



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Small Viral Particle Aerosol Transmission of SARS-CoV-2, Influenza A and Measles: Dual Pandemics, Outbreaks and Public Health Protection with the Use of Face Shields and Face Coverings

Cameron Y S Lee, DMD, MD, PHD, MPH, MSED^{1,2*}

¹Private Practice in Oral, Maxillofacial and Reconstructive Surgery, Aiea, Hawaii, USA

²Department of Periodontology/Oral Implantology, Kornberg School of Dentistry, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA, USA

*Corresponding authors: Cameron Y S Lee, DMD, MD, PHD, MPH, MSED, Clinical Professor of Surgery, Department of Periodontology/Oral Implantology, Kornberg School of Dentistry, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA 19140, Aiea, Hawaii 96701, USA



Abstract

As the Covid-19 pandemic (SARS-CoV-2) continues to spread globally, the influenza virus circulates in communities capable of causing significant morbidity and mortality. Further, measles outbreaks are common events as well and may trail right behind the coronavirus that causes Covid-19 and the influenza virus. Recent aerosol studies have now demonstrated that respiratory pathogens less than 5 micrometers are able to be transmitted from human-to-human capable of causing great morbidity and mortality than ever experienced with a single pandemic. Healthcare systems and communities must be prepared to respond to all three infectious respiratory viruses that could inflict much greater illness and death than ever experienced with a single disease. This paper discusses the viruses, their disease burden to the community, and the recommendation on the routine use of face shields with face coverings (masks) to protect individuals from acquiring the viruses or spreading them into the community.

Keywords

SARS-CoV-2, Covid-19, Influenza virus, Measles virus, Aerosol transmission, Small particle (< 5 micrometers), Respiratory droplets and aerosols, Face shields, Face coverings (masks)

Introduction

With a possible second wave of SARS-CoV-2 that causes Covid-19 or sustained transmission this Fall and

Winter, dual pandemics with seasonal influenza may occur simultaneously. Further, outbreaks of measles cases are common during the Winter months from global travel. Such a scenario is unimaginable as the influenza and measles viruses can cause great morbidity and mortality independent of each other. Many questions remain unanswered about how severe the presence of the influenza (and measles) virus will impact the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. But one thing is certain, vaccination of both the influenza and measles viruses will decrease the burden of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Healthcare systems and communities in the United States must be prepared to respond to all three infectious respiratory viruses that could inflict much greater illness and death than ever experienced with a single epidemic. This paper reviews the three viruses and their burden of disease to the community via respiratory droplets and small particle aerosol transmission (Table 1). Because of the infectiousness of each viral disease, the author recommends the use of face shields with face coverings to mitigate viral respiratory disease transmission. This paper will not discuss testing for the coronavirus, or the use of other non-pharmaceutical intervention measures as many papers have already been published in detail about these two issues.



Citation: Lee CYS (2020) Small Viral Particle Aerosol Transmission of SARS-CoV-2, Influenza A and Measles: Dual Pandemics, Outbreaks and Public Health Protection with the Use of Face Shields and Face Coverings. J Infect Dis Epidemiol 6:179. doi.org/10.23937/2474-3658/1510179

Accepted: November 25, 2020; **Published:** November 27, 2020

Copyright: © 2020 Lee CYS. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Table 1: Virus Characteristics.

Characteristics	Covid-19	Influenza A	Measles
Transmission Route	Respiratory Fomites Oral-Fecal	Respiratory Fomites Oral-Fecal	Respiratory
Level of Infectivity	Very contagious	Less contagious	Severly contagious
Incubation Period	2-14 days (median 5.1 days)	1-4 days (median 2 days)	10 days to onset of fever; 14 days to onset of rash
Risk Factors	Advanced age, chronic heart, lung, liver disease; immunocompromised; pregnancy; ethnicity; poverty	Risk factors similar to Covid-19	Malnutrition, vitamin A deficiency,
Clinical Signs & Symptoms	Fever, cough, chills, myalgia, fatigue, shortness of breath, loss of taste, smell, diarrhea	Fever, cough, chills, myalgia sore throat, nasal congestion	Generalized maculopapular skin rash, fever, cough, rhinitis, conjunctivitis, Koplik spots on mucosa of cheeks otitis media
Onset of Clinical Symptoms	Symptoms peak during 2 nd to 3 rd week of disease	Symptoms peak during 3 rd to 7 th day of illness	Prodromal phase 2-4 days of fever. Rash develops 2-4 days after fever. Koplik spots appear 1-2 days before onset of rash
Reproductive Number	2 to 4	1.5 to 2	9 to 18
Case Fatality Rate	0.25% to 3.0%	0.10%	< 0.01% to > 5% > 5%, may increase to 20-30% in refugees
Diagnostics	PCR testing, serologic testing	PCR testing	Detection of IgM antibodies, PCR testing
Antiviral Drugs	Nucleoside analog (Remdesivir)	Neuraminidase inhibitors, endonuclease inhibitors, M2 channel blockers	None
Vaccine	Yes	Yes	None

