

Possible toxicity of chronic carbon dioxide exposure associated with mask use, particularly in pregnant women, children and adolescents – a scoping review

Independent Researcher, Surgeon, Private Practice, Düsseldorf, Germany

Susanne Wagner

Non Clinical Expert, Veterinarian, Wagner MSL Management, Mahlow, Germany

Oliver Hirsch

Department of Psychology, FOM University of Applied Sciences, Siegen, Germany

Bernd Klosterhalfen

Institute of Pathology, Dueren Hospital, Dueren, Germany

Andreas Prescher

Institute of Molecular and Cellular Anatomy (MOCA), Aachen, Germany

Research Article

Keywords: carbon dioxide (CO2) exposure, toxicity, personal protective equipment, masks, N95 face mask, surgical mask, risk, adverse effects, long-term adverse effects, health risk assessment, MIES-syndrome, children, adolescents, pregnant women

Posted Date: January 6th, 2022

DOI: https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1233423/v1

License: © ① This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. Read Full License

Abstract

Literature was systematically reviewed regarding CO₂ exposure and facemask use. Observational and experimental data are helpful for a risk-benefit assessment for masks as a popular non-pharmaceutical intervention against SARS-CoV2 in the populace. Masks impede breathing by increasing the resistance and dead space volume leading to a re-breathing of CO₂ with every breath taken. Fresh air has around 0.04% CO₂, while wearing masks more than 5 minutes bears a possible chronic exposure to carbon dioxide of 1.41-3.2% of the inhaled air. Although the buildup is usually within the short-term exposure limits, long-term consequences must be considered due to experimental data. US Navy toxicity experts set the exposure limits for submarines carrying female crews to 0.8% CO2 based on animal studies indicating an increased risk for stillbirths. Additionally, in mammals chronically exposed to 0.3% CO2 experimental data demonstrates teratogenicity with irreversible damage of neurons and reduced spatial learning caused by brainstem neuron apoptosis and a reduced blood level of the insulin-like growth factor 1. With significant impact on three readout parameters (morphological, functional, marker) this chronic 0.3% CO₂ exposure has to be defined as being toxic. Additional data exists on the exposure of chronic 0.3% CO2 in adolescent mammals causing neuron destruction, which includes less activity, increased anxiety and impaired learning and memory. There is a possible negative impact risk by imposing extended mask mandates especially for vulnerable subgroups. Circumstantial evidence exists that extended mask use may be related to current observations of stillbirths and to reduced verbal motor and overall cognitive performance in children born during the pandemic. Extended masking in pregnant women, children and adolescents has not been thoroughly tested and studied. As a result of the animal experimental data available, a risk-benefit analysis is urgent and a need exists to rethink mask mandates, which provide appropriate warnings.

1. Introduction

Approximately 77% of the countries in the world introduced the requirement to wear masks in public spaces to contain SARS-CoV-2 making it commonplace in 2020. Simultaneously, it is one of the most important ubiquitous environmental factors directly affecting human breathing. Government data from the end of the year 2021 show that an estimated 4 496 149 755 people worldwide (58% of world population) have been confronted with a mask obligation. Given this and the significant role masks have played as a non-occupational, non-pharmaceutical public health intervention for the past 2 years, a rigorous scientific toxicological consideration is required. Children in schools in particular are heavily exposed to the mandatory wearing of masks for long periods. In this paper, we highlight the toxicological aspects of wearing a mask for special user groups resulting from a low level CO₂ exposure.

In medical environments, masks have been mandatory self-protective and third-party protective equipment for healthcare workers prior to COVID-19. There is no doubt about the efficacy of this medical device in reducing transmission of pathogens, especially bacteria. Masks belong in the hands of professionals in medical facilities and environments where symptomatic individuals are common. It should be noted that the authors of a recent systematic review evaluating six studies on antiviral mask efficacy concluded that wearing a mask might reduce the risk of COVID-19 infection, but predominantly in healthcare workers [1]. However, the evidence was limited due to the low statistical power and strength of the studies analysed. The topic of

general mask mandates is currently the subject of much scientific debate, especially in the USA. It is widely believed that the use of masks – including in the general population – could be an important measure to combat SARS-CoV2 [2]. Yet moderate or strong empirical scientific evidence for the effectiveness of masks when used by the general population is lacking, and there is solid data questioning the definite antiviral effectiveness of masks [3–6], even from the Cochrane database analysing systematic reviews [7]. And even mask-supportive reviews include statements such as: "wearing a mask could reduce the risk of COVID-19-infection ", but " more evidence is still needed to better define the protective effect of the mask on the wider population"[1]. An overview of systematic reviews on mask use against airborne viral diseases [8] found only one high quality study, which concluded "that compared with no facemask use, wearing a facemask may make little to no difference in how many people that catches a flu like illness"[7]. Furthermore, they stated: "It may seem that it makes little to no difference, what type of facemask is used". Current evidence suggests that SARS-CoV-2 may be also transmitted via fecal transmission and fomite [9] between infected individuals and others. Altogether, from an evidence-based perspective, masks for the public are overrated in a pandemic response [10].

