

Liquid Ventilation in Respiratory Care: Physiological Principles, Clinical Applications, and Emerging Engineering Innovations

PRANAV ASHOK GURRAPU¹, SHEETAL MADAVI², AMREESH PAUL³, PARDHASARADHI KAPUSETTI⁴, DIIP SANKA⁵

ABSTRACT

Liquid Ventilation (LV) is a respiratory assistance technique that utilises oxygenated perfluorochemical liquids for pulmonary gas exchange, representing a novel approach compared to conventional gas ventilation. Utilising the high gas solubility, low surface tension, and biologic inertness of perfluorochemicals, it can potentially supplement oxygenation, increase alveolar recruitment, reduce ventilator-induced lung injury, and serve as a vehicle for targeted pulmonary delivery of drugs. Partial and whole LV have shown promising results in preclinical models of respiratory distress in neonates, acute lung injury, and aspiration syndromes, and initial clinical trials in neonates have documented feasibility and physiological benefit. Technical problems hinder large-scale implementation, including the need for specialised ventilator design, precise temperature and volume control of the liquid, and the requirement for complex monitoring equipment. In addition to respiratory therapy, LV will likely have therapeutic hypothermia, pulmonary lavage, and image enhancement applications. Enhanced biomedical engineering, closed-loop control of ventilation, and integration with modern anaesthetic technology can overcome current limitations and yield new horizons for its application in critical illness and perioperative care. The present review combines information regarding physiological mechanisms, clinical and experimental findings, and future directions for LV in anaesthetic and respiratory practice. The current review also highlights the novelty of LV by focusing on innovative physiological mechanisms, under-explored engineering advancements, and emerging clinical applications.

Keywords: Anaesthesia, Artificial respiration, Critical care, Lung diseases, Pulmonary gas exchange, Respiratory distress syndrome

INTRODUCTION

The LV is a new method of respiratory therapy in which the lungs are loaded with perfluorochemical liquids that are oxygenated rather than gas. These liquids have high solubility for respiratory gases, low surface tension, and chemical inertness, making them well-suited for pulmonary use. In contrast to gas ventilation, LV can potentially recruit the alveoli, enhance oxygenation, and reduce ventilator-induced lung injury by eliminating shear stress and pressure trauma [1].

Two primary types of LV have been researched. Partial Liquid Ventilation (PLV) involves the infusion of a perfluorochemical fluid into the lung to achieve functional residual capacity, with continued conventional gas ventilation. In Total Liquid Ventilation (TLV), the lung is filled with liquid, and ventilation is performed using specialised liquid ventilators that propel the liquid in and out of the lung. PLV and TLV have shown promise in preclinical models and certain clinical scenarios, particularly for neonates with neonatal respiratory distress and acute lung injury. Aside from its ventilator application, LV holds promise for the delivery of drugs, lung lavage, imaging intensification, and the induction of therapeutic hypothermia. These novel applications demonstrate the versatility of the technology and its likely utility in numerous aspects of anaesthesiology and critical care. Limitations have hindered the application of ventilator design, long-term safety, and the requirements for controlled clinical trials [2,3].

The present review examines the principles, clinical applications, and potential future of LV, considering its growing role in the art of anaesthesia. It identifies gaps already present in research, engineering advancements, and the likelihood of compatibility with contemporary anaesthetic techniques.

Types of Liquid Ventilation

The LV comes in two general forms, which are distinguished according to the quantity of perfluorochemical liquid employed and the ventilation technique. The two are PLV and TLV. Both are founded on the potential of perfluorochemicals to liquefy considerable quantities of oxygen and carbon dioxide, allowing for productive gas exchange even when lungs have no air space [4].

The PLV is the intentional instillation of perfluorochemical liquid into the lungs, usually to a volume equal to functional residual capacity. After instillation of the liquid, conventional gas ventilation is maintained with conventional mechanical ventilators. The fluid reduces lung elastance, improves alveolar recruitment, and enables more homogeneously distributed ventilation, particularly in injured or atelectatic lung areas. This technique has been extensively researched and is considered more practical for clinical application, particularly in paediatric intensive care and neonatology [5].

