



OPEN ACCESS

EDITED BY

Francisco Antunes,
Universidade de Lisboa, Portugal

REVIEWED BY

Cecilia Acuti Martellucci,
University of Ferrara, Italy
Bery Spira,
University of São Paulo, Brazil

*CORRESPONDENCE

Kai Kisielinski
✉ kaikisielinski@yahoo.de
Pritam Sukul
✉ pritam.sukul@uni-rostock.de

SPECIALTY SECTION

This article was submitted to
Environmental Health and Exposome,
a section of the journal
Frontiers in Public Health

RECEIVED 15 December 2022

ACCEPTED 17 February 2023

PUBLISHED 05 April 2023

CITATION

Kisielinski K, Hirsch O, Wagner S, Wojtasik B,
Funken S, Klosterhalfen B, Kanti Manna S,
Prescher A, Sukul P and Sönnichsen A (2023)
Physio-metabolic and clinical consequences of
wearing face masks—Systematic review with
meta-analysis and comprehensive evaluation.
Front. Public Health 11:1125150.
doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2023.1125150

COPYRIGHT

© 2023 Kisielinski, Hirsch, Wagner, Wojtasik,
Funken, Klosterhalfen, Kanti Manna, Prescher,
Sukul and Sönnichsen. This is an open-access
article distributed under the terms of the
[Creative Commons Attribution License \(CC BY\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).
The use, distribution or reproduction in other
forums is permitted, provided the original
author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are
credited and that the original publication in this
journal is cited, in accordance with accepted
academic practice. No use, distribution or
reproduction is permitted which does not
comply with these terms.

Physio-metabolic and clinical consequences of wearing face masks—Systematic review with meta-analysis and comprehensive evaluation

Kai Kisielinski^{1*}, Oliver Hirsch², Susanne Wagner³,
Barbara Wojtasik⁴, Stefan Funken⁵, Bernd Klosterhalfen⁶,
Soumen Kanti Manna⁷, Andreas Prescher⁸, Pritam Sukul^{9*} and
Andreas Sönnichsen¹⁰

¹Orthopaedic and Trauma Surgery, Clinical Medicine, Private Practice, Düsseldorf, Germany, ²Department of Psychology, Fachhochschule für Oekonomie und Management (FOM) University of Applied Sciences, Siegen, Germany, ³Veterinary Medicine, Wagner Medical Science Liaison (MSL) Management, Blankenfelde-Mahlow, Germany, ⁴Department of Genetics and Biosystematics, Faculty of Biology, University of Gdańsk, Gdansk, Poland, ⁵Internal Medicine, Clinical Medicine, Private Practice, Moers, Germany, ⁶Institute of Pathology, Dueren Hospital, Dueren, Germany, ⁷Biophysics and Structural Genomics Division, Saha Institute of Nuclear Physics, Kolkata, India, ⁸Institute of Molecular and Cellular Anatomy (MOCA), Rhine-Westphalia Technical University of Aachen, Aachen, Germany, ⁹Rostock Medical Breath Research Analytics and Technologies (ROMBAT), Department of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care, University Medicine Rostock, Rostock, Germany, ¹⁰Internal Medicine, Clinical Medicine, Private Practice, Gesundheit für Österreich e.V. (Health for Austria), Vienna, Austria

Background: As face masks became mandatory in most countries during the COVID-19 pandemic, adverse effects require substantiated investigation.

Methods: A systematic review of 2,168 studies on adverse medical mask effects yielded 54 publications for synthesis and 37 studies for meta-analysis (on $n = 8,641$, $m = 2,482$, $f = 6,159$, age = 34.8 ± 12.5). The median trial duration was only 18 min (IQR = 50) for our comprehensive evaluation of mask induced physio-metabolic and clinical outcomes.

Results: We found significant effects in both medical surgical and N95 masks, with a greater impact of the second. These effects included decreased SpO₂ (overall Standard Mean Difference, SMD = -0.24 , 95% CI = -0.38 to -0.11 , $p < 0.001$) and minute ventilation (SMD = -0.72 , 95% CI = -0.99 to -0.46 , $p < 0.001$), simultaneous increased in blood-CO₂ (SMD = $+0.64$, 95% CI = 0.31 – 0.96 , $p < 0.001$), heart rate (N95: SMD = $+0.22$, 95% CI = 0.03 – 0.41 , $p = 0.02$), systolic blood pressure (surgical: SMD = $+0.21$, 95% CI = 0.03 – 0.39 , $p = 0.02$), skin temperature (overall SMD = $+0.80$ 95% CI = 0.23 – 1.38 , $p = 0.006$) and humidity (SMD $+2.24$, 95% CI = 1.32 – 3.17 , $p < 0.001$). Effects on exertion (overall SMD = $+0.9$, surgical = $+0.63$, N95 = $+1.19$), discomfort (SMD = $+1.16$), dyspnoea (SMD = $+1.46$), heat (SMD = $+0.70$), and humidity (SMD = $+0.9$) were significant in $n = 373$ with a robust relationship to mask wearing ($p < 0.006$ to $p < 0.001$). Pooled symptom prevalence ($n = 8,128$) was significant for: headache (62%, $p < 0.001$), acne (38%, $p < 0.001$), skin irritation (36%, $p < 0.001$), dyspnoea (33%, $p < 0.001$), heat (26%, $p < 0.001$), itching (26%, $p < 0.001$), voice disorder (23%, $p < 0.03$), and dizziness (5%, $p = 0.01$).

Discussion: Masks interfered with O₂-uptake and CO₂-release and compromised respiratory compensation. Though evaluated wearing durations are shorter than daily/prolonged use, outcomes independently validate mask-induced exhaustion-syndrome (MIES) and down-stream physio-metabolic disfunctions.

MIES can have long-term clinical consequences, especially for vulnerable groups. So far, several mask related symptoms may have been misinterpreted as long COVID-19 symptoms. In any case, the possible MIES contrasts with the WHO definition of health.

Conclusion: Face mask side-effects must be assessed (risk-benefit) against the available evidence of their effectiveness against viral transmissions. In the absence of strong empirical evidence of effectiveness, mask wearing should not be mandated let alone enforced by law.

Systematic review registration: https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display_record.php?ID=CRD42021256694, identifier: PROSPERO 2021 CRD42021256694.

KEYWORDS

masks and N95 respirators, surgical mask, adverse (side) effects, long-term adverse effects, health risk assessment, MIES syndrome, risk-benefit, mask

Introduction

In most countries, the uses of medical face masks have been restricted to professionals for decades (1). In the health-care setting, masks constituted a mandatory self-protective and third-party protective measure for medical personnel prior to COVID-19 pandemic (2) based on the assumption of efficacy of masks in reducing transmission of pathogens, especially bacteria (3). The effectiveness of masks in all healthcare settings was debatable even before 2020 (4, 5). In 2020, many scientists and leaders started to believe that the use of masks could also provide protection against viral transmission, although evidence for the effectiveness of this measure was only weak (6). Since the pandemic began, a large number of studies tried to assess the antiviral effectiveness of masks, with hardly conclusive results (7, 8).

During the 2019 SARS-CoV-2 outbreak face masks were deployed as a mandatory public health measure for the general population in many countries around the world (9), making them one of the most important universal life-style attributes that directly affect how we breathe. As with any other preventive measure and/or intervention, masks also have specific disadvantages. While certain properties may have justified their invention and application in the past, e.g., retention of bacteria during surgical wound care and operations (1, 2), at present the question needs to be addressed as to the long-term effects widespread mask wearing may have on normal breathing. It is noteworthy that the compulsory wearing of masks for the entire population provided good research conditions for studying the adverse effects of mask wearing (10–17). Various volatile metabolites are produced through biochemical and metabolic pathways and their concentrations in exhaled breath provide immediate physiological (18, 19), metabolic (20, 21), and pathological (22, 23) signs with the possibility of monitoring various processes and interventions including therapies (24, 25). A recent observational study reported continuous respiratory and hemodynamic changes along with corresponding alteration in exhaled volatile metabolites (*viz.* potentially originate at the cellular/organ levels and *via* microbial metabolic processes) and

has raised significant concerns upon the immediate, progressive, transient, and long-term side-effects of FFP2/N95 and surgical masks in adults (aged between 20 and 80 years) at rest (26). Recently, the harmful effects of masks were highlighted in a large scoping (non-systematic) review (14) that has summoned for a systematic review with comprehensive evaluation of mask induced adverse consequences.

Though some important systematic reviews regarding masks and their effects already exist (27–30), they are predominantly restricted to healthy and sportive individuals (27, 29). Due to the exclusion of children, pregnant women and diseased patients from these evaluations and conclusions (28, 31), the reviews do not provide sufficient evidence that masks can be safely used the general population. Moreover, the application of fixed statistical models (27), use of narratives rather than quantitative analysis and statistics (despite claiming to be systematic) (32), focus on health care workers (31), as well as comparing the different mask types without any baseline/control group (31) were ubiquitous limitations of those studies. Physiological systematic reviews based purely on physiological effects of masks limit data interpretations to normal physio-metabolic fluctuations *i.e.*, beyond the domain of pathophysiological compensatory mechanisms (especially in the older individuals and those with diminished compensatory reserves) and/or acute/chronic subliminal changes in the human microbiome (28, 30). In addition, other studies have not addressed subjective prevalence of symptoms and discomfort during mask use and concomitant physical changes such as heat and temperature in detail (27, 29). Therefore, the systematic reviews available to date neither address possible symptoms of mask use for the general population nor their exact prevalence. In addition, the transferability of the outcomes of said systematic reviews to the general population is very limited and they do not fulfill the actual requirements of clinical and inclusive evaluation, especially from the views and perspectives of medical practitioners.

Including young, old, healthy and ill people to the systematic analysis of physiological, metabolic, and clinical data would increase our understanding about the impact of mask-wearing on the general population. In contrast to the above-indicated studies, our systematic review is aimed to quantify the

biochemical/metabolic, physical, physiological changes along with the appearance of subjective and clinical symptoms in face mask users and analyze them from a clinician's and physician's holistic perspective.

Materials and methods

Registration

This meta-analysis was registered with the international prospective register of systematic reviews (PROSPERO) under the record CRD42021256694 at the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) and performed in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) Statement (33).

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The aim was to study adverse effects of face masks on metabolic, physiological, physical, psychological, and individualized parameters. The use of cloth masks, surgical masks and N95/FFP-2 masks were the intervention of interest. Humans of all ages and genders, who were evaluated in controlled intervention studies and observational studies have been included in our comprehensive evaluation. Case reports, narrative reviews, case series and expert opinions were excluded. The main outcomes considered were peripheral oxygen saturation (SpO₂), carbon dioxide levels in blood, temperature, humidity, heart rate, respiratory rate, tidal volume and minute ventilation, blood pressure, exertion, dyspnea, discomfort, headache, skin changes, itching, psychological stress, and symptoms during the use of face masks.

Literature retrieval strategy

First, a comprehensive search term was developed. Then, PubMed, Embase, and Cochrane Library databases were searched. The search was performed until 31st December 2021. There were no restrictions in publication date. Literature that was neither English nor German language was excluded. Additionally, forward-looking data was considered for discussion, but not included in the meta-analysis. Preprints that have been published in journals in the meantime have been given the appropriate references.

Literature screening and data extraction

Search terms were created according to the criteria defined in the PICO scheme (34). The specific search terms were: (face mask* [tw], FFP1 [tw] FFP2 [tw], FFP3 [tw], N99 [tw], N97 [tw], N95 [tw], respiratory protective device* [tw], air-purifying respirator* [tw], surgical mask* [tw]) and (risk* or adverse effect* [tw], adverse event* [tw], side effect* [tw], psycho* [tw], hypoxia [tw], hypercapnia [tw], headache [tw], dead space [tw], safety [tw], carbon dioxide [tw]), not infants, not neonatal, not newborn, not endoscopy, not CPAP, not intubate*, not propofol,

not resuscitation, not mechanical ventilation [tw], not fetus. The asterisk in the search algorithm here “*” stands for the extension of the spelling with different possible letter combinations (e.g., face mask* with * = s, or * =ed, or * =ing). The abbreviation “[tw]” stands for title word.

The retrieved titles and abstracts were then screened and assessed for predefined inclusion criteria by at least three authors. Study design, methodology, interventions, primary and secondary outcomes and language were evaluated using the web-based program Rayyan—a web and mobile app for systematic reviews (35). Full texts of all potentially relevant articles were independently assessed for inclusion by two authors. Full-text exclusions and reasons have been documented. Data of included full texts were extracted: Author and year, type of study, aim of the study, intervention/control, sample size, follow-up, outcomes, funding, setting/country, age, sex, comorbidities, medications, functional status and cognitive status of participants, results, main findings, and limitations. Descriptive data was extracted by one author and checked by another author. If discrepancies occurred or authors disagreed, a senior author was involved in and a consensus was found (36).

Risk of bias assessment of the included studies

The quality assessments were carried out using various tools, depending on the type of study. If systematic reviews and meta-analyses were included, these were assessed using the AMSTAR-2 checklist (37). Interventional studies were examined using the manual “Assessment of the risk of bias in clinical studies” from the Cochrane Collaboration (Cochrane RoB-2) (38). Observational studies were checked with the CASP (Critical Appraisal Skills Program) using standardized forms (39).

Statistical analysis

A meta-analysis was carried out, if at least two studies with the same research question were found among the randomized, non-randomized controlled trials, and observational studies. A subgroup analysis was conducted, where possible, for different mask types (N95/surgical) and even compared the mask types with each other (N95 vs. surgical mask). The program “RevMan-5.4.1,” which was developed for Cochrane Reviews was used. As we anticipated a considerable between-study heterogeneity - the random effects model was used to pool effect sizes (40). The results were graphically depicted in forest plots. Subgroup analyses were performed and a Q-test was calculated to examine significant subgroup differences. Study heterogeneity was assessed using Cochrane's Q-test, T2 according to DerSimonian and Laird (41), and I² according to Higgins and Thompson (42). Where possible, a funnel plot was created to investigate publication bias. If this showed an abnormal result and there were at least 10 studies evaluating the same question, Egger's test (43) was carried out.

For the analysis of metabolic and physiological changes all controlled intervention studies in which measurements were

TABLE 1A (A–C) Overview of 54 included studies. (A) Randomized controlled trials, (B) non-randomized controlled trials, and (C) observational studies.

References	Study design	Intervention/control	Sample size	Time	Outcomes
(A) Included 14 randomized controlled trials					
Bertoli et al. (50)	Randomized, two-period cross-over self-control trial	Wearing N95 respirator vs. no facemask during indirect calorimetry	N = 10	5 min	oxygen consumption (VO ₂), carbon dioxide production (VCO ₂), and Resting Energy Expenditure (REE)
Butz (51)	Blinded, randomized cross over study	Wearing two types of surgical masks vs. no mask	N = 15	30 min	CO ₂ under masks, PtCO ₂ (partial transcutaneous CO ₂ pressure) while wearing masks for 30 min, HR, RR (respiratory rate), and SpO ₂
Dirol et al. (52)	Prospective randomized cross-over study	Six-minutes walking test (6 MWT) with and without surgical mask. Mask-discomfort questionnaire was applied before and after 6 MWT with the mask	N = 100	6 min	RR, HR, SpO ₂ , EtCO ₂ , and discomfort questionnaire
Fikenzler et al. (53)	Prospective cross-over study	Wearing no mask (nm) vs. surgical mask (sm) vs. FFP2/N95 mask (ffpm), cardiopulmonary and metabolic responses monitored by ergo-spirometry and impedance cardiography	N = 12	10 min	FVC (forced vital capacity), FEV1 (forced expiratory volume in 1 s), Tiffenau index, peak expiratory flow (PEF), HR, stroke volume, cardiac output, arterio-venous oxygen content difference, systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), ventilation in liters/minute (VE), RR, tidal volume (VT), pH, partial pressure of carbon dioxide (PaCO ₂), partial pressure of oxygen (PaO ₂), lactate Pmax, Pmax/kg, VO ₂ max/kg, heart rate recovery (HRR): HRR-1 min, HRR-5 min. Discomforts (VAS): humid, hot, breath resistance, itchy, tight, salty, unfit, odor, fatigue, and overall discomfort.
Georgi et al. (54)	Prospective randomized cross-over study	Wearing no mask (nm) vs. community vs. surgical mask vs. FFP2/N95 mask (treadmill: baseline, 50, 75, and 100 W)	N = 24	9 min	HR, RR, SBP, DBP, PtCO ₂ , SpO ₂ , and main symptoms questionnaire
Goh et al. (55)	Randomized, two-period cross-over self-control trial	Wearing N95 respirator vs. wearing N95 respirator with microfan vs. wearing no facemask during common physical activities	N = 106	15 min	EtCO ₂ , comfort level with visual analog scale (VAS)
Hua et al. (47)	Prospective randomized crossover trial	Two and 4 h after donning the masks, adverse reactions and perceived discomfort and non-compliance were measured.	N = 20	240 min	Skin parameters: Skin hydration, transepidermal water loss, erythema, pH, and sebum secretion
Kim et al. (56)	Randomized and self-control trial	Wearing N95 respirator (partly with exhalation valve) vs. wearing no facemask (NM) during a low-moderate work-rate (5.6 km/h)	N = 20	60 min	HR, RR, transcutaneous carbon dioxide, and SpO ₂
Kim et al. (57)	Randomized and two-period controlled trial	Wearing N95 respirator and no mask during 1 h of mixed sedentary activity and moderate exercise during pregnancy vs. non-pregnant women	N = 16 vs. 16	60 min	SBP, DBP, mean arterial pressure, HR, stroke volume, cardiac output, total peripheral resistance, RPE, SpO ₂ , and PtCO ₂
Kim et al. (58)	Randomized and self-control trial	Wearing N95 respirator vs. wearing P100 respirator vs. wearing no mask during 1 h of treadmill exercise (5.6 km/h) in an environmental chamber (35° C, relative humidity 50%)	N = 12	60 min	Fit factor, rectal temperature, mean skin temperature, facial skin temperature under respirator, SpO ₂ , PtCO ₂ , HR, RR, breathing comfort, thermal sensation, and exertion (Borg scale)
Mapelli et al. (59)	interventional, prospective, randomized, double-blind, and cross-over study	Wearing no mask surgical mask or N95 mask and performing consecutive cardiopulmonary exercise tests (CPETs) at least 24 h apart but within 2 weeks	N = 12	10 min	Ventilation (VE), Oxygen intake VO ₂ , VCO ₂ production, respiratory gases, expiratory O ₂ (ETO ₂) and expiratory CO ₂ (ETCO ₂), heart rate (HR), hemoglobin saturation (SaO ₂), blood pressure (DBP and SBD), dyspnea (Borg scale), spirometry, maximal inspiratory pressure (MIP), and maximal expiratory pressure (MEP)
Roberge et al. (60)	Randomized and two-period controlled trial	Wearing an N95 FFR during exercise and postural sedentary activities over a 1-h period on pregnant women vs. control	N = 22/22	60 min	Core temperature, cheek temperature, abdominal temperature, HR, RR, RPE, and perceived heat (RHP)
Wong et al. (61)	Randomized and two-period self-controlled trial	Wearing a facemask vs. not wearing a facemask during graded treadmill (10% slope) walking at 4 km/h for 6 min	N = 23	6 min	HR and RPE
Zhang et al. (62)	Prospective randomized cross-over study	Exercises (cycle ergometer) with and without surgical masks (mask-on and mask-off) were analyzed	N = 71	8 min	Test duration, maximum power, RPE score, Borg dyspnea scale, Oxygen consumption (V _{O2}), carbon dioxide production (V _{CO2}), metabolic equivalent (MET), respiratory exchange rate (RER), and percentage of oxygen uptake at anaerobic threshold (AT) in predicted maximal oxygen uptake, inspiratory time (Ti), expiratory time (Te), RR, VT, VE, end-tidal oxygen partial pressure (EtO ₂), EtCO ₂ , oxygen ventilation equivalent (VE/V _{O2}), and carbon dioxide equivalent (VE/VCO ₂)

TABLE 1B Included nine non-randomized controlled trials.

References	Study design	Intervention/control	Sample size	Time	Outcomes
Bharatendu et al. (63)	Cross-sectional self-control trial	Wearing N95 respirator vs. no facemask	$N = 154$	5 min	Mean flow velocity (MFV), pulsatility-index, end-tidal carbon dioxide partial pressure (EtCO ₂)
Coniam (64)	Two-period controlled trial	Wearing surgical masks (WM) vs. no facemask (NM) during oral examination	$N = 186$	10 min	Pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, comprehensibility, and audibility
Epstein et al. (65)	Multiple cross-over, self-control trial	Wearing N95 respirator vs. wearing surgical mask vs. no facemask during maximal exercise test	$N = 16$	18 min	HR, RR, SpO ₂ , rated perceived exertion (RPE), and end-tidal carbon dioxide (EtCO ₂)
Lee and Wang (66)	Two-period self-controlled trial	Wearing N95 respirator vs. no facemask during rhinomanometry	$N = 14$	30 sec	Inspiration breathing resistance increment, expiration breathing resistance increment, breathing volume decrement
Roberge et al. (67)	Multiple cross-over and self-control trial	Wearing an N95 FFR vs. N95 FFR with exhalation valve vs. no mask during 1-h treadmill walking sessions, at 1.7 miles/h and at 2.5 miles/h	$N = 10$	60 min	FFR dead space gases, CO ₂ saturation, O ₂ saturation, RR, VT, VE, and HR
Roberge et al. (68)	Two-period self-control trial	Wearing a surgical mask for 1 h during treadmill exercise at 5.6 km/h vs. the same exercise with no mask	$N = 20$	60 min	Core temperature, cheek temperature, abdominal temperature, HR, RR, RPE, and Perceived heat (RHP)
Scarano et al. (69)	Two-period self-controlled trial	Wearing a surgical mask for 1 h vs. wearing N95 respirator for 1 h vs. baseline	$N = 20$	60 min	Humidity, heat, breathing difficulty, discomfort, mask touching, and perioral temperature
Shenal et al. (70)	Multiple cross-over self-controlled field trial	Wearing one of seven respirators or medical mask during an 8-h working period vs. no mask	$N = 27$	480 min	Discomfort and RPE
Tong et al. (71)	Two-period self-controlled trial	Breathing through N95 mask materials during rest and exercise of predetermined intensity vs. breathing ambient air	$N = 19$	50 min	Oxygen consumption (VO ₂), carbon dioxide production (VCO ₂), VT, RR, VE, expired oxygen (FeO ₂), expired carbon dioxide (FeCO ₂), inspired oxygen (FiO ₂), and inspired carbon dioxide (FiCO ₂)

TABLE 1C Included 31 observational studies.