In contrast, it is known that masks bear several side effects and risks [11]. Among the many symptoms and physiological changes, an elevated blood carbon dioxide level is an important cornerstone of the so-called Mask-Induced Exhaustion Syndrome (MIES) [11]. There is a high risk of improper handling when the mask is used by the general population and by children [12, 13]. Children and pregnant women are a special subgroup more susceptible to potential negative environmental factors [14].

There are several general short-term effects on human health due to low level CO_2 -inhalation: Physiological changes occur already at levels between 0.05% and 0.5% carbon dioxide showing increased heart rate, increased blood pressure and overall increased circulation with the symptoms of headache, fatigue, difficulty concentrating, dizziness, rhinitis and dry cough [15]. While the effects of short-term exposure on cognitive performance begin at 0.1% CO_2 levels, with reduced cognitive performance, impaired decision-making and reduced speed of cognitive solutions, many other long-term effects are known at concentrations above 0.5% [15, 16]. Exceeding the limit of 1% CO_2 the harmful effects include respiratory acidosis, metabolic stress, increased blood flow and decreased exercise tolerance [15]. Therefore, regarding low level CO_2 exposition an EN149:2001+A1 (European Standard Norm) and a NIOSH (National Institute for Occupational Safety & Health) norm exists. A health-critical limit is set at 15 minutes for 3% for short periods, while the 8-hour limit is set at 0.5% CO_2 [17].

2. Methods

We conducted a systematic literature search in MEDLINE, Cochrane Library and the World Health Organization COVID-19 Database up until 30th November 2021 on toxic effects of low level carbon dioxide including mask effects on carbon dioxide breathing. Medical surgical masks on the one hand and N95 masks (FFP2 masks) on the other were of interest here. Search terms were: "carbon dioxide", "breathing" and "toxicity" as well as "carbon dioxide" and "mask", including "surgical" and "N95". We searched PubMed and Google Scholar for additional articles of interest. Two independent researchers identified and screened the eligible studies. The selected papers were checked by all authors for final eligibility. To expand the amount of published data

further we reviewed citations from included articles to identify additional research. Only English- and Germanlanguage peer reviewed records were considered that explicitly described the toxicity of carbon dioxide at low concentrations as well as studies quantifying carbon dioxide when wearing masks under everyday conditions. Letters to the editor and case reports were not considered. Of the eligible papers, one with methodological weaknesses and one retracted paper were ultimately excluded.

3. Results

The search yielded 1651 papers, of which 43 publications were finally considered for evaluation according to the above criteria. In addition to 25 mask experiments in humans, we found 2 modeling and 2 test suite measurements of CO2 when using a mask. Four reviews describe the toxicity of inhaled low level CO2. From the referenced literature, two of the human and eight of the animal experiments examined the toxicity of carbon dioxide at low concentrations. The literature found demonstrates and quantifies in detail the effect of the face masks in terms of carbon dioxide rebreathing. It also describes in detail the effects of low concentration carbon dioxide toxicity. Figure 1 shows the flow chart of our scoping review.

3.1. Effects of masks on carbon dioxide re-breathing

In the study of Ulrike Butz's dissertation [18] focusing on possible rebreathing of carbon dioxide in 15 healthy adult male volunteers, a carbon dioxide partial pressure of up to 21-24 mmHg was found under a surgical mask after 30 minutes [18]. This corresponds to about 2.8 - 3.2 % carbon dioxide of the inhaled air under the mask.

In Pifarrés mask-experiments in 8 adult females and males a health-critical value of carbon dioxide concentration (CO_2 Vol%) was measured in the air under the masks after few minutes. The concentrations of 14162 ppm with a mask versus 464 ppm without a mask were statistically significant with p <0.001 increased by a high factor compared to the initial value (ambient air) and even more following exercise [19]. According to those experiments, masks can be responsible for a drastic increased CO_2 concentration of the inhaled air, which roughly corresponds to 1.41-1.7% carbon dioxide in inhaled air under the face mask (p < 0.001) [19].

A project at the University of Delft used a validated method that clearly demonstrated that carbon dioxide rebreathing under standardised laboratory conditions (test suite) after 1 minute is at least 0.9% $\rm CO_2$ for N95/FFP2 masks [20]. Those elevated carbon dioxide levels of inhaled air, particularly under N95 masks, have also been found in physiologic relevant short-time modeling studies. This confirms a constant increase leading to an averaged 1% inhaled $\rm CO_2$ per breath during simulations of eight breathing cycles in 33.65 seconds [21] (see Figure 8 of mentioned publication with animation of $\rm CO_2$ distribution with and without a respirator). Another modeling study shows that wearing N95 masks results in carbon dioxide accumulation, the volume fraction of $\rm CO_2$ reaches 1.2% after 7 breathing cycles and is then maintained at 3.04% on average. The wearers re-inhale excessive $\rm CO_2$ with every breath taken from the mask cavity [22].