Infectious Small Particle Aerosol Transmission

It has always been questionable that viral transmission causing respiratory infections is from respiratory droplets less than 5 micrometers in size. However, it has recently been demonstrated that the coronavirus can be spread not only by respiratory droplets (> 5 micrometers) that fall to the ground by the forces of gravity within 3-6 feet of the individual, but also by aerosol (< 5 micrometers) and fomite transmission [1,2]. Moreover, the coronavirus can remain viable and infectious in aerosols for hours and on different surface tops for days [3].

Infectious aerosols are pathogens suspended in air and because of their small size and the ability to remain suspended in air for hours they are capable of colonizing and infecting the lower respiratory tract of the lungs. For SARS-CoV-2 to become infectious and cause acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), it must invade the lower lung fields as it has been associated with a cytokine storm syndrome [4-6].

Normal breathing, sneezing and coughing consist of mucous containing salivary droplets contained in a multiphase turbulent gas cloud (puff) that traps and transports clusters of pathogenic respiratory droplets that can travel up to 27 feet in the air [7-9]. Respiratory droplets that remain within the cloud will evaporate producing residues or droplet nuclei (aerosol particles <

5 micrometers) suspended in air for many hours that are able to mix with airflow patterns of ventilation or climate control systems. As the turbulent gas cloud can remain in the air for hours, and air sampling has detected both coronavirus and influenza RNA particles, the use of face coverings and face shields are recommended for source control (decreasing the spread of infectious pathogens) and protecting the user (preventing the spread to others nearby) [1,10,11].

Exhalation breath and cough studies using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing to evaluate viral RNA genetic material consistently demonstrated viral particles less than 5 micrometers in size that included the influenza virus, human rhinovirus and respiratory syncytial virus. Bacteria were also detected with PCR testing of breathes during exhalation and included *E. coli*, *H. influenzae*, *P. aeruginosa*, *S. aureus*, and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* [12-16].

Although the bacteria that causes tuberculosis was not detected in exhaled breath samples, it was detected in two face masks samples. In a study consisting of 78 patients, *M. tuberculosis* was detected in 86% of face mask samples compared to sputum samples [17]. Respiratory viruses and bacteria detected during exhalation and coughing may explain why asymptomatic individuals are infectious and capable of airborne viral transmission and why the author of this paper recommends the

universal use of face shields with face coverings (masks) when out in the community [18].

Respiratory viruses have also been detected in hospital room air samples [19,20]. Using PCR testing, small viral particles less than 4.7 micrometers in size such as varicella-zoster virus, influenza virus and measles virus were detected, including the bacteria that causes tuberculosis, *M. tuberculosis* [21,22]. Such infectious aerosols are highly contagious and the possibility of airborne transmission in closed rooms with people during various community functions is possible. Very little data is available for the 2003 SARS-CoV-1 pandemic regarding air sampling studies [23,24]. However, air sampling in Toronto by PCR testing for viral RNA genetic material discovered SARS-CoV-2 that is the etiology for Covid-19. Such air sampling studies has also been detected in hospitals in China and the United States [1,3,25].

Asymptomatic Patient

There is very little information regarding the infectiousness of asymptomatic patients. In a retrospective study of 303 patients, Lee, et al. using PCR testing compared viral load of both asymptomatic and symptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infected patients in a community treatment center [26]. Evaluating cycle thresholds, they concluded that the viral load of asymptomatic patients (80.9%) was similar to symptomatic patients. With high viral load, viral shedding may be prolonged which suggest that the asymptomatic patient could be a super spreader for the coronavirus.

In a study by Zou and colleagues [2], they also reported that viral load in asymptomatic patients infected with the coronavirus was as high as infected symptomatic patients. It was also shown that viral shedding was detectable in sputum samples in SARS-CoV-2 infected patients that were symptom-free [27]. Based on these studies, asymptomatic individuals that circulate in the community have the potential to act as stealth coronavirus super-spreaders. To mitigate potential viral transmission from this cohort of infectious individuals will require isolation of these individuals and quarantine of all others who came into contact with them.