References	Study design	Intervention/control	Sample size	Time	Outcomes
Beder et al. (72)	Longitudinal and prospective observational study	Wearing surgical mask during major operations vs. baseline	N = 53	60–240 min	SpO ₂ (oxygen saturation), HR (heart rate)
Choudhury et al. (73)	Prospective cohort study	Wearing N95 respirator during light work vs. wearing full PPE during heavy work vs. baseline	N = 75	240 min	HR, SpO ₂ , Perfusion Index (PI), RPE (rated perceived exertion), and modified Borg scale for dyspnoea
Foo et al. (74)	Survey study	Self-administered questionnaire healthcare workers	N = 322	480 min	Prevalence of adverse skin reactions
Forgie et al. (75)	Cross-sectional survey study	Self-administered questionnaire	N = 80	Not given	Mask/shield preference Mask results, shield results
Heider et al. (76)	Cross-sectional survey study	Validated Voice Handicap Index (VHI)-10 questionnaire and self-administered questionnaire	N = 221	480 min	Vocal symptoms, Spanish validated Voice Handicap Index (VHI)-10 questionnaire
Islam et al. (77)	Prospective cross-over self-control study	Wearing FFP2 (N95) mask for 30 min under sitting condition in an air-conditioned room	N = 10	30 min	Saha Institute of Nuclear Physics, Department of Atomic Energy, Government of India
Jafari et al. (78)	Cross-sectional study	Self-administered questionnaire, SpO ₂ , HR, and venous blood samples	N = 243	240 min	RR, HR, SpO ₂ , and salivary metabolic signature
Kao et al. (79)	Prospective observational study	Wearing N95 respirator during hemodialysis vs. baseline	N = 39	240 min	HR, RR, systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), PaO ₂ , and PaCO ₂ discomfort rates
Klimek et al. (80)	Cross-sectional survey study	Visual Analog Scales (VAS) to document patient-reported symptoms and diagnostic findings	N = 46	120 min	Visual Analog Scales (VAS) to document patient-reported symptoms of rhinitis or rhinorrhea. mucosal irritation, secretion and edema in nasal endoscopy was graded
Kyung et al. (81)	Prospective panel study	Wearing N95 respirator during 6-min walking test vs. baseline	N = 97	6 min	SBP, DBP, HR, RR, EtCO ₂ , and SpO ₂
Lan et al. (82)	Cross-sectional survey study	Self-administered questionnaire	N = 542	360 min	Prevalence of adverse skin reactions
Li et al. (83)	Prospective observational study	Exercise on a treadmill while wearing the protective facemasks	N = 10	100 min	HR, temperature and humidity (outside and inside the facemask), SBP, DBP, mask outer humidity, face microclimate humidity, chest microclimate humidity, mask outside temperature, face microclimate temperature, face skin temperature, chest microclimate temperature, subjective sensations: humidity, heat, breath resistance, itching, tightness, feeling salty, feeling unfit, feeling odorous, fatigue, and overall discomfort
Lim et al. (84)	Survey study	Self-administered questionnaire	N = 212	240 min	Prevalence of headaches
Luckman et al. (85)	Survey study using online experimental setting	Self-administered questionnaire and experimental online setting	N = 400	Not given	Risk compensation with reduced physical distancing (standing, sitting, and walking)
Matusiak et al. (86)	Cross-sectional survey study	Self-administered questionnaire	N = 876	Not given	Difficulty in breathing, warming/sweating glasses misting up, slurred speech, and itch
Mo (87)	Retrospective observation cross over cohort study	Wearing surgical mask vs. not wearing: compare to former hospitalizations. Including criteria: Patients who were hospitalized three or more times and at least two times before mask mandates	N = 23	7 min	Vital signs: temperature, HR, RR, SBP, DBP, serum and blood gas analysis, inpatient days. Clinical parameters, including ion concentration of serum, vital signs, inflammation markers, and artery blood gas.
Naylor et al. (88)	Survey study	Self-administered online questionnaires.	N = 129	Not given	Effects of certain aspects of lockdown, including face masks, social distancing, and video calling, on participants behavior, emotions, hearing performance, practical issues, and tinnitus.
Ong et al. (89)	Cross-sectional survey study	Self-administered questionnaire.	N = 158	360 min	PPE usage patterns, occupation, underlying comorbidities

(Continued)

TABLE 1C (Continued)

References	Study design	Intervention/control	Sample size	Time	Outcomes
Park et al. (90)	Prospective cohort study	Wearing KF94 respirator for 6 h vs. baseline	<i>N</i> = 21	360 min	Skin temperature increase, skin redness, skin hydration, sebum level, skin elasticity, and trans-epidermal water loss
Pifarré et al. (91)	Prospective trial	No mask baseline vs. mask baseline. Subjects wearing a mask immediately after a 21-flex test performed the Ruffier protocol	<i>N</i> = 8	5–7 min	PaO ₂ , PaCO ₂ , SpO ₂ , and HR
Prousa (92)	Cross-sectional survey study	Self-administered questionnaire	<i>N</i> = 1,010	Not given	Wearing time, discomfort stress, tricks, psychovegetative complaints, positive feelings, aggression, and depression
Ramirez-Moreno et al. (93)	Cross-sectional study in healthcare workers	Self-administered questionnaire	<i>N</i> = 306	420 min	Work type, type of face mask, number of hours worn per day (SD), pre-existing headache, comorbidity, other symptoms, Sleep disturbance, loss of concentration, irritability, photophobia, sonophobia, and sickness/vomiting
Rebmann et al. (94)	Multiple cross-over and self-control trial	Wearing only an N95 or an N95 with mask overlay for a 12-h shift vs. baseline	<i>N</i> = 10	720 h	SBP, DBP, CO ₂ saturation, SpO ₂ , HR, headache, nausea, light-headedness, and visual challenge
Rosner (95)	Cross-sectional study in healthcare workers	Self-administered questionnaire	<i>N</i> = 343	360 min	Acne, headache, skin breakdown (nose bridge, cheeks, chin, behind ears), and impaired cognition
Sukul et al. (26)	Two-period controlled trial	Wearing a surgical or N95 mask during rest (young to mid-aged adults were measured for 30 min and older adults were measured for 15 min)	<i>N</i> = 30	15–30 min	Exhaled breath profiles within mask space by high-resolution real-time mass-spectrometry (PTR-ToF-MS): Aldehydes, hemiterpene, organosulfur, short-chain fatty acids, alcohols, ketone, aromatics, nitrile, and monoterpene. Hemodynamic parameters: SpO ₂ , PETCO ₂ , HR, RR, SBP, DBP, cardiac output, exhaled oxygen, and humidity.
Szczesniak et al. (96)	Survey study	Self-administered online questionnaire After mask restrictions vs. before mask restrictions	<i>N</i> = 1,476 vs. 564	Not given	Employment status, place of residence, worktime per week, somatic symptoms, anxiety and insomnia, social dysfunction, and depression
Szepietowski et al. (97)	Survey study	Self-administered online questionnaire	<i>N</i> = 2,307	Not given	Itch, mask types used, and duration of mask use per day
Techasatian et al. (98)	Prospective cross-sectional survey study	Self-administered questionnaire	<i>N</i> = 833	480 min	Factors associated with adverse skin reaction, risk factors for adverse skin reaction, differences between HCW, and non-HCW
Thomas et al. (99)	Two-period controlled trial	Comparing the ability to accurately record 20 randomized aviation terms transmitted over the radio by a helicopter emergency medical services (HEMS) pilot wearing a surgical facemask and six different N95s with and without the aircraft engine operating	<i>N</i> = 3	Not given	Accurately record 20 terms transmitted over the radio by (HEMS) pilot wearing a surgical facemask or N95 mask
Toprak and Bulut (100)	Prospective observational study	surgical vs. N-95 mask <i>n</i> = 149 vs. <i>n</i> = 148	<i>N</i> = 297	35 min	Maternal vital signs: SBP, DBP, HR, RR, fever centigrade, and SpO ₂
Tornero-Aguilera and Clemente-Suárez (101)	Two-period controlled trial	Wearing a surgical facemask vs. not wearing a facemask during 150 min university lessons	<i>N</i> = 50	150 min	Mental fatigue perception, reaction time (ms) SpO ₂ , mean RR (ms), mean HR (bpm) square root of the mean value of the sum of squared differences of all successive R-R intervals (RMSSD; ms), low frequency (LF) and high-frequency (HF) normalized units (n.u.), SD1 (ms), and SD2 (ms)

AT, anaerobic threshold; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; EtCO₂, end-tidal CO₂ partial pressure; ESRD, end stage renal disease; TEWL, trans-epidermal water loss; FEV1, forced expiratory volume in 1 s; FVC, forced vital capacity; HCW, health care worker; HD, hemodialysis; HR, heart rate; MEP, maximal expiratory pressure; TMET1, metabolic equivalent; MIP, maximal inspiratory pressure; PEF, peak expiratory flow; PetCO₂, end-tidal carbon dioxide pressure; PetO₂, end-tidal oxygen pressure; PI, perfusion index; PPE, personal protective equipment; PtCO₂, partial transcutaneous CO₂ pressure; RER, respiratory exchange ratio; RPE, rated perceived exertion; RR, respiratory rate; RR, respiratory rate; SaO₂, hemoglobin oxygen saturation; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SpO₂, oxygen saturation; Te, expiratory time; Ti, inspiratory time; Ttot, Inspiratory + expiratory time; TV, tidal volume; V·CO₂, carbon dioxide production; V·O₂, oxygen uptake; V_E, ventilation in liters/min; VE, ventilation; VT, tidal volume.

taken during physical activity with face masks were included. We excluded resting conditions since these are not particularly representative for real life settings. Additionally, we excluded pre-post studies to ensure study-comparability. In addition, by excluding rest situations of the mostly healthy study participants, our approach was able to represent the possible effects better in older adults and ill individuals (e.g., with compromised compensation mechanisms), all of whom are a significant part of the general population. This also helped to reduce heterogeneity (I^2). Neither for the results of the systolic blood pressure (SBP) nor the temperature did we follow this approach. Studies in which measurements were taken during rest and moderate physical activity were included in the meta-analysis of the physical outcome on SBP to obtain an evaluable number of studies and to ensure a better comparability and lower heterogeneity (exclusion of heavy load exercise conditions). In order to gather more available data for evaluating the temperature, we included two pre-post studies containing a resting condition using valid methodology and exact temperature measurements. This clearly reduced the heterogeneity index I^2 . For the meta-analysis of the resultant CO₂-blood-content the joint evaluation of different experimental CO₂ measurements (PtCO₂, ETCO₂, and PaCO₂) in mmHg was justified by the following facts:

- 1) "ETCO₂ and PtCO₂ measurements both provide an estimation of PaCO₂" (44).
- 2) "End-tidal CO₂ (ETCO₂) has been considered as a reliable estimate of arterial PCO₂, in healthy subjects" (45).
- 3) "PtCO₂ reliably reflects PaCO₂, irrespective of sensor location" (46).
- 4) "Transcutaneous CO₂ (PtCO₂) devices provide another option for the continuous non-invasive estimation of PaCO₂, overcoming the limitations posed by end-tidal CO₂ analysis" (45).
- 5) "ETCO₂ monitoring tends to underestimate PaCO₂ levels" (44).

For meta-analysis of measured sensations, all studies in which measurements were mainly taken during physical activity were included. This helped to ensure comparability, lower heterogeneity and the above mentioned aims to draw conclusions on the general population under conditions resembling real life settings. However, an exemption was made for the sensation "discomfort:" To allow evaluable study numbers, we included one pre-post study with resting condition, however, with valid methodology and exact discomfort evaluations (47). Even if this study had not been included, the result would be significant and unambiguous, however with a slightly larger 95% CI.

Our systematic review also referenced studies aiming to assess the prevalence of sensations and symptoms under mask use. Therefore, we conducted an additional meta-analysis of these observational studies to document the pooled prevalence in mask use. Prevalence was calculated as total number of symptoms per 100 mask wearers. In studies where the standard error (SE) was not reported, we calculated it from the prevalence using the following formula: $SE = \sqrt{p(1-p)/n}$ with a 95% CI = $p \pm 1.96 \times SE$; where, p = Prevalence. This statistical approach to quantify a pooled prevalence from observational studies has been previously reported (48). Meta-analysis was performed using RevMan (Version 5.4.1).

The heterogeneity of each meta-analysis was assessed and then the random effects model was used to calculate the pooled prevalence. We conducted subgroup analysis where possible for mask type (N95/surgical). Funnel plots were used to study the possibility of publication bias as described above.

The inclusion of observational studies, particularly for the prevalence analysis in our meta-analysis is justified because these are particularly suitable to investigate exposures that are difficult or impossible to investigate in randomized controlled trials (RCTs), e.g., air pollution or smoking. In addition, observational studies are important to investigate causes with a long latency period, such as carcinogenic effects of environmental exposures or drugs (49). Thus, possible adverse long-term effects of masks, i.e., comparable to the environmental hazards, appeared to be particularly detectable through observational studies.

Finally, the random statistical control calculations of our results were performed for quality assurance *via* the R software (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, version 4.0.1) and packages metafor, dmetar, meta (36). Knapp-Hartung adjustments to control for the uncertainty in the estimate of the between-study heterogeneity were used in these calculations which are controversial as they result in wider confidence intervals and are also suspected to be anti-conservative even though the effects are very homogeneous (36).

Results

General findings

Literature characteristics

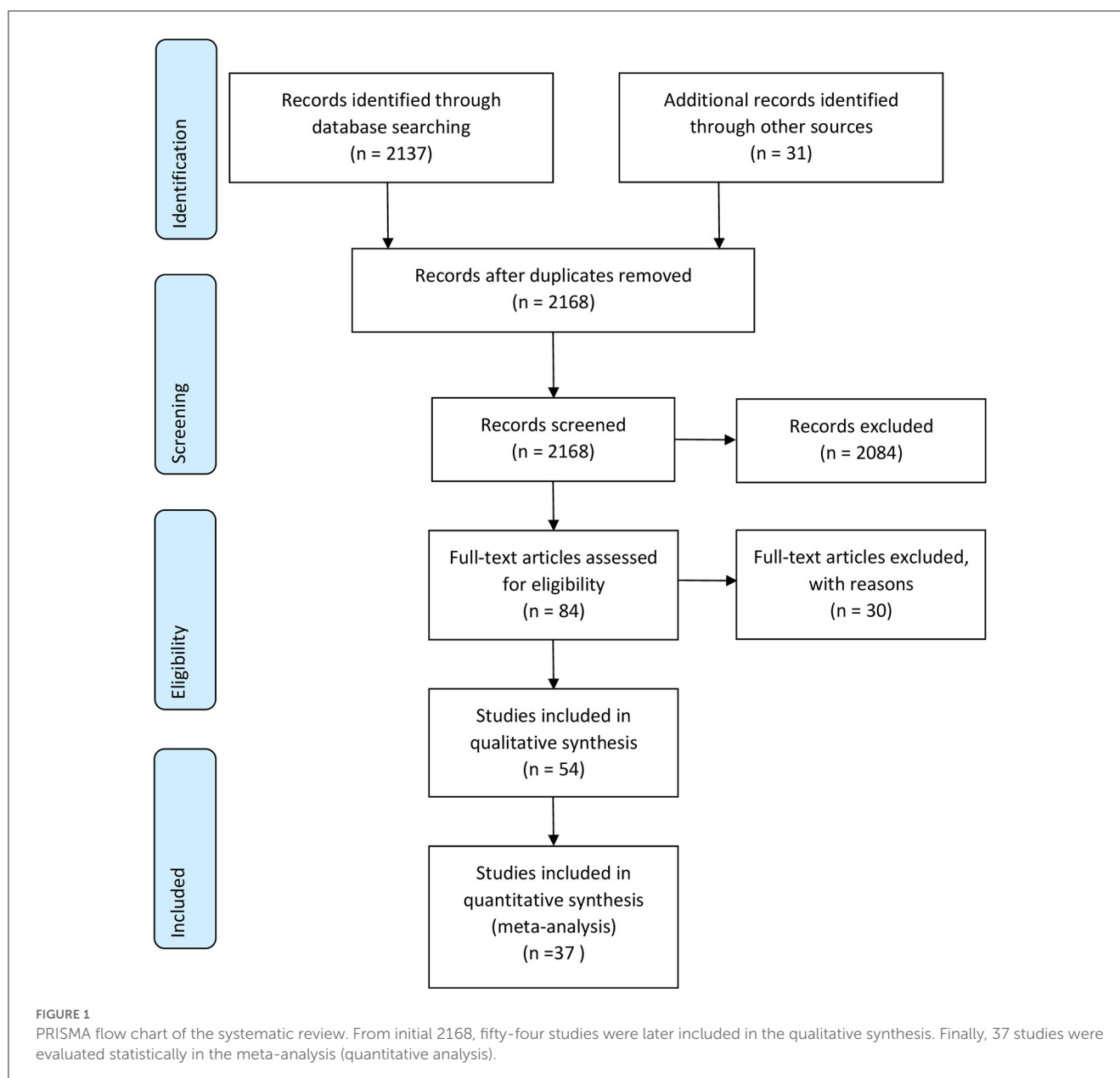
Of the 2,168 screened records, 54 studies were included for qualitative analysis (see extraction tables, Table 1) and 37 for statistical meta-analysis (Figure 1). Among the 54 studies, 23 were intervention studies, and 31 were observational studies. The 23 intervention studies consisted of 14 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and nine non-randomized controlled trials (nRCTs). Of the 31 observational studies, 17 works raised measured values, and 14 were questionnaire studies.

Quality appraisal

The quality of the studies was not very homogeneous. The quality assessment identified some studies with low and average quality, which were excluded from the meta-analysis. We included only high-quality studies in our meta-analysis of RCTs and nRCTs. The quality of the included observational studies is predominantly good. Tables 2A–D summarizes the results of the quality appraisal of the included research papers.

Mask type

Of the 37 meta-analytically evaluated studies, 31 examined the N95 mask, 19 the surgical mask with one not reporting on the specific type of mask due to the predominantly psychological research topic. There were 14 Studies evaluating both mask types (surgical and N95) and we compared the results in a separate meta-analysis (see below, Meta-analysis of N95 mask vs. surgical mask).



Participants and time

In order to conduct the meta-analysis 8,641 subjects were included, totaling 22,127 individual measurements/surveys.

This population consisted of young (age = 34.8 ± 12.5) and predominantly female subjects ($m = 2,482, f = 6,159$).

Physiological, physical, and biochemical data was used in the meta-analyses comprising of 934 participants and 3,765 experimental measurements.

The pooled prevalence data was drawn from a study population of $n = 8,128$ and included 17,383 data entries.

Most of the 37 studies, evaluated in meta-analyses included healthy participants. Twelve studies were conducted in health care workers (32%).

Two studies (5%) included chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), one study on hemodialysis patients, another study included children (3%) and four studies involved pregnant women (11%).

The median experimental time of the studies included in the meta-analyses (mostly controlled trials) on physiological, physical, and chemical face mask effects was 18 min with an interquartile range (IQR) of 50 min (min.: 6 min, max.: 360 min). There was a major variation in mask wearing durations with several outliers leading to a large standard deviation (mean of 45.8 min with a standard deviation of 69.9 min). Therefore, the mean was not an appropriate parameter to characterize this distribution).

The study with the longest experimental duration (360 min, observational) included only 21 healthy participants, which corresponds to 2.2% of the total population studied ($n = 934$).

Interestingly, the studies on symptoms (including many observational studies) had significantly longer observation times and a mean of 263.8 ± 170.3 min (median 240, IQR 180) in a total of $n = 8,128$ participants.

Qualitative evaluation

Of the 54 included studies, 51 reported numerous adverse mask effects across multiple clinical disciplines, as already compiled in a previous scoping review (14). Also 14 of the 17 studies, which were not included in the meta-analysis reported those numerous mask effects.

Overall, our systematic review found mask related symptoms that can be classified under the previously described Mask-Induced Exhaustion Syndrome (MIES) (14), with typical changes and symptoms that are often observed in combination.

Among the included 54 studies (Table 1), we detected and compiled reports on frequently statistically significant physiological and psychological changes ($p < 0.05$) belonging to the MIES such as:

- increase in breathing dead space volume (60, 65).
- increase in breathing resistance (53, 59, 66, 67, 83).
- increase in blood carbon dioxide (26, 51–58, 60, 62, 63, 65, 68, 71, 81, 87, 91, 94).
- decrease in blood oxygen saturation (26, 52–54, 57–60, 62, 67, 71, 72, 79, 81, 91, 94, 100, 101).
- increase in heart rate (26, 52, 56, 57, 60, 61, 67, 68, 72, 81, 83, 94, 100, 101).
- decrease in cardiopulmonary capacity (53, 59, 62).
- changes in respiratory rate (52–54, 56, 59, 60, 62, 68, 79, 81, 100).
- shortness of breath and difficulty breathing (47, 52–54, 58, 68, 69, 73, 79, 81, 83, 86, 87, 92, 94).
- headache (54, 63, 73, 78, 82, 84, 89, 92–95).
- dizziness (54, 79, 81).
- feeling hot and clammy (52, 53, 58, 60, 68, 69, 83, 86).
- decreased ability to concentrate (101).
- decreased ability to think (81, 94, 95, 101).
- drowsiness (95).
- impaired skin barrier function (47, 74, 95).
- itching (47, 52, 53, 74, 80, 82, 83, 86, 97, 98).
- acne, skin lesions and irritation (47, 68, 74, 81, 82, 86, 95, 98).
- false sense of security (85, 96).
- overall perceived fatigue and exhaustion (52–54, 57–62, 68, 70, 71, 73, 79, 83, 94).

Moreover, we could objectify additional symptoms of the MIES as follows:

- decrease in ventilation (53, 59, 62).
- increase in blood pressure (26, 52, 53, 59, 62, 81, 83, 87, 100).
- increase of measured temperature of the skin under the mask (58, 68, 69, 90).
- increase of measured humidity of the air under the mask (58, 69, 90).
- communication disturbance (86, 88, 94, 95, 99).
- voice disorder (76, 86).
- perceived discomfort (47, 52, 53, 69).
- increased anxiety (75, 88, 92).
- increased mood swings or depressive mood (75, 76, 88, 92).

and:

- changes in microbial metabolism (lower gut and oral) (26, 77).

However, three studies (6% of the included papers) describe the absence of adverse or even positive mask effects (50, 64, 96).

Results of the meta-analysis

In the meta-analytic evaluation, we found biochemical, physiological, physical, and perceptual symptoms with face mask use. We were also able to meta-analyze the pooled prevalence of symptoms. These results are presented in detail below.

Meta-analysis of biochemical effects of face masks

SpO₂ and face masks

The results are summarized in Figure 2A.

In a pooled analysis, blood oxygen saturation resulted significantly lowered during mask use. This could be found for general mask use ($p = 0.0004$, SMD = -0.24 , 95% CI -0.38 to -0.11 , $Z = 3.53$, $I^2 = 0\%$). The Eggers' test did not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry [$t_{(df=11)} = -0.70$, $p = 0.50$]. This was also confirmed in the subgroup analysis for N95 mask use ($p = 0.001$, SMD = -0.3 , 95% CI -0.49 to -0.12 , $Z = 3.19$, $I^2 = 0\%$), but not for surgical mask use [$p = 0.08$, SMD = -0.17 , 95% CI $(-0.37; 0.02)$, $Z = 1.77$, $I^2 = 0\%$]. However, seven of nine studies in the N95 mask meta-analysis were presumably because of the limited sample size. From the pooled analysis, it seems that N95 mask use may be responsible for a larger SpO₂ drop than surgical masks.

In a separate meta-analysis of pre-post studies an equally significant drop in SpO₂ was found when using a mask ($p = 0.0001$, SMD = -1.24 , 95% CI -1.87 to -0.61 , $Z = 3.87$, $I^2 = 80\%$) and especially in the subgroup of N95 masks ($p = 0.02$, SMD = -1.24 , 95% CI -2.26 to -0.22 , $Z = 2.37$, $I^2 = 89\%$), yet with a high heterogeneity.