In 2012 Sinkule already evaluated 30 different N95 respirators using the NIOSH Automated Breathing and Metabolic Simulator (ABMS) through 5 minute work rates and found elevated CO_2 levels in the inhaled air

ranging between 1.28% and 3.52% [23]. These results are consistent with measurements of CO_2 in the dead space of the masks from experimental studies in humans with values of 2.8 [24] and 3.2 % [25].

In a self-experiment in 2020 Geiss measured the air under masks under laboratory conditions and only found an accumulation of carbon dioxide between 0.22 and 0.29% within 5 minutes mainly under surgical masks [26]. However, this experiment has several limitations. Firstly, it is only a one-time measure performed by a man, which might not be representative. The anatomy of this volunteer does not reflect children or women. Secondly, the CO₂ sampling point chosen by Geiss above the tip of the nose on the bridge of the nose is suboptimal for mask measurements. This is because it is not close enough to the openings involved in breathing, which are shielded from the rest of the dead space of the mask by the protruding tip of the nose (see figure 1A in Geiss publication to illustrate the questionable placement of sensor [26] and compare it to the gas distribution video in Salati [21]). Thirdly, it is not optimal to place the sampling point at the highest point. This is because carbon dioxide is heavier than other air components (approximately 44 g/mol in CO₂ compared to 32 g/mol in O₂ and 28 g/mol in N₂) and could accumulate there over time to a lesser extent than in the lower parts of the dead space of the mask [21]. In contrast, Butz provided a positioning of the sensor close to the mouth attached to the cheek [18], like Blad [20] and Sinkule [23], who placed it close to the breathing orifice (mouth opening), while Rhee and Roberge chose the nasolabial fold [25,27].

In a prospective observational study in 2021, Rhee examined the carbon dioxide concentration of 11 healthy volunteers during regular breathing and sitting at rest while they put on different types of masks for 15 minutes. Serial $\rm CO_2$ measurements were performed with a nasal cannula at a frequency of 1 Hz [27]. The measured 2.4-2.6% $\rm CO_2$ concentration translates into a highly significant increase in $\rm CO_2$ with a KN95 respirator and a valved respirator at the nasolabial fold (p < 0.0001), which is much greater than the NIOSH 8h threshold limit value [17]. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) has an 8h threshold limit value – time-weighted average recommended exposure limit (TLV-REL) of 0.5% – and a 15 min threshold limit value – short-term exposure limit (TLV-STEL) of 3% for $\rm CO_2$ – in workplace ambient air [17]. Rhee´s well designed reliable high quality study demonstrates a significant increase in end-tidal $\rm CO_2$ concentrations among healthy volunteers while donning KN95 respirators. Consequently, the authors recommended further studies.

Table 1 summarizes the experimental findings concerning CO_2 -re-breathing under face masks.

Table 1. Experimentally measured CO₂ concentrations in the inhaled air under masks.

| Experimental mask study | Analyzer type | Placement CO ₂ sensor / sampling | Inhaled Vol% of CO ₂ (mask wearing time) | Factor of increase* |
|--|---------------------------------|---|---|---------------------|
| Blad 2020 [20] FFP2/N95 and FFP3 masks | GSS Sprint IR-WF-20 | close to the breathing orifice | 0.42 - 0.94 % test suite measurements (1 minute) | 11 - 24 |
| Butz 2005 [18] surgical masks | RADIMETER TCC3 | close to mouth on cheek | 2.8 - 3.2 % measurements on humans (30 minutes) | 70 - 80 |
| Geiss 2020 [26] surgical masks | TSI 7545 IAQ Meter | above nose tip, on nose bridge | 0.22 - 0.29 % measurement on human (5 minutes) | 6 - 7 |
| Laferty 2006 [24] <i>N95 masks</i> | Control Technologies GEM-500 | inner side of facepiece | 2.8 % measurement on humans (7 minutes) | 70 |
| Pifarré 2020 [19] mask type not given | Multi-Rae gas analyzer | not given | 1.41 - 1.7 % measurements on humans (5 to 7 minutes) | 35 - 43 |
| Rhee 2021 [27] <i>N95 masks</i> | GASLAB CM-0123 ExplorIR-W | at nasolabial fold | 2.4 - 2.6 % measurements on humans (15 minutes) | 60 - 65 |
| Roberge 2010 [25] <i>N95 masks</i> | p61-B, AEI | at nasolabial fold | 2.8 -3.2 % measurements on humans (60 minutes) | 70 - 80 |
| Sinkule 2012 [23] <i>N95 masks</i> | NIOSH ABMS | close to the breathing orifice | 1.28 - 3.52 % test suite measurements | 32 - 88 |

(5 minutes)

*compared to normal air concentration with 0.04 Vol% CO2.

