

Fig. 11. TFE values predicted by the RSM model for a mask with a meltblown layer in the filter, but no nosepiece. Results are shown at three different flow rates (30, 90, and 160 L/min). Experimental datapoints are represented with red dots.

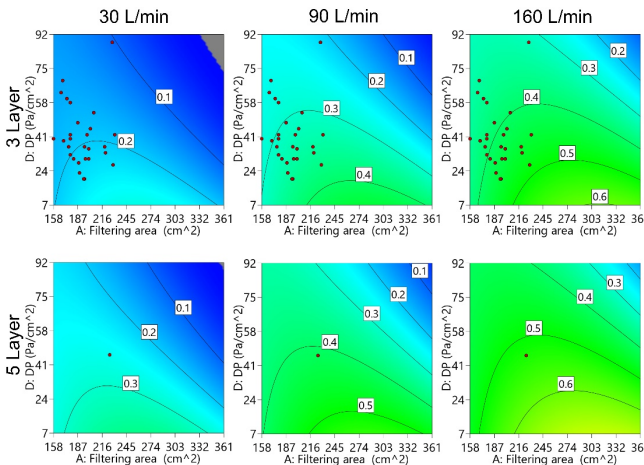


Fig. 12. TFE values predicted by the RSM model for a mask with a meltblown layer in the filter and a nosepiece in place. Results are shown at three different flow rates (30, 90, and 160 L/min). Experimental datapoints are represented with red dots.

factors for the correlation. These observations are compatible with our results regarding the trend and the spread of TFE data with respect to material breathability and BFE although a straight comparison between collection efficiency and TFE is improper. Since the former is a direct measure of aerosol filtration, the latter is an estimate from mask leakage and BFE, where the effects of inertial impaction and different aerosol size are not considered.

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations [38], [61] have been conducted to study the airflow pattern around a worn mask during breathing and coughing, evidencing how misfitting a mask create leakage through gaps compromising its efficacy [61], and that leakage correlates with lower filter porosity because of the increased DP of the filtering materials [38]. All these results corroborate the recommendation for a tight fitting and a breathable material, and the necessity of identifying comprehensive performance metrics which include the effect of leakage, such as the TFE defined in this study.

To further investigate the role of the seal, we tested the subgroup of 26 masks marketed with a nosepiece also after removing the nosepiece. We found that the presence of the

nosepiece positively correlated with TFE at all three flow rates. The type of the nosepiece also affected the results, with an MW strip associated with a much better efficiency at reducing the leakage than a PO. This finding may be ascribed to the better pliability of metal when adapting the nosepiece to the user’s nose ridge and its capability to maintain the shape. The surface response model confirmed the importance of the nosepiece in improving TFE performance, differentiating according to the presence of a meltblown layer, where the effect was more pronounced. These results underline the importance of the nosepiece in mask design, especially with filtering materials which offer a lower breathability, and are consistent with studies performed on human subjects [20] and with computational simulations [38], showing that air escaping from the gaps around the nose is more critical than lateral leakage.

The role of other parameters involved in mask design (mask area, the number of layers, and the presence of the meltblown) on the TFE was also investigated. While the analysis of the single factors did not detect any significant correlation with TFE apart from DP, the surface response model evidenced an influence of several factors on TFE. There was a minor negative quadratic variation of TFE with the mask area, with a maximum in the middle range. This trend could be ascribed to the fact that only the mask surface region around the mouth was involved in air filtering, while exceeding tissue wrapped toward the ears and under the chin offered a poor contribution. Concerning the design of tissue material, i.e., the number of layers and meltblown, while they improve material FE, they also worsen filter breathability, canceling out any benefit for masks with a poor seal. However, the surface response model showed that increasing the number of layers (up to 3) can enhance performance when a nosepiece is present, i.e., when the seal of the mask is good enough to contain the leakage due to an increase in DP.

The uncertainty associated with experimental TFE measurements might suggest a more extensive use of CFD simulations. Despite the interesting possibility to visualize the behavior of flow and particles through mask and face-seal leaks, its exploitation has been hindered by several factors. The typical approach is based on fixed geometries of the masks, thus neglecting the fluid-structure interaction between flow and mask (which is instead inherently reproduced in the laboratory test). It is well-known that inward and outward flows have very different effects on the protection offered by the mask [24]. On the one hand, inhalation generates a low pressure on the inner side of the mask, thus sealing or at least reducing perimeter leaks. On the other hand, exhalation increases the internal pressure, inflating the mask and increasing the perimeter leakages. This phenomenon is further amplified in the case of coughing and sneezing.