Blood CO₂ content and face masks

The results are summarized in Figure 2B.

In a pooled analysis, blood carbon dioxide content was found to be significantly elevated in mask use. This was found for general mask use ($p = 0.0001$, SMD = 0.64 , 95% CI 0.31 to 0.96 , $Z = 3.86$, $I^2 = 81\%$). The Eggers' test did not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry [$t_{(df=11)} = -0.87$, $p = 0.40$]. This was also confirmed for N95 mask use ($p = 0.003$, SMD = 0.78 , 95% CI 0.28 to 1.29 , $Z = 3.02$, $I^2 = 84\%$) and also for surgical mask use ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 0.42 , 95% CI 0.24 to 0.59 , $Z = 4.65$, $I^2 = 0\%$).

There was no significant difference between the pooled effect sizes of N95 and surgical masks [$Q_{(df=1)} = 3.09$, $p = 0.08$]. Further separate pooled evaluations were also carried out for PtCO₂, ETCO₂, and PaCO₂, for each surgical and N95 masks with a significant increase in blood CO₂ with predominantly low heterogeneity.

Even in a separate meta-analysis of pre-post studies with high heterogeneity, a significant increase in blood carbon dioxide

TABLE 2A Quality appraisal of randomized trials (Cochrane RoB tool++).

References	Selection bias		Performance bias	Detection bias	Attrition bias	Reporting bias	Other bias
	1. Random sampling	2. Allocation blinding					
Bertoli et al. (50)	LR	LR	HR	HR	LR	UC	LR
Butz (51)	LR	LR	HR	LR	UC	UC	UC
Dirol et al. (52)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	LR	LR
Fikenzer et al. (53)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	LR	LR
Georgi et al. (54)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	UC	LR
Goh et al. (55)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	LR	LR
Hua et al. (47)	LR	LR	HR	LR	UC	UC	LR
Kim et al. (56)	HR	LR	HR	LR	LR	LR	LR
Kim et al. (57)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	UC	LR
Kim et al. (58)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	UC	LR
Mapelli et al. (59)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	UC	LR
Roberge et al. (60)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	UC	LR
Wong et al. (61)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	UC	LR
Zhang et al. (62)	LR	LR	HR	LR	LR	LR	LR

(A) Shows the quality analysis of RCTs with Cochrane RoB tool++. LR = low risk; HR = high risk; UC = Unclear.

TABLE 2B Quality appraisal of non-randomized controlled trials (CASP checklist).

References	1. Clear focus?	2. Appropriate methods?	3. Recruitment comprehensible?	4. Valid measurement of exposure?	5. Valid measurement of outcome?	6. Equality of groups?	7. Confounders taken into account?	8. Sufficient size and significance of the effect?	9. Credibility of the results?	10. Transferability to other populations? clear focus?	11. Comparability with existing evidence?
Bharatendu et al. (63)	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	UC
Coniam (64)	UC	N	Y	Y	Y	UC	UC	Y	Y	Y	UC
Epstein et al. (65)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	N	Y	Y	Y
Lee and Wang (66)	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	UC	Y	UC
Roberge et al. (68)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Roberge et al. (67)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Scarano et al. (69)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	Y	Y	UC
Shenal et al. (70)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC
Tong et al. (71)	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC

(B) Lists the results of the quality analysis of nRCTs with CASP checklist, Y = yes, N = no, UC = unclear.

TABLE 2C Quality appraisal of the observational studies (CASP checklist).

References	1. Clear focus?	2. Appropriate methods?	3. Recruitment comprehensible?	4. Valid measurement of exposure?	5. Valid measurement of outcome?	6. Equality of groups?	7. Confounders taken into account?	8. Sufficient size and significance of the effect?	9. Credibility of the results?	10. Transferability to other populations? clear focus?	11. Comparability with existing evidence?
Beder et al. (72)	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	UC	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
Choudhury et al. (73)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Islam et al. (77)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	UC	Y	Y
Jafari et al. (78)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	Y	N	UC
Kao et al. (79)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	UC
Klimek et al. (80)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	Y	Y	UC
Kyung et al. (81)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	UC
Li et al. (83)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	Y	Y	UC
Luckman et al. (85)	Y	UC	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC
Mo (87)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	UC	Y	Y	Y	Y
Park et al. (90)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	UC
Pifarré et al. (91)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC
Rebmann et al. (94)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y
Sukul et al. (26)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC
Thomas et al. (99)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC
Toprak and Bulut (100)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	UC	N	Y	Y	N	Y
Tornero-Aguilera and Clemente-Suárez (101)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y

(C) Is on the quality analysis of observational (non-questionnaire) studies with CASP checklist, Y = yes, N = no, UC = unclear.

content was found when using a mask ($p = 0.003$, $SMD = 1.44$, 95% CI 0.49 to 2.39, $Z = 2.97$, $I^2 = 94\%$) and also in the subgroup of N95 masks ($p = 0.02$, $SMD = 1.51$, 95% CI 0.24 to 2.78, $Z = 2.34$, $I^2 = 96\%$).

Interestingly, 11 of 17 showed no statistically significant effect. The studies that showed statistically significant effects differed from those that showed no certain effects as they either included N95 and/or pregnant women or children. The study by Dirol et al. (52) is an exception but has a sample size of $n = 100$ for surgical masks. Apparently, it takes N95 masks and vulnerable populations or appropriately large samples in surgical masks to make the effects more quantifiable.

Predictably, in the surgical mask meta-analysis, studies with non-significant results were of small sample size, with a mean of $n = 24$ and a median of $n = 14$. The advantage of a meta-analysis

is to combine several imprecise effects into a more precise overall effect (36).

Meta-analysis of physiological effects of face masks

Ventilation (V_E) in L/min and face masks

The results are summarized in Figure 3A.

Despite compensatory mechanisms, breathing volume (L/min) was significantly lowered during mask use in the pooled analysis.

This was not only verified for general mask use ($p < 0.001$, $SMD = -0.72$, $Z = 5.36$, 95% CI -0.99 to -0.46 , $I^2 = 0\%$) in studies evaluated with an overall low heterogeneity ($I^2 = 0$), but also for surgical ($p < 0.001$, $SMD = -0.54$, 95% CI -0.94 to -0.35 , $Z =$

TABLE 2D Quality appraisal of the questionnaire studies (CASP checklist).

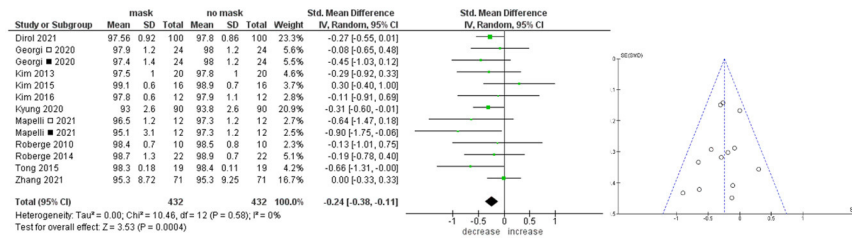
References	Study design		Validity and reliability		Questionnaire quality		Questionnaire design		Sample		Distribution and response		Analysis		Results		Summary and recommendation	
	Was a questionnaire study an appropriate method?	Are the results valid and realistic?	Does the questionnaire used provide reliable results?	Were sample questions provided?	Are the questions formulated in a clear and understandable way?	Details on how the questionnaire was prepared?	Was the questionnaire prepared in an appropriate manner?	Was the sample sufficiently large and representative?	Was information provided on how the questionnaire was made available?	Was information provided on response rates and exclusion criteria?	Was potential response bias discussed?	Were the results analyzed appropriately?	Were all relevant results published?	Were both significant and non-significant results published?	Were results adequately interpreted?	Does the summary reflect the results of the study?	Were the results placed in context with existing literature?	
Foo et al. (74)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Forge et al. (75)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	UC	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	
Heider et al. (76)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Lan et al. (82)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Lim et al. (84)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Matusiak et al. (86)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	UC	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Naylor et al. (88)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	
Ong et al. (89)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Prousa (92)	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	UC	
Ramirez-Moreno et al. (93)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Rosner (95)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Szczesniak et al. (96)	Y	N	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	N	N	Y	UC	N	N	Y	Y	
Szepietowski et al. (97)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
Techasatian et al. (98)	Y	Y	UC	N	UC	N	UC	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	

(D) Documents the quality analysis of the questionnaire studies using the CASP checklist, Y = yes, N = no, UC = unclear.

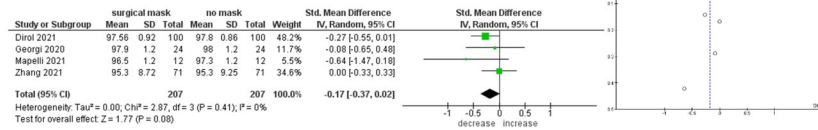
Meta-analysis of biochemical outcomes

A SpO₂

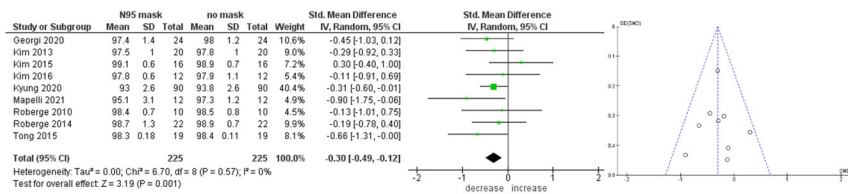
Blood oxygen saturation when using a mask (general)



Blood oxygen saturation when using a surgical mask

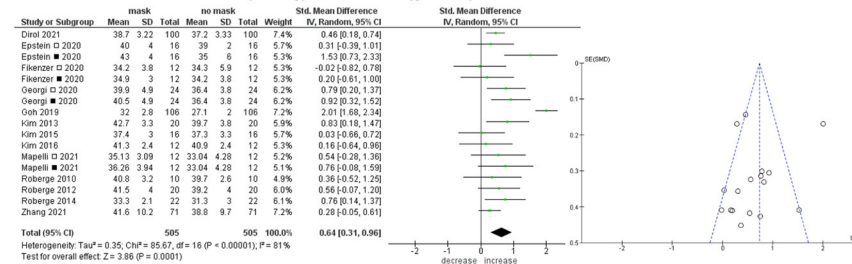


Blood oxygen saturation when using a N95 mask

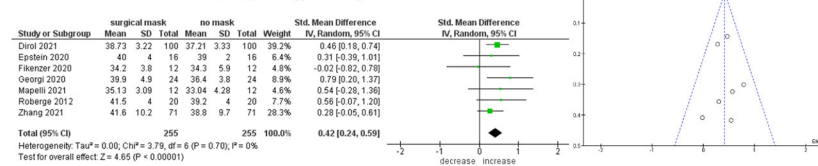


B CO₂ (evaluation of PtCO₂, ETCO₂ und PaCO₂)

Carbon dioxide blood content (mmHg) in mask use (general)



Carbon dioxide blood content (mmHg) in surgical mask use



Carbon dioxide blood content (mmHg) in N95 mask use

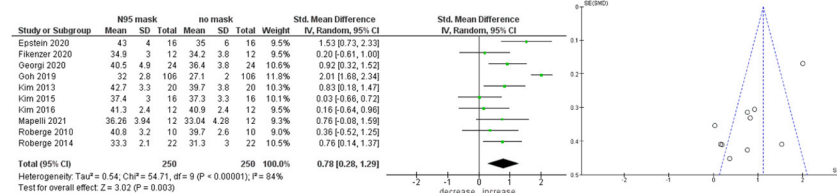


FIGURE 2

Forest (left) and funnel plots (right) of meta-analysis of blood oxygenation and blood carbon dioxide outcomes while wearing a face mask. All face mask types are initially considered together, later subgroups (surgical and N95) are evaluated. If studies examine two different mask types in parallel, the corresponding studies are marked: □ = surgical mask ■ = N95 mask. (A) Blood oxygen is significantly lowered in mask use. In the subgroup analysis this could also be found for N95 mask use. From the pooled analysis, it seems, that N95 mask may be responsible for a larger SpO₂ drop than surgical masks. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always lower O₂-values than the surgical masks. (B) In the pooled analysis, blood carbon dioxide (PtCO₂, ETCO₂ and PaCO₂) is significantly elevated in mask use. This could be found for general mask use and in the subgroup analysis for surgical mask, and also for N95 mask use. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always higher CO₂-values than the surgical masks.

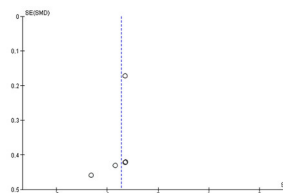
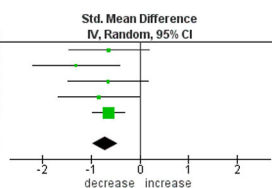
Meta-analysis of respiratory outcomes

A Ventilation

Ventilation (l/min) when using a mask (general)

Study or Subgroup	mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total		
Fikenzler □ 2020	114	23.3	12	131	27.8	12	10.2%	-0.64 [-1.46, 0.18]
Fikenzler ■ 2020	98.8	18.6	12	131	27.8	12	8.6%	-1.31 [-2.21, -0.42]
Mapelli □ 2021	76.2	21.6	12	92.3	26	12	10.2%	-0.65 [-1.48, 0.17]
Mapelli ■ 2021	71.6	21.2	12	92.3	26	12	9.8%	-0.84 [-1.68, -0.00]
Zhang 2021	55.1	17.3	71	66.5	17.9	71	61.1%	-0.64 [-0.98, -0.31]
Total (95% CI)			119			119	100.0%	-0.72 [-0.99, -0.46]

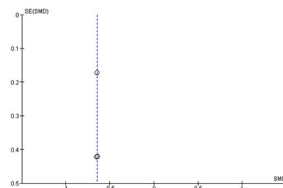
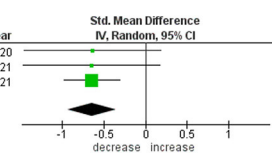
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.00; Chi² = 2.02, df = 4 (P = 0.73); I² = 0%
Test for overall effect: Z = 5.36 (P < 0.00001)



Ventilation (l/min) when using a surgical mask

Study or Subgroup	surgical mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI	Year
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total			
Fikenzler 2020	114	23.3	12	131	27.8	12	12.6%	-0.64 [-1.46, 0.18]	2020
Mapelli 2021	76.2	21.6	12	92.3	26	12	12.5%	-0.65 [-1.48, 0.17]	2021
Zhang 2021	55.1	17.3	71	66.5	17.9	71	74.9%	-0.64 [-0.98, -0.31]	2021
Total (95% CI)			95			95	100.0%	-0.64 [-0.94, -0.35]	

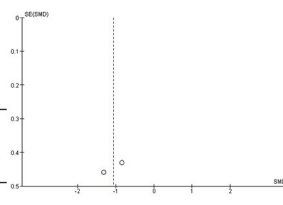
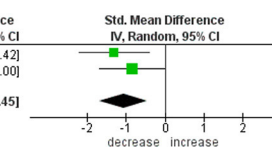
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.00; Chi² = 0.00, df = 2 (P = 1.00); I² = 0%
Test for overall effect: Z = 4.32 (P < 0.0001)



Ventilation (l/min) when using a N95 mask

Study or Subgroup	N95 mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total		
Fikenzler 2020	98.8	18.6	12	131	27.8	12	46.8%	-1.31 [-2.21, -0.42]
Mapelli 2021	71.6	21.2	12	92.3	26	12	53.2%	-0.84 [-1.68, -0.00]
Total (95% CI)			24			24	100.0%	-1.06 [-1.68, -0.45]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.00; Chi² = 0.57, df = 1 (P = 0.45); I² = 0%
Test for overall effect: Z = 3.39 (P = 0.0007)



B Respiratory rate

Breathing frequency (breaths/min) when using a mask (general)

Study or Subgroup	mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total		
Dirol 2021	19.7	3.21	100	17.46	3.31	100	9.8%	0.68 [0.40, 0.97]
Fikenzler □ 2020	39.3	6.2	12	40.9	5.1	12	5.9%	-0.27 [-1.08, 0.53]
Fikenzler ■ 2020	36.8	5.9	12	40.9	5.1	12	5.7%	-0.72 [-1.55, 0.11]
Georgji □ 2020	28.2	8.5	24	26.4	6.1	24	7.6%	0.24 [-0.33, 0.81]
Georgji ■ 2020	29	9.8	24	26.4	6.1	24	7.6%	0.31 [-0.26, 0.88]
Kim 2013	24.1	3.7	16	21.7	3.4	16	6.5%	0.66 [-0.06, 1.37]
Kim 2016	28.4	3.2	12	28.1	7.1	12	5.9%	0.05 [-0.75, 0.85]
Kyung 2020	25.7	7.5	90	23.3	2.6	90	9.7%	0.43 [0.13, 0.72]
Mapelli □ 2021	37.7	5.5	12	41.5	8	12	5.8%	-0.53 [-1.35, 0.28]
Mapelli ■ 2021	37.1	4.5	12	41.5	8	12	5.8%	-0.65 [-1.48, 0.17]
Roberge 2010	26.6	6.8	10	27.7	8.6	10	5.4%	-0.14 [-1.01, 0.74]
Roberge 2012	24.7	3.7	20	23.7	2.7	20	7.2%	0.30 [-0.32, 0.93]
Roberge 2014	24.9	6.1	22	26.4	4.2	22	7.4%	-0.28 [-0.88, 0.31]
Zhang 2021	33.8	7.98	71	37.9	6.72	71	9.4%	-0.55 [-0.89, -0.22]
Total (95% CI)			437			437	100.0%	0.01 [-0.28, 0.30]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.20; Chi² = 50.36, df = 13 (P < 0.00001); I² = 74%
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.08 (P = 0.94)

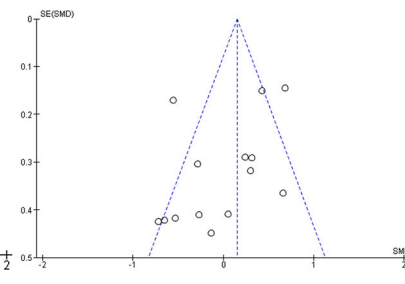
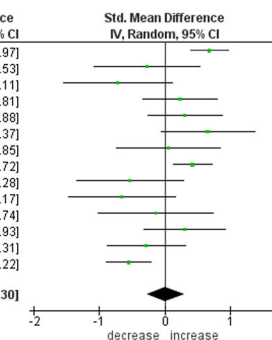


FIGURE 3

Forest (left) and funnel plots (right) of meta-analysis of physiological respiratory outcomes while wearing a face mask. (A) Shows results for ventilation (V_E). (B) for respiratory rate (RR). All face mask types are initially considered together, later subgroups (surgical and N95) are evaluated. If studies examine two different mask types in parallel, the corresponding studies are marked: □ = surgical mask ■ = N95 mask. (A) Breathing volume is significantly lowered in mask use in the pooled analysis. This could be found for general, for surgical, and N95 mask use. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always lower ventilation (V_E) than the surgical masks. (B) No statistical difference could be found regarding respiratory rate in mask use in the pooled analysis, even in the subgroup analysis (not shown).

4.32, I² = 0%) and N95 mask use (p = 0.0007, SMD = -1.06, 95% CI -1.68 to -0.45, Z = 3.39, I² = 0%). Both studies had an overall low heterogeneity (I² = 0).

On average, masks reduced respiratory minute volume by -19% according to our meta-analysis, and by as much as -24% for N95 masks; the difference between surgical and N95 masks was -10% respiratory minute volume.

Respiratory rate and face masks

The results are summarized in Figure 3B.

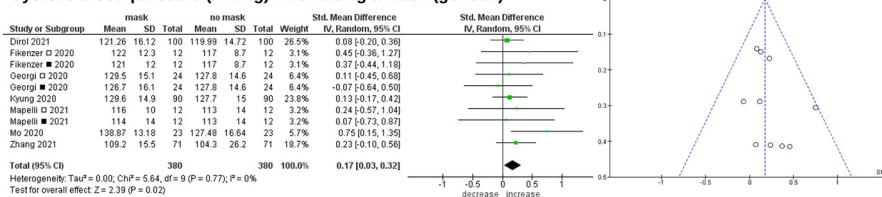
Interestingly, no statistical difference regarding respiratory rate was found in mask use in the pooled analysis.

Even in the subgroups containing N95 and surgical masks, no difference compared to the no mask condition could be found.

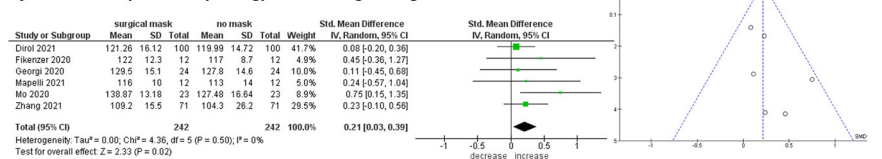
Meta-analysis of cardiovascular outcomes

A Systolic blood pressure (SBP)

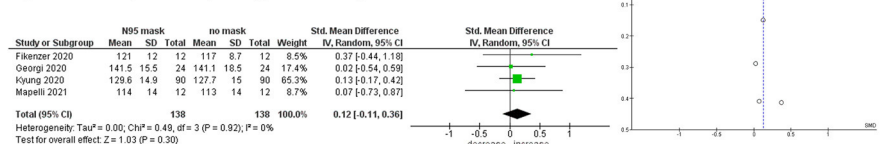
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) when using a mask (general)



Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) when using a surgical mask

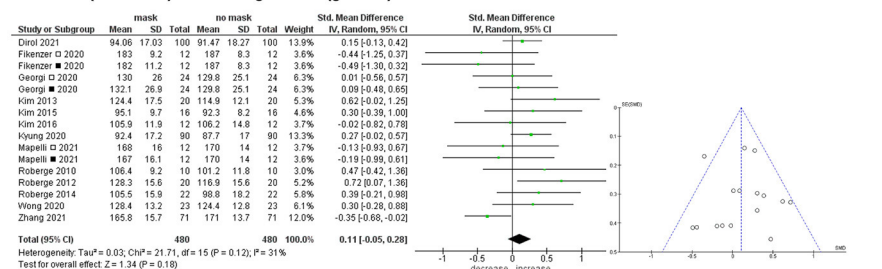


Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) when using a N95 mask

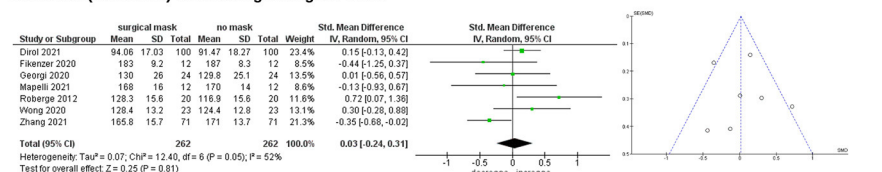


B Heart rate

Heart rate (beats/min) when using a mask (general)



Heart rate (beats/min) when using a surgical mask



Heart rate (beats/min) when using a N95 mask

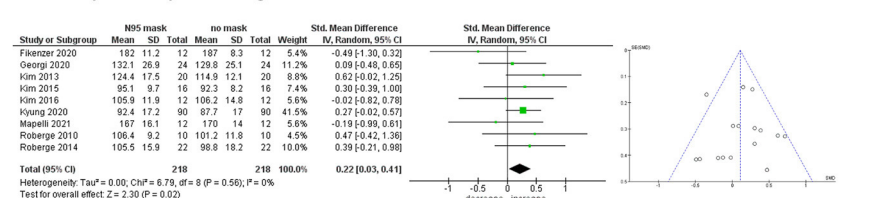


FIGURE 4

Forest (left) and funnel plots (right) of meta-analysis of the physiological cardiovascular outcomes systolic blood pressure (SBP) and heart rate (HR). All controlled intervention studies in which measurements were taken during physical activity with face masks were included (exclusion of rest situation and pre-post studies). All face masks types are initially considered together, later if possible subgroups (surgical and N95) are evaluated. If studies evaluate two different mask types in parallel, the corresponding studies are marked: □ = surgical mask ■ = N95 mask. (A) Systolic blood pressure is elevated in the mask condition and also for the subgroup of surgical mask. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always higher SBP than the surgical mask, however this effect was not statistically significant. (B) For the N95 mask condition a low significance for a slight increase in heart rate could be found. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always higher HR than the surgical mask, and this effect was statistically significant.