When masks are used elevated CO₂ concentrations are inhaled [18-27]. Despite the compensatory mechanisms that occur [28] an arterial PaCO2 rise is inevitable in the long term [29]. For example, breathing air with an inspired CO₂ fraction of 1% (≈ 8 mmHg) will increase arterial carbon dioxide by 1 mmHg, which increases ventilation at rest [28]. In a recent scoping review numerous important studies which provide statistically significant evidence for such CO2 retention under the mouth-nose protection have been presented [11] and we have found additional studies that reveal scientific evidence of a carbon dioxide increase in the blood when masks are used. In total, significant changes (p<0.05) could be found in most of the evaluated studies that measured body CO₂ content during mask use [18,29-44] (Table 2). Experiments with relatively short evaluation times [45] or guestionable study design [46,47] showed no effects caused by masks. However, some well conducted studies also found no statistical difference between mask and no mask use, though measured CO₂ levels were continuously higher in mask wearers [25,48]. Some of these studies were conducted under extreme conditions and within selected user groups [49]. Overall, the most prominent rise in CO₂ was observed while wearing N95 masks. This is due to the fact that the dead space volume is almost doubled and the breathing resistance is more than doubled, which leads to a significant re-breathing of CO₂ with every breathing cycle [11,21,22]. Due to compensatory mechanisms, carbon dioxide partial pressure (PaCO₂) in the blood is at a subthreshold generally in healthier people [28,29], but in sick people a partially pathological increase is detected [34]. However, all mask types like community masks, surgical mask, as well as N95 respirators can be responsible for a significant and comparable rise in the blood content of CO₂ [32].

The buildup of CO₂ behind the masks is predominantly within the short term exposure limits of NIOSH and EN149 [17,19,20,24,27], but even with values which do not go beyond this limit in the short term [20,21,27], a long-term pathological consequence with clinical relevance is to be expected [15-17,19,21-23,27,50,51]. This is as a result of the longer lasting effect with a subliminal impact and significant shift in the pathological direction. This pathogenetic damage principle, whereby a chronic low-dose exposure leads to disease or to disease relevant conditions in the long term [52,53] has been extensively studied and described in many aspects of environmental medicine [11].

From a toxicological point of view, carbon dioxide is absorbed passively through the lungs from the breathed-in air. Human metabolism also produces carbon dioxide, which naturally requires elimination. Carbon dioxide is largely carried in the blood as bicarbonate, which is catalysed by the enzyme carbonic anhydrase. The excretion is accomplished mainly via the lungs although the kidneys also excrete small amounts. In expert literature, concentrations of >2% carbon dioxide in inhaled air are expected to cause adverse health effects [51]. At short exposure of CO₂ levels above 1% an increase in cardiac output is often seen. Inhalation of between 2.5–3.5% carbon dioxide for up to 10 minutes may increase cerebral blood flow up to 100% and a dilatation of cerebral blood vessels may be responsible for the severe headache produced by carbon dioxide inhalation [30,51]. Exposure to increased carbon dioxide concentrations causes hyperventilation. Interestingly, due to compensatory mechanisms, acclimatisation occurs to chronic low concentrations of carbon dioxide [28,50,51]. Acute features usually resolve despite continuing exposure as carbon dioxide at concentrations up

to 3%. However, in healthy adults metabolic changes are responsible for slight long-term damages at concentrations of <5% [51].

Some mechanisms of human adaptation to low level exposure of CO_2 had been evaluated experimentally including levels of 1-2% [28, 50]. Regarding the referenced mask literature those carbon dioxide values of 1-2% can be assumed for masks [18,19,21-25,27]. In the human experiments with low level 1-2% CO_2 exposure an increased respiratory minute volume of more than 34% was detected [50]. Moreover, higher arterial $PaCO_2$ and bicarbonate levels produced an effective buffering of inhaled CO_2 . A correlation could be shown between changes in plasma calcium level, pH, and CO_2 , indicating that the bone CO_2 store is a determining factor in the extended time periods of CO_2 retention and elimination. Kidney and organ calcification was seen in animal studies frequently, emphasising the involvement of calcium metabolism in adaptation to elevated levels of carbon dioxide [50]. Recent studies raised interest in carbon dioxide in relationship with chronic and/or intermittent long-term exposure conditions that might induce pathologic states, in particular favour DNA alterations, nasal inflammation, and pulmonary inflammation [16].

Table 2 shows studies revealing evidence of carbon dioxide retention when masks are used.

Table 2. Demonstrated statistically significant increase in carbon dioxide levels in mask wearers under various conditions in scientific intervention studies.