The TLV, however, means filling the lungs with perfluorochemical liquid entirely and ventilating them via a liquid ventilator designed to shift the fluid in and out of the lungs. This method completely bypasses the respiratory process and theoretically provides more protection against barotrauma and volutrauma. The technical sophistication, the requirement for specialised machines, and the difficulty in maintaining good gas exchange parameters have restricted it to being only an experimental procedure. Their destiny is to develop technology for ventilators, enhance their understanding of the fluid dynamics of the lung, and design clinical trials properly to assess the safety, efficacy, and utility of their technology in various clinical environments [6,7].

[Table/Fig-1] provides a concise comparison of PLV and TLV, summarising their key differences, advantages, and limitations [4-7].

Aspect	PLV	TLV
Ventilation technique	A perfluorochemical liquid is instilled into the lungs to a volume equal to the functional residual capacity, with conventional gas ventilation maintained thereafter [4]	The lungs are filled with a perfluorochemical liquid, and a liquid ventilator shifts the fluid in and out of the lungs [6,7]
Lung function	Reduces lung elastance, improves alveolar recruitment, and enables more homogeneously distributed ventilation, especially in injured or atelectatic lung areas [5]	Provides more complete protection against barotrauma and volutrauma by eliminating air from the respiratory process [6]
Clinical application	More widely researched and applied, particularly in paediatric intensive care and neonatology [5]	Limited to experimental settings, with few animal studies and no widespread clinical application [6,7]
Technology requirements	It can be performed with conventional mechanical ventilators, with modifications for liquid instillation [5]	Requires specialised liquid ventilators and sophisticated machinery [6,7]
Protection against injury	Offers moderate protection by reducing ventilator-induced lung injury [5]	Provides greater protection against barotrauma and volutrauma [6]
Challenges	Limited by the volume of liquid that can be instilled and conventional ventilator limitations [5]	Technically complex, difficult to maintain effective gas exchange, and not widely applicable due to specialised equipment [6,7]
Future developments	Has promising clinical potential with improvements in ventilator technology and technique [5]	May expand with advancements in liquid ventilator technology and fluid dynamics [6,7]

[Table/Fig-1]: Comparison of PLV and TLV, summarising their key characteristics, benefits, and challenges [4-7].

Mechanisms and Technical Considerations

The physical and chemical principles underlying LV are based on the capacity of perfluorochemical liquids to dissolve massive amounts of oxygen and carbon dioxide. Perfluorochemical liquids are biologically inert, radiopaque, dense, and have low surface tension and thus spread evenly across alveolar surfaces. When administered into the lungs, they lower surface tension, enhance alveolar stability, and allow more uniform gas exchange, especially in diseased or under-ventilated lung areas [8].

Gas exchange in LV happens through diffusion of respiratory gases between alveolar capillaries and the oxygenated perfluorochemical fluid. Since such fluids contain dissolved oxygen and absorb carbon dioxide, they can act as a medium of pulmonary gas exchange, supplementing or replacing air. The process depends on instilled liquid volume, the level of oxygenation of the liquid, and the mode of ventilation [2,9].

The technical application of LV differs sharply depending on the type. PLV can be accommodated by regular mechanical ventilators with slight modification. Ventilator settings must be closely controlled to prevent overdistension, fluid displacement, or airway plugging. Having the liquid onboard alters ventilation mechanics, usually requiring lower tidal volumes and heightened vigilance for inspiratory pressures [5].

The TLV requires sophisticated liquid ventilators to introduce and remove accurate volumes of perfluorochemical at respiratory frequencies. The device must have uniform temperature, oxygenation, and fluid flow to facilitate adequate ventilation. Technical challenges involve controlling the viscosity and density of the liquid, filling and emptying the lungs, and preventing airway occlusion or liquid trapping [4,10].

The LV also requires special monitoring. Typical respiratory parameters, such as tidal volume, airway pressure, and end-tidal carbon dioxide, are often unhelpful in determining the severity of respiratory distress. Continuous arterial blood gas analysis, oxygen saturation, and lung mechanics are essential for guiding therapy and ensuring safety.

Breakthroughs in engineering technology, including sensors, closed-loop feedback, and adaptive ventilator algorithms, are currently being explored to enhance the safety and practicality of LV both clinically and in the research arena. Technical challenges, such as imprecise liquid volume control, unstable temperature regulation, or delayed detection of inadequate gas exchange, can directly lead to hypoxia, hypercapnia, haemodynamic instability, or lung overdistension. Reliable monitoring and rapid-response safety systems are therefore essential to prevent these engineering-related issues from escalating into clinically significant adverse events [11,12].