Systolic blood pressure and masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 4A](#).

A significant elevation in systolic blood pressure was found for mask users with $p = 0.02$, SMD = 0.17, 95% CI 0.03 to 0.32, $Z = 2.39$ and $I^2 = 0\%$ in the pooled analysis. It was a small effect and in nine out of 10 studies insignificant, including two with higher n in each case. The Eggers' test does not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry [$t_{(df=8)}$, $p = 0.27$]. This was verified in the subgroup analysis for surgical masks ($p = 0.02$, SMD = 0.21, 95% CI 0.03 to 0.39, $Z = 2.33$, $I^2 = 0\%$). In studies evaluating both mask types (surgical and N95) the N95 mask always yielded a higher SBP than the surgical mask. However, this effect was not statistically significant. There was no significant difference between the pooled effect sizes of N95 and surgical masks [$Q_{(df=1)} = 0.98$, $p = 0.32$].

Heart rate and masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 4B](#).

No statistically significant difference regarding the heart rate during mask use was found in the pooled analysis. The Eggers' test did not indicate the presence of funnel plot asymmetry [$t_{(df=14)}$, $p = 0.94$]. However, in the subgroup analysis containing surgical and N95 masks, only for the N95 mask condition a weak significance for a slight increase in heart rate could be found ($p = 0.02$, SMD = 0.22, 95% CI 0.03 to 0.41, $Z = 2.30$ and low heterogeneity of studies with $I^2 = 0$). There was no significant difference between the pooled effect sizes of N95 and surgical masks [$Q_{(df=1)} = 1.26$, $p = 0.26$].

Meta-analysis of physical effects of face masks

Skin temperature and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 5A](#).

Skin covered by mask had a significantly higher temperature during rest and activity. This could be found for general mask use ($p = 0.005$, SMD = 0.80, 95% CI 0.23 to 1.38, $Z = 2.81$, $I^2 = 72\%$), for N95 mask use ($p = 0.02$, SMD = 0.72, 95% CI 0.12 to 1.32, $Z = 2.35$, $I^2 = 55\%$), but not for surgical mask use ($p = 0.21$, SMD = 0.96, $Z = 1.26$, $I^2 = 90\%$).

Humidity and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 5B](#).

The dead space covered by mask had a significantly higher humidity in the pooled analysis.

This could be found for general mask use with $p < 0.001$, SMD = 2.24, 95% CI 1.32 to 3.17, $Z = 4.75$ and $I^2 = 50\%$.

Meta-analysis of measured symptoms and sensations during face mask use

Discomfort and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 6A](#).

Perceived discomfort was significantly higher in mask use during rest and activity in the pooled analysis.

This could be found for general mask use ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 1.16, 95% CI 0.58 to 1.73, $Z = 3.94$, $I^2 = 74\%$), for N95 mask use ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 1.98, 95% CI 1.37 to 2.59, $Z = 6.34$, $I^2 = 0\%$) as well as for surgical mask use ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 0.71, 95% CI 0.46 to 0.96, $Z = 5.58$, $I^2 = 0\%$).

Itch and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 6B](#).

In N95 mask use, the perceived itching was significantly elevated ($p = 0.003$, SMD = 2.65, 95% CI 1.21 to 4.09, $Z = 3.6$, $I^2 = 83\%$) during activity according to the pooled subgroup analysis.

Exertion and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 6C](#).

Perceived exertion is significantly higher in mask use during activity in the pooled analysis.

This could be found for general mask use ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 0.90, 95% CI 0.58 to 1.23, $Z = 5.31$, $I^2 = 71\%$), for N95 mask use ($p = 0.002$, SMD = 1.19, 95% CI 0.43 to 1.95, $Z = 3.06$, $I^2 = 81\%$) as well as for surgical mask use ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 0.63, 95% CI 0.40 to 0.87, $Z = 5.29$, $I^2 = 24\%$). The Eggers' test indicates the presence of funnel plot asymmetry [$t_{(df=10)} = 2.68$, $p = 0.02$]. For N95 mask use ($p = 0.002$, SMD = 1.19, $Z = 3.06$, $I^2 = 81\%$) and this result was confirmed for surgical mask use too ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 0.63, $Z = 5.29$, $I^2 = 24\%$). There was no significant difference between the pooled effect sizes of N95 and surgical masks [$Q_{(df=1)} = 1.97$, $p = 0.16$].

Shortness of breath and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 6D](#).

Perceived shortness of breath was significantly higher during mask use during activity in the pooled analysis ($p = 0.006$, SMD = 1.46, 95% CI 0.42 to 2.50, $Z = 2.75$, $I^2 = 86\%$).

Perceived heat and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 6E](#).

Perceived heat is significantly higher during mask use with physical activity in the pooled analysis ($p = 0.002$, SMD = 0.70, 95% CI 0.28 to 1.13, $Z = 3.27$, $I^2 = 62\%$).

In the subgroup analysis containing surgical and N95 masks the heat perception was increased in both mask types, but only for the surgical mask condition a statistical significance for an increase in heat perception could be found ($p = 0.008$, SMD = 0.61, 95% CI 0.16 to 1.06, $Z = 2.66$, $I^2 = 50\%$).

Perceived humidity and face masks

The results are summarized in [Figure 6F](#).

Perceived humidity was significantly higher in mask use during activity according to the pooled analysis ($p = 0.002$, SMD = 0.90, 95% CI 0.34 to 1.46, $Z = 3.17$, $I^2 = 53\%$).

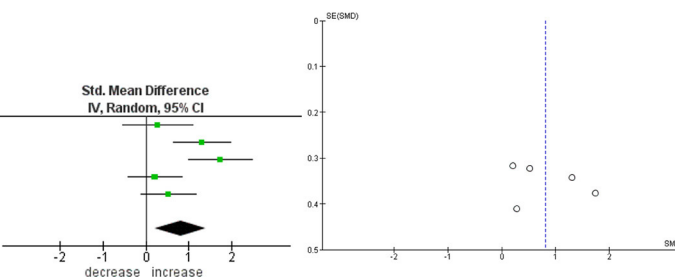
Meta-analysis of physical outcomes

A Temperature (skin in °C)

Skin temperature below a mask during use

Study or Subgroup	mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total		
Kim 2016	35	0.7	12	34.8	0.7	12	18.2%	0.28 [-0.53, 1.08]
Park 2020	35.133	1.229	21	33.5	1.235	21	20.4%	1.30 [0.63, 1.97]
Roberge 2012	33.7	0.88	20	31.94	1.1	20	19.3%	1.73 [0.99, 2.47]
Scarano □ 2020	35.9	3.4	20	35.2	3.1	20	21.2%	0.21 [-0.41, 0.83]
Scarano ■ 2020	36.9	4.2	20	35	2.8	20	21.0%	0.52 [-0.11, 1.15]
Total (95% CI)			93			93	100.0%	0.80 [0.23, 1.38]

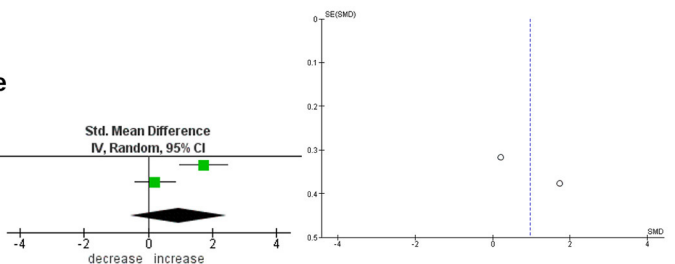
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.31; Chi² = 14.07, df = 4 (P = 0.007); I² = 72%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.72 (P = 0.006)



Skin temperature below a surgical mask during use

Study or Subgroup	surgical mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI	Year
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total			
Roberge 2012	33.7	0.88	20	31.94	1.1	20	49.1%	1.73 [0.99, 2.47]	2012
Scarano 2020	35.9	3.4	20	35.2	3.1	20	50.9%	0.21 [-0.41, 0.83]	2020
Total (95% CI)			40			40	100.0%	0.96 [-0.53, 2.45]	

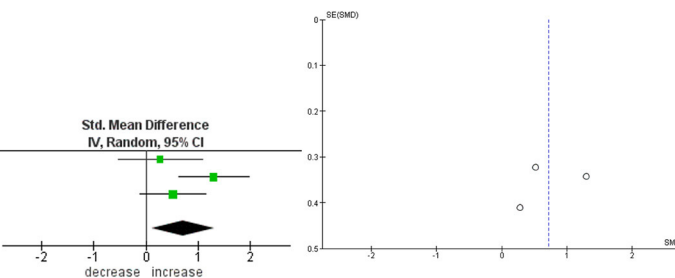
Heterogeneity: Tau² = 1.04; Chi² = 9.55, df = 1 (P = 0.002); I² = 90%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 1.26 (P = 0.21)



Skin temperature below a N95 mask during use

Study or Subgroup	N95 mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total		
Kim 2016	35	0.7	12	34.8	0.7	12	29.1%	0.28 [-0.53, 1.08]
Park 2020	35.133	1.229	21	33.5	1.235	21	34.5%	1.30 [0.63, 1.97]
Scarano 2020	36.9	4.2	20	35	2.8	20	36.4%	0.52 [-0.11, 1.15]
Total (95% CI)			53			53	100.0%	0.72 [0.12, 1.32]

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.15; Chi² = 4.41, df = 2 (P = 0.11); I² = 55%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 2.35 (P = 0.02)



B Humidity (air humidity in % under mask)

Humidity of breathing air with face mask compared to no mask

Study or Subgroup	mask			no mask			Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI	Year
	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD	Total			
Roberge 2012	91.49	8.8	20	53.19	17.66	20	52.4%	2.69 [1.81, 3.57]	2012
Kim 2016	82.8	16.6	12	56	12.8	12	47.6%	1.75 [0.78, 2.71]	2016
Total (95% CI)			32			32	100.0%	2.24 [1.32, 3.17]	

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.22; Chi² = 2.02, df = 1 (P = 0.16); I² = 50%
 Test for overall effect: Z = 4.75 (P < 0.00001)

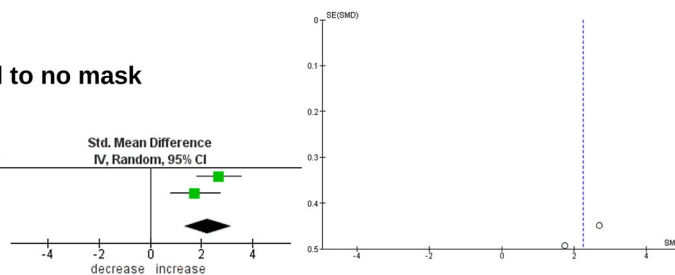


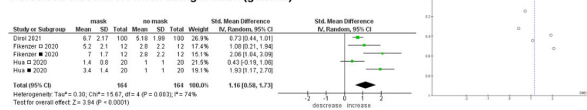
FIGURE 5

Forest (left) and funnel plots (right) of meta-analysis of physical outcomes while wearing a face mask. (A) Shows results for temperature of skin, (B) for air humidity underneath the face mask. All mask types are initially considered together, later subgroups (surgical and N95) are evaluated. If studies examine two different mask types in parallel, the corresponding studies are marked: □ = surgical mask ■ = N95 mask. (A) Skin covered by mask has a significantly higher temperature during rest and activity. This could be found for general mask use and for N95 mask use but not for surgical mask use. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded higher temperatures than the surgical mask, but this could not be analyzed further due to lack of further studies comparing both conditions. (B) The dead space covered by mask has a significantly higher air humidity in the pooled analysis.

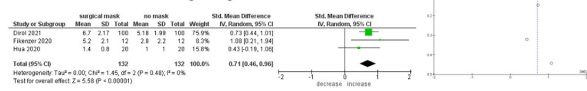
Meta-analysis of measured sensations and symptoms

A Discomfort

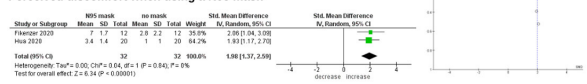
Perceived discomfort when using a mask (general)



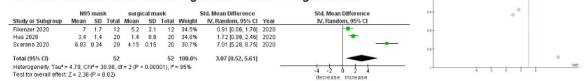
Perceived discomfort when using a surgical mask



Perceived discomfort when using a N95 mask

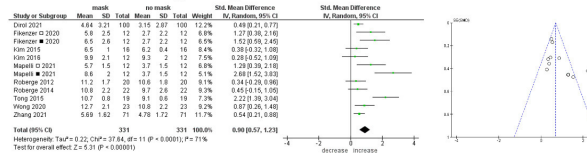


Perceived discomfort when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask

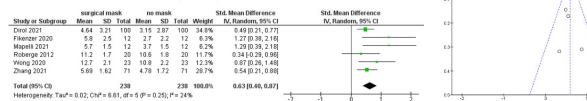


C Exertion

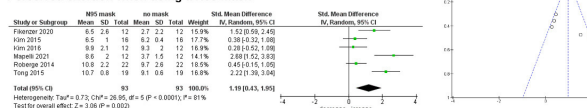
Perceived exertion when using a mask (general)



Perceived exertion when using a surgical mask

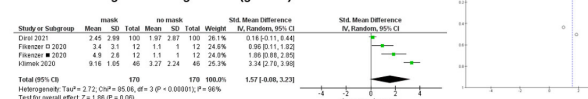


Perceived exertion when using a N95 mask

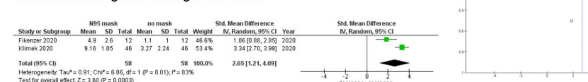


B Itch

Perceived itching when using a mask (general)

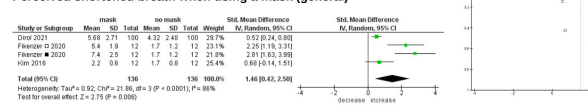


Perceived itching when using a N95 mask



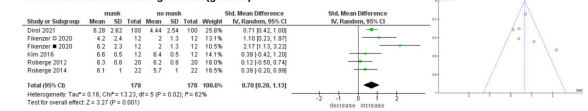
D Shortness of breath

Perceived shortened breath when using a mask (general)



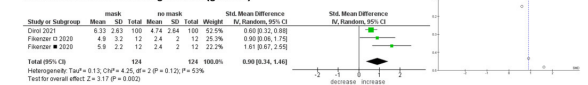
E Heat

Perceived heat when using a mask (general)



F Humidity

Perceived humidity when using a mask (general)



Perceived humidity when using a surgical mask

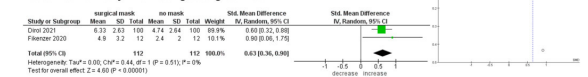


FIGURE 6

Forest and funnel plots of meta-analysis of measured discomfort (A), itch (B), exertion (C), shortness of breath (D), perceived heat (E), and humidity (F) during face mask use (VAS, Likert-scales or similar) in an evaluated population of $n = 373$. All face mask types are initially considered together, later subgroups (surgical and N95) are evaluated. If studies examine two different mask types in parallel, the corresponding studies are marked: □ = surgical mask ■ = N95 mask. (A) Perceived discomfort is significantly higher in face mask use in the pooled analysis. This could be found for general mask use, in the subgroup analysis for surgical-, and for N95 mask use. A pooled analysis comparing both conditions (surgical mask and N95 mask) resulted in statistically significant higher discomfort rates for the N95 mask than the surgical mask. (B) An overall significance for itching could be found for mask use. Also in N95 mask use the perceived itching was statistically significantly elevated according to the pooled subgroup analysis. (C) In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always higher exertion rates than the surgical masks. (D) Perceived shortness of breath is significantly higher in mask use in the pooled analysis. (E) Perceived heat is significantly higher in the pooled analysis. (F) Perceived humidity is significantly higher in mask use. The subgroup analysis revealed a statistical significance for an increase in humidity perception using a surgical mask. In studies evaluating both conditions (surgical and N95 mask) the N95 mask yielded always higher humidity perception rates than the surgical mask. A pooled analysis resulted in a statistical significance for higher humidity perception in N95 masks than surgical masks.

The subgroup analysis containing surgical and N95 masks was completed merely for surgical masks due to lack of studies on N95 masks.

In the surgical mask subgroup a statistical significance for an increase in humidity perception could be found ($p < 0.001$, SMD = 0.63, 95% CI 0.36 to 0.90, $Z = 4.6$, $I^2 = 0$).

Meta-analysis of N95 mask vs. surgical mask

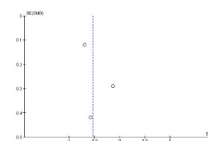
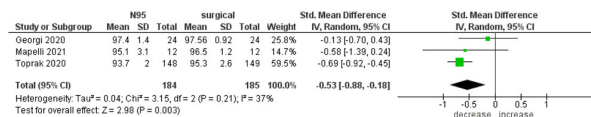
The results are summarized in Figures 7A–C.

The N95 mask leads to measurably worse effects compared to the surgical mask. The blood oxygenation was significantly decreased when using a N95 mask compared to a surgical mask with $p =$

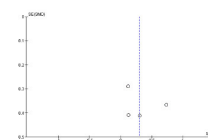
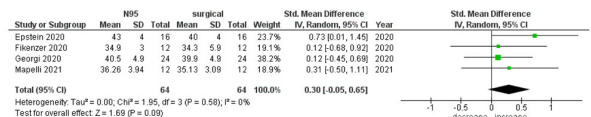
Meta-analysis of N95 mask vs surgical mask

A Biochemical comparison

Blood oxygen saturation (SpO₂) when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask

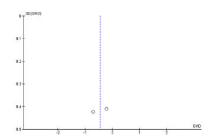
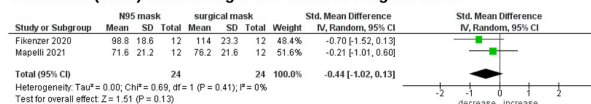


Carbon dioxide blood content (mmHg) in N95 mask use vs surgical mask

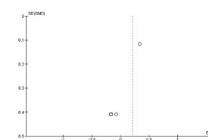
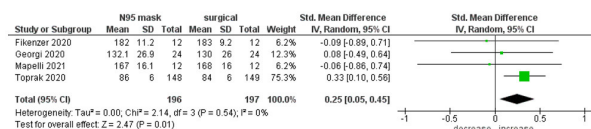


B Cardiorespiratory comparison

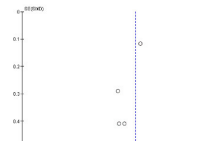
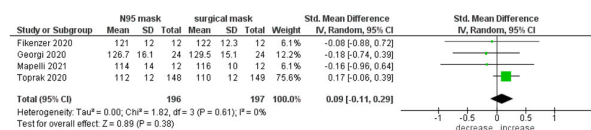
Ventilation (l/min) when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask



Heart rate (beats/min) when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask

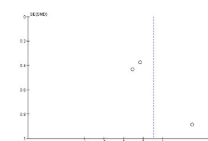
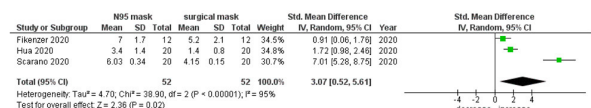


Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) when using a N95 vs surgical mask

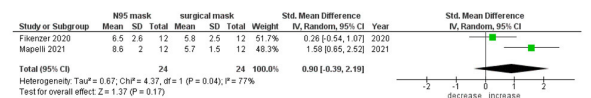


C Measured subjective sensations comparison

Perceived discomfort when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask



Perceived exertion when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask



Perceived humidity when using a N95 mask vs surgical mask

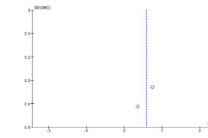
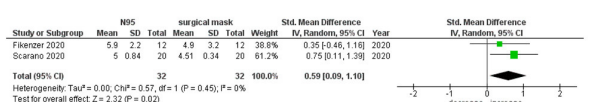


FIGURE 7

Results comparing the N95 to the surgical mask in the meta-analysis. Forest (left) and funnel plots (right) of meta-analysis of diverse outcomes while wearing a N95 mask vs surgical mask are shown. (A) Depicts the biochemical, (B) the cardiorespiratory outcomes, and (C) the subjective sensations outcomes. N95 mask leads to measurably less favorable results compared to the surgical mask, significantly for oxygenation (decrease), heart rate (increase), discomfort and humidity (both increases). This trend was also evident for minute volume (decrease), CO₂ and systolic blood pressure (both increases), but in those comparisons not statistically significant due to too few includable studies.

0.003, SMD = -0.53 , 95% CI -0.88 to -0.18 , $Z = 2.98$, $I^2 = 37\%$. The heart rate ($p = 0.01$, SMD = 0.25 , 95% CI 0.05 to 0.45 , $Z = 2.47$, $I^2 = 0\%$), the perception of discomfort ($p = 0.02$, SMD = 3.07 , 95% CI 0.52 to 5.61 , $Z = 2.36$, $I^2 = 95\%$) and humidity ($p = 0.02$, SMD = 0.59 , 95% CI 0.09 to 1.10 , $Z = 2.32$, $I^2 = 0\%$) increased when the N95 mask was compared to the surgical mask. This trend was also evident for blood content of CO₂, minute volume, exertion, heat, shortened breath, and systolic blood pressure, but was not statistically significant due to the limited available studies.

Meta-analysis with pooled prevalence of symptoms during face mask use

The results are summarized in [Figure 8](#).

Headache was the most frequent symptom among $n = 2,525$ subjects, with a prevalence of 62% for general mask use ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.48 to 0.75), up to 70% with N95 masks ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.52 to 0.88). Additionally, the prevalence of acne in $n = 1,489$ evaluated mask users was quite high, at 38% ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.22 to 0.54), and skin irritation in $n = 3,046$ mask users had a similar prevalence of 36% ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.24 to 0.49). Shortness of breath was highly prevalent in $n = 2,134$ general mask users, with 33% ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.23 to 0.44), up to 37% for N95 ($p = 0.01$, 95% CI 0.07 to 0.67). Itching was also present in 26% of $n = 5,000$ subjects ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.15 to 0.36), with a sharp difference between the 51% of N95 ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.47 to 0.55) and the 17% of surgical masks ($p < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.09 to 0.26). These results were confirmed in control calculations using the R software. Furthermore, voice disorders, assessed in $n = 1,097$, were 23% prevalent ($p = 0.03$, 95% CI 0.02 to 0.43), although with high heterogeneity of the studies. Finally, dizziness had a prevalence of only 5% ($p = 0.01$, 95% CI 0.01 to 0.09), however it was investigated in only $n = 153$ subjects, therefore this finding requires further studies.