| Experimental mask study | Parameter | CO ₂ outcome in mmHg* | Rise mmHg | P-value |
|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Author & Year | | No vs Mask | | |
| Bharatendu 2020 [30] | PETCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 37.3 vs 40.4 | +3.1 | <0.001 |
| Butz 2005 [18] | PtCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
| | | 40 vs 45.6 | + 5.6 | < 0.05 |
| | PCO ₂ | under surgical mask: | | |
| | | 0.31 vs 22.49 | +22.18 | <0.05 |
| Dirol 2021 [42] | PETCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
| | | 37.2 vs 38.7 | +1.5 | <0.001 |
| Epstein 2020 [31] | PETCO ₂ | surgical masks: | +5 | |
| | | 35 vs 40 | | <0.03 |
| | PETCO ₂ | N95 masks: | +8 | |
| | | 35 vs 43 | | <0.001 |
| Georgi 2020 [32] | PtCO ₂ | community masks: | | |
| | | 38.4 vs 39.1 | +0.7 | <0.001 |
| | PtCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
| | _ | 38.4 vs 39.9 | +1.5 | <0.001 |
| | PtCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 38.4 vs 40.5 | +2.1 | <0.001 |
| Kim 2013 [43] | PtCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 39.7 vs 42.7 | +3 | <0.01 |
| Kyung 2020 [33] | PETCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 24.8 vs 25.7 | +0.9 | <0.001 |
| | | 34.0 vs 35.5 | +1.5 | <0.001 |
| Lubrano 2021 [39] | PETCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 32 vs 39 | +7 | <0.005 |
| Mapelli 2021 [41] | PETCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
| | | 33 vs 35.1 | +2.1 | <0.05 |
| | | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 33 vs 36.3 | +3.3 | <0.05 |
| | | D 0/04 | | |

Page 9/31

| Mo 2020 [34] | PaCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------|---------|
| | | 40.77 vs 49.75 | +8.98 | <0.005 |
| Pifarré 2020 [19] | PCO ₂ | under masks: | | |
| | | 0.35 vs 10.76 | +10.41 | <0.001 |
| | PCO ₂ | under masks: | | |
| | | 0.35 vs 12.92 | +12.57 | <0.001 |
| Rebmann 2013 [35] | PtCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 32.4 vs 41.0 | +8.6 | <0.01 |
| Roberge 2012 [36] | PtCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
| | | 39.31 vs 41.48 | +2.17 | <0.001 |
| Roberge 2014 [37] | PtCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 31.3 vs 33.3 | +2 | <0.05 |
| Tong 2015 [38] | FeCO ₂ | N95 masks: | | |
| | | 25.84 vs 28.12 | +2.28 | <0.001 |
| Zhang 2021 [40] | PETCO ₂ | surgical masks: | | |
| | | 38.8 v s 41.6 | +2.8 | < 0.001 |

 $PaCO_2$ =Arterial partial pressure of CO_2 , PCO_2 =Partial pressure of CO_2 , $PETCO_2$ =End-expiratory partial pressure of carbon dioxide, $PtCO_2$ =Percutaneous CO_2 , $FeCO_2$ =Exhaled CO_2 .

*If necessary, values have been standardised for comparability, assuming normal values of CO_2 content of room air (409 ppm) and normal air pressure (760 mmHg) according to the formula:

$$\textit{Vapor Pressure (mmHg)} = \frac{\textit{AtmosphericPressure(mmHg)}}{10^6} * ppm.$$

Please Note: Breathing air with inspired CO_2 fraction of 1% (\approx 8 mmHg) will increase arterial carbon dioxide (PaCO₂) by 1 mmHg, [28]. PETCO₂ and PtCO₂ measurements provide an estimation of PaCO₂ [54,55,56].

3.2. Low level inhaled carbon dioxide toxicity in animal studies

One principle of toxicological consideration of the risk of exposure to noxious agents to humans is the use of evidence from animal studies. Therefore, the most important animal studies on carbon dioxide respiration at low concentrations are presented. They provide information on possible mask effects. It should be mentioned that in a great work of toxicology [57] following statement on page 156 can be found: "Small laboratory animals (mice) cannot serve well as indicators for dioxide as they do for carbon monoxide, since they are much less sensitive to it than humans". Therefore, in an appropriate risk assessment it is necessary to apply an inter-species uncertainty factor.

3.2.1. Teratogenicity and stillbirth

From decades of studies on the toxicity of carbon dioxide it is known that just 0.5% carbon dioxide for a few minutes to an hour per day is capable of inducing stillbirth and teratogenic birth defects in guinea pigs [58] (Page 14 of the referred FDA document). People in positions of responsibility in the US Navy have been aware that this level of 0.5% carbon dioxide in submarines is often exceeded. They therefore set up a study in pregnant rats, the details of which have been published [59,60]. In rats the first signs of toxicity to pups were observed at a level of 3% carbon dioxide exposure for the pregnant dam with no signs of toxicity at 2.5% exposure. In the 3% CO₂ exposure group the findings were a statistically significant mean litter proportion of post-implantation loss (resorptions occurring in the early phase of pregnancy) and a corresponding statistically significant lower mean litter proportion of viable fetuses. Moreover, they found one fetus that had gastroschisis (stomach, several loops of the intestine and liver protruding through an opening in the ventral midline) and localised fetal edema was noted in 2 fetuses: one for hind limbs and the other for neck and thorax. With a safety factor between animals and humans of about three, the US Navy toxicity experts then set the exposure limits for submarines carrying female crews to 0.8% carbon dioxide as well as emergency exposure with a limit of 24 hours [59,60].