Clinical Applications

The LV can be used where standard mechanical ventilation is inadequate or dangerous. Its potential to enhance oxygenation, lessen lung trauma, and administer drugs to the alveolar surface makes it an exciting addition to neonatal and adult critical care. The most researched application is in neonatal respiratory distress syndrome, where PLV has been demonstrated to have the potential to improve gas exchange and decrease high-pressure ventilation requirements. Enhancing alveolar recruitment and reducing surface tension could lower the risk of barotrauma and volutrauma to the lungs [2,13].

In neonates, LV has shown promise in improving oxygenation and reducing ventilator-induced lung injury in respiratory distress syndrome; in adults, it has been explored for acute lung injury, aspiration syndromes, and other forms of respiratory distress, with varying levels of success; and in large animal models, both PLV and TLV have been studied to assess physiological responses, refine ventilator strategies, and test additional therapeutic interventions such as therapeutic hypothermia [5,6,14,15].

The LV has been explored as a therapeutic means of lavage in meconium aspiration, alveolar proteinosis, and inhalation injury. The inert and dense characteristics of perfluorochemicals enable them to displace mucus, debris, and inflammatory material from the alveolar space. In addition, interest has been generated in using LV to directly administer drugs to the lungs, such as antibiotics, surfactants, and anti-inflammatory medications, with the potential for increased local effect and decreased systemic exposure. Therapeutic hypothermia is a novel application where LV can rapidly and effectively cool the lungs and systemic circulation. This is investigated in cardiac arrest models and traumatic brain injury to enhance neurological recovery by minimising ischemic damage [16].

Technological Challenges and Engineering Innovations

Several engineering and technological issues that impact feasibility and safety have constrained LV experimentally. While the physiological advantages of perfluorochemical LV are well established, practical application demands strict control over fluid mechanics, heat, gas exchange, and system integration. Therefore, equipment design and development for LV has been a central concern of current research and innovation [17].

One of the biggest challenges is in the physical characteristics of perfluorochemical liquids. The liquids are denser and heavier than air, requiring more force to move in and out of the lungs. Regular gas ventilators are not suitable for such use, especially in TLV, where specific liquid ventilators are required to deliver precise tidal volumes and maintain maximum lung filling. These devices must produce a continuous flow of liquid without causing cavitation, air bubbles, or irregular flow, which can all disrupt gas exchange or injure lung tissue. Temperature control is another technical issue of prime concern. Perfluorochemicals must be heated to body temperature before infusion to prevent thermal trauma and preserve physiological conditions in the lungs. This necessitates incorporating trustworthy heating elements into the ventilator circuit, with constant monitoring to prevent fluctuations. Evaporation control is also essential, as even

a slight decrease in temperature can lead to fluid loss, affecting volume consistency and respiratory efficiency. The specialised equipment used to manufacture LV system gases does create additional financial burdens in comparison to the traditional form of mechanical ventilation, due to both the requirement for high-purity formulating and also to ensure that there will be sufficient amounts of each of these liquids produced for testing/operation; as well those costs include construction of the associated heating components of each component within this class of fluids. The heating and circulation of each of these gases throughout the system requires an energy source for continuous heating and circulation of these fluids, which can result in substantial increases in operational costs for using these types of systems [15,18].

Monitoring and feedback control are also complicating factors. The regular respiratory monitors are ineffective for gas ventilation and fluid monitoring. New sensor technologies must be developed to measure the liquid volume, flow rates, pressure, and gas concentration of the perfluorochemical medium. Some research groups have investigated closed-loop control systems that can automatically adjust parameters based on real-time data as a safety-enhancing mechanism and to minimise the need for continuous manual adjustments. These advanced automation and sensing systems require additional energy input, which adds to both capital expenditure and maintenance overhead, complicating their scalability for routine clinical use. Engineering advancements are also being utilised to enhance compatibility with other types of respiratory therapy. Hybrid devices integrating PLV with high-frequency oscillatory ventilation, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, or nitric oxide therapy are being researched. Multimodal therapy strategies are designed to supplement the therapeutic potential of LV and address its current shortcomings [10,16].