Discussion

Besides possibly providing protection against the transmission of pathogens, face masks undoubtedly impede natural breathing. Such respiratory impairments due to the “new-normal” lifestyle under the present global pandemic have imposed potential adverse effects on our usual external (airways, lungs) and internal (cellular) respiration, affecting a wide range of physio-metabolic processes within various organ systems and/or at cellular levels ([14](#), [26](#)). Ensuing consequences were eventually observed at the physical, psychological and social levels along with certain clinical symptoms in the individual human beings ([14](#)). In this systemic review, we applied meta-analysis and comprehensive evaluations of physio-metabolic, physical, psychological and clinical burdens of wearing face masks in the general population. Restricting breathing through face masks has turned out to be a fundamental, incisive intervention with possible negative effects on public health.

Physio-metabolic burden of masks

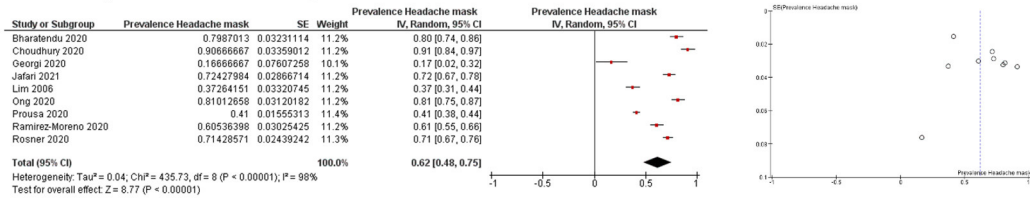
Our meta-analysis clearly depicts that masks, and especially the N95 masks, significantly restrict O₂ uptake and hinder CO₂ release. Based on the meta-analytic effect sizes defined by Cohen ([102](#)), the effect size for CO₂ retention (as per PtCO₂, ETCO₂, and PaCO₂ outcomes) is medium for all mask types and is larger for N95 masks. The effect size for O₂ uptake disturbance (as per SpO₂ outcome) is relatively smaller but highly significant ($p = 0.0004$; [Figures 2A, B, 9A](#)). Such respiratory gas-exchange discrepancy can be attributed to the constantly increased dead space ventilation volume ([14](#), [60](#), [65](#), [103](#), [104](#)) (i.e., continuous rebreathing from the masks dead space volume) and breathing resistance ([14](#), [53](#), [59](#), [66](#), [67](#), [83](#)). Continuous CO₂ rebreathing causes the right-shift of hemoglobin-O₂ saturation curve. Since O₂ and CO₂ homeostasis influences diverse down-stream metabolic processes, corresponding changes toward clinically concerning directions may lead to unfavorable consequences such as transient hypoxemia and hypercarbia, increased breath humidity, and body temperature along with compromised physiological compensations etc.

Transient hypoxemia

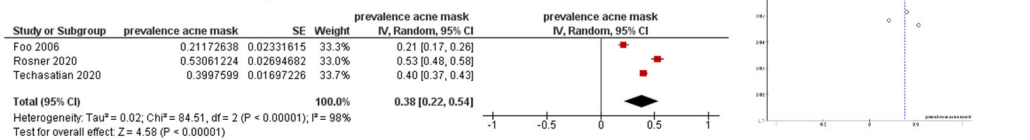
A progressive decrease in SpO₂ is observed with respect to the duration of wearing a mask ([26](#), [52](#), [56](#), [58](#), [72](#), [73](#), [81](#), [91](#), [105](#)). The decline in SpO₂ levels confirmed in our systemic-review supports the onset and progression of oxidative stress (*via* significantly increased exhaled breath aldehydes—originating from lipid peroxidation) reported by Sukul et al. ([26](#)). Studies have shown that oxidative stress (under hypoxic conditions) can inhibit cell-mediated immune response (e.g., T-lymphocytes, TCR CD4 complex, etc.) to fight viral infections, which may gradually lead to immune suppression ([106](#), [107](#)). Arterial hypoxemia increases the level of the hypoxia inducible factor-1 α (HIF-1 α), which further inhibits T-cells and stimulates regulatory T-cells ([107](#)). This may set the stage for contracting any infection, including SARS-CoV-2 and making the consequences of that infection much more severe. In essence, masks may put wearers at an increased risk of infection and severity ([106–108](#)). A recent review ([109](#)) by Serebrovska et al. discusses a possible link between HIF-1 α activation and cell entry of SARS-CoV-2. If the cell is already under oxidative stress, activation of HIF-1 α may suppress important adaptive mechanisms e.g., autophagy or proteasomal proteolysis is leads to the induction of necrosis and excessive cytokine production. Sturrock et al. ([110](#)) demonstrated that the SARS-CoV-2 receptor (e.g., ACE2 and TMPRSS2) expression by primary type II alveolar epithelial cells increased significantly following exposure to hypoxic environments *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Furthermore, recent research has demonstrated that the cellular entry of SARS-CoV-2 also depends on many other receptor paths/routes (e.g., CD147, CD147—spike proteins etc.), mediated by HIF-1 α upregulation ([111–114](#)). Therefore, the effect of even mild hypoxemia for an extended span may promote an infection risk along with metabolic stress e.g., due to altered pH *via* respiratory acidosis. In line with that, Sukul et al. ([26](#)) observed a significant decrease in

Meta-analysis of pooled symptom prevalence while wearing a face mask

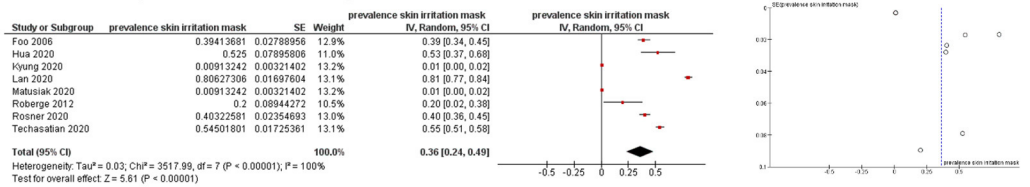
Headache prevalence when using a face mask



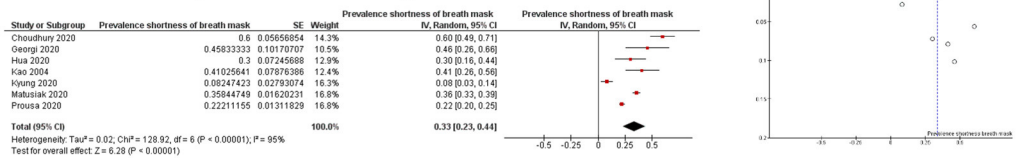
Acne prevalence when using a face mask



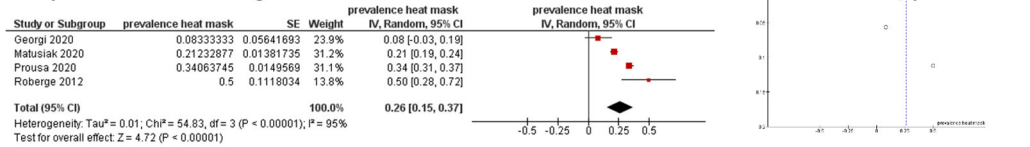
Skin irritation prevalence when using a face mask



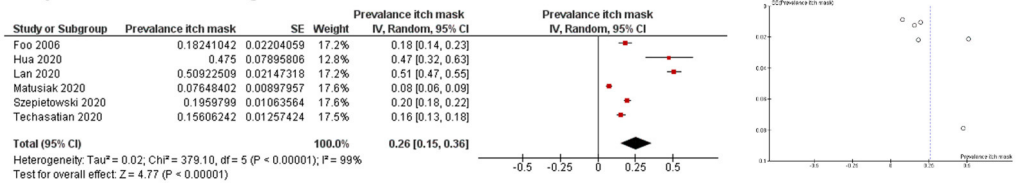
Shortness of breath prevalence when using a face mask



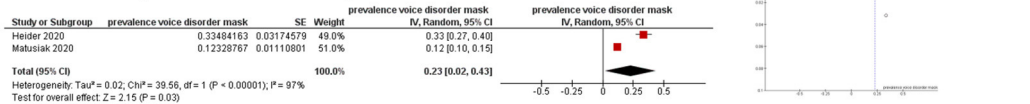
Heat prevalence when using a face mask



Itch prevalence when using a face mask



Voice disorder prevalence when using a face mask



Dizziness prevalence when using a face mask

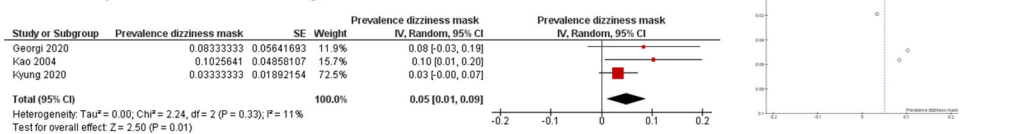


FIGURE 8

Forest (left) and funnel plots (right) of meta-analysis of pooled symptom prevalence while wearing a face mask. Headache (62%), acne (38%), skin irritation (36%), shortness of breath (33%), heat (26%), itch (26%), voice disorder (23%), and dizziness (5%) while wearing a mask are significant in the evaluated population (n = 8,128).

Metaanalytically measured biochemical and physical effects of face masks

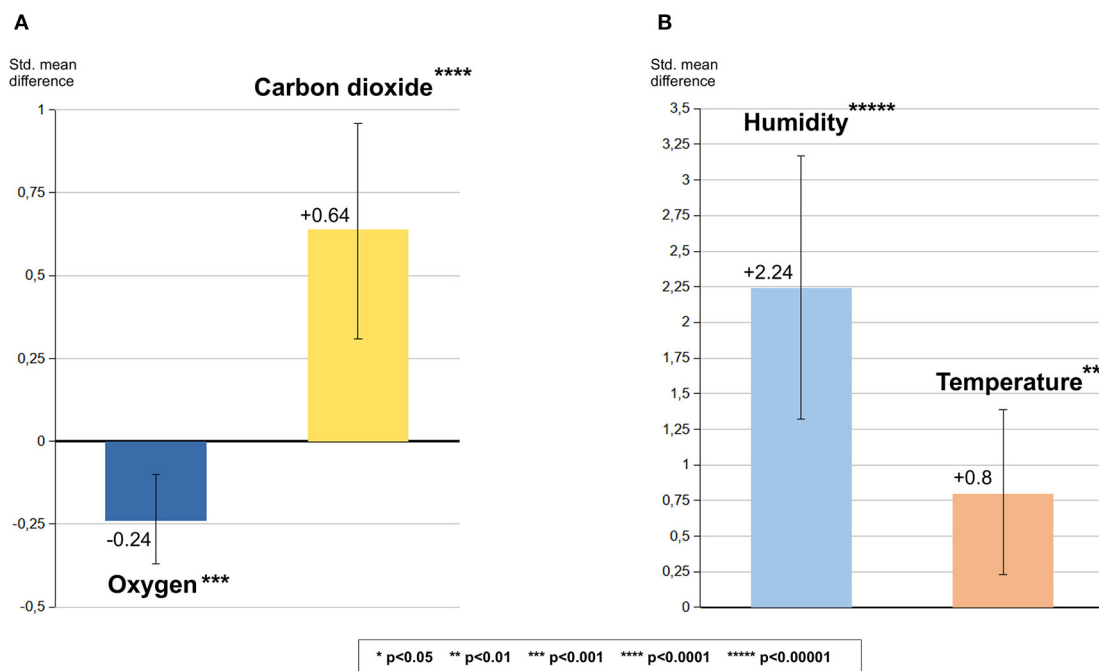


FIGURE 9

Summary of pooled meta-analytic evaluation of biochemical (A) and physical effects (B) during face mask use. The height of the bars reflects the SMD (standard mean difference), their error bars correspond to the confidence intervals. (A) For carbon dioxide rise in the blood there is a medium effect size of >0.5 and for oxygen drop a small effect size of >0.2 regarding the standard mean difference values thresholds according to Cohen (102). (B) For elevated Humidity and Temperature rise under the face mask there is a strong effect size of ≥ 0.8 . The meta-analytical statistical data were as follows: Oxygen (SpO₂): SMD -0.24 , 95% CI -0.38 to -0.11 , $Z = 3.53$, $p = 0.0004$; Carbon dioxide (PtCO₂, ETcCO₂, and PaCO₂): SMD $+0.64$, 95% CI 0.31 to 0.96 , $Z = 3.86$, $p = 0.0001$; Humidity: SMD $+2.24$, 95% CI 1.32 to 3.17 , $Z = 4.75$, $p < 0.00001$; Temperature: SMD $+0.8$, 95% CI 0.23 to 1.38 , $Z = 2.72$, $p = 0.008$.

exhaled volatile metabolites (e.g., organosulfur and short-chain fatty acids) originating from the lower gut microbiota during face mask use—indicating anaerobiosis, metabolic acidosis and possible immunosuppression. Even marginal local effects of masks on salivary metabolites in young and healthy adults have indicated alteration of microbial metabolic activity (77).

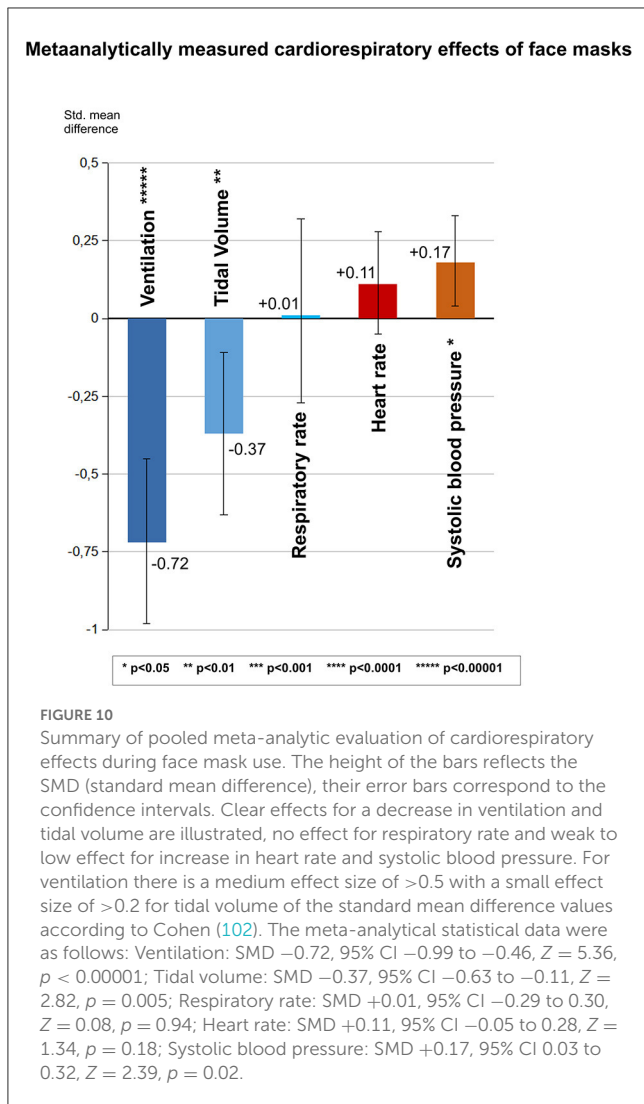
The findings of Spira (16) from European data show that mask use correlates with increased morbidity and mortality, which could be due to the above-discussed possible processes. Moreover, prolonged hypoxic conditions and low oxygen levels pave the way for immunosuppression and inflammation, which may promote the growth, invasion and spread of cancers (114–116).

However, further experimental studies are needed to prove that hypoxemia under long-term mask use may result in quantifiable changes in HIF-1 α and immunosuppression—especially in older adults, ill/comorbid and/or immunocompromised individuals.

Transient hypercarbia

In line with the increased dead space ventilation and consistently decreasing SpO₂ level, CO₂ inhalation elevates

progressively during the course of wearing a mask, causing transient hypercarbia (26, 52, 56, 58, 81, 91, 105). Very recent experimental data exist on CO₂ concentrations of concern in the air breathed while wearing masks, especially in children (117, 118). Systemic CO₂ concentration exerts an important influence on the intra- and extracellular pH. CO₂ passes quickly through the cell membranes to form carbonic acid, which releases protons and in excess causes acidosis (119–121). With a prolonged CO₂ burden the body uses the bones (CO₂ storage) to regulate the blood pH: bicarbonate and a positive ion (Ca²⁺, K⁺, and Na⁺) are exchanged for H⁺. Accordingly, kidney and organ calcification were frequently seen in animal studies on low-level CO₂ exposure (122, 123). Additionally, CO₂ in relationship with chronic and/or intermittent long-term exposure might induce pathological states by favoring DNA alterations and inflammation (124, 125). Moreover, inflammation is reported to be caused by low-level CO₂ exposure in humans and animals (125–129). Even slightly elevated CO₂ induces higher levels of pro-inflammatory Interleukin-1 β , a protein involved in regulating immune responses, which causes inflammation, vasoconstriction and vascular damage (128). In addition, carbon dioxide is also known as a trigger of oxidative stress caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) (124) including oxidative damage to cellular DNA (124, 125).



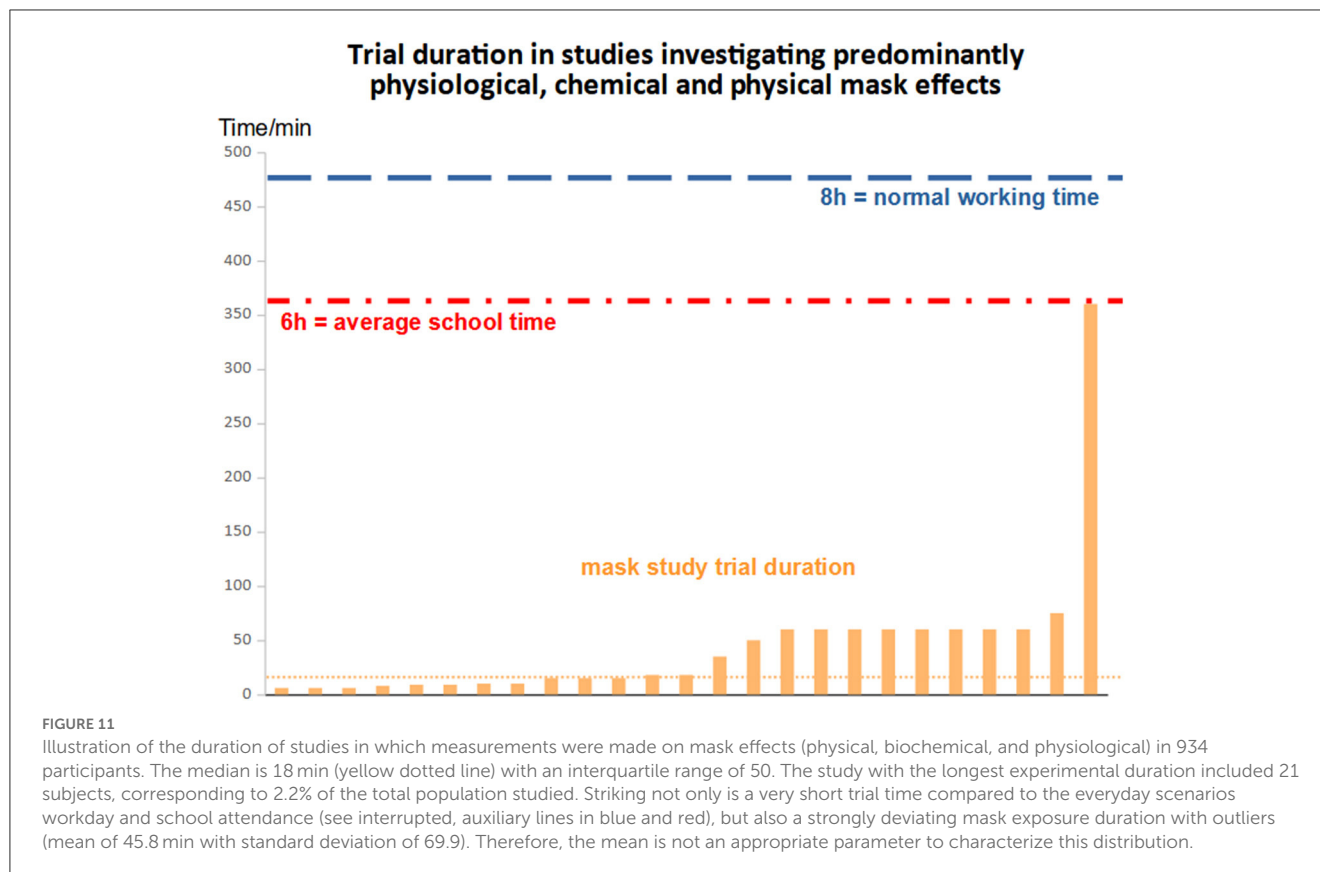
Altogether, the possible damaging mechanism of CO₂ affecting tissues is based on the conditions of oxidative stress and acidosis with increased inflammation and apoptosis as described above (124, 126–131). In the long term, therefore, this could be possible during mask use even at blood-CO₂ levels that do not reach the thresholds. In spontaneously breathing subjects in a sitting position, exhaled CO₂ profiles mirror the endogenous isoprene exhalation (18, 132). Significant and progressively decreased breath isoprene recently observed in adults (26) indicates the deoxygenation driven sympathetic vasoconstriction in the peripheral compartments (133). Prolonged deoxygenation and CO₂ re-breathing therefore, may eventually lead to pulmonary vasoconstriction that may hinder blood-CO₂ levels to reach the thresholds. For instance, Sukul et al. also reported the presence of significant hyperventilation state in older adults aged ≥ 60 years before wearing a face mask for the participation in experiments. This indicates a compromised respiratory compensation of precedent mask use (which was obligatory due to pandemic regulations at that time) by these subjects.

Physical burden of masks: Humidity and skin temperature

Together with the immune-inhibiting mechanisms mentioned above, we found some other possible deleterious mask effects that impede healthy natural breathing. The most prominent and extreme effect was found in the increase of air humidity and skin temperature within the dead space of the mask (Figures 5, 9B). Increased humidity and temperature can increase droplet and aerosol generation, which facilitate liquid penetration through the mask mesh. This not only increases the chance of microorganism (fungal and bacterial pathogens) growth on and in masks (134–136) causing increased risk for accumulation of fungal and bacterial pathogens (134, 136) including mucormycosis (137), but also leading to re-breathing of viruses that may be trapped and enriched within the moisturized mask meshwork. Therefore, these conditions within masks are favorable for pathogenic growth and are unfavorable for good/systemic microbiota i.e., individual specific. As a result, the isolation of people with masks for extended periods can attain conditions for new and individual specific strains formations/mutations of pathogens—to which other people in the environment will be susceptible and/or not immune. Additionally, the high concentration of microbiome in masks can be a potential source of infection for the population. The findings of Fögen (11) using data from the USA which shows that mask use correlates with an increased mortality (case fatality rate of COVID-19) could be due to these processes. This phenomenon could also explain the similar figures found by Spira (16) in the EU.