Another aspect worth to be mentioned is the impact of leak area on the amount of leaked flow and ultimately on the FE. CFD studies showed that gap heights greater than 0.2 mm can generate a total inward leakage larger than 2%, thus making ineffective even an filtering face piece 3 (FFP3) mask, while, for a 1 mm height, more than 70% of flow can be leaked unfiltered [58]. Xi et al. [61] performed CFD simulations

with an SM geometry reconstructed by images of an SM and studied the impact of variable face-seal gaps on the amount of leaked flow. Interestingly, they observed that even a small gap of 0.5 cm^2 leads to a 9% leakage. Considering that 3-D optical scanners have hardly a resolution $<0.1 \text{ mm}$ (unless choosing very expensive products and small measurement volume), this makes the comparison between numerical studies and experimental tests very challenging. In fact, even a small error on the 3-D reconstruction of the face-mask assembly can return a significant misprediction of the leaked flow. This is also confirmed by the very limited validations of the CFD results, considering, at best, a benchmark in terms of velocity at a point and associated with large error bars [61].

Despite these limitations, numerical investigations by Solano et al. [38], Solano and Shoele [62], and Xi et al. [61] confirmed that a high-porosity mask (i.e., with higher breathability) reduces the edge leakages, especially in the presence of small gaps. These findings not only confirm the validity of the conclusions highlighted in this work, but suggest that an optimum tradeoff can be identified in terms of porosity and safety.

Overall, these considerations make more convenient and reliable to perform this kind of investigations with the two-phase method developed in [23] and applied in this work.

A. Study Limitations

The experimental method to determine TFE of face masks was based on the measurement of the fraction of exhaled air leaking at the face seal and the fraction of exhaled air passing through the mask filter. Two assumptions were made. First, the volume of air passing through the filtering material of a mask is subjected to FE equal to the BFE measured according to the EN 14683:2019 standard. Second, the fraction of air leaking at the face seal moves from the mouth to the external environment without undergoing any change in the amount and size distribution of the aerosol generated by the mask wearer. Under these circumstances, the measured TFE does not consider impaction filtration mechanisms that could be active in reducing droplet amount both for the fraction of air passing through the mask filter and that passing at the face seal. Therefore, TFE values determined according to the presented method represent a worst-case scenario; defining the lower value of filtration performance, a mask can show when only fine aerosol ($<5 \mu\text{m}$) is exhaled by the wearer. The existence of different processes for blocking particles than through-mask filtration has been observed by Lindsley et al. [35], ensuing from a collection efficiency in the same cases larger than the material FE. Cappa et al. [20] conducted an in-depth analysis of aerosol concentration in mask leakage exhaled during talking and coughing in human subjects. While air leakage reduced mask performance (from $>90\%$ to 70% for talking), particle concentration in leaked air was lower than in the original source, implying the effect of an impact mechanism on the inner surface of the mask, especially for larger particles [20]. This observation suggests that SMs can significantly reduce emission of large particles even in the presence of unfiltered leaked air. Even though the TFE may

not represent an absolute measurement of mask performance in relation to COVID-19 transmission because of this bias, it is still informative to assess the relative performance among different masks and to detect correlations with constructive and fitting parameters that may guide mask design to improve its efficacy.

A second limitation of the proposed measuring methods is related to the nonnegligible uncertainty associated with the TFE measurement. Although the repeated experiments resulted in a good measurement repeatability in most of the cases, $u_B(\text{TFE})$ was markedly higher than $u_A(\text{TFE})$, due to the propagated uncertainty generated by the accuracy of the FM and the manometer we used. Type B uncertainty may include residual systematic biases which are not corrected by the manufacturer calibration and not accounted in Type A uncertainty, which was obtained by repeated observations performed with the same instrument. This aspect can be improved by using instrumentation with higher accuracy across the whole range of interest of DP and volumetric airflow.

Other than this, variability among masks from the same production batch was previously evidenced in [42] and [63], possibly impacting on ΔP measurement repeatability more than other sources of uncertainty.

Other limitations of the setup were previously identified [27] and were mainly related to the smooth and rigid surface of the head form, different from the skin. Elasticity and compliance of human skin can result in a better face fit and face seal [64]. In this case, our experimental conditions may cause the TFE to be underestimated. Nevertheless, the proposed methodology remains safely applicable for comparative TFE measurements between different masks.

V. CONCLUSION

The performance of SM and CM in terms of TFE is strongly affected by the mask filter breathability, recommending the selection of highly breathable materials in mask design to decrease air leaking, besides maximizing user comfort and compliance in wearing the face mask. When multiple filter layers are required and a lower breathability is obtained, TFE should be improved by focusing on mask fit and applying a metallic nosepiece. The same recommendation applies when a meltblown layer is present, given the nonnegligible impact of this layer on the filter breathability. On the other hand, providing that only layers with high breathability are used, CMs may offer an acceptable efficacy, in the context of their intended use, without requiring the inclusion of a nosepiece in their design.

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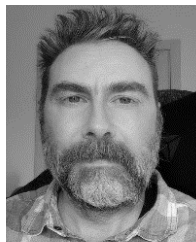
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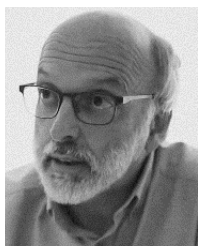
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