Disease Transmission

Mitigating the transmission of any infectious disease that may progress to a pandemic requires an understanding of the potential disease transmission of the pathogen [28-30]. The basic reproductive number (R_0) is an important epidemiological parameter that will allow clinicians and public health authorities to understand the epidemiological characteristics of a pandemic [31,32]. The reproductive number (R_0) is the average number of secondary cases produced by an infectious case in a susceptible population without intervention [33]. Calculating the R_0 is a very important epidemiologic metric as it allows a comparison between infectious diseases regarding the ability to be spread in a population.

An R_0 greater than 1 represents a disease that will be difficult to slow down and will spread rapidly in the community. A R_0 of less than 1 will not progress to a pandemic and will decay. The median R_0 of influenza has been reported to be between 1.5 to 2 and is not very contagious compared to measles, which has an estimated R_0 of 9 to 18 and is thus, extremely contagious. The R_0 of SARS-CoV-1 was approximately 1.7 to 1.9, while it is estimated that the R_0 of Covid-19 is between 2 and 4, with a median of 2.79 [29,30,34]. Guan et al. estimates that a R_0 between 2 and 3 correlates to a high pandemic potential where each infected individual can spread the virus to two or three other individuals [35].

Disease Burden and Treatment

Several vaccines are awaiting approval from the Food and Drug Administration in the management of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. However, the experimental intravenous antiviral drug, remdesivir received Emergency Use Authorization to treat patients hospitalized with severe coronavirus infection from the Food and Drug Administration (FDA, 2020 May 1). As of this writing, there have been three randomized clinical trials (RCTs) that compared a 10-day course of remdesivir. Reported results differed by each study [36-38]. Spinner and colleagues [38] also randomized a cohort to a 5-day course of remdesivir. Patients in the 5-day clinical course of remdesivir had a significant improvement in clinical outcome compared to patients receiving standard supportive care.

Several influenza viruses have caused pandemics in the 20th century (1957 H2N2 Asian flu; 1968 H3N2 Hong Kong flu; and 2009 H1N1 swine flu). But all pandemics are measured against the H1N1 Spanish influenza pandemic of 1918-1919. Over 500 million individuals were infected, and 50-100 million people killed around the globe due to sustained community spread [39-41]. It is estimated that 675,000 deaths occurred in the United States. Mortality was highest in young adults, aged 24-40 years possibly due to cytokine storm syndrome [4].

Avian influenza is a global threat to humans as its virulence and ability to mutate as a likely virulent pathogen has the potential for great morbidity and mortality. Humans are immunologically naïve to these strains (H5N1 and H7N9) that have the potential to undergo antigenic shifts or mutate and cause a pandemic [42,43]. In 2013, the H7N9 strain from infected poultry caused severe respiratory infections in humans in eastern China and is a special concern to public health as having the greatest potential to cause a pandemic [44].

The highly variable genetic material due to antigenic drift of the genes that encode for the H and N antigens on the surface of the virus leads to mutations that results in outbreaks of seasonal influenza [45]. But, it is antigenic shifts that may arise from the reassortment of two different viruses that infect the identical host cre-

ating a novel influenza strain that leads to a pandemic. Human-to-human viral transmission occurs without the ability to create immunity and a pandemic arises as there is no vaccine to mitigate viral transmission [40,46].

In 2010, 12,000 to 61,000 deaths were reported in the United States [47]. In 2018-2019, 35 million influenza cases were reported resulting in 490,600 hospital admissions and 34,200 deaths in the United States [48]. Annual vaccination is the most important strategy in the prevention of contracting the influenza virus. Vaccination usually starts in August and continues through the month of January and later as the influenza virus is contagious. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention recommends that individuals 6 months and older get vaccinated for the upcoming influenza season. Although all 50 states require childhood vaccinations as a condition of attending school, adult vaccination is not required. Vaccination coverage will decrease hospitalizations and deaths during the influenza season while Covid-19 continues to circulate in communities across the United States [49]. Vaccination can decrease the risk of influenza-related illness 40-60% when the vaccine is well-matched to the influenza A virus [50].

Differentiating between Covid-19 and influenza infection is extremely important. Patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 and mistakenly believe they are suffering from the influenza virus may not place themselves in isolation to prevent viral transmission in the community [47-49]. As symptoms for both viral diseases are similar, testing for SARS-CoV-2 and influenza will be important. For patients infected with the influenza virus, treatment is available. There are four antiviral medications in the United States for treatment and chemoprophylaxis of the influenza virus: oseltamivir phosphate (Tamiflu); zanamivir (Relenza); peramivir (Rapivab) and baloxavir marboxil (Xofluz) [50].

