by subtracting PEEP from Pmax. Mechanical power (MP) was calculated using the following formula: $0.098 * V_T * RR * (Pmax - 0.5 * \Delta P)$. Minute ventilation was calculated as the product of V_T and RR. The ventilatory ratio was calculated using the formula $[\text{minute ventilation (mL/min)} \times PaCO_2 \text{ (mmHg)}] / (\text{predicted body weight} \times 100 \times 37.5)$.

2.7. Sample analysis

No sample size calculation was performed for this analysis, the number of available patients served as the sample size.

2.8. Statistical analysis

Baseline demographics were compared using the Fisher's exact test for categorical variables and the Wilcoxon rank-sum test for continuous variables. Continuous variables were expressed as medians and inter-quartile ranges and categorical variables were expressed as frequencies and proportions.

In all descriptive analyses, patients were stratified into survivors and non-survivors according to mortality at day 60. In univariate analyses, the impact of single ventilatory variables was assessed by estimating the relative risk of mortality at day 60 in pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS patients. Additionally, we used locally estimated scatterplot smoothing (LOESS) to visualize the relationship between the proportion of in-hospital deaths and respiratory variables including V_T per PBW, RR, PEEP and ΔP .

To identify whether V_T per PBW, PEEP, RR and ΔP were associated with mortality at day 60, a multivariable model was built with study

treated as random effect. These ventilatory variables were included as continuous variables in the model. We adjusted for the following variables, based on clinical relevance: SOFA score, comorbidities including heart failure, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, liver failure, active neoplasm, PaO_2/FiO_2 and ARDS risk factor. To assess whether ARDS subphenotype modified the association between ventilatory variables and 60-day mortality, each model was repeated with an interaction term between ARDS subphenotype (pulmonary vs. extrapulmonary) and the ventilatory variable of interest (V_T per PBW; PEEP; RR and ΔP) on the outcome. Missing data in covariates were imputed by multiple imputation. Results are shown as odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence interval (CI). One sensitivity analysis was performed in which patients with COVID-19 were excluded.

We performed post hoc Kaplan-Meier survival analyses for 60-day survival, stratified by main causes of ARDS (COVID-19, pneumonia from other infections, pancreatitis, aspiration pneumonia, inhalation injury, lung contusion, sepsis, and trauma), and compared the curves using the log-rank test. Survival in pulmonary versus extrapulmonary ARDS was also analyzed. Additionally, a post hoc mediation analysis was conducted to explore whether the association between ΔP and mortality was driven by PEEP, Pmax, or the direct effect of ΔP itself. For each mediator, we fitted a linear mixed-effects model with Pmax or PEEP as the dependent variable, ΔP as the fixed effect, and a random intercept for study. We then fitted logistic regression models for 60-day mortality including ΔP and the mediator, adjusting for SOFA score, P/F ratio, age, sex, ARDS cause, RR, V_T per PBW, and including a random intercept for study. Mediation effects were estimated, with the average causal mediation effect (ACME) representing the part of the ΔP effect transmitted through PEEP or Pmax, the average direct effect (ADE) representing the remaining effect not explained by the mediator, and the total effect defined as the sum of these components.

All analyses were conducted in R v.4.2.1 (Vienna, Austria). A p -value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Patients

A total of 12,169 patients were included in the database (Fig. 1). Main reasons for exclusion were not fulfilling the Berlin definition of ARDS at start of ventilation and lacking evidence of absence of spontaneous ventilation. For the current analysis, we included 7934 fully analyzable pulmonary or extrapulmonary ARDS patients. Among these, 3402 (43%) did not survive. Survivors were older and more often female (Table 1). The severity of illness, as indicated by the SOFA score, was lower in survivors. Comorbidities were less prevalent among survivors. Specifically, survivors had lower rates of heart failure, COPD, diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, liver failure and active neoplasm. ARDS was more often classified as 'mild' or 'moderate' in survivors than in non-survivors. Regarding ARDS causes, COVID-19 was the most common cause of ARDS in both survivors and non-survivors. Trauma and drug overdose were more common in survivors, whereas vasculitis and non-cardiac shock were more prevalent in non-survivors.