The LV with perfluorochemical liquids carries several potential adverse effects. The high density of the liquids increases the effort required to move them in and out of the lungs, which can lead to uneven ventilation and localised stress on the lungs. Improper control of tidal volumes or lung fill can cause lung injury, barotrauma, or volutrauma. Temperature fluctuations of the infused liquid may result in thermal injury or disruption of normal pulmonary physiology. Complications such as transient hypoxia, changes in blood pressure, slowed heart rate, and impaired circulation have been observed, particularly during TLV. Additionally, the risk of endotracheal tube obstruction, formation of air bubbles, and irregular fluid flow can further compromise gas exchange and patient safety. Energy demand for maintaining precise flow dynamics and temperature control, coupled with the high cost of perfluorochemical fluids and bespoke equipment, challenges the economic feasibility of LV. Careful monitoring, precise ventilator control, and a thorough understanding of fluid dynamics are crucial for minimising these adverse effects and ensuring a safe clinical application [2,10,15,16].

Future Opportunities and Innovations

The future of LV is in developing both the technology and clinical approaches necessary to make it an effective, practical, and widely utilised instrument in respiratory therapy. While its potential has been sufficiently demonstrated in the laboratory, the research remains focused on overcoming the barriers limiting its use in the clinic. As biomedical engineering, critical care guidelines, and the specificity of therapies continue to improve, LV is poised to be transformed from an investigative niche device into a revolutionary respiratory therapy modality. Collaborative partnerships among academic institutions, hospitals, and industry leaders are crucial for accelerating the development of LV systems that meet clinical needs [19].

The most significant future advance is the optimisation of ventilator systems, specifically liquid-based respiratory therapy. The devices must be small, reliable, and capable of precisely controlling flow, temperature, and the perfluorochemical liquid oxygenation process.

The engineering focus is on developing fully closed-loop, fully automatic liquid ventilators that can learn in real-time from patient physiology and changes in lung mechanics. Promising research on the integration of adaptive artificial intelligence and machine learning algorithms is expected to drive real-time adjustments in ventilation settings, enhancing patient outcomes and reducing reliance on manual interventions. Integration with sophisticated artificial intelligence and high-technology monitoring equipment may enable adaptive control, reducing the need for human intervention and enhancing security. There is also interest in hybrid ventilation modalities that integrate the benefits of liquid and gas ventilation. These systems can enable clinicians to transition between modes as needed, providing more flexible and individualised lung support. Hybrid models may be of immense value in high-risk situations like severe acute respiratory distress syndrome, near-drowning, or inhalational injury to provide adequate ventilation with minimal lung trauma [14,20].

One of the prospects is the application of LV as a platform for pulmonary drug delivery and regenerative medicine. It explores the application of perfluorochemicals, which will deliver gene therapies, stem cells, and nanoparticles intended to replace injured lung tissues or modulate the immune system. Several biotech startups and academic labs are currently developing nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems using LV, with promising preclinical results in lung regeneration and immune modulation. This holds promise for curing chronic pulmonary illnesses and acute lung injury with targeted interventions that move away from traditional pharmacological approaches [13,21].

Integration with Emerging Anaesthesia Technology

With the ongoing development of anaesthesia technology, LV has further scope for its incorporation into contemporary perioperative and critical care. The trend in anaesthetic innovation today lies in precision, automation, and lung-protective strategies, all of which complement the fundamental advantages that LV provides. While its initial development has been in research and critical care environments, the increasing complexity of anaesthetic delivery systems, advances in monitoring, and improvements in ventilatory support make it possible to look to its future role in anaesthesiology. Its best possible integration area is applying LV for scenarios where standard gas ventilation is particularly hazardous [10,22,23].