Compensatory physiological mechanisms

Our meta-analytically quantified CO₂-rise and O₂-depletion (Figures 2, 9A) with mask use certainly needs physiological compensations (Figures 3, 4, 10). Interestingly, the compensatory responses to mask wearing (e.g., rise in heart rate, changes in respiratory rate and/or minute ventilation etc.) was lower (absent or even reverse) than expected (122, 138, 139). In former human experiments with low level 1–2% CO₂ exposure to breathing air—which corresponds to measured values during mask use (140)—an increased respiratory minute volume (V_E) of >34% was detected (122). In contrast to that and according to our results under masks a significantly decreased V_E by -19% on an average and up to -24% under N95 masks occurs despite face mask driven CO₂ exposure (140). V_E was even 10% lower for the N95 than for the surgical masks (Figure 3A). However, it appears to have no acute clinical impact in the short term and does not exceed normal values of SpO₂ and systemic CO₂ although these may become problematic in the long run. A compensatory higher arterial PaCO₂ and bicarbonate levels execute the buffering of inhaled CO₂. Interestingly, during chronic breathing of low CO₂ concentrations (in the no-mask condition), due to compensatory mechanisms, e.g., lowered blood pH, increased respiratory rate and V_E (122) and an acclimatization occurs (122, 138, 139, 141, 142). In mask users, those compensatory mechanisms however seem to differ or get disturbed (e.g., no rise in respiratory rate, heart rate and simultaneous fall in V_E). Health



risks should be considered despite the mask related compensation attempts (140). During face mask use a rise in the arterial PaCO_2 is possible in the long term (26, 52, 81, 91, 105). Although, PaCO_2 generally remains at a sub-threshold level in healthy mask users (105, 138), concerning pathological changes can occur in older (>60 years) and sick people (26, 87).

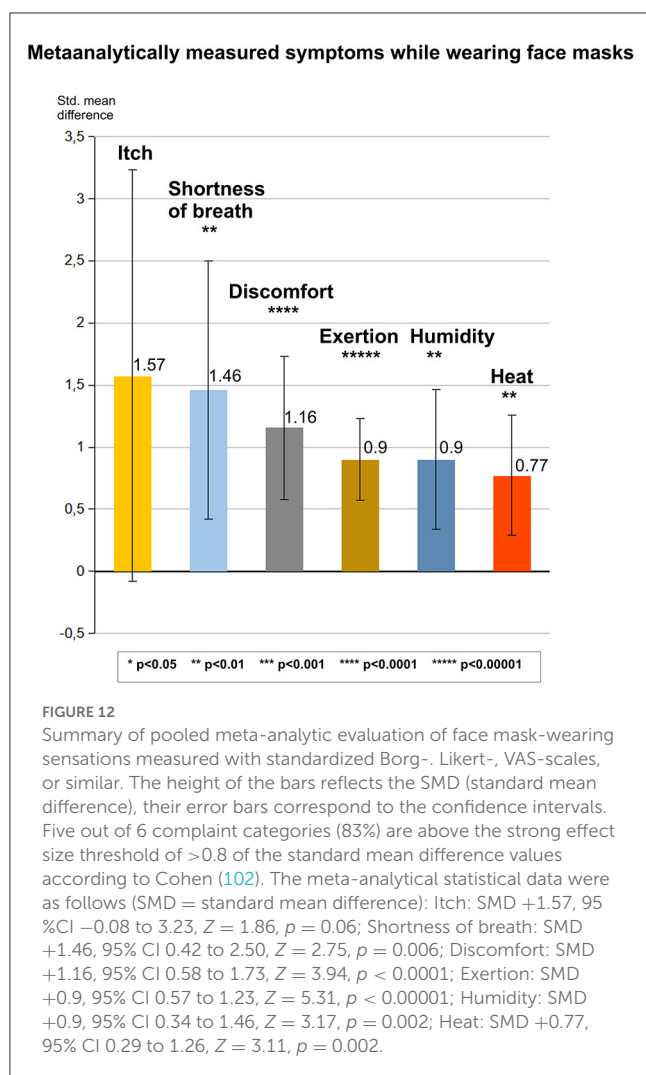
Our findings depicted an absence of typical compensatory reactions to transient hypercarbia thereby implying a suppression of a physiological response owing to the unusual conditions of wearing a mask. The reasons behind this phenomenon, i.e., the absence of a rise in the respiratory rate and ventilation, remain unclear. The simultaneous change in the adverse direction (CO_2 rise and simultaneous O_2 fall with concomitant dead space- and resistance enlargement caused by the mask) may be responsible for this. The drop in SpO_2 and the rise in CO_2 (PtCO_2 , ETCO_2 , and PaCO_2) with no major changes in the heart rate in our meta-analysis also transpires to be an unexpected reaction.

Sukul et al. (26) reported altered breathing patterns, respiratory resistance and discomfort under medical masks. Adults younger than 60 years of age described slow breathing (slow and deep inspiration and expiration) under masks, whereas shallow/thoracic breathing (breathing with increased inhalation duration and effort), respiratory resistance and dyspnea was portrayed by those ≥ 60 years of age. Fittingly, altered breathing patterns/kinetics, progressive changes toward deoxygenation, hypercarbia and insignificant changes in the respiratory and

heart rate transpired to be surprising mask outcomes in our present results (hypercapnia-like effects). Thus, prolonged masks use may lead to hypercapnic hypoxia like conditions. While short and acute hypercapnic hypoxia like conditions in healthy individuals can promote positive effects (sport, training, etc.) (143–145), a chronic/prolonged hypercapnic hypoxia (as also known from sleep apnea) is toxic for the renal (146), nervous (147), and cardiovascular system (148) in the long run—causing metabolic syndrome (14) as well as additional effects on cognitive functions (149).

N95 mask compared to surgical mask

In line with recent findings by Kisielinski et al. (14) and Sukul et al. (26), the present results clearly show that N95 masks lead to significantly more pronounced and unfavorable biochemical, physiological and psychological effects (Figure 7) than surgical masks. Altogether, the results in blood oxygenation, discomfort, heart rate, CO_2 , exertion, humidity, blood pressure, V_E , temperature, dyspnea, and itching etc. can be attributed to the larger (almost doubled) dead space and higher breathing resistance of the N95 mask (14). Compared to the surgical mask upon the short-term effects, N95 masks could impose elevated health risks under extended use. Interestingly, recent data from a large multi-country RCT study show no significant differences between the two mask types in terms of SARS-CoV-2 infection rates (150).



Nevertheless, there was long enforcement of N95 masks in e.g., Austria and Germany (9).

Short mask experiment times

It is noteworthy to say that in studies with short assessment times neither correspond to real-life conditions nor do they exclude short- or long-term compensatory mechanisms, e.g., obvious for CO₂-rebreathing. Short mask experiments are also unable to show long-term changes. However, immediate compensatory mechanisms can hide further adverse reactions (122, 138, 140). Therefore, longer observation times can lead to clearer values that are closer or above the thresholds due to the attenuation or collapse of transient physiological mechanisms. The experimental studies used here examined important outcomes only had a median examination time of 18 min (Figure 11). Heterogeneous studies with small sample sizes yielded significant and medium to strong results (Figures 10, 12). Nevertheless, experimental studies with longer assessment periods are needed.

The observational studies included in the present analysis on symptoms were conducted over significantly longer periods (median 240 min, IQR 180) and are able to consider cumulative and long-term effects. It is known that observational studies are far more precise in finding negative effects and are particularly suitable to investigate exposures (e.g., air pollution or smoking) that are difficult or impossible to investigate in randomized controlled trials (RCTs). In addition, observational studies are important to investigate causes with a long latency period, such as toxicological and carcinogenic effects from environmental exposures or drugs (49).

The longest period of included studies was 8 months with an averaged of wearing the mask 8 h per day (observational study), however with the shortest study with a 5 min examining/exposition time (controlled trial).

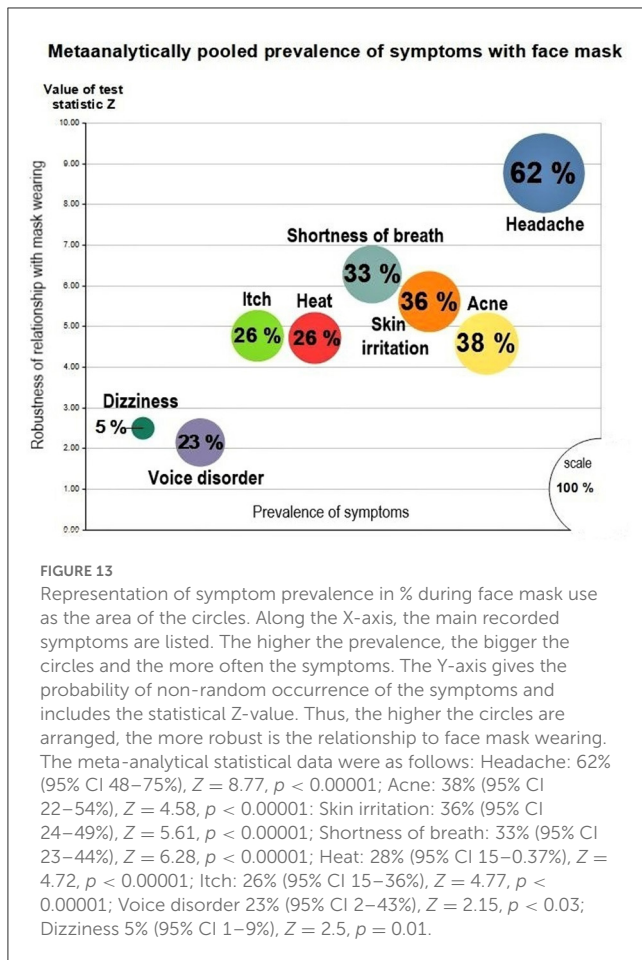
Possible sub-threshold impact of masks—The low-dose long-term effect on health

In contrast to our study, most of the recent systematic reviews (27–31) have only analyzed a few outcome threshold values without considering comprehensive effects, exposure time and the susceptibility of the exposed organisms and tissues. Therefore, their recommendations e.g., masks are harmless and safe for everybody etc. appears to be superficial, non-medical, non-holistic, and misleading.

In accordance with conclusions of Sukul et al., Fikenzler et al., and Zhang et al. (26, 53, 62), we have found hints to deleterious effects even without exceeding physiological threshold values and we have interpreted these data as a risk for individuals with suppressed compensatory mechanisms such as in older individuals and sick subjects with cardiorespiratory diseases, infection, diabetes, cancer, and other comorbidities. Sukul et al. (26) were able to show that the unfavorable effects are more pronounced in the older adults (aged: 60–80 years). Moreover, they could provide evidence for toxic effects of face masks including oxidative stress, immunosuppression, deoxygenation and hypercarbia induced vasoconstriction and altered systemic microbial activity.

Even with CO₂ and SpO₂ levels that do not exceed the limits, many clinical researchers have also found troubling results in face mask wearers.

Neurologists observed changes in MRI brain signal baseline level due to face mask use (15). Wearing a surgical mask for merely 9 min increased end-tidal CO₂ causing mild hypercapnia. This was responsible for a compensatory increase in cerebral blood flow with morphological changes similar to that of a CO₂ gas challenge or holding your breath. In patients with aneurysms or brain tumors this phenomenon could be deleterious. Another study showed a pathologic and altered brain metabolism while wearing a N95 mask for 6 h (17). The MRI imaging revealed a significant drop in brain oxygenation. A more than 50% drop in oxygenation in the cingulate gyrus (cognition circuit) after 6 h of mask use was associated with clinical symptoms of a confused state in 80% of the subjects above 35 years. The authors even concluded that the



general population should not wear a N95 mask. This phenomenon of brain deoxygenation could be dangerous for people with altered brain functions when on medication, after a transient ischemic attack (TIA) or stroke, respectively.

Ophthalmological studies indicated risk of retinal damage from long-term use of masks. N95 masks reduced the vascular density in the vascular plexus even under resting conditions as early as after 60 min (151). Here, the drop in SpO₂ and increase in blood pressure were significant but within the normal physiological range. Another study reported a significant mask-induced increase in intraocular pressure (IOP) after ~5 min of wearing (12). Thus, wearing masks may counteract the therapy aiming to reduce the IOP and can exacerbate irreversible long-term vision problems in individuals with glaucoma. Numerous other studies have shown that the long-term effects, leading to deleterious clinical outcome may result from prolonged mask wearing (15, 17, 151, 152). Such effects are comparable to sick building syndrome (SBS) (153), cigarette smoking and other chronic, slightly toxic influences relevant to the general population.

In accordance with our present analysis and precedent scoping review (14), mask-related changes in leaning toward pathological values can lead to illness and clinical consequences, just like chronically, repeated subliminal harmful environmental events. Occupational diseases defined by the International Labor Organization (ILO) and that are in accordance with the worker's

compensation act in Germany illustrates the potential harm caused by chronic exposure to subthreshold environmental factors (154). Numerous examples of these principles can be found in the literature concerning pharmacology, toxicology, clinical and occupational medicine and even in psychology (155–164). Many other toxicological and environmental health examples are presented in the recent scoping review by Kisielinski et al. (14), which refers to MIES (Mask-Induced Exhaustion Syndrome). Such subliminal chronic changes and harmful effects in the long run are comparable to the sick building syndrome (SBS) (153), cigarette smoking (165), salty diet (166), aluminum environmental pollution (167), low-level lead exposure (168), organochlorine pesticides and polychlorinated biphenyl exposure (169), or even the so-called climate change exposure (170).

Altogether, even the subliminal changes due to face mask use can become clinically relevant.

Overlapping of face mask effects (MIES) with long-COVID-19 symptoms

Regarding the numerous mask symptoms an important question arises: Can masks be responsible for a misinterpreted long-COVID-19-syndrome after an effectively treated COVID-19 infection? Nearly 40% of main long-COVID-19 symptoms (171) overlap with mask related complaints and symptoms described by Kisielinski et al. as MIES (14) like fatigue, dyspnea, confusion, anxiety, depression, tachycardia, dizziness, and headache, which we also detected in the qualitative and quantitative analysis of face mask effects in our systematic review. It is possible that some symptoms attributed to long-COVID-19 are predominantly mask-related. Further research on this phenomenon needs to be conducted.

Complaints and symptoms under mask use and the WHO definition of health

Amongst the perceived sensations with mask use only six symptoms (exertion, discomfort, shortness of breath, humidity, heat, and itch) could be meta-analyzed and have resulted in predominantly strong effect sizes (Figure 12). In the pooled prevalence analysis, we included eight main symptoms namely headache, acne, skin irritation, shortness of breath, heat, itch, voice disorder, and dizziness (Figure 13) out of which all were significant in the evaluated population (Figure 8). There are many more reported in the literature. However, these could not be meta-analyzed due to the low number of comparable studies on those particular complaints. In the included literature additional reported mask related symptoms were: rhinitis (80), difficulties to think and to concentrate (81, 94, 95, 101), drowsiness (95), communication disorder (88, 94, 99), depression and mood swings (75, 76, 88, 92), anger (92), perceived discomfort (47, 52, 53, 69), anxiety (75, 88, 92), and an overall perceived fatigue and exhaustion (52–54, 57–62, 68, 70, 71, 73, 79, 83, 94).

All of these mask-related symptoms contradict a state of wellbeing and health as defined by the WHO. According to the

WHO; “health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social wellbeing and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (172). Based on our findings, the use of face mask in the hope of maintaining health is unfortunately contradicting the WHO’s definition of health. Regarding all the possible side effects of mask and their still unproven efficacy against viral transmission within the general population (5, 10, 173, 174), health seems not to be substantially preserved by wearing face masks. So far, only two randomized controlled mask trials for prevention of SARS-CoV-2 infection in the general population have been published: one high quality study from Denmark, Europe (175), and the other from Bangladesh with biased results and a lot of inconsistencies (176). Based on a Bayesian random-effects meta-analysis of these two trials, the posterior median for relative risk was 0.91 (95% credible interval 0.63–1.33, 73% probability of some benefits with very limited evidence) (177). Recent data from a large multi-country RCT study show no significant differences between the surgical and N95 mask in terms of SARS-CoV-2 infection rates (150). Besides, there is evidence that COVID-19 rates have been able to expand swiftly when omicron hit (178) even in societies where mask use was assiduously followed—as in Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore (179). The paucity in high-quality mask studies is unfortunate. Seeing the overall weak evidence for efficacy of masks against viral transmission within the general population (5, 10, 173, 174, 180–184), face masks have to be evaluated appropriately in the sense of the *Hippocratic Oath* and as per the *Primum nihil nocere* (above all do not harm). To avoid at all costs that the damage caused by preventive or therapeutic measures becomes greater than that caused by the disease itself, should be the credo of all those involved in the containment of the crisis, including politicians and the so-called experts. Medical decisions can only be made on the basis of comprehensive knowledge on a patient’s overall condition, individualized case history, considering all previous illnesses and interventions, physical and mental predispositions, and his/her socio-economic state, etc. When it comes to medical decision-making in a sick person, the weighing of therapeutic measures for the benefit of the patient against the side effects of the therapy is to be evaluated differently than a prophylactic procedure in healthy people. If wrong decisions are made in the selection of preventive measures in healthy individuals, or if they are improperly applied, the consequences are usually much more severe and liability claims are often unavoidable. From a standardization point of view the filtration efficacy of mask for viruses remains hypothetical and not in line with the established standards. There are national and international standards for bacteria filtration efficiency (BFE) for medical masks since decades, for example the EU-EN 14683, or the USA-ASTM F2101. They are the prerequisites for general approval. However, since 2020 (i.e., nearly 3 years), no comparable standard/testing of masks for viruses does yet exist. Given the fact, that medical masks (surgical and N95) increase particle exhalation in the smallest size range of 0.3–0.5 μm , shifting the geometric mean diameter toward smaller sizes (longer in air) compared to no mask conditions (185) doubts arise. Such scientific facts are pointing toward the nebulization effect of masks, which could be an add-on for their weakness against viral transmission in general.

Limitations

Our systematic review rarely discussed the inhaled toxins associated with the mask. Inhalation and ingestion of toxic substances, which are ingredients of the masks, are also of importance in evaluating this pandemic non-pharmaceutical intervention (NPI). In addition, our work has not extensively studied the microbial colonization of masks and the consequences of contamination by microorganisms for the wearer.

In our meta-analysis ETCO_2 and PtCO_2 have been used as an approximation of PaCO_2 (44–46). Therefore, the real PaCO_2 values could be slightly higher or lower. The median exposure period for most studies evaluating physio-metabolic mask adverse effects was 18 min. There are few experimental studies evaluating mask adverse effects for longer periods that would more closely reflect real-world use. Therefore, the negative physio-metabolic and clinical effects of the face masks may well be worse than we have determined.

Based on the studies conducted during the pandemic, the control groups without masks were mostly the same individuals, or individuals who were not mask abstinent for too long (general mask requirement) (186), so the mask-no-mask differences may be mitigated.

Because of the rapid flow of science, new relevant papers have certainly appeared that we were unable to consider in the meta-analysis as they appeared after the period of our data search (search limitation to 31.12.2021). The most important and relevant observational studies were considered for this analysis thereby addressing the physio-metabolic and clinical effects.

Numerous psychological and social effects could not be assessed analytically as too few relevant and evaluable studies were available. However, the simplest and clearest face mask harms, over and above the physiological and clinical discussed here, are the psychological and social ones—impeding communication visually and verbally (187–189), disturbed facial expressions and misinterpretation of emotions (190), with the consequence of impeded early childhood learning (191).

Conclusion

This systematic review comprehensively revealed ample evidence for multiple adverse physio-metabolic and clinical outcomes of medical face masks, with worse outcomes in the case of N95 masks. This can have long-term clinical consequences, especially for vulnerable groups e.g., children, pregnant, older adult, and the ill. Besides transient and progressive hypoxemia, hypercarbia, and individualized clinical symptoms our findings are in line with reports on face masks caused down-stream aberrations (e.g., oxidative stress, hypercapnia, vasoconstriction, pro-inflammatory response, immunosuppression etc.) at the organ, cellular and microbiome levels and support the MIES (Mask Induced Exhaustion Syndrome). From our point of view, while a short application of the mask seems to be less harmful, longer and long-term use may cause shift toward the pathophysiological direction with clinical consequences even without exceeding physiological thresholds (O_2 and CO_2).

So far, several MIES symptoms may have been misinterpreted as long COVID-19 symptoms.

In any case, the possible MIES triggered by masks contrasts with the WHO definition of health.

The exact threshold of harmless and non-pathogenic time wearing a mask should exclusively be determined by further intensive research and studies. Due to the ultimate lack of exclusion of the harmfulness of mask wearing, mask use by the general public should be discouraged.

In the sense of effectiveness of face masks in the real-world setting (cost-benefit), the mask should show a benefit in terms of reduced respiratory infections, e.g., in healthcare through fewer consultations or hospitalizations (192). Unfortunately, this was not the case, e.g., in Germany (193) and USA (194), where mask mandates were ubiquitous (9). Additionally, there is evidence that COVID-19 rates have been able to expand swiftly when omicron hit (178) even in societies where mask use was assiduously followed—as in Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore (179).

From the above facts, we conclude that a mask requirement must be reconsidered in a strictly scientific way without any political interference as well as from a humanitarian and ethical point of view. There is an urgent need to balance adverse mask effects with their anticipated efficacy against viral transmission. In the absence of strong empirical evidence of mask effectiveness, mask wearing should not be mandated let alone enforced by law.

Data availability statement

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/supplementary material, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding authors.

References

1. Belkin N. The evolution of the surgical mask: Filtering efficiency versus effectiveness. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* (1997) 18:49–57. doi: 10.2307/30141964
2. Matuschek C, Moll F, Fangerau H, Fischer JC, Zänker K, van Griensven M, et al. The history and value of face masks. *Eur J Med Res.* (2020) 25:23. doi: 10.1186/s40001-020-00423-4
3. Lee SA, Grinshpun SA, Reponen T. Respiratory performance offered by N95 respirators and surgical masks: Human subject evaluation with NaCl aerosol representing bacterial and viral particle size range. *Ann Occup Hyg.* (2008) 52:177–85. doi: 10.1093/annhyg/men005
4. Vincent M, Edwards P. Disposable surgical face masks for preventing surgical wound infection in clean surgery. *Cochr Datab Syst Rev.* (2016) 2016:CD002929. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD002929.pub3
5. Jefferson T, Mar CBD, Dooley L, Ferroni E, Al-Ansary LA, Bawazeer GA, et al. Physical interventions to interrupt or reduce the spread of respiratory viruses. *Cochr Datab Syst Rev.* (2020) 11:CD006207. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD006207.pub5
6. Chu DK, Akl EA, Duda S, Solo K, Yaacoub S, Schünemann HJ, et al. Physical distancing, face masks, and eye protection to prevent person-to-person transmission of SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet.* (2020) 395:1973–87. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(20)31142-9
7. Coclite D, Napoletano A, Gianola S, Monaco AD, D'Angelo D, Fauci A, et al. Face mask use in the community for reducing the spread of COVID-19: A systematic review. *Front Med.* (2021) 7:594269. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2020.594269
8. Howard J, Huang A, Li Z, Tufekci Z, Zdimal V, van der Westhuizen H-M, et al. An evidence review of face masks against COVID-19. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* (2021) 2021:118. doi: 10.1073/pnas.2014564118
9. Our World in Data. *Face Covering Policies During the COVID-19 Pandemic.* Available online at: <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/face-covering-policies-covid> (accessed December 29, 2022).
10. Boretti A. Efficacy of generalized face masking mandates. *Health Serv Res Manag Epidemiol.* (2021) 8:23333928211058024. doi: 10.1177/23333928211058023
11. Fögen Z. The Foegen effect: A mechanism by which facemasks contribute to the COVID-19 case fatality rate. *Medicine.* (2022) 101:e28924. doi: 10.1097/MD.00000000000028924
12. Janicijevic D, Redondo B, Jiménez R, Lacorzana J, García-Ramos A, Vera J. Intraocular pressure responses to walking with surgical and FFP2/N95 face masks in primary open-angle glaucoma patients. *Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol.* (2021) 259:2373–8. doi: 10.1007/s00417-021-05159-3
13. Keng BMH, Gan WH, Tam YC, Oh CC. Personal protective equipment-related occupational dermatoses during COVID-19 among health care workers: A worldwide systematic review. *JAAD Int.* (2021) 5:85–95. doi: 10.1016/j.jdin.2021.08.004
14. Kisielinski K, Giboni P, Prescher A, Klosterhalfen B, Graessel G, Funken S, et al. Is a mask that covers the mouth and nose free from undesirable side effects in everyday use and free of potential hazards? *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* (2021) 18:4344. doi: 10.3390/ijerph18084344
15. Law CSW, Lan PS, Glover GH. Effect of wearing a face mask on fMRI BOLD contrast. *Neuroimage.* (2021) 229:117752. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2021.117752
16. Spira B. Correlation between mask compliance and COVID-19 outcomes in Europe. *Cureus.* (2022) 14:e24268. doi: 10.7759/cureus.24268
17. Vakharia RJ, Jani I, Yadav S, Kurian T. To study acute changes in brain oxygenation on MRI in healthcare workers using N95 mask and PPE kits for six hours a day. *Ind J Radiol Imaging.* (2021) 31:893–900. doi: 10.1055/s-0041-1741086

Author contributions

KK, AS, and OH: conceptualization and methodology. KK and OH: software. KK, OH, SW, BW, SF, AP, BK, SK, PS, and AS: formal analysis and writing—review and editing. KK, OH, SW, BW, PS, and AS: investigation. KK, SW, SF, BK, AP, PS, and AS: physio-metabolic and clinical interpretations. KK, OH, PS, and AS: writing—original draft preparation. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We thank Bonita Blankart for proofreading the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Publisher's note

All claims expressed in this article are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations, or those of the publisher, the editors and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated in this article, or claim that may be made by its manufacturer, is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher.