3.2. Ventilation characteristics, adjunctive therapies and arterial blood gas results

The median V_T per PBW was slightly higher in survivors (Table 2). Survivors were ventilated with a higher PEEP and lower median RR, FiO_2 and ΔP compared to non-survivors. Prone positioning, neuromuscular blockade and recruitment maneuvers were used less often in survivors. In survivors, vasopressor use and renal replacement therapy

were lower, while tracheostomy rates were higher. PaO_2/FiO_2 , PaO_2 and pH were higher in patients who survived, while $PaCO_2$ levels were lower.

3.3. Factors associated with outcome from pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS

The unadjusted association of single ventilatory variables on 60-day mortality in pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS are shown in Fig. 2. Mortality was similar between patients receiving a low V_T (≤ 8 mL/kg PBW) and those receiving a high V_T (> 8 mL/kg PBW) in both pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS. For both pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS, a high RR (> 20 breaths/min) was associated with an increased risk of hospital mortality. In pulmonary ARDS patients, a high PEEP (> 12 cmH₂O) was associated with decreased mortality. However, this was not seen in extrapulmonary ARDS patients. Regarding high ΔP (> 14 cmH₂O), the 60 day-mortality risk was increased in pulmonary ARDS patients but not in extrapulmonary ARDS patients. In the LOESS plots, both an increase in driving pressure and RR show an association with 60-day mortality (eFigure 1). After multivariable adjustment, RR and ΔP were the only ventilatory variables associated with mortality at day 60 in the entire cohort (eTable 2). There was an interaction between ARDS subphenotype (pulmonary vs. extrapulmonary) and ΔP on 60-day mortality, with ΔP demonstrating a stronger association with mortality in pulmonary ARDS compared with extrapulmonary ARDS ($p < 0.001$).

Table 1

Baseline characteristics of patients with pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS.

	Survivors N = 4532	Non-survivors N = 3402	p-value
Age, years, median [IQR]	61 [51–69]	67 [58–74]	<0.001
Male sex n (%)	2948 (66.4)	2408 (68.9)	0.02
BMI, kg/m ² , median [IQR]	28.3 [25.1–32.4]	28.0 [25.0–31.9]	0.03
<18.5, n (%)	38 (0.9)	44 (1.4)	
18.5–24.9, n (%)	928 (22.6)	721 (22.7)	
25.0–29.9, n (%)	1481 (36.1)	1242 (39.1)	0.01
30.0–39.9, n (%)	1366 (33.3)	962 (30.3)	
≥ 40.0 , n (%)	294 (7.2)	205 (6.5)	
SOFA score, median [IQR]	7 [4–9]	8 [5–10]	<0.001
Comorbidities, n (%)			
Heart failure	333 (7.5)	427 (12.2)	<0.001
COPD	487 (11.0)	498 (14.2)	<0.001
Diabetes mellitus	1046 (23.6)	1117 (32.0)	<0.001
Chronic kidney disease	235 (5.3)	323 (9.2)	<0.001
Liver failure	72 (1.6)	124 (3.5)	<0.001
Active neoplasm	170 (3.8)	254 (7.3)	<0.001
ARDS cause*, n (%)			
COVID-19	3310 (74.5)	2782 (79.6)	<0.001
Pneumonia from another infection	627 (14.1)	387 (11.1)	0.66
Sepsis	167 (3.8)	140 (4.0)	0.008
Aspiration	163 (3.6)	117 (3.3)	0.27
Non-cardiac shock	74 (1.7)	66 (1.9)	0.01
TRALI	39 (0.9)	31 (0.9)	0.39
Trauma	67 (1.5)	25 (0.7)	0.03
Inhalation injury	34 (0.8)	17 (0.5)	0.66
Pulmonary contusion	38 (0.9)	17 (0.5)	0.29
Pulmonary vasculitis	11 (0.2)	16 (0.5)	0.03
Pancreatitis	16 (0.4)	13 (0.4)	0.62
Drug overdose	29 (0.7)	7 (0.2)	0.03
Burns	5 (0.1)	1 (0.0)	0.49
Unknown	80 (1.8)	45 (1.3)	0.59
ARDS severity category, n (%)			<0.001
Mild	1023 (23.0)	647 (18.5)	
Moderate	2250 (50.7)	1732 (49.6)	
Severe	1168 (26.3)	1116 (31.9)	

Abbreviations: IQR: Interquartile Range; BMI: Body Mass Index; SOFA: Sequential Organ Failure Assessment; COPD; Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; ARDS: Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome; COVID-19: Coronavirus Disease 2019; TRALI: Transfusion-Related Acute Lung Injury.