The exact mechanism of low level CO₂ toxicity for unborn life is not known in detail. Maternal and fetal mechanisms have to be taken into account. With regard to the adverse maternal changes an increased CO2 and acidity in the blood (pH changes) trigger various compensatory mechanisms. These include pH buffering systems in the blood, increased breathing to reduce excess CO₂ in the bloodstream, increased excretion of acid by the kidneys to restore pH balance and nervous system stimulation due to changes of heart contractibility and vasodilation [61,62]. During respiratory acidosis the kidneys retain bicarbonate helping to normalize the pH of the blood. With prolonged CO₂ stress a metabolic acidosis occurs and the kidneys no longer respond in producing bicarbonate [63]. Thereafter –with further prolonged CO₂ burden – the body uses the bones to regulate the acid levels in the blood: Bicarbonate and a positive ion (Ca²⁺, K⁺, Na⁺) are exchanged for H⁺. The kidney tubule recovers filtered bicarbonate or secretes bicarbonate into the urine to help maintain the pH balance in the blood, which involves the Carbonic Anhydrase (CA) enzyme [64]. CA enzymes participate in metabolic reactions that convert CO2 and result in the precipitation of calcium carbonate [65-67]. CA is involved in the calcification of human tissues including bone and soft-tissue calcification [65]. Carbon dioxide conversion by the CA enzyme provides bicarbonate and hydrogen ions that fuel the uptake of ionised calcium, which is then deposited in the body tissues as calcium carbonate. Increased CO₂ in the blood caused by breathing elevated levels of the gas could lower the pH enough to increase the activity of CA thereby potentially increasing calcium carbonate deposits [67]. Significant tissue calcification has been observed in animals after a 2-week exposure to 1% CO2 or an 8-week exposure to 0.5% CO₂ with only slight reductions in pH [68]. This would occur by CA activity where tissues connect with plasma, e.g. arteries, kidneys or even the placenta. A placenta calcification is associated with a higher risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes [69-71]. This mechanism appears plausible as the final damaging step in the maternal body.

In addition, carbon dioxide is also known to play a role in oxidative stress caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) [72]. This would impede fetal body development. In particular, oxidative damage to cellular DNA can

lead to mutations [16,72].

Moreover, inflammation is a serious illness that is known to be caused by low-level CO_2 exposure in humans and animals [16,73-76]. CO_2 increases the result in higher levels of pro-inflammatory Interleukin-1 β , a protein involved in regulating immune responses, which causes inflammation and vascular damage [73]. In this case, both fetal as well as maternal vascular damages are to be expected.

3.2.2. Neurotoxicity

To figure out the negative impact of poor indoor air quality on early brain development a research study exposed pregnant rats [77] to carbon dioxide levels of 0.1 to 0.3 %, which is unfortunately commonplace in poorly ventilated closed buildings [15]. At an exposure of 0.3% carbon dioxide for the pregnant rats the pups demonstrated reduced spatial learning and memory at the age of approx. 6 weeks [77]. This reduced spatial learning and memory was attributed to histologically proven damaged neurons in a part of the brain called the hippocampus [77]. This damage is irreversible and it affects mental health in the long term. When the pregnant rats were exposed to just 0.1% CO_2 the pups demonstrated increased anxiety [77], which is even more pronounced when the dams were exposed to 0.3% CO_2 .

Carbon dioxide exposure, depending on its duration and intensity can cause oxidative stress [78]. Oxidative stress mediates apoptosis by forming lipid hydroperoxides that are highly toxic and cause DNA fragmentation [79]. This condition causes mitochondrial damage, which can lead to a release of Cytochrome C, Caspase activation and finally cell death [80].

Low indoor air quality in classrooms is well known to be associated with a negative impact on the learning capacity of school children [15,16,76]. To establish whether this only indicates a short-term effect or possible substantial damage to brain function, a study in mice was performed and published [81]. Adolescent mice were exposed 24 hours a day for 7 weeks to a level of 0.3% carbon dioxide, but with normal atmospheric levels of oxygen [81]. At the end of the study a so-called water maze exercise was performed. Here the mice have to find a life-saving platform in a water basin. This test distinguishes between impact on physical function and on mental function. Mice were tested on four consecutive days. On the first test day mice in all groups (carbon dioxide exposed and normal air exposed) typically needed around 40 seconds to find the platform. Healthy mice exposed to normal air learned to find the platform more quickly and after four days the healthy mice finally only needed 20 seconds to find the platform, whereas the carbon dioxide exposed mice were unable to learn the shortest way to the platform. Although the carbon dioxide exposed mice were able to swim as quickly as their healthy controls, they were not able to learn the shortest route. They swam around in a very disoriented manner day after day of the four test days. Histology tests demonstrated apoptosis of brainstem neurons in those 0.3% carbon dioxide exposed mice [81]. This is a very disturbing finding because this CO_2 -induced loss of neurons is irreversible.