18. Sukul P, Schubert JK, Oertel P, Kamysek S, Taunk K, Trefz P, et al. FEV manoeuvre induced changes in breath VOC compositions: An unconventional view on lung function tests. *Sci Rep.* (2016) 6:28029. doi: 10.1038/srep28029
19. Sukul P, Schubert JK, Zanaty K, Trefz P, Sinha A, Kamysek S, et al. Exhaled breath compositions under varying respiratory rhythms reflects ventilatory variations: Translating breathomics towards respiratory medicine. *Sci Rep.* (2020) 10:14109. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-70993-0
20. Sukul P, Richter A, Schubert JK, Miekisch W. Deficiency and absence of endogenous isoprene in adults, disqualified its putative origin. *Heliyon.* (2021) 7:e05922. doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e05922
21. Sukul P, Grzegorzewski S, Broderius C, Trefz P, Mittlmeier T, Fischer D-C, et al. Physiological and metabolic effects of healthy female aging on exhaled breath biomarkers. *iScience.* (2022) 25:103739. doi: 10.1016/j.isci.2022.103739
22. Remy R, Kemnitz N, Trefz P, Fuchs P, Bartels J, Klemenz A-C, et al. Profiling of exhaled volatile organics in the screening scenario of a COVID-19 test center. *iScience.* (2022) 25:105195. doi: 10.1016/j.isci.2022.105195
23. Trefz P, Schmidt SC, Sukul P, Schubert JK, Miekisch W, Fischer DC. Non-invasive assessment of metabolic adaptation in paediatric patients suffering from type 1 diabetes mellitus. *J Clin Med.* (2019) 8:1797. doi: 10.3390/jcm8111797
24. Sukul P, Schubert JK, Trefz P, Miekisch W. Natural menstrual rhythm and oral contraception diversely affect exhaled breath compositions. *Sci Rep.* (2018) 8:10838. doi: 10.1038/s41598-018-29221-z
25. Löser B, Grabenschroer A, Pugliese G, Sukul P, Trefz P, Schubert JK, et al. Changes of exhaled volatile organic compounds in postoperative patients undergoing analgesic treatment: A prospective observational study. *Metabolites.* (2020) 10:321. doi: 10.3390/metabo10080321
26. Sukul P, Bartels J, Fuchs P, Trefz P, Remy R, Rührmund L, et al. Effects of COVID-19 protective face masks and wearing durations on respiratory haemodynamic physiology and exhaled breath constituents. *Eur Respirat J.* (2022) 60:2022. doi: 10.1183/13993003.00009-2022
27. Engeroff T, Groneberg DA, Niederer D. The impact of ubiquitous face masks and filtering face piece application during rest, work and exercise on gas exchange, pulmonary function and physical performance: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Sports Med.* (2021) 7:92. doi: 10.1186/s40798-021-00388-6
28. Litwinowicz K, Choroszny M, Ornat M, Wróbel A, Waszczuk E. Bayesian network meta-analysis of face masks' impact on human physiology. *Sci Rep.* (2022) 12:5823. doi: 10.1038/s41598-022-09747-z
29. Shaw KA, Zello GA, Butcher SJ, Ko JB, Bertrand L, Chilibeck PD. The impact of face masks on performance and physiological outcomes during exercise: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab.* (2021) 46:693-703. doi: 10.1139/apnm-2021-0143
30. Zheng C, Poon ETC, Wan K, Dai Z, Wong SHS. Effects of wearing a mask during exercise on physiological and psychological outcomes in healthy individuals: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sports Med Published.* (2022) 2022:4. doi: 10.1007/s40279-022-01746-4
31. Kunstler B, Newton S, Hill H, Ferguson J, Hore P, Mitchell BG, et al. P2/N95 respirators and surgical masks to prevent SARS-CoV-2 infection: Effectiveness and adverse effects. *Infect Dis Health.* (2022) 27:81-95. doi: 10.1016/j.idh.2022.01.001
32. Asín-Izquierdo I, Ruiz-Ranz E, Arévalo-Baeza M. The physiological effects of face masks during exercise worn due to COVID-19: A systematic review. *Sports Health.* (2022) 14:648-55. doi: 10.1177/19417381221084661
33. Shamsseer L, Moher D, Clarke M, Ghersi D, Liberati A, Petticrew M, et al. Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015: Elaboration and explanation. *Br Med J.* (2015) 350:g7647. doi: 10.1136/bmj.g7647
34. Huang X, Lin J, Demner-Fushman D. Evaluation of PICO as a knowledge representation for clinical questions. *AMIA Annu Symp Proc.* (2006) 2006:359-63.
35. Ouzzani M, Hammady H, Fedorowicz Z, Elmagarmid A. Rayyan—a web and mobile app for systematic reviews. *Syst Rev.* (2016) 5:210. doi: 10.1186/s13643-016-0384-4
36. Harrer M, Cuijpers P, Furukawa T, Ebert D. *Doing Meta-Analysis With R: A Hands-On Guide.* London: Chapman and Hall/CRC. (2021). doi: 10.1201/9781003107347
37. Shea BJ, Reeves BC, Wells G, Thuku M, Hamel C, Moran J, et al. AMSTAR 2: A critical appraisal tool for systematic reviews that include randomised or non-randomised studies of healthcare interventions, or both. *Br Med J.* (2017) 358:j4008. doi: 10.1136/bmj.j4008
38. Sterne JAC, Savović J, Page MJ, Elbers RG, Blencowe NS, Boutron I, et al. RoB 2: A revised tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials. *Br Med J.* (2019) 366:l4898. doi: 10.1136/bmj.l4898
39. casp. Home. *CASP - Critical Appraisal Skills Programme.* Available online at: <https://casp-uk.net/> (accessed September 24, 2022).
40. Tufanaru C, Munn Z, Stephenson M, Aromataris E. Fixed or random effects meta-analysis? Common methodological issues in systematic reviews of effectiveness. *Int J Evid Based Healthc.* (2015) 13:196-207. doi: 10.1097/XEB.0000000000000065
41. DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials. *Control Clin Trials.* (1986) 7:177-88. doi: 10.1016/0197-2456(86)90046-2
42. Higgins JPT, Thompson SG. Quantifying heterogeneity in a meta-analysis. *Stat Med.* (2002) 21:1539-58. doi: 10.1002/sim.1186
43. Egger M, Smith GD, Schneider M, Minder C. Bias in meta-analysis detected by a simple, graphical test. *Br Med J.* (1997) 315:629-34. doi: 10.1136/bmj.315.7109.629
44. Razi E, Moosavi GA, Omid K, Khakpour Saebi A, Razi A. Correlation of end-tidal carbon dioxide with arterial carbon dioxide in mechanically ventilated patients. *Arch Trauma Res.* (2012) 1:58-62. doi: 10.5812/atr.6444
45. Contini M, Angelucci A, Aliverti A, Gugliandolo P, Pezzuto B, Berna G, et al. Comparison between PtCO₂ and PaCO₂ and derived parameters in heart failure patients during exercise: A preliminary study. *Sensors.* (2021) 21:6666. doi: 10.3390/s21196666
46. Górska K, Korczyński P, Maskey-Warzechowska M, Chazan R, Krenke R. Variability of transcutaneous oxygen and carbon dioxide pressure measurements associated with sensor location. *Adv Exp Med Biol.* (2015) 858:39-46. doi: 10.1007/5584_2015_126
47. Hua W, Zuo Y, Wan R, Xiong L, Tang J, Zou L, et al. Short-term skin reactions following use of N95 respirators and medical masks. *Contact Dermatitis.* (2020) 83:115-21. doi: 10.1111/cod.13601
48. Allagh KP, Shamanna BR, Murthy GVS, Ness AR, Doyle P, Neogi SB, et al. Birth prevalence of neural tube defects and orofacial clefts in India: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE.* (2015) 10:e0118961. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0118961
49. Dekkers OM, Vandenbroucke JP, Cevallos M, Renehan AG, Altman DG, Egger M, et al. Guidance on conducting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of observational studies of etiology. *PLoS Med.* (2019) 16:e1002742. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1002742
50. Bertoli S, Leone A, De Amicis R, Foppiani A, Osio D, Battezzati A. Effects of wearing a FFP2 mask on indirect calorimetry measurements: A pilot study. *Clin Nutr ESPEN.* (2021) 41:443-6. doi: 10.1016/j.clnesp.2020.10.015
51. Butz U. *Rückatmung von Kohlendioxid bei Verwendung von Operationsmasken als hygienischer Mundschutz an medizinischem Fachpersonal.* Universitätsbibliothek der Technischen Universität München (2005). 55 p. Available online at: <https://nbn-resolving.org/urn/resolver.pl?urn:nbn:de:bvb:91-diss20050713-2027575920>
52. Dirol H, Alkan E, Sindel M, Ozdemir T, Erbas D. The physiological and disturbing effects of surgical face masks in the COVID-19 era. *BLL.* (2021) 122:821-5. doi: 10.4149/BLL_2021_131
53. Fikenzler S, Uhe T, Lavall D, Rudolph U, Falz R, Busse M, et al. Effects of surgical and FFP2/N95 face masks on cardiopulmonary exercise capacity. *Clin Res Cardiol.* (2020) 2020:1-9. doi: 10.1007/s00392-020-01704-y
54. Georgi C, Haase-Fielitz A, Meretz D, Gäsert L, Butter C. The impact of commonly-worn face masks on physiological parameters and on discomfort during standard work-related physical effort. *Dtsch Arztebl Int.* (2020) 117:674-5. doi: 10.3238/arztebl.2020.0674
55. Goh DYT, Mun MW, Lee WLJ, Teoh OH, Rajgor DD. A randomised clinical trial to evaluate the safety, fit, comfort of a novel N95 mask in children. *Sci Rep.* (2019) 9:18952. doi: 10.1038/s41598-019-55451-w
56. Kim JH, Benson SM, Roberge RJ. Pulmonary and heart rate responses to wearing N95 filtering facepiece respirators. *Am J Infect Control.* (2013) 41:24-7. doi: 10.1016/j.ajic.2012.02.037
57. Kim JH, Roberge RJ, Powell JB. Effect of external airflow resistive load on postural and exercise-associated cardiovascular and pulmonary responses in pregnancy: A case control study. *BMC Pregn Child.* (2015) 15:45. doi: 10.1186/s12884-015-0474-7
58. Kim JH, Wu T, Powell JB, Roberge RJ. Physiologic and fit factor profiles of N95 and P100 filtering facepiece respirators for use in hot, humid environments. *Am J Infect Control.* (2016) 44:194-8. doi: 10.1016/j.ajic.2015.08.027
59. Mapelli M, Salvioni E, Martino FD, Mattavelli I, Gugliandolo P, Vignati C, et al. "You can leave your mask on": Effects on cardiopulmonary parameters of different airway protection masks at rest and during maximal exercise. *Eur Respirat J.* (2021) 2021:2020. doi: 10.1183/13993003.04473-2020
60. Roberge RJ, Kim JH, Powell JB. N95 respirator use during advanced pregnancy. *Am J Infect Control.* (2014) 42:1097-100. doi: 10.1016/j.ajic.2014.06.025
61. Wong AY-Y, Ling SK-K, Louie LH-T, Law GY-K, So RC-H, Lee DC-W, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on sports and exercise. *Asia Pac J Sports Med Arthrosc Rehabil Technol.* (2020) 22:39-44. doi: 10.1016/j.asmart.2020.07.006
62. Zhang G, Li M, Zheng M, Cai X, Yang J, Zhang S, et al. Effect of surgical masks on cardiopulmonary function in healthy young subjects: A crossover study. *Front Physiol.* (2021) 12:710573. doi: 10.3389/fphys.2021.710573
63. Bharatendu C, Ong JY, Goh Y, Tan BYQ, Chan ACY, Tang JZY, et al. Powered air purifying respirator (PAPR) restores the N95 face mask induced cerebral hemodynamic

- alterations among Healthcare Workers during COVID-19 Outbreak. *J Neurol Sci.* (2020) 417:117078. doi: 10.1016/j.jns.2020.117078
64. Coniam D. The impact of wearing a face mask in a high-stakes oral examination: An exploratory post-SARS study in Hong Kong. *Lang Assess Q.* (2005) 2:235–61. doi: 10.1207/s15434311laq0204_1
65. Epstein D, Korytny A, Isenberg Y, Marcusohn E, Zukermann R, Bishop B, et al. Return to training in the COVID-19 era: The physiological effects of face masks during exercise. *Scand J Med Sci Sports.* (2020) 2020:13832. doi: 10.1111/sms.13832
66. Lee HP, Wang DY. Objective assessment of increase in breathing resistance of N95 respirators on human subjects. *Ann Occup Hyg.* (2011) 55:917–21. doi: 10.1093/annhyg/mer065
67. Roberge RJ, Coca A, Williams WJ, Powell JB, Palmiero AJ. Physiological impact of the N95 filtering facepiece respirator on healthcare workers. *Respir Care.* (2010) 55:569–77.
68. Roberge RJ, Kim JH, Benson SM. Absence of consequential changes in physiological, thermal and subjective responses from wearing a surgical mask. *Respir Physiol Neurobiol.* (2012) 181:29–35. doi: 10.1016/j.resp.2012.01.010
69. Scarano A, Inchingolo F, Lorusso F. Facial skin temperature and discomfort when wearing protective face masks: Thermal infrared imaging evaluation and hands moving the mask. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* (2020) 17:134624. doi: 10.3390/ijerph17134624
70. Shenal BV, Radonovich LJ, Cheng J, Hodgson M, Bender BS. Discomfort and exertion associated with prolonged wear of respiratory protection in a health care setting. *J Occup Environ Hyg.* (2011) 9:59–64. doi: 10.1080/15459624.2012.635133
71. Tong PSY, Kale AS, Ng K, Loke AP, Choolani MA, Lim CL, et al. Respiratory consequences of N95-type Mask usage in pregnant healthcare workers—A controlled clinical study. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control.* (2015) 4:48. doi: 10.1186/s13756-015-0086-z
72. Beder A, Büyükoçak U, Sabuncuoğlu H, Keskil ZA, Keskil S. Preliminary report on surgical mask induced deoxygenation during major surgery. *Neurocirugia.* (2008) 19:121–6. doi: 10.1016/S1130-1473(08)70235-5
73. Choudhury A, Singh M, Khurana DK, Mustafa SM, Ganapathy U, Kumar A, et al. Physiological effects of N95 FFP and PPE in healthcare workers in COVID intensive care unit: A prospective cohort study. *Indian J Crit Care Med.* (2020) 24:1169–73. doi: 10.5005/jp-journals-10071-23671
74. Foo CCI, Goon ATJ, Leow Y, Goh C. Adverse skin reactions to personal protective equipment against severe acute respiratory syndrome—A descriptive study in Singapore. *Contact Dermatitis.* (2006) 55:291–4. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0536.2006.00953.x
75. Forgie SE, Reitsma J, Spady D, Wright B, Stobart K. The “fear factor” for surgical masks and face shields, as perceived by children and their parents. *Pediatrics.* (2009) 124:e777–781. doi: 10.1542/peds.2008-3709
76. Heider CA, Álvarez ML, Fuentes-López E, González CA, León NI, Verástegui DC, et al. Prevalence of voice disorders in healthcare workers in the universal masking COVID-19 era. *Laryngoscope.* (2020) 2020:29172. doi: 10.1002/lary.29172
77. Islam SR, Prusty D, Maiti S, Dutta R, Chattopadhyay P, Manna SKK. Effect of short-term use of FFP2 (N95) mask on salivary metabolome of young healthy volunteers: A pilot study. *Mol Omics.* (2023) 2023:D2MO00232A. doi: 10.1039/D2MO00232A
78. Jafari E, Togha M, Kazemzadeh H, Haghghi S, Nasergivehchi S, Saatchi M, et al. Evaluation of headache associated with personal protective equipment during COVID-19. *Brain Behav.* (2021) 11:e2435. doi: 10.1002/brb3.2435
79. Kao TW, Huang KC, Huang YL, Tsai TJ, Hsieh BS, Wu MS. The physiological impact of wearing an N95 mask during hemodialysis as a precaution against SARS in patients with end-stage renal disease. *J Formos Med Assoc.* (2004) 103:624–8.
80. Klimek L, Huppertz T, Alali A, Spielhauer M, Hörmann K, Matthias C, et al. A new form of irritant rhinitis to filtering facepiece particle (FFP) masks (FFP2/N95/KN95 respirators) during COVID-19 pandemic. *World Allergy Organ J.* (2020) 13:100474. doi: 10.1016/j.waojou.2020.100474
81. Kyung SY, Kim Y, Hwang H, Park JW, Jeong SH. Risks of N95 face mask use in subjects with COPD. *Respir Care.* (2020) 65:658–64. doi: 10.4187/respcare.06713
82. Lan J, Song Z, Miao X, Li H, Li Y, Dong L, et al. Skin damage among health care workers managing coronavirus disease-2019. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* (2020) 82:1215–6. doi: 10.1016/j.jaad.2020.03.014
83. Li Y, Tokura H, Guo YP, Wong ASW, Wong T, Chung J, et al. Effects of wearing N95 and surgical facemasks on heart rate, thermal stress and subjective sensations. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health.* (2005) 78:501–9. doi: 10.1007/s00420-004-0584-4
84. Lim ECH, Seet RCS, Lee K-H, Wilder-Smith EPV, Chuah BYS, Ong BKC. Headaches and the N95 face-mask amongst healthcare providers. *Acta Neurol Scand.* (2006) 113:199–202. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0404.2005.00560.x
85. Luckman A, Zeitoun H, Isoni A, Loomes G, Vlaev I, Powdthavee N, et al. Risk compensation during COVID-19: The impact of face mask usage on social distancing. *J Exp Psychol Appl.* (2021) 27:722–38. doi: 10.1037/xap0000382
86. Matusiak Ł, Szepletowska M, Krajewski P, Białynicki-Birula R, Szepletowski JC. Inconveniences due to the use of face masks during the COVID-19 pandemic: A survey study of 876 young people. *Dermatol Ther.* (2020) 33:e13567. doi: 10.1111/dth.13567
87. Mo Y. Risk and impact of using mask on COPD patients with acute exacerbation during the COVID-19 outbreak: A retrospective study. (2020). doi: 10.21203/rs.3.rs-39747/v1
88. Naylor G, Burke LA, Holman JA. COVID-19 lockdown affects hearing disability and handicap in diverse ways: A rapid online survey study. *Ear Hear.* (2020) 41:1442–9. doi: 10.1097/AUD.0000000000000948
89. Ong JY, Bharatendu C, Goh Y, Tang JZY, Sooi KWX, Tan YL, et al. Headaches associated with personal protective equipment—A cross-sectional study among frontline healthcare workers during COVID-19. *Headache.* (2020) 60:864–77. doi: 10.1111/head.13811
90. Park SR, Han J, Yeon YM, Kang NY, Kim E. Effect of face mask on skin characteristics changes during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Skin Res Technol.* (2021) 27:554–9. doi: 10.1111/srt.12983
91. Pifarré F, Zabala DD, Grazioli G, de Yzaguirre I, Maura I. COVID 19 and mask in sports. *Apunts Sports Med.* (2020) 6:2. doi: 10.1016/j.apunsm.2020.06.002
92. Prousa D. Studie zu psychischen und psychovegetativen Beschwerden mit den aktuellen Mund-Nasenschutz-Verordnungen. *PsychArchives.* (2020). doi: 10.23668/PSYCHARCHIVES.3135
93. Ramirez-Moreno JM, Ceberino D, Plata AG, Rebollo B, Sedas PM, Hariramani R, et al. Mask-associated ‘de novo’ headache in healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Occup Environ Med.* (2021) 78:548–54. doi: 10.1136/oemed-2020-106956
94. Rebmann T, Carrico R, Wang J. Physiologic and other effects and compliance with long-term respirator use among medical intensive care unit nurses. *Am J Infect Control.* (2013) 41:1218–23. doi: 10.1016/j.ajic.2013.02.017
95. Rosner E. Adverse effects of prolonged mask use among healthcare professionals during COVID-19. *J Infect Dis Epidemiol.* (2020) 6:130. doi: 10.23937/2474-3658/1510130
96. Szczesniak D, Ciulkowicz M, Maciaszek J, Misiak B, Luc D, Wiecezorek T, et al. Psychopathological responses and face mask restrictions during the COVID-19 outbreak: Results from a nationwide survey. *Brain Behav Immun.* (2020) 87:161–2. doi: 10.1016/j.bbi.2020.05.027
97. Szepletowski JC, Matusiak Ł, Szepletowska M, Krajewski PK, Białynicki-Birula R. Face mask-induced itch: A self-questionnaire study of 2,315 responders during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Acta Derm Venereol.* (2020) 100:adv00152. doi: 10.2340/00015555-3536
98. Techasatian L, Lebsing S, Uppala R, Thawandee W, Chaiyarit J, Supakunpinyo C, et al. The effects of the face mask on the skin underneath: A prospective survey during the COVID-19 pandemic. *J Prim Care Community Health.* (2020) 11:2150132720966167. doi: 10.1177/2150132720966167
99. Thomas F, Allen C, Butts W, Rhoades C, Brandon C, Handrahan DL. Does wearing a surgical facemask or N95-respirator impair radio communication? *Air Med J.* (2011) 30:97–102. doi: 10.1016/j.amj.2010.12.007
100. Toprak E, Bulut AN. The effect of mask use on maternal oxygen saturation in term pregnancies during the COVID-19 process. *J Perinat Med.* (2021) 49:148–52. doi: 10.1515/jpm-2020-0422
101. Tornero-Aguilera JF, Clemente-Suárez VJ. Cognitive and psychophysiological impact of surgical mask use during university lessons. *Physiol Behav.* (2021) 2021:113342. doi: 10.1016/j.physbeh.2021.113342
102. Cohen J. *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences.* 2nd ed. London: Routledge. (1988).
103. Johnson AT, Scott WH, Lausted CG, Coyne KM, Sahota MS, Johnson MM. Effect of external dead volume on performance while wearing a respirator. *Am Indus Hyg Assoc.* (2000) 61:678–84. doi: 10.1080/15298660008984577
104. Xu M, Lei Z, Yang J. Estimating the dead space volume between a headform and N95 filtering facepiece respirator using microsoft kinect. *J Occup Environ Hygiene.* (2015) 12:1019078. doi: 10.1080/15459624.2015.1019078
105. Fantin R. The effect of wearing an FFP3 mask (3M TM Aura TM) with an exhalation valve on gas exchange in medical staff. *Int J Occup Med Environ Health.* (2021) 2021:1809. doi: 10.13075/ijomh.1896.01809
106. Shehade H, Acolty V, Moser M, Oldenhove G. Cutting edge: Hypoxia-inducible factor 1 negatively regulates Th1 function. *J Immunol.* (2015) 2015:1402552. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1402552
107. Westendorf AM, Skibbe K, Adamczyk A, Buer J, Geffers R, Hansen W, et al. Hypoxia enhances immunosuppression by inhibiting CD4+ effector T cell function and promoting Treg activity. *CPB.* (2017) 41:1271–84. doi: 10.1159/000464429
108. Sceneay J, Parker BS, Smyth MJ, Möller A. Hypoxia-driven immunosuppression contributes to the pre-metastatic niche. *Oncimmunology.* (2013) 2:e22355. doi: 10.4161/onci.22355
109. Serebrovska ZO, Chong EY, Serebrovska TV, Tumanovska LV, Xi L. Hypoxia, HIF-1 α , and COVID-19: from pathogenic factors to potential therapeutic targets. *Acta Pharmacol Sin.* (2020) 41:1539–46. doi: 10.1038/s41401-020-00554-8