* An individual patient may have multiple causes.

Table 2
Ventilation characteristics, adjunctive therapies, arterial blood gas results and outcomes.

	Survivors N = 4532	Non-survivors N = 3402	p-value
Ventilation characteristics			
Tidal volume, mL/kg/PBW, median [IQR]	6.8 [6.1–7.7]	6.6 [6.0–7.5]	<0.001
<6, n (%)	815 (21.0)	736 (24.4)	
6–8, n (%)	2333 (60.2)	1799 (59.6)	0.001
8–10, n (%)	601 (15.5)	404 (13.4)	
>10, n (%)	128 (3.3)	80 (2.6)	
PEEP, cm H ₂ O, median [IQR]	12 [10–14]	10 [8–14]	<0.001
≤5, n (%)	312 (7.0)	239 (6.8)	
6–8, n (%)	696 (15.7)	696 (19.9)	<0.001
8–10, n (%)	1036 (23.3)	866 (24.8)	
>10, n (%)	2397 (54.0)	1694 (48.5)	
Maximum airway pressure*, median [IQR]	25 [21–28]	25 [22–28]	0.05
Driving pressure, cm H ₂ O, median [IQR]	13 [10–16]	14 [11–17]	<0.001
Mechanical power, J/min, median [IQR]	16 [13–20]	16 [13–20]	0.13
FiO ₂ , median [IQR]	0.6 [0.5–0.9]	0.7 [0.5–1.0]	<0.001
Respiratory rate, breaths/min, median [IQR]	22 [18–25]	22 [19–26]	<0.001
Minute ventilation, L/min, median [IQR]	9.4 [8.0–10.9]	9.5 [8.0–11.1]	0.12
Ventilatory ratio, median [IQR]	1.7 [1.4–2.1]	1.8 [1.5–2.3]	<0.001
Adjunctive therapies			
Prone positioning, n/N (%)	2338/4426 (52.8)	2126/3478 (61.1)	<0.001
Use of neuromuscular blockade, n/N (%)	2348/3856 (60.9)	1680/2589 (64.9)	0.001
Recruitment maneuvers, n/N (%)	1264/3683 (34.3)	961/2516 (38.2)	0.002
ECMO, n/N (%)	112/4042 (2.8)	84/2798 (3.0)	0.62
Continuous sedation, n/N (%)	1661/1826 (91.0)	1208/1336 (90.4)	0.65
Vasopressor use, n/N (%)	3054/3850 (79.3)	2317/2590 (89.5)	<0.001
Tracheostomy, n/N (%)	1434/4423 (32.4)	764/3481 (21.9)	<0.001
Renal replacement therapy, n/N (%)	500/4431 (11.3)	1049/3492 (30.0)	<0.001
Arterial blood gas results			
pH, median [IQR]	7.36 [7.30–7.42]	7.32 [7.24–7.38]	<0.001
PaO ₂ , mm Hg, median [IQR]	83 [69–103]	82 [68–100]	0.02
PaCO ₂ , mm Hg, median [IQR]	43 [37–51]	45 [38–54]	<0.001
PaO ₂ /FiO ₂ , median [IQR]	142 [99–196]	130 [90–181]	<0.001
Outcomes			
Hospital length of stay, days, median [IQR]	33 [21–53]	17 [10–26]	<0.001
ICU length of stay, days, median [IQR]	18 [10–33]	13 [7–22]	<0.001
Duration of ventilation, days, median [IQR]	13 [7–25]	12 [6–21]	<0.001
Ventilator-free days at day 28, days, median [IQR]	12 [0–20]	0 [0–0]	<0.001

Abbreviations: PBW: Predicted Body Weight; PEEP: Positive End-Expiratory Pressure; FiO₂: Fraction of Inspired Oxygen; ECMO: Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation; PaO₂: Partial Arterial Oxygen Pressure; PaCO₂: Partial Arterial Carbon Dioxide Pressure; ICU: Intensive Care Unit.