When exposure to low level CO₂ is prolonged (several hours to one week) the organism depletes its buffer systems [81-84]. The number of cells in the brain of adolescents is a result of the equilibrium of cell proliferation and apoptosis. External factors can affect both cell proliferation and death. In the case of prolonged low-level CO₂-exposure the latter occurs, especially under exercise or stress [85-88]. Blood carbon

dioxide concentration exerts an important influence on intra- and extracellular pH, CO_2 passes quickly through the cell membranes to form carbonic acid with H_2O , which releases H^+ ions and, in excess, causes acidosis [89-91]. Acidosis decreases transmembrane Ca^{+2} conductivity and decreases the excitability of neurons [92,93]. Calcium overload causes excitotoxicity and apoptosis during hypoxia [94].

3.2.3. Male reproductive toxicity

As a rise in carbon dioxide when wearing a mask is scientifically proven (Tables 1 and 2) [18-27,29-44], further information about the phenomenon of the toxicological influence of elevated carbon dioxide of inhaled air on male fertility needs to be discussed. The toxic effects of low level carbon dioxide exposure on male fertility have been studied extensively in animal experiments. The exposure of adolescent rats to a carbon dioxide level of 2.5% once for four hours induced pathological signs of diminished fertility in rat testes [95]. A correct estimation of an exposure limit from animal toxicity studies to humans requires implementation of a safety factor [59,60,96]. One has to consider that small laboratory animals, evolutionarily adapted to living in burrows and caves, are limited as indicators for carbon dioxide, since they are much less sensitive to it than humans [57]. As aforementioned, the US Navy was using a safety factor of 3 from a level with no adverse effects on rat pregnancies [59,60]. In the study referred to on rat testicular function of carbon dioxide no so-called NOAEL (No-Observed-Adverse-Effect-Level) was observed [95]. Using the 2.5% level with marked damage to testes function and a minimum safety factor of 5, an exposure limit for adolescent males needs to be set at 0.5% for a maximum of 4 hours a day [59,60,95,96].

The damaging mechanism of CO_2 affecting testicular tissues is based on the conditions of oxidative stress and acidosis with increased inflammation and apoptosis as described above [72,73-76,78,79]. Testes metabolism and cell respiration have been shown to be increasingly inhibited by rising levels of CO_2 [95]. It has to be pointed out here that this data on the toxicity of carbon dioxide on reproduction has been known for 60 years. Exposure limits have therefore typically been set at 0.5% CO_2 in working environments, e.g. according to a Safety Data Sheet by Linde Company on Exposure Limits [97]. These limits are based on EU Indicative Exposure Limit Values in Directives 91/322/EEC, 2000/39/EC, 2006/15/EC, 2009/161/EU, 2017/164/EU. An 8-hour exposure limit of 0.5% CO_2 has been defined in the NIOSH regulations [17]. Looking at the potential damage to the reproduction function by subacute or chronic carbon dioxide exposure proven in animal experiments makes it very clear why these limits exist.

Table 3 sums up the significant toxicity of inhaled carbon dioxide at low levels in animal studies.

Table 3. Significant toxicity of inhaled carbon dioxide at low levels in animal studies.

| Experimental study, species | Toxic CO ₂ -level (Vol%) [exposure duration] | Significant Outcome |
|---|---|---|
| FDA Technical Reports 1979 [58] guinea pigs | 0.48 % Exposure to pregnant [10 min over 20 days each] | Stillbirth and birth defects (67.5%) |
| Howard 2012 [59,60] rats | 3% resp. 0.8 %* Exposure to pregnant [chronically] | Stillbirth and birth defects (p<0.01) |
| Kiray 2014 [77] rats | 0.3 % Exposure to unborn (pregnant) [chronically] | Neuron destruction in prefrontal cortex and hippocampus, decreased IGF-1 levels, increased anxiety after birth, impaired memory and learning (p<0.05) |
| Uysal 2014 [81] <i>mice</i> | 0.3 % Exposure to adolescent [chronically] | Neuron destruction in gyrus dentatus and the prefrontal cortex, decreased IGF-1 levels, less activity, increased anxiety, impaired learning and memory (p<0.05) |
| Vandemark 1972 [95] rats | 2.5 % resp. 0.5 %* Exposure to male [4 hours] | Destruction of spermatid and Sertoli cells in testes, streaking & vacuolization of the tubular components, no maturation of spermatids (histopathological proof) |

^{*}calculated for humans with an interspecies safety factor, for further details see Howard et al [59,60,96].

4. Discussion

The above data including Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3 indicate that mandatory daily long-term use of masks, especially for pregnant women, children, adolescents and younger people can be expected to have negative

effects. For example, the requirement that pupils wear masks throughout the entire school day is problematic. So does the extended N95 mask-wearing by pregnant women. With reliable measurements the experimentally determined CO_2 concentrations in the inhaled air under masks can reach – depending on exposure time – values of 0.42 up to 3.52 Vol% (Table 1) [18–20, 23–25, 27]. One has to remember, that in those experiments the time measured wearing a mask ranged from 1 minute to several minutes with a maximum of 60 minutes in a few studies, which is not always representative for real-world settings.