Although measles was declared eliminated in the United States in 2000, measles remains endemic in many parts of the world [51]. Measles is a recognizable and highly contagious disease that causes a febrile illness typically observed in young children [52]. It is a single-stranded RNA virus that is easily transmitted by inhalation of respiratory droplets and aerosols that can float in the air for hours [53,54]. The virus is also transmitted by direct surface contact [55].

Measles outbreaks usually occur during the Winter and Spring months facilitated by closed environments such as homes, health care facilities and especially socializing among students at school [56]. Globally, it is estimated that 7 million cases of measles are diagnosed annually [57]. In 2017, there were 109,000 deaths world-wide from the measles virus [55,57]. Unvaccinated people have a 90% chance of becoming infected when exposed to a measles infected carrier. With a basic reproduction number (R_0) of 9 to 18, each case

of measles has the potential to spread to 9 to 18 other people in an unvaccinated and susceptible population [55,58]. Therefore, a single case of measles could result in a large outbreak should the virus enter a community where vaccination coverage is below to establish herd immunity [59]. In one school in New York City, an unvaccinated student with measles transmitted the measles virus to 25 other students. Such super-spreading event resulted in measles being transmitted beyond the school into the community.

Periodic measles outbreaks are a constant threat to the United States due to travel-related international importation [57,60]. In New York City, importation of measles occurs on a regular basis due to global air travel from Europe [61]. The most recent outbreak in New York City occurred in 2018 and was the largest measles outbreak in the United States since 1992 [59,62]. From January 1 to April 26, 2019, 704 cases of measles were reported in 22 states [60]. The median patient age was 5 years (1-year to 18.5 years). Countries of importation included the Philippines, Ukraine, Israel, Thailand, Vietnam, Germany, Russian, United Kingdom and India.

Measles and deaths from this contagious virus can be prevented with vaccination to obtain herd immunity in the community. Before the introduction of the measles vaccine in 1963, over 30 million cases and greater than 2 million deaths occurred annually [63]. Since 2000, measles vaccination has prevented over 21 million deaths globally [57]. Measles vaccination is often combined with live attenuated vaccines containing rubella and mumps (MMR) that will provide life-long immunity and up to 97% herd immunity. Measles elimination from the population requires two doses of the vaccine at 12 to 15 months and 4 to 6 years of age [51,52,55].

To interrupt measles transmission does not require immunity in all individuals in the community [64]. It is estimated that 89-94% of the population needs to be immunized or exposed and recovered from measles to obtain herd immunity (the percent population needed to stop measles transmission) [52,55,57,59]. The vaccine is also recommended prophylactically to people who have not had the vaccine and exposed to the virus within 72 hours of exposure.

Face Coverings (Masks) and Face Shields

There is a paucity of evidence on the efficiency of various cloth masks and their ability to filtrate particles of various sizes to protect the public from respiratory viruses, including Covid-19 [65,66]. The limited data of evidenced based science has created controversy and disagreement among public health policy administrators regarding the universal wearing of face coverings. The confusion was further sparked by the World Health Organization (WHO) recommending against the wearing of face coverings because of the lack of evidence of protection against the coronavirus [67,68]. Cloth masks

have been shown to be less effective than medical masks used by healthcare personnel in the prevention of transmitting and acquiring respiratory viruses and other microbial pathogens [69]. Moreover, poor-fitting masks due to gaps between the face and masks severely affects the efficiency of protection for the user.

The Center for Disease Control and Prevention recommends the use of face coverings when out in public for source control, as speaking and coughing results in a combination of both respiratory droplets and aerosols of all sizes [70]. Respiratory secretions are capable of traveling 27 feet and remain suspended in air transmitting respiratory infections to others [8,71]. Other respiratory viruses have also been shown to remain suspended in air for hours after sneezing and coughing, including the influenza and measles virus [72].

Although cloth masks are less effective than medical masks for preventing communicable respiratory diseases, in an in-vitro study cloth masks demonstrated the ability to provide some filtration protection of aerosol particles less than 5 micrometers in size [69]. The policy of universal masking in a health care system was associated with a constant decline in the number of reported Covid-19 positive tests [73]. Face coverings have been shown to reduce the detection of influenza virus RNA in respiratory droplets and SARS-CoV-2 RNA aerosols [74]. Recently, Wang, et al. demonstrated that universal masking in both healthcare personnel and patients can reduce coronavirus transmission [73].

