

Since January 2020 Elsevier has created a COVID-19 resource centre with free information in English and Mandarin on the novel coronavirus COVID-19. The COVID-19 resource centre is hosted on Elsevier Connect, the company's public news and information website.

Elsevier hereby grants permission to make all its COVID-19-related research that is available on the COVID-19 resource centre - including this research content - immediately available in PubMed Central and other publicly funded repositories, such as the WHO COVID database with rights for unrestricted research re-use and analyses in any form or by any means with acknowledgement of the original source. These permissions are granted for free by Elsevier for as long as the COVID-19 resource centre remains active. Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

Journal of Hospital Infection

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jhin





E.T. Curran*

Glasgow Caledonian University, Glasgow, UK

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 18 August 2020 Accepted 21 August 2020 Available online 29 August 2020



It had been assumed that we could, through the identification of a pathogen and/or procedure, accurately categorize airborne pathogens from those transmitted via droplets. For severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2), the main routes of transmission are via droplets and contact [1]. There is an increased risk of airborne transmission under certain conditions. Airborne transmission necessitates airborne precautions; for example, healthcare workers (HCWs) are required to use FFP3 masks for airborne transmission, whereas, for droplet transmission, a fluid-repellent surgical face mask will suffice to protect the mouth and nose (additional eye protection is required) [1]. The terminology in national guidance was familiar to infection prevention and control teams but was unfamiliar to clinicians and created confusion. Investigations reveal that the basis for classifying respiratory transmission is perhaps over-interpreted.

The term 'aerosol-generating procedures' (AGPs), used to differentiate when airborne transmission could arise, provoked uncertainty. Firstly, the term 'aerosol' has multiple definitions (e.g. a perfume spray creates aerosols). Guidance defines aerosols as small, neutrally buoyant, and thus able to remain suspended in the air for long periods and distances [2]. Evaporated larger droplets, termed 'droplet nuclei', also result in airborne transmission. Another review states that:

* Corresponding author. Address: Glasgow Caledonian University, 37 Victoria Park Gardens South, Broomhill, Glasgow G11 7BX, UK.

E-mail address: evonne.curran@ntlworld.com.

'aerosolised disease transmission can be classified as either droplet or airborne' [3]. Ergo, as droplets are also aerosols, it is understandable that using the term 'AGPs' caused confusion the term lacks specificity. The listed AGPs were devised from literature reviews which evaluated evidence largely from outbreak reports [4]. However, unlike other coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2 is reported to replicate throughout the respiratory tract [5], which may explain some of the high transmissibility. It also raises questions about the validity of extrapolating data from reports of pathogens with lower transmissibility and applying it to SARS-CoV-2.

Healthcare

Infection Society

The US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) argue that the defining characteristic of airborne vs droplet transmission is the size of the expelled aerosols [6]. The UK guidance followed the CDC aerosol size ($\leq 5 \mu m v s > 5 \mu m$) definition for both airborne and droplet precautions [1]. CDC [6] referenced the aerosol size delineation to work published by Duguid (1946) [7]. However Duguid referred such a finding to Hatch (1942) [8]. Hatch, without producing data, stated that 'particles larger than 5 μ are primarily removed in the upper tract while fine particles are deposited by settlement in the alveoli' [8]. The implication of Hatch's work was considered of 'aetiological significance in the cause of lung infection' [7]. There is no mention in either paper of the size of the particles being relevant to disease transmission. Duguid showed that '... nuclei larger than 8 μ in diameter usually disappeared within 20 minutes, the nuclei larger than 4 μ within 90 minutes and the smaller nuclei [presumably $\leq 3 \mu m$ and not $\leq 5 \mu m$] remained airborne for much longer periods' [7]. Others argue that the cut-off at >5 µm fails to acknowledge that the size and behaviour of particles follows a continuum which overlaps either side of this cut-off [3]. Ergo, there is an absence of absolute aerosol size delineation to determine airborne or droplet transmission. Also, for any individual patient, critical factors such as respiratory activity (and its frequency), the number of particles generated and the pathogen load are unknown [3].

Droplets evaporate rapidly and fall to the ground quickly; however, horizontally expelled large droplets travel long distances [9]. These large droplets were carried more than 6 m by exhaled air at a velocity of 50 m/s for sneezing, 2 m/s for

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2020.08.022

0195-6701/© 2020 The Healthcare Infection Society. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

coughing and 1 m/s for breathing [9]. Another recent report demonstrated that coughs and sneezes are made up of a 'multiphase turbulent gas cloud that entrains ambient air and traps and carries within it droplets with a continuum of droplet sizes' [10]. Could it be that it is the closeness of HCWs to this 'gas cloud' during AGPs that is the issue, rather than the size of the particles created?

The theory that aerosol size delineation can determine the respiratory precautions required appears to be unsupported by evidence cited in UK and US guidelines. However, despite the theory muddle, there are yet-to-be-published nosocomial outbreak reports which demonstrate cross-transmission resulting from a failure of fully applied droplet precautions. It may be that a full face shield and fluid-resistant surgical face mask are sufficient to negate the risk of transmission from virus-laden aerosols (regardless of size) in many circumstances. That said, the need for critical reconsideration of respiratory transmission is needed urgently.

The author is not seeking to present herself as an expert in respiratory disease transmission. However, in trying to understand the rationale for current recommendations, she has found anomalies that appear to question the prevalent paradigm.

Conflict of interest statement None declared.

Funding sources None.

References

 Public Health England. COVID-19 infection prevention and control guidance. London: PHE; 2020. Available at: https://assets. publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/ attachment_data/file/893320/COVID-19_Infection_prevention_ and_control_guidance_complete.pdf [last accessed August 2020].

- [2] Coia JE, Ritchie L, Adisesh A, Makinson Booth C, Bradley C, Bunyan D, et al. Guidance on the use of respiratory and facial protection equipment. J Hosp Infect 2013;85:170-82.
- [3] Gralton J, Tovey E, McLaws M-L, Rawlinson WD. The role of particle size in aerosolised pathogen transmission: a review. J Infect 2011;62:1–13.
- [4] NHS National Services Scotland. Assessing the evidence base for medical procedures which create a higher risk of respiratory infection transmission from patient to healthcare worker. NHS National Services Scotland; 2020. Available at: https:// hpspubsrepo.blob.core.windows.net/hps-website/nss/3055/ documents/1_agp-sbar.pdf [last accessed August 2020].
- [5] Sariol A, Perlman S. Lessons for COVID-19 immunity from other coronavirus infections. Immunity 2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.immuni.2020.07.005.
- [6] Siegel JD, Rhinehart E, Jackson M, Chiarello L; Healthcare Infection Control Practices Advisory Committee. 2007 Guideline for isolation precautions: preventing transmission of infectious agents in healthcare settings. Atlanta, GA: CDC; 2007. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/infectioncontrol/guidelines/isolation/ index.html [last accessed August 2020].
- [7] Duguid JP. The size and duration of air-carriage of respiratory droplets and droplet nuclei. J Hyg 1946;44:471–9.
- [8] Hatch TF. Behavior of microscopic particles in the air and in the respiratory system. Aerobiology 1942;17:102–5.
- [9] Xie X, Li Y, Chwang ATY, Ho P, Seto WH. How far droplets can move in indoor environments – revisiting the Wells evaporationfalling curve. Indoor Air 2007;17:211–25.
- [10] Bourouiba L. Turbulent gas clouds and respiratory pathogen emissions; potential implications for reducing transmission of COVID-19. JAMA 2020;323:1837–8.