* Pmax was defined as maximum airway pressure in pressure-controlled assist modes and plateau pressure in volume-controlled assist modes.

3.4. Other outcomes

Survivors had a longer stay in hospital and ICU, longer duration of ventilation and more ventilator-free days at day 28 compared to non-survivors (Table 2).

3.5. Pulmonary versus extrapulmonary ARDS

60-day survival differed across ARDS causes, with the highest fatality rates in COVID-19, pancreatitis and sepsis. There was no difference in survival between pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS (Fig. 3). There was an interaction between ARDS etiology (pulmonary vs. extrapulmonary) and ΔP on 60-day mortality, with ΔP showing a stronger association with 60-day mortality in pulmonary ARDS compared with extrapulmonary ARDS ($p < 0.001$).

3.6. Sensitivity analysis

In a sensitivity analysis excluding COVID-19 patients, ΔP remained significantly associated with 60-day mortality ($p < 0.001$) whereas the association with RR was no longer statistically significant ($p = 0.49$). An interaction between ARDS etiology and ΔP on 60-day mortality

persisted ($p < 0.001$).

3.7. Post hoc mediation analysis of ΔP

For Pmax, the ACME was -0.070 (95% CI -0.091 to -0.049), and the ADE was 0.109 (95% CI 0.083 – 0.133), resulting in a total effect of 0.038 (95% CI 0.024 – 0.052). For PEEP, the ACME was 0.008 (95% CI 0.006 – 0.011), with an ADE of 0.030 (95% CI 0.015 – 0.044), resulting in a total effect of 0.038 (95% CI 0.023 – 0.052). When expressed as normalised proportions of the total effect, 37.5% was mediated through Pmax, 4.7% through PEEP, and 57.9% reflected the direct effect of ΔP (Fig. 4).

4. Discussion

The findings of this secondary pooled analysis of six observational studies of ventilation in ARDS patients can be summarized as follows. (1) ΔP was associated with 60-day mortality in pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS. (2) The association between ΔP and 60-day mortality differed by ARDS subphenotype, with a stronger effect observed in pulmonary ARDS compared with extrapulmonary ARDS. (3) RR was associated with 60-day mortality in the overall cohort, and this