110. Sturrock A, Zimmerman E, Helms M, Liou TG, Paine R. Hypoxia induces expression of angiotensin-converting enzyme II in alveolar epithelial cells: Implications for the pathogenesis of acute lung injury in COVID-19. *Physiol Rep.* (2021) 9:e14854. doi: 10.14814/phy2.14854
111. Wang K, Chen W, Zhang Z, Deng Y, Lian JQ, Du P, et al. CD147-spike protein is a novel route for SARS-CoV-2 infection to host cells. *Signal Transduct Target Ther.* (2020) 5:283. doi: 10.1038/s41392-020-00426-x
112. Chen Z, Mi L, Xu J, Yu J, Wang X, Jiang J, et al. Function of HAB18G/CD147 in invasion of host cells by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus. *J Infect Dis.* (2005) 191:755–60. doi: 10.1086/427811
113. Ke X, Fei F, Chen Y, Xu L, Zhang Z, Huang Q, et al. Hypoxia upregulates CD147 through a combined effect of HIF-1 α and Sp1 to promote glycolysis and tumor progression in epithelial solid tumors. *Carcinogenesis.* (2012) 33:1598–607. doi: 10.1093/carcin/bgs196
114. Aggarwal BB. Nuclear factor-kappaB: The enemy within. *Cancer Cell.* (2004) 6:203–8. doi: 10.1016/j.ccr.2004.09.003
115. Blaylock RL. Immunoexcitatory mechanisms in glioma proliferation, invasion and occasional metastasis. *Surg Neurol Int.* (2013) 4:15. doi: 10.4103/2152-7806.106577
116. Li Y, Xu J, Chen L, Zhong WD, Zhang Z, Mi L, et al. HAB18G (CD147), a cancer-associated biomarker and its role in cancer detection. *Histopathology.* (2009) 54:677–87. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2559.2009.03280.x
117. Walach H, Traindl H, Prentice J, Weikl R, Diemer A, Kappes A, et al. Carbon dioxide rises beyond acceptable safety levels in children under nose and mouth covering: Results of an experimental measurement study in healthy children. *Environ Res.* (2022) 212:113564. doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2022.113564
118. Acuti Martellucci C, Flacco ME, Martellucci M, Violante FS, Manzoli L. Inhaled CO₂ concentration while wearing face masks: A pilot study using capnography. *Environ Health Insights.* (2022) 16:11786302221123572. doi: 10.1177/11786302221123573
119. Hoffman WE, Charbel FT, Edelman G, Ausman JI. Brain tissue acid-base response to hypercapnia in neurosurgical patients. *Neurol Res.* (1995) 17:417–20. doi: 10.1080/01616412.1995.11740354
120. Huo X, Min J, Pan C, et al. Efficacy of lovastatin on learning and memory deficits caused by chronic intermittent hypoxia-hypercapnia: Through regulation of NR2B-containing NMDA receptor-ERK pathway. *PLoS ONE.* (2014) 9:e94278. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0094278
121. Sikter A, Faludi G, Rihmer Z. The role of carbon dioxide (and intracellular pH) in the pathomechanism of several mental disorders. Are the diseases of civilization caused by learnt behaviour, not the stress itself? *Neuropsychopharmacol Hung.* (2009) 11:161–73.
122. Schaefer KE. Respiratory adaptation to chronic hypercapnia. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* (1963) 109:772–82. doi: 10.1111/j.1749-6632.1963.tb13505.x
123. Schaefer KE, Douglas WH, Messier AA, Shea ML, Gohman PA. Effect of prolonged exposure to 0.5% CO₂ on kidney calcification and ultrastructure of lungs. *Undersea Biomed Res.* (1979) 6(Suppl.):S155–61.
124. Benjamin EM, Ducret A, Maisonneuve E, Dukan S. CO₂ exacerbates oxygen toxicity. *EMBO Rep.* (2011) 12:321–6. doi: 10.1038/embor.2011.7
125. Guais A, Brand G, Jacquot L, Karrer M, Dukan S, Grévillet G, et al. Toxicity of carbon dioxide: A review. *Chem Res Toxicol.* (2011) 24:2061–70. doi: 10.1021/tx200220r
126. Beheshti A, Cekanaviciute E, Smith DJ, Costes SV. Global transcriptomic analysis suggests carbon dioxide as an environmental stressor in spaceflight: A systems biology GeneLab case study. *Sci Rep.* (2018) 8:4191. doi: 10.1038/s41598-018-22613-1
127. Jacobson TA, Kler JS, Hernke MT, Braun RK, Meyer KC, Funk WE. Direct human health risks of increased atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Nat Sustain.* (2019) 2:691–701. doi: 10.1038/s41893-019-0323-1
128. Thom SR, Bhopale VM, Hu J, Yang M. Inflammatory responses to acute elevations of carbon dioxide in mice. *J Appl Physiol.* (2017) 123:297–302. doi: 10.1152/jappphysiol.00343.2017
129. Zappulla D. Environmental stress, erythrocyte dysfunctions, inflammation, and the metabolic syndrome: Adaptations to CO₂ increases? *J Cardiometa Syndr.* (2008) 3:30–4. doi: 10.1111/j.1559-4572.2008.07263.x
130. Forrest VJ, Kang YH, McClain DE, Robinson DH, Ramakrishnan N. Oxidative stress-induced apoptosis prevented by Trolox. *Free Radic Biol Med.* (1994) 16:675–84. doi: 10.1016/0891-5849(94)90182-1
131. Veselá A, Wilhelm J. The role of carbon dioxide in free radical reactions of the organism. *Physiol Res.* (2002) 51:335–9.
132. Sukul P, Trefz P, Kamyssek S, Schubert JK, Miekisch W. Instant effects of changing body positions on compositions of exhaled breath. *J Breath Res.* (2015) 9:047105. doi: 10.1088/1752-7155/9/4/047105
133. Xie A, Skatrud JB, Puleo DS, Morgan BJ. Exposure to hypoxia produces long-lasting sympathetic activation in humans. *J Appl Physiol.* (2001) 91:1555–62. doi: 10.1152/jappl.2001.91.4.1555
134. Delanghe L, Cauwenberghs E, Spacova I, De Boeck I, Van Beeck W, Pepermans K, et al. Cotton and surgical face masks in community settings: Bacterial contamination and face mask hygiene. *Front Med.* (2021) 8:732047. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2021.732047
135. Kisielinski K, Wojtasik B. Suitability of Rose Bengal sodium salt staining for visualisation of face mask contamination by living organisms. *AIMSES.* (2022) 9:218–31. doi: 10.3934/envirosci.2022015
136. Park AM, Khadka S, Sato F, Omura S, Fujita M, Hashiwaki K, et al. Bacterial and fungal isolation from face masks under the COVID-19 pandemic. *Sci Rep.* (2022) 12:11361. doi: 10.1038/s41598-022-15409-x
137. Arora U, Priyadarshi M, Katiyar V, Soneja M, Garg P, Gupta I, et al. Risk factors for Coronavirus disease-associated mucormycosis. *J Infect.* (2022) 84:383–90. doi: 10.1016/j.jinf.2021.12.039
138. Ellingsen I, Sydnes G, Hauge A, Zwart JA, Liestøl K, Nicolaysen G. CO₂ sensitivity in humans breathing 1 or 2% CO₂ in air. *Acta Physiol Scand.* (1987) 129:195–202. doi: 10.1111/j.1748-1716.1987.tb08059.x
139. Langford NJ. Carbon dioxide poisoning. *Toxicol Rev.* (2005) 24:229–35. doi: 10.2165/00139709-200524040-00003
140. Kisielinski K, Wagner S, Hirsch O, Klosterhalfen B, Prescher A. Possible toxicity of chronic carbon dioxide exposure associated with face mask use, particularly in pregnant women, children and adolescents—A scoping review. *HELLYON.* (2023). doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e14117
141. Grollman A. Physiological variations in the cardiac output of man. *Am J Physiol Legacy Content.* (1929) 89:584–8. doi: 10.1152/ajplegacy.1929.89.3.584
142. Kiely DG, Cargill RI, Lipworth BJ. Effects of hypercapnia on hemodynamic, inotropic, lusitropic, and electrophysiologic indices in humans. *Chest.* (1996) 109:1215–21. doi: 10.1378/chest.109.5.1215
143. Tomiak T, Mishchenko V, Lusenko E, Diachenko A, Korol A. Effect of moderate and high intensity training sessions on cardiopulmonary chemosensitivity and time-based characteristics of response in high performance rowers. *Baltic J Health Phys Act.* (2022) 6:20. doi: 10.2478/bjha-2014-0020
144. Zoretić D, Grčić-Zubčević N, Zubčić K. The effects of hypercapnic-hypoxic training program on hemoglobin concentration and maximum oxygen uptake of elite swimmers. *Kinesiology.* (2014) 46(Suppl.1):40–5.
145. Karaula D, Homolak J, Leko G. Effects of hypercapnic-hypoxic training on respiratory muscle strength and front crawl stroke performance among elite swimmers. *Turk J Sport Exerc.* (2016) 18:17–24. doi: 10.15314/tjse.83447
146. Elia A, Gennser M, Harlow PS, Lees MJ. Physiology, pathophysiology and (mal)adaptations to chronic apnoeic training: A state-of-the-art review. *Eur J Appl Physiol.* (2021) 121:1543–66. doi: 10.1007/s00421-021-04664-x
147. Xu H, Xu H. Effect of chronic hypoxia and hypercapnia on learning and memory function in mice and the expression of NT and CGRP in brain. *Eur J Inflamm.* (2018) 16:2058739218818956. doi: 10.1177/2058739218818956
148. Dergacheva O, Dyavanapalli J, Piñol RA, Mendelowitz D. Chronic intermittent hypoxia and hypercapnia inhibit the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus neurotransmission to parasympathetic cardiac neurons in the brain stem. *Hypertension.* (2014) 64:597–603. doi: 10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.114.03603
149. Zheng G, Wang Y, Wang X. Chronic hypoxia-hypercapnia influences cognitive function: a possible new model of cognitive dysfunction in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Med Hypotheses.* (2008) 71:111–3. doi: 10.1016/j.mehy.2008.01.025
150. Loeb M, Bartholomew A, Hashmi M, et al. Medical masks vs. N95 respirators for preventing COVID-19 among health care workers. *Ann Intern Med.* (2022) 175:1629–38. doi: 10.7326/M22-1966
151. Hua D, Xu Y, Heiduschka P, Zhang W, Zhang X, Zeng X, et al. Retina vascular perfusion dynamics during exercise with and without face masks in healthy young adults: An OCT angiography study. *Transl Vis Sci Technol.* (2021) 10:23. doi: 10.1167/tvst.10.3.23
152. D'Souza S, Vaidya T, Nair AP, Shetty R, Kumar NR, Bisht A, et al. Altered ocular surface health status and tear film immune profile due to prolonged daily mask wear in health care workers. *Biomedicine.* (2022) 10:1160. doi: 10.3390/biomedicine10051160
153. Redlich CA, Sparer J, Cullen MR. Sick-building syndrome. *Lancet.* (1997) 349:1013–6. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(96)07220-0
154. Kim EA, Kang SK. Historical review of the List of Occupational Diseases recommended by the International Labour organization (ILO). *Ann Occup Environ Med.* (2013) 25:14. doi: 10.1186/2052-4374-25-14
155. Micheli LJ, Allison G. Lumbar spine injury in the young athlete. *Rev Bras Med Esporte.* (1999) 5:59–65. doi: 10.1590/S1517-86921999000200005
156. Van Mechelen M, Lories RJ. Microtrauma: No longer to be ignored in spondyloarthritis? *Curr Opin Rheumatol.* (2016) 28:176–80. doi: 10.1097/BOR.0000000000000254
157. Wilder RP, Sethi S. Overuse injuries: Tendinopathies, stress fractures, compartment syndrome, and shin splints. *Clin Sports Med.* (2004) 23:55–81. doi: 10.1016/S0278-5919(03)00085-1

158. Stahl S, Stahl AS, Meisner C, Rahmanian-Schwarz A, Schaller HE, Lotter O, et al. systematic review of the etiopathogenesis of Kienböck's disease and a critical appraisal of its recognition as an occupational disease related to hand-arm vibration. *BMC Musculosk Disord.* (2012) 13:225. doi: 10.1186/1471-2474-13-225
159. Cher I. Blink-related microtrauma: When the ocular surface harms itself. *Clin Experiment Ophthalmol.* (2003) 31:183–90. doi: 10.1046/j.1442-9071.2003.00633.x
160. Boulanger G. (t)rauma With a Small t? *Contemp Psychoanal.* (2016) 52:143–9. doi: 10.1080/00107530.2016.1149398
161. Crastnopol M. *Micro-Trauma: A Psychoanalytic Understanding of Cumulative Psychic Injury.* London: Routledge. (2015).
162. Seides R. Should the current DSM-IV-TR definition for PTSD be expanded to include serial and multiple microtraumas as aetiologies? *J Psychiatr Ment Health Nurs.* (2010) 17:725–31. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2850.2010.01591.x
163. Kisielinski K, Niedhart C, Schneider U, Niethard FU. Osteonecrosis 15 years after femoral neck fracture and long-term low-dose inhaled corticosteroid therapy. *Joint Bone Spine.* (2004) 71:237–9. doi: 10.1016/S1297-319X(03)00115-5
164. Miravittles M, Auladell-Rispau A, Monteagudo M, Vázquez-Niebla JC, Mohammed J, Nuñez A, et al. Systematic review on long-term adverse effects of inhaled corticosteroids in the treatment of COPD. *Eur Respirat Rev.* (2021) 30:2021. doi: 10.1183/16000617.0075-2021
165. Houston TP. The silent killer: Environmental tobacco smoke. *J Fam Pract.* (1991) 32:457–8.
166. Shaldon S, Vienken J. Beyond the current paradigm: Recent advances in the understanding of sodium handling – Guest Editors: Stanley Shaldon and Joerg Vienken: Salt, the Neglected Silent Killer. *Semin Dial.* (2009) 22:264–6. doi: 10.1111/j.1525-139X.2009.00606.x
167. Alasfar RH, Isaifan RJ. Aluminum environmental pollution: The silent killer. *Environ Sci Pollut Res.* (2021) 28:44587–97. doi: 10.1007/s11356-021-14700-0
168. Nawrot TS, Staessen JA. Low-level environmental exposure to lead unmasked as silent killer. *Circulation.* (2006) 114:1347–9. doi: 10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.106.650440
169. Zaynab M, Fatima M, Sharif Y, Sughra K, Sajid M, Ali Khan K, et al. Health and environmental effects of silent killers Organochlorine pesticides and polychlorinated biphenyl. *J King Saud Univ Sci.* (2021) 33:101511. doi: 10.1016/j.jksus.2021.101511
170. Huckelba AL, Van Lange PAM. The silent killer: Consequences of climate change and how to survive past the year 2050. *Sustainability.* (2020) 12:3757. doi: 10.3390/su12093757
171. Chen C, Hauptert SR, Zimmermann L, Shi X, Fritsche LG, Mukherjee B. Global prevalence of post COVID-19 condition or long COVID: A meta-analysis and systematic review. *J Infect Dis.* (2022) 2022:jiac136. doi: 10.1101/2021.11.15.21266377
172. Conference IH. WHO - constitution of the World Health Organization. 1946. *Bullet World Health Org.* (2002) 80:983–4.
173. Coma E, Català M, Méndez-Boo L, Alonso S, Hermsilla E, Alvarez-Lacalle E, et al. Unravelling the role of the mandatory use of face covering masks for the control of SARS-CoV-2 in schools: A quasi-experimental study nested in a population-based cohort in Catalonia (Spain). *Archiv Dis Childh.* (2022) 2022:324172. doi: 10.1136/archdischild-2022-324172
174. Fønhus MS, Dalsbø TK, Brurberg KG. *Facemasks to Prevent Transmission of Respiratory Illness, Such as COVID-19.* Norwegian Institute of Public Health (2021). Available online at: <https://fhi.brage.unit.no/fhi-xmliui/handle/11250/2756758> (accessed November 7, 2021).
175. Bundgaard H, Bundgaard JS, Raaschou-Pedersen DET, von Buchwald C, Todsén T, Norsk JB, et al. Effectiveness of adding a mask recommendation to other public health measures to prevent SARS-CoV-2 infection in Danish Mask Wearers. *Ann Intern Med.* (2020) 2020:6817. doi: 10.7326/M20-6817
176. Abaluck J, Kwong LH, Styczynski A, Haque A, Kabir MA, Bates-Jefferys E, et al. Impact of community masking on COVID-19: A cluster-randomized trial in Bangladesh. *Science.* (2021) 375:eabi9069. doi: 10.1126/science.abi9069
177. Glasziou PP, Michie S, Fretheim A. Public health measures for COVID-19. *Br Med J.* (2021) 375:n2729. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n2729
178. New COVID-19 Cases Worldwide. *Johns Hopkins Coronavirus Resource Center.* Available online at: <https://coronavirus.jhu.edu/data/new-cases> (accessed February 1, 2023).
179. Fearnley L, Wu X. Beyond Asian “mask culture”: Understanding the ethics of face masks during the COVID-19 pandemic in Singapore. *Crit Public Health.* (2022) 2022:1–12. doi: 10.1080/09581596.2022.2114315
180. Wang MX, Gwee SXW, Chua PEY, Pang J. Effectiveness of surgical face masks in reducing acute respiratory infections in non-healthcare settings: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Front Med.* (2020) 7:564280. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2020.564280
181. Xiao J, Shiu EYC, Gao H, Wong JY, Fong MW, Ryu S, et al. Nonpharmaceutical measures for pandemic influenza in nonhealthcare settings—Personal protective and environmental measures. *Emerg Infect Dis J.* (2020) 26:190994. doi: 10.3201/eid2605.190994
182. Mader S, Rüttenauer T. The effects of non-pharmaceutical interventions on COVID-19 mortality: A generalized synthetic control approach across 169 countries. *Front Public Health.* (2022) 10:820642. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.820642
183. Jefferson T, Mar CBD, Dooley L, Ferroni E, Al-Ansary LA, Bawazeer GA, et al. Physical interventions to interrupt or reduce the spread of respiratory viruses. *Cochr Datab Systemat Rev.* (2023) 2023:CD006207. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD006207.pub6
184. Knobloch JK, Franke G, Knobloch MJ, Knobling B, Kampf G. Overview of tight fit and infection prevention benefits of respirators (filtering face pieces, FFP). *J Hosp Infect.* (2023) 1:9. doi: 10.1016/j.jhin.2023.01.009
185. Asadi S, Cappa CD, Barreda S, Wexler AS, Bouvier NM, Ristenpart WD. Efficacy of masks and face coverings in controlling outward aerosol particle emission from expiratory activities. *Sci Rep.* (2020) 10:15665. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-72798-7
186. Schlegtendal A, Eitner L, Falkenstein M, Hoffmann A, Lücke T, Sinnigen K, et al. To mask or not to mask—Evaluation of cognitive performance in children wearing face masks during school lessons (MasKids). *Children.* (2022) 9:95. doi: 10.3390/children9010095
187. Truong TL, Beck SD, Weber A. The impact of face masks on the recall of spoken sentences. *J Acoust Soc Am.* (2021) 149:142–4. doi: 10.1121/10.0002951
188. Sönnichsen R, Llorach Tó G, Hochmuth S, Hohmann V, Radeloff A. How face masks interfere with speech understanding of normal-hearing individuals: Vision makes the difference. *Otol Neurotol.* (2022) 43:282–8. doi: 10.1097/MAO.0000000000003458
189. McKenna VS, Kendall CL, Patel TH, Howell RJ, Gustin RL. Impact of face masks on speech acoustics and vocal effort in healthcare professionals. *Laryngoscope.* (2022) 132:391–7. doi: 10.1002/lary.29763
190. Carbon CC, Held MJ, Schütz A. Reading emotions in faces with and without masks is relatively independent of extended exposure and individual difference variables. *Front Psychol.* (2022) 13:856971. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.856971
191. Gov.UK. *Education Recovery in Early Years Providers: Spring.* (2022). Available online at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/education-recovery-in-early-years-providers-spring-2022/education-recovery-in-early-years-providers-spring-2022> (accessed February 1, 2023).
192. Porzolt F, Wiedemann F, Phippen M, Weiss C, Weiss M, Schmalting K, et al. The terminology conflict on efficacy and effectiveness in healthcare. *J Comp Eff Res.* (2020) 9:1171–8. doi: 10.2217/ce-2020-0149
193. Tenenbaum T, Doehardt M, Diffloth N, Berner R, Armann JP. High burden of RSV hospitalizations in Germany 2021–2022. *Infection.* (2022) 50:1587–90. doi: 10.1007/s15010-022-01889-6
194. Ma KC. Increase in acute respiratory illnesses among children and adolescents associated with rhinoviruses and enteroviruses, including enterovirus D68 — United States, July–September 2022. *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* (2022) 71:mm7140e1. doi: 10.15585/mmwr.mm7140e1