Respiratory aerosols that contain viral particles less than 5 micrometers in size are the primary source of disease transmission in respiratory infections [1,75,76]. As the coronavirus sheds at high concentrations from the nasal cavity before the onset of symptoms, asymptomatic or presymptomatic individuals could be potential super-spreaders of the stealth coronavirus as they are indistinguishable from healthy individuals in the community [70]. It has also been demonstrated that the coronavirus could be detected on the outer surface of both surgical and cotton face masks for up to 7 days increasing the risk of viral infection to others [77,78]. Masking to cover the oral cavity and nose may provide protection from inhaling any pathogenic microbes and source control to protect other people from exposure to infectious microbes expelled during respiration [1,76].

As a result of these recent findings regarding small particle aerosol respiratory transmission, the author recommends the simultaneous use of plastic face shields with other personal protective equipment (PPE) to reduce viral transmission in the community. In a study of community health workers assigned to counsel asymptomatic individuals exposed to SARS-CoV-2 infected family members, the authors concluded that the use of face shields resulted in protection of viral transmission [79]. Implementing face shields with tra-

ditional non-pharmaceutical intervention measures and PPE such as face masks, gloves, shoe covers with good hand washing found no SARS-CoV-2 infections among community health workers based on self-reported symptoms and weekly polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing. Use of a face shield may change the trajectory of viral transmission around the face shield instead of directly to the face. Such additional protective barrier effectively reduced the R_0 to less than 1.

In a simulation study by Lindsley et al. [80] the use of face shields was able to decrease the amount of inhalation exposure of the influenza virus by 96% when coughing 18 inches away. The protective effect of face shields even after 30 minutes was evident as 80% of the virus was prevented from contacting the user. At physical distancing of 6 feet, face shields reduced viral exposure by 92%. This study also demonstrated the importance of physical distancing in preventing viral transmission.

Conclusion

The potential of a pandemic developing depends on the virulence of the virus and its transmissibility in the community. Individuals infected with any of the three viruses presented in this paper are extremely contagious and can release a high viral load when talking, sneezing and coughing. It is now established that small viral aerosol particles 5 micrometers or less in size can remain suspended in air for several hours and inhaled effectively reaching the lungs causing severe illness and potentially death. Therefore, the author recommends the universal use of face shields and face coverings with other personal protective equipment to reduce viral transmission and provide protection for all individuals.

References

1. van Doremalen N, Bushmaker T, Morris DH, Holbrook MG, Gamble A, et al. (2020) Aerosol and surface stability of SARS-Cov-2 as compared with SARS-Cov-1. *N Engl J Med* 382: 1564-1567.
2. Zou L, Ruan F, Huang M, Liang L, Huang H, et al. (2020) SARS-CoV-2 viral load in upper respiratory specimens of infected patients. *N Engl J Med* 382: 1177-1179.
3. Liu Y, Ning Z, Chen Y, Guo M, Liu Y, et al. (2020) Aerodynamic analysis of SARS-CoV-2 in two Wuhan hospitals. *Nature* 582: 557-560.
4. Mehta P, McAuley DF, Brown M, Sanchez E, Tattersall RS, et al. (2020) COVID-19: Consider cytokine storm syndromes and immunosuppression. *Lancet* 395: 1033-1034.
5. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, Ren L, Zhao J, et al. (2020) Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. *Lancet* 395: 497-506.
6. Zhu N, Zhang D, Wang W, Li X, Yang B, et al. (2020) A novel coronavirus from patients with pneumonia in China, 2019. *N Engl J Med* 382: 727-733.
7. Bourouiba L, Dehandshoewercker E, Bush JWM (2014) Violent respiratory events: On coughing and sneezing. *J Fluid Mech* 745: 537-563.
8. Bourouiba L (2020) Turbulent gas clouds and respiratory