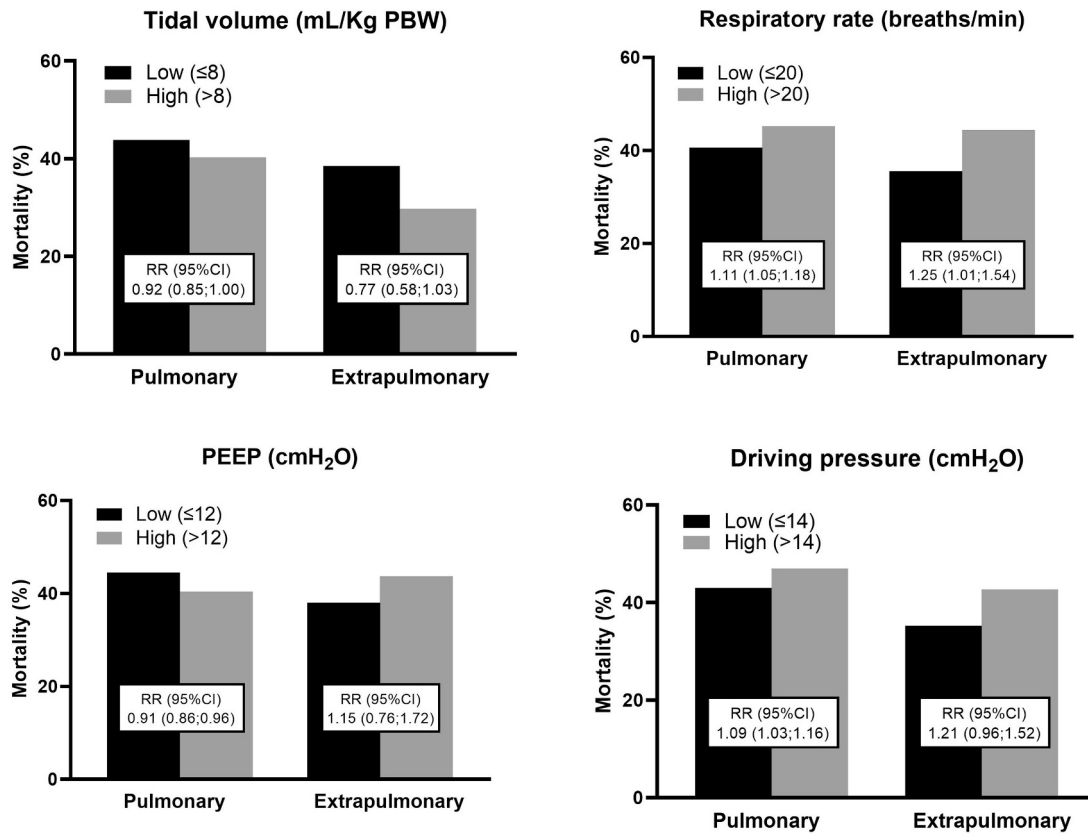


Fig. 2. Unadjusted relative risks of 60-day mortality in pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS patients.

association did not differ between ARDS subphenotypes. (4) V_T was not associated with 60-day mortality in either pulmonary or extrapulmonary ARDS.

Our study has several strengths. First, we used data from six large observational studies on ventilation management and outcomes of invasively ventilated ARDS patients from pulmonary and

extrapulmonary causes. The included studies were conducted in different hospitals across various countries, which increases the generalizability of our findings. Second, the datasets were comprehensive, capturing baseline and demographic data, detailed ventilator settings and variables, as well as key clinical outcomes. Third, we had an analysis plan before opening of the database that was strictly followed.

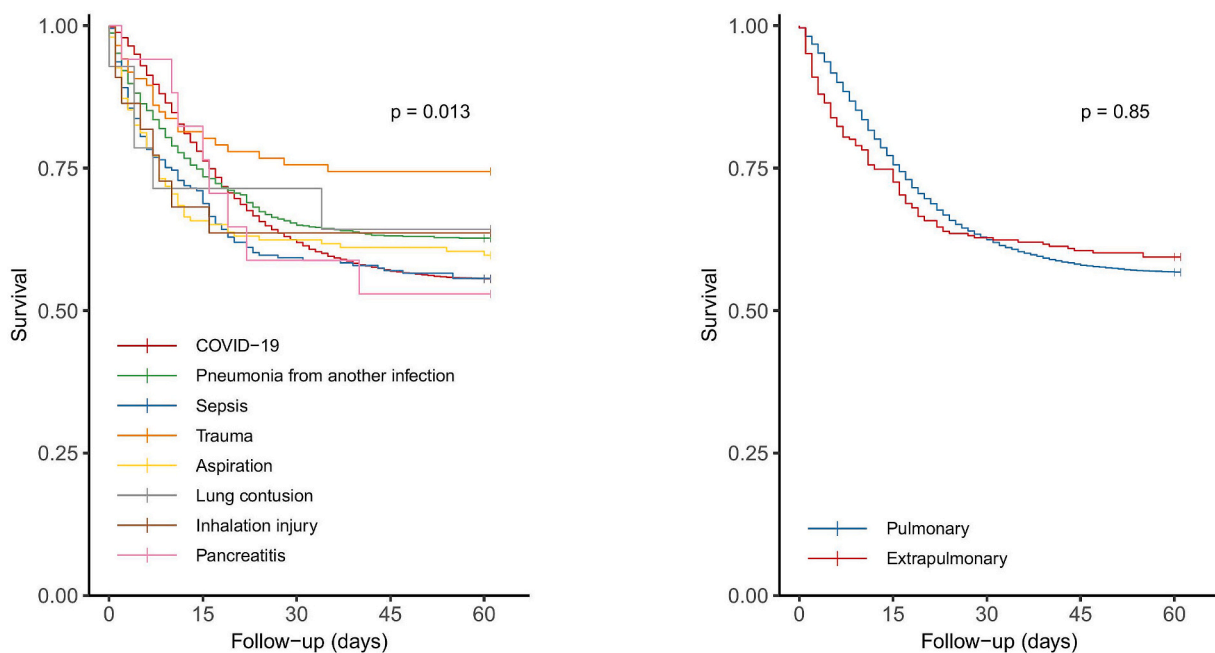


Fig. 3. Kaplan-Meier survival curves for 60-day mortality in ARDS patients.