In surgeries where pulmonary function is at risk, such as transplant or thoracic surgery, LV can be used to stabilise alveoli, improve oxygenation, and reduce mechanical lung stress. Its potential to preserve alveolar recruitment with lower peak pressures can complement lung-protective ventilation strategies, which are already a norm in modern anaesthesia practice. With the introduction of closed-loop anaesthetic delivery systems, new possibilities are unleashed. These automated systems, which adjust medication dosing and ventilation parameters according to real-time physiological information, would be modified to regulate the complexities of LV. Anaesthetic workstations could be developed to efficiently support both liquid and gas ventilation by incorporating feedback from sensors that monitor lung compliance, gas exchange, and fluid dynamics, thereby facilitating a smooth transition between liquid and gas ventilation during procedures. The coupling of LV with evolving anaesthesia technology is part of a broader trend towards coordinated, adaptive, and minimally invasive patient care paradigms. With ongoing innovations in monitoring, automation, and departmental coordination, LV can serve as a niche option in certain anaesthetic and perioperative situations [1,3,24].

CONCLUSION(S)

The LV is an intriguing yet experimental form of respiratory therapy that leverages the unique physical and chemical properties of

perfluorochemical liquids. Its capacity to improve oxygenation, alveolar recruitment, and inhibit ventilator-induced injury, particularly in neonatology, has been well demonstrated. Although current limitations, such as the requirement for specialised machinery, technological advancements, and limited clinician familiarity, have made routine usage impossible, recent innovations in ventilator design, monitoring devices, and automation are progressively reducing these barriers. Its multiple applications, such as drug delivery, lung lavage, and therapeutic hypothermia, further suggest extrusion applications beyond conventional ventilation. Through continued multidisciplinary research, intense clinical trials, and engineering advancements, LV can emerge as a valuable adjunct to critical care and anaesthetic management, broadening the scope of strategies for treating severe respiratory diseases.

REFERENCES

- [1] Tawfic QA, Kausalya R. Liquid ventilation. *Oman Med J*. 2011;26(1):04-09. Doi: 10.5001/omj.2011.02.
- [2] Sarkar S, Paswan A, Prakas S. Liquid ventilation. *Anesth Essays Res*. 2014;8(3):277-82. Doi: 10.4103/0259-1162.143109.
- [3] Kaisers U, Kelly KP, Busch T. Liquid ventilation. *Br J Anaesth*. 2003;91(1):143-51. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1093/bja/aeg147>.
- [4] Kohlhauser M, Boissady E, Lidouren F, De Rochefort L, Nadeau M, Rambaud J, et al. A new paradigm for lung-conservative total liquid ventilation. *EBioMedicine*. 2020;52:102365.
- [5] Galvin IM, Steel A, Pinto R, Ferguson ND, Davies MW. Partial liquid ventilation for preventing death and morbidity in adults with acute lung injury and acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2013;2013(12):CD003707.
- [6] Pohlmann JR, Brant DO, Daul MA, Reoma JL, Kim AC, Osterholzer KR, et al. Total liquid ventilation provides superior respiratory support to conventional mechanical ventilation in a large animal model of severe respiratory failure. *ASAIO J*. 2011;57(1):01-08.
- [7] Wolfson MR, Hirschl RB, Jackson JC, Gauvin F, Foley DS, Lamm WJE, et al. Multicenter comparative study of conventional mechanical gas ventilation to tidal liquid ventilation in oleic acid injured sheep. *ASAIO J*. 2008;54(3):256-69.
- [8] Li G, Xu X, Zuo YY. Biophysical function of pulmonary surfactant in liquid ventilation. *Biophys J*. 2023;122(15):3099-107.
- [9] Degraeuwe PLJ. Perfluorocarbon liquid ventilation [Internet]. Maastricht University; 2001 [cited 2025 Aug 14]. Available from: <https://cris.maastrichtuniversity.nl/en/publications/932a3391-33e2-4db0-ac7b-9f10d58c53d9>.
- [10] Greenspan JS, Wolfson MR, Shaffer TH. Liquid ventilation. *Semin Perinatol*. 2000;24(6):396-405.
- [11] Larrabe JL, Alvarez FJ, Casla JA ; Gomez MA, Cuesta EG, Valls-i-Soler A, Alfonso LF, Arnaiz A, et al. Development of a time-cycled volume-controlled pressure-limited respirator and lung mechanics system for total liquid ventilation. *IEEE Trans Biomed Eng*. 2001;48(10):1134-44.
- [12] Mazzoni M, Nugent L, Klein D, Hoffman J, Sekins KM, Flaim SF. Dose monitoring in partial liquid ventilation by infrared measurement of expired perfluorochemicals. *Biomed Instrum Technol*. 1999;33(4):356-64.
- [13] Weis CM, Wolfson MR, Shaffer TH. Liquid-assisted ventilation: Physiology and clinical application. *Ann Med*. 1997;29(6):509-17.
- [14] Papo MC, Paczan PR, Fuhrman BP, Steinhorn DM, Hernan LJ, Leach CL, et al. Perfluorocarbon-associated gas exchange improves oxygenation, lung mechanics, and survival in a model of adult respiratory distress syndrome. *Crit Care Med*. 1996;24(3):466-74.
- [15] Chappell SE, Wolfson MR, Shaffer TH. A comparison of surfactant delivery with conventional mechanical ventilation and partial liquid ventilation in meconium aspiration injury. *Respir Med*. 2001;95(7):612-17.
- [16] Wolfson MR, Shaffer TH. Liquid-assisted ventilation: From concept to clinical application. *Semin Neonatol*. 1997;2(2):115-27.
- [17] Wolfson MR, Shaffer TH. Pulmonary applications of perfluorochemical liquids: Ventilation and beyond. *Paediatr Respir Rev*. 2005;6(2):117-27.
- [18] Manaligod JM, Bendel-Stenzel EM, Meyers PA, Bing DR, Connett JE, Mammel MC. Variations in end-expiratory pressure during partial liquid ventilation. *Chest*. 2000;117(1):184-90.
- [19] Bock S, Rades T, Rantanen J, Scherließ R. Additive manufacturing in respiratory sciences – Current applications and future prospects. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev*. 2022;186:114341.
- [20] Hirschl RB, Merz SI, Montoya JP, Parent A, Wolfson MR, Shaffer TH, et al. Development and application of a simplified liquid ventilator. *Crit Care Med*. 1995;23(1):157-63.
- [21] Castro CI, Briceno JC. Perfluorocarbon-based oxygen carriers: Review of products and trials. *Artif Organs*. 2010;34(8):622-34.
- [22] Kilpatrick B, Slinger P. Lung protective strategies in anaesthesia. *Br J Anaesth*. 2010;105:1108-1116.
- [23] Seger C, Cannesson M. Recent advances in the technology of anaesthesia. *F1000Research*. 2020;9:375.
- [24] McGain F, Muret J, Lawson C, Sherman JD. Environmental sustainability in anaesthesia and critical care. *Br J Anaesth*. 2020;125(5):680-92.