- pathogen emissions: Potential implications for reducing transmission of COVID-19. *JAMA* 323: 1837-1838.
9. Scharfman BE, Techet AH, Bush JWM, Bourouiba L (2016) Visualization of sneeze ejecta: Steps of fluid fragmentation leading to respiratory droplets. *Exp Fluids* 57: 24.
 10. Nardell EA, Nathavitharana RR (2020) Airborne spread of SARS-CoV-2 and a potential role for air disinfection. *JAMA* 324: 141-142.
 11. Brainard JS, Jones N, Lake I, Hooper L, Hunter P (2020) Facemasks and similar barriers to prevent respiratory illness such as COVID-19: A rapid systematic review. *MedRxiv*.
 12. St George K, Fuschino ME, Mokhiber K, Triner W, Spivack SD, et al. (2010) Exhaled breath condensate appears to be a unsuitable specimen type for the detection of influenza viruses with nucleic acid-based methods. *J Virol Methods* 163: 144-146.
 13. Turchiarelli V, Schinkel J, Molenkamp R, Barbaro MPF, Carpagnano GE, et al. (2011) Repeated virus identification in the airways of patients with mild and severe asthma during prospective follow-up. *Allergy* 66: 1099-1106.
 14. Carpagnano GE, Lacedonia D, Natalicchio MI, Cotugno G, Zoppo L, et al. (2018) Viral colonization in exhaled breath condensate of lung cancer patients: Possible role of EBV and CMV. *Clin Respir J* 12: 418-424.
 15. Costa C, Bucca C, Bergallo M, Solidoro P, Rolla G, et al. (2011) Unsuitability of exhaled breath condensate for the detection of herpesviruses DNA in the respiratory tract. *J Virol Methods* 173: 384-386.
 16. Zheng Y, Chen H, Yao M, Li X (2018) Bacterial pathogens were detected from human exhaled breath using a novel protocol. *J Aerosol Science* 117: 224-234.
 17. Williams CM, Abdulwhhab M, Birring SS, Kock ED, Garton NJ, et al. (2020) Exhaled Mycobacterium tuberculosis output and detection of subclinical disease by face-mask sampling: prospective observational studies. *Lancet Infect Dis* 20: 607-717.
 18. Rothe C, Schunk M, Sothmann P, Bretzel G, Froeschl G, et al. (2020) Transmission of 2019-nCoV infection from an asymptomatic contact in Germany. *N Engl J Med* 382: 970-971.
 19. Sawyer MH, Chamberlin CJ, Wu YN, Aintablian N, Wallace MR, et al. (1994) Detection of varicella-zoster virus DNA in air samples from hospital rooms. *J Infect Dis* 169: 91-94.
 20. Bischoff WE, McNall RJ, Blevins MW, Turner J, Lopareva EN, et al. (2016) Detection of measles virus RNA in air and surface specimens in a hospital setting. *J Infect Dis* 213: 600-603.
 21. Mastorides SM, Oechler RL, Greene JN, Sinnott JT, Sandin RL (1997) Detection of airborne Mycobacterium tuberculosis by air filtration and polymerase chain reaction. *Clin Infect Dis* 25: 756-757.
 22. Zhang B, Wang Z, Tong X (1997) Methods for detecting mycobacterium tuberculosis in the air wards for tuberculosis patients. *Zhonghua Jie He He Hu Xi Za Zhi* 20: 101-103.
 23. Yu IT, Li Y, Wong TW, Tam W, Chan AT, et al. (2004) Evidence of airborne transmission of the severe acute respiratory syndrome virus. *N Engl J Med* 350: 1731-1739.
 24. Booth TF, Kournikakis B, Bastien N, Ho J, Kobasa D, et al. (2005) Detection of airborne severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) coronavirus and environmental contamination in SARS outbreak units. *J Infect Dis* 191: 1472-1477.