Fig. 4. Mediation analysis of the relationship between driving pressure ΔP and 60-day mortality.

Consistent with previous studies, we found that high RR and ΔP were associated with worse outcomes in ARDS patients [2,4,12–15]. Costa et al. demonstrated that both ΔP and RR were associated with mortality in ARDS patients and the effect of ΔP was not modified by the RR. Indicating that both the stress during each breath, reflected by ΔP , and how frequently this stress occurs, reflected by the RR, are important variables factors in ARDS outcome [4]. While lung-protective ventilation traditionally involves limiting V_T [22], increasing the RR is often necessary to maintain adequate gas exchange. However, several studies have shown that a high RR increases the MP delivered to the lungs, making them more susceptible to ventilator-induced lung injury [25–27]. In a recent post-hoc analysis of three randomized clinical trials in critically ill patients without ARDS, an increase in MP was mainly driven by a rise in peak inspiratory pressure (Ppeak) and RR. Additionally, both RR and Ppeak were associated with mortality [28]. Prior studies have also demonstrated that MP itself is associated with mortality in ARDS patients [4,29–31]. Since both high ΔP and RR contribute to MP [29], this could explain the observed associations between these ventilatory variables and 60-day mortality in our cohort. Although we did not directly assess MP in this study, the relationship between ΔP , RR, and mortality suggests that optimizing these ventilatory variables aimed at reducing MP may represent a modifiable target in future ARDS ventilation studies. However, in our sensitivity analysis excluding COVID-19 patients, the association between RR and 60-day mortality disappeared. Since patients were not spontaneously breathing in our cohort, this suggests that the RR more likely reflected clinician-set ventilator settings, which were determined according to institutional protocols, V_T targets, and the patient's condition, rather than representing a truly modifiable factor.

To examine whether the association between ΔP and 60-day mortality was driven by PEEP, Pmax, or by the direct effect of ΔP itself, we conducted a post hoc mediation analysis. The results indicated that the mortality associated with ΔP was explained predominantly by its direct effect (57.9%), with Pmax accounting for 37.5% of the total effect and PEEP contributing for 4.7%. This aligns with previous studies demonstrating that ΔP is a stronger predictor of outcome than its individual components [2,31]. Taken together, these findings underscore the importance of ΔP in relation to clinical outcomes.

Our analysis did not find an association between V_T and 60-day mortality. V_T was within the lung-protective range in the majority of both survivors and non-survivors and only a small proportion received higher V_T . This may explain why V_T was not associated with 60-day mortality in our analysis, as most patients were ventilated within the recommended lung-protective ventilation range [22]. However, recent studies indicate that a uniform low V_T strategy may not always be beneficial, particularly in patients with preserved lung compliance [32].

We found that survivors were ventilated with higher PEEP levels than non-survivors, with median values of 12 cmH₂O in survivors and 10 cmH₂O in non-survivors. This is in line with a previous study where high PEEP was associated with better outcomes in COVID-ARDS patients [33]. While the difference in PEEP in our cohort is modest, survivors

were generally healthier and therefore possibly more hemodynamically stable, and might have better able to tolerate higher PEEP levels. Studies have suggested that ARDS subphenotypes may respond differently to PEEP, highlighting the need for an individualized approach in PEEP settings to improve outcomes [34,35].

With regard to differences between pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS, there was an interaction between ΔP and ARDS subphenotype on 60-day mortality, with ΔP showing a stronger association in pulmonary ARDS compared with extrapulmonary ARDS. This finding may be explained by the differing pathophysiology of ARDS subphenotypes. Pulmonary ARDS is typically characterized by more focal, consolidated, and less recruitable lung injury with predominant alveolar epithelial injury and inflammation, making the lungs potentially more susceptible to additional damage from higher airway pressures. In contrast, in extrapulmonary ARDS there is an increase in endothelial dysfunction and systemic inflammation, resulting in a more diffuse injury pattern, potentially making the lung tissue less sensitive to ventilatory pressures and recruitment strategies [8,34,36]. No interaction was found between ARDS subphenotype and RR or V_T . Our findings regarding differences in survival across individual ARDS causes are consistent with previous studies. In particular, causes such as sepsis, and pancreatitis have been associated with higher mortality rates, whereas trauma-related ARDS is associated with more favorable outcomes [5,37]. However, when these risk factors were grouped into pulmonary versus extrapulmonary categories, overall survival did not differ between these two subphenotypes in our cohort. Prior work has also reported no mortality differences between pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS [38]. These findings suggest that such a classification may not adequately reflect the underlying prognostic differences among ARDS risk factors and could overlook clinically relevant heterogeneity [8,39].