PARTICULARS OF CONTRIBUTORS:

1. Junior Resident, Department of Anaesthesia, Jawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Datta Meghe Institution of Higher Education and Research, Wardha, Sawangi, Maharashtra, India.
2. Professor, Department of Anaesthesia, Jawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Datta Meghe Institution of Higher Education and Research, Wardha, Sawangi, Maharashtra, India.
3. Senior Resident, Department of Anaesthesia, Jawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Datta Meghe Institution of Higher Education and Research, Wardha, Sawangi, Maharashtra, India.
4. Junior Resident, Department of Anaesthesia, Jawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Datta Meghe Institution of Higher Education and Research, Wardha, Sawangi, Maharashtra, India.
5. Junior Resident, Department of Anaesthesia, Jawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Datta Meghe Institution of Higher Education and Research, Wardha, Sawangi, Maharashtra, India.

NAME, ADDRESS, E-MAIL ID OF THE CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:

Pranav Ashok Gurrupu,
Resident Hostel, Jawaharlal Nehru Medical College, Wardha, Sawangi,
Maharashtra, India.
E-mail: pranavgurrupu@gmail.com

PLAGIARISM CHECKING METHODS:

- Plagiarism X-checker: Aug 25, 2025
- Manual Googling: Jan 15, 2026
- iThenticate Software: Jan 17, 2026 (1%)

ETYMOLOGY: Author Origin

EMENDATIONS: 6

AUTHOR DECLARATION:

- Financial or Other Competing Interests: None
- Was informed consent obtained from the subjects involved in the study? NA
- For any images presented appropriate consent has been obtained from the subjects. NA

Date of Submission: **Aug 21, 2025**

Date of Peer Review: **Nov 17, 2025**

Date of Acceptance: **Jan 19, 2026**

Date of Publishing: **Jun 01, 2026**