 25. Santarpia JL, Rivera DN, Herrera V, Morwitzer MJ, Creager H, et al. (2020) Aerosol and surface transmission potential of SARS-CoV-2. *medRxiv*.
 26. Lee S, Kim T, Lee E, Lee C, Kim H, et al. (2020) Clinical course and molecular viral shedding among asymptomatic and symptomatic patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection in a community treatment center in the Republic of Korea. *JAMA Intern Med* 180: 1-6.
 27. Wolfel R, Corman VM, Guggemos W, Seilmaier M, Zange S, et al. (2020) Virological assessment of hospitalized patients with COVID-19. *Nature* 581: 465-469.
 28. Lipsitch M, Cohen T, Cooper B, Robins JM, Ma S, et al. (2003) Transmission dynamics and control of severe acute respiratory syndrome. *Science* 300: 1966-1970.
 29. Liu Y, Gayle AA, Wilder-Smith A, Rocklöv J (2020) The reproductive number of COVID-19 is higher compared to SARS coronavirus. *J Trav Med* 27: taaa021.
 30. Wu JT, Leung K, Leung GM (2020) Nowcasting and forecasting the potential domestic and international spread of the 2019-nCoV outbreak originating in Wuhan, China: A modeling study. *Lancet* 395: 689-697.
 31. Donnelly CA, Ghani AC, Leung GM, Hedley AJ, Fraser C, et al. (2003) Epidemiological determinants of spread of causal agent of severe acute respiratory syndrome in Hong Kong. *Lancet* 361: 1761-1766.
 32. Jia N, Feng D, Fang LQ, Richardus JH, Han XN, et al. (2009) Case fatality of SARS in mainland China and associated risk factors. *Trop Med Int Health* 14: 21-27.
 33. Biggerstaff M, Cauchemez S, Reed C, Gambhir M, Finelli L (2014) Estimates of the reproduction number for seasonal, pandemic and zoonotic influenza: A systematic review of the literature. *BMC Infect Dis* 14: 480.
 34. Bauch CT, Lloyd-Smith JO, Coffee MP, Galvani AP (2005) Dynamically modeling SARS and other newly emerging respiratory illnesses: Past, present and future. *Epidemiology* 16: 791-801.
 35. Guan W, Ni Z, Hu Y, Liang W, Ou C, et al. (2020) Clinical characteristics of coronavirus disease 2019 in China. *N Engl J Med* 382: 1708-1720.
 36. Wang Y, Zhang D, Du G, Du R, Zhao J, et al. (2020) Remdesivir in adults with severe COVID-19: A randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicentre trial. *Lancet* 395: 1569-1578.
 37. Beigel JH, Tomashek KM, Dodd LE, Mehta AK, Zingman BS, et al. (2020) Remdesivir for the treatment of Covid-19-Final report. *N Engl J Med*.
 38. Spinner CD, Gottlieb RL, Criner GJ, López JRA, Cattelan AM, et al. (2020) Effect of remdesivir vs standard care on clinical status at 11 days in patients with moderate COVID-19: A randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 324: 1048-1057.
 39. Johnson NP, Mueller J (2002) Updating the accounts: Global mortality of the 1918-1920 "Spanish" influenza pandemic. *Bull Hist Med* 76: 105-115.
 40. Taubenberger JK, Morens DM (2006) 1918 Influenza: The mother of all pandemics. *Emerg Infect Dis* 12: 15-22.
 41. Murray CJL, Lopez, AD, Chin B, Feehan D, Hill KH (2006) Estimation of potential global pandemic influenza mortality on the basis of vital registry data from the 1918-20 pandemic: A quantitative analysis. *Lancet* 368: 2211-2218.
 42. Kelso JK, Halder N, Postma MJ, Milne GJ (2013) Economic analysis of pandemic influenza mitigation strategies for five