Our analysis has several limitations. First, since the database was derived from observational studies, our findings can only imply associations rather than causation. Second, the willingness of certain hospitals in the original studies to share data may have led to selection bias, resulting in the inclusion of ICUs with a specific interest in invasive ventilation and ARDS management. Third, while we classified ventilator-related variables as potentially modifiable, it is important to acknowledge that non-modifiable factors, such as disease severity, also partly influence ventilator settings. Fourth, there is a temporal gap between the cohorts, with the majority of included patients from the COVID-19 pandemic, which may have influenced clinical decisions. Nevertheless, previous studies have shown mortality not to be different between ARDS patients from COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 ARDS [40,41]. Fifth, we used maximum airway pressure in pressure-controlled assist mode to calculate ΔP as a surrogate for the plateau pressure, although this was only done when there was no proof of spontaneous breathing efforts to minimize erroneous measurements. However, we cannot rule out the possibility that some patients with spontaneous breathing were included, which may have led to an underestimation of driving pressure and could affect the ΔP -PEEP interplay. Last, the thresholds used for ventilatory variables were based on previously published studies and may not represent true physiological cut-offs. The relationship between ventilatory variables and outcomes likely follows a continuous scale rather than discrete cut-off values. Consequently, ventilatory variables were included as continuous variables in our multivariate analysis and showed similar results.

In conclusion, the present secondary pooled analysis from six large prospective observational studies on mechanical ventilation, underscores that ΔP is a potentially modifiable factor associated with 60-day mortality in patients with pulmonary and extrapulmonary ARDS. The interaction between ARDS subphenotype ΔP and highlights the importance of a personalized approach in mechanical ventilation. While RR was also associated with mortality in the overall cohort, it should be noted that RR may primarily reflect disease severity and ventilatory demand rather than representing a truly modifiable factor. By optimizing ventilatory variables, ventilation management can be better

tailored to individual patient needs, ultimately improving outcomes in ARDS patients.

Accountability and author declaration

The authors confirm that the manuscript represents valid work, that all authors have contributed to the research and writing, and that they agree to be held accountable for the accuracy and integrity of the entire work.

Author contribution

All authors have approved the final manuscript and are responsible for the integrity and accuracy of the work.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Galina Dorland: Writing – original draft, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Siebe G. Blok:** Writing – original draft. **Pien Swart:** Writing – original draft. **Fleur-Stefanie L.I. M. van der Ven:** Writing – original draft. **M.W. Hollmann:** Writing – original draft, Supervision. **Luciano C. Azevedo:** Writing – original draft. **Giacomo Bellani:** Writing – original draft. **Michela Botta:** Writing – original draft. **Elisa Estenssoro:** Writing – original draft. **Eddy Fan:** Writing – original draft. **Juliana Carvalho Ferreira:** Writing – original draft. **John G. Laffey:** Writing – original draft. **Ignacio Martin-Loeches:** Writing – original draft. **Ana Motos:** Writing – original draft. **Tai Pham:** Writing – original draft. **Oscar Peñuelas:** Writing – original draft. **Antonio Pesenti:** Writing – original draft. **Luigi Pisani:** Writing – original draft. **Ary Serpa Neto:** Writing – original draft. **Marcus J. Schultz:** Writing – original draft, Supervision, Methodology, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Antoni Torres:** Writing – original draft. **Anissa M. Tsonas:** Writing – original draft. **Frederique Paulus:** Writing – original draft. **Sabrina N.T. Hemmes:** Writing – original draft. **David M.P. van Meenen:** Writing – original draft, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest related to this work. The manuscript has not been published previously and is not under consideration elsewhere.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

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