- pandemic severity categories. *BMC Public Health* 13: 211.
43. Yuan R, Zou L, Kang Y, Wu J, Zeng X, et al. (2016) Reassortment of avian influenza A/H6N6 viruses from live poultry markets in Guangdong, China. *Front Microbiol* 7.
 44. Gao R, Cao B, Hu Y, Feng Z, Wang D, et al. (2013) Human infection with a novel avian-origin influenza A (H7N9) virus. *N Engl J Med* 368: 1888-1897.
 45. Kuszewski K, Bryant L (2000) The epidemiology and history of influenza. *Biomed Pharmacother* 54: 188-195.
 46. Zambon M (1999) Epidemiology and pathogenesis of influenza. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 44: 3-9.
 47. CDC (2020) Disease burden of influenza.
 48. CDC (2020) Estimated influenza illnesses, medical visits, hospitalizations, and deaths in the United States- 2018-2019 influenza season.
 49. CDC (2020) 2018-2019 influenza illnesses, medical visits, hospitalizations, and deaths averted by vaccination.
 50. CDC (2020) Vaccine effectiveness: How well do the flu vaccines work?
 51. Katz SK, Hinman AR (2004) Summary and conclusions: Measles elimination meeting, 16-17 March 2000. *J Infect Dis* 189: S43-S47.
 52. Rota PA, Moss WJ, Takeda M, de Swart RL, Thompson KM, et al. (2016) Measles. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* 2: 16049.
 53. Chen RT, Goldbaum GM, Wassilak SG, Markowitz LE, Orenstein WA (1989) An explosive point-source measles outbreak in a highly vaccinated population. Modes of transmission and risks factors for disease. *Am J Epidemiol* 129: 173-182.
 54. Bloch AB, Orenstein WA, Ewing WM, Spain WH, Mallison GF, et al. (1985) Measles outbreak in a pediatric practice: Airborne transmission in an office setting. *Pediatrics* 75: 676-683.
 55. Moss WJ (2017) Measles. *Lancet* 390: 2490-2502.
 56. Fine PE, Clarkson JA (1982) Measles in England and Wales--I: An analysis of factors underlying seasonal patterns. *Int J Epidemiol* 11: 5-14.
 57. Dabbagh A, Laws RL, Steulet C, Dumolard L, Mulders MN, et al. (2018) Progress toward measles elimination- worldwide, 2000-2017. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 67: 1323-1329.
 58. Guerra FM, Bolotin S, Lim G, Heffernan J, Deeks SL, et al. (2017) The basic reproduction number (R_0) of measles: Systematic review. *Lancet Infect Dis* 17: e420-e428.
 59. Zucker JR, Rosen JB, Iwamoto M, Arciuolo RJ, Langdon-Embry M, et al. (2020) Consequences of undervaccination- Measles outbreak, New York City, 2018-2019. *N Engl J Med* 382: 1009-1017.
 60. Patel M, Lee AD, Redd SB, Clemmons NS, McNall RJ, et al. (2019) Increase in measles cases- United States, January 1- April 26, 2019. *MMWR. Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 68: 402-404.
 61. Rosen JB, Arciuolo RJ, Khawja AM, Fu J, Giancotti FR, et al. (2018) Public health consequences of a 2013 measles outbreak in New York City. *JAMA Pediatr* 172: 811-817.
 62. CDC (2020) Measles cases in 2019. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, USA.
 63. Wolfson LJ, Strebel PM, Gacic-Dobo M, Hoekstra EJ, McFarland JW, et al. (2007) Has the 2005 measles mortality reduction goal been achieved? A natural history modelling study. *Lancet* 369: 191-200.
 64. Thompson KM (2016) Evolution and use of dynamic transmission models for measles and rubella risk and policy analysis. *Risk Anal* 36: 1383-1403.
 65. Saunders-Hastings P, Crispo JAG, Sikora L, Krewski D (2017) Effectiveness of personal protective measures in reducing pandemic influenza transmission: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Epidemics* 20: 1-20.
 66. Feng S, Shen C, Xia N, Song W, Fan M, et al. (2020) Rational use of face masks in the COVID-19 pandemic. *Lancet Respir Med* 8: 434-436.
 67. WHO (2020) Advice on the use of masks in the community, during home care, and in healthcare settings in the context of the novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) outbreak: Interim guidance, January 29, 2020.
 68. Chan AL, Leung CC, Lam TH, Cheng KK (2020) To wear or not to wear: WHO's confusing guidance on masks in the covid-19 pandemic. *BMJ Blog*.
 69. Rengasamy S, Eimer B, Shaffer RE (2010) Simple respiratory protection: Evaluation of the filtration performance of cloth masks and common fabric materials against 20-1000 nm size particles. *Ann Occup Hyg* 54: 789-798.
 70. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2020) Use of cloth face coverings to help slow the spread of COVID-19.
 71. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2020) Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). How to protect yourself and others.
 72. Klompas M, Baker MA, Rhee C (2020) Airborne transmission of SARS-CoV-2: Theoretical considerations and available evidence. *JAMA*, 12458.
 73. Wang X, Ferro EG, Zhou G, Hashimoto D, Bhatt DL (2020) Association between universal masking in a health care system and SARS-CoV-2 positivity among health care workers. *JAMA* 324: 703-704.
 74. Leung NHL, Chu DKW, Shiu EYC, Chan KH, McDevitt JJ, et al. (2020) Respiratory virus shedding in exhaled breath and efficacy of face masks. *Nat Med* 26: 676-680.
 75. Reynolds KA, Beamer PI, Plotkin KR, Sifuentes LY, Koenig DW, et al. (2016) The healthy workplace project: Reduced viral exposure in an office setting. *Arch Environ Occup Health* 71: 157-162.
 76. Huang H, Fan C, Li M, Nie HL, Wang FB, et al. (2020) COVID-19: A call for physical scientists and engineers. *ACS Nano* 14: 3747-3754.
 77. Bae S, Kim M, Kim JY, Cha HH, Lim JS, et al. (2020) Effectiveness of surgical and cotton masks in blocking SARS-CoV-2: A controlled comparison in 4 patients. *Ann Intern Med*.
 78. Chin A, Chu JT, Perera M, Hui KPY, Yen HL, et al. (2020) Stability in SARS-Cov-2 in different environmental conditions. *Lancet Microbe*, 1.
 79. Bhaskar ME, Arun S (2020) SARS-CoV-2 infection among community health workers in India before and after use of face shields. *JAMA* 324: 1348-1349.
 80. Lindsley WG, Noti JD, Blachere FM, Szalajda JV, Beezhold DH (2014) Efficacy of face shields against cough aerosol droplets from a cough simulator. *J Occup Environ Hyg* 11: 509-518.