For pregnant women there is a metabolic need for a fetal-maternal CO₂ gradient. The mother's blood carbon dioxide level should always be lower than that of the unborn child. This is necessary to ensure the diffusion of ${\rm CO_2}$ from the fetal blood into the maternal circulation via the placenta. Therefore, the hypercapnic gas shifts promoted by masks could, even with subliminal carbon dioxide increases, act as an interference variable of the fetal-maternal ${\rm CO_2}$ gradient and increasing over time of exposure [11]. Thus, even if compensatory mechanisms are active, an additional risk for pregnant women and their unborn children must be considered. A study in 22 pregnant women shows that wearing N95-masks during 20 min of exercise leads to significantly higher percutaneous CO₂ values with average PtcCO₂ values of 33.3 mmHg compared to 31.3 mmHg without masks (p = 0.04) [37]. Another comparative study on pregnant women wearing N95 mask shows increased levels of CO₂ in expired air [38]. These results measuring the accumulation of CO₂ in the mother's blood give evidence that a mask can lead to significant changes in the blood gas hemostasis of pregnant women (Table 2) despite the compensatory mechanisms [28, 50] caused by the increased inhaled carbon dioxide. It is wellknown from many disciplines that the toxicity of a pollutant depends on the one hand on the concentration and on the other on the duration of exposure. The frequency of exposure and time are of toxicological importance and there is the notion, that time is a variable equivalent to dose in toxicology [52, 53]. According to Rozman, risk projecting should include time as a variable (including toxicokinetic, toxicodynamic, exposure frequency/duration). Adding time to dose as an independent variable in toxicology allows a risk assessment in which a single acute dose would represent the liminal case when the dose rate equals the dose. Consequently, a single high dose exposure will not be much different from exposure to proportionally smaller daily dose rates [52, 53].

Additionally, one has to consider the special susceptibility of early life conceptual tissues with less well developed protective/conjugative pathways [14].

However, taking into account the above facts of increased carbon dioxide rebreathing under masks with values ranging from 0.22 to 3.52 vol% CO2 and in the majority of studies with values above 1% [18, 19, 21–25, 27] including Table 1, it is clear even to laymen that carbon dioxide rebreathing, especially when using N95 masks, is above the 0.8% CO2 limit set by the US Navy to reduce the risk of stillbirths and birth defects on submarines with female personnel who may be pregnant [58, 59, 60] (Table 3). One has to keep in mind that US Navy female submarine officers are of very high mental and physical fitness, incomparable to the level of physical health of pregnant women in the broad population. Nowadays all over the world masked pregnant women (especially those using N95 masks) are potentially exposed to carbon dioxide re-breathing levels that are prohibited by US Navy for female submarine officers because of the risk of stillbirth and birth defects. Analysis of online available data on mask mandates [98] show, according to our calculations, that most

countries (150 out of 194) worldwide had a masking requirement (77.3%) roughly corresponding to 4 496 149 755 people worldwide accounting for 58% of the world population.

So one has to ask: May there be a link between an increased mask-related (pandemic) global carbon dioxide re-breathing since 2020 and the current reported rise in stillbirths worldwide [99] of disturbing 28%? In a prospective registry of 263 infants of 179 infected mothers the authors found no evidence that a SARS-CoV-2 infection is associated with significant higher risk of damage to unborn life [100]. However, current data on the new Delta variant, imply a possible slightly higher risk of stillbirths (prepandemic stillbirth rate of 0.59% versus 0.98% in COVID-19—affected deliveries and 2.70% during the Delta period), but the evaluation was not able to separate SARS-CoV2 exposure from higher mask exposure in those women [101]. Interestingly, recent data from Australia shows that lockdown restrictions and other measures (including masks that have been mandatory in Australia), in the absence of high rates of COVID-19 disease, were associated with

a significant increase in preterm stillbirths [102]. May there be also a link between the pandemic driven excessive mask-use and the fact that 42% of female USA surgeons surveyed between November 2020 and February 2021 [103] lost a pregnancy according to a recent study? During a pandemic, surgeons are likely to have the heaviest mask exposure compared to the general population. Data from Italy show with statistical significance three-fold increase in stillbirths in the general population during lockdown period (March-April-May) 2020 compared to the same period in 2019 [104]. A recent rapid review and meta-analysis gives clues about the severity of the indirect influence of COVID-19 lockdown implementations [105]. The authors found that lockdown measures were associated with a significant risk of stillbirth with RR=1.33 (95% CI 1.04, 1.69) when compared to before lockdown period [105]. It is well known that lockdown measures include mask mandates as well [2].

Among the few countries that do not require the wearing of masks in public is Sweden. Interestingly, despite similar pandemic measures and SARS-CoV2 presence in the media and in the real world, no increased risk of stillbirths was observed in Sweden. A Swedish nationwide study "did not find any associations between being born during a period when many public health interventions aimed at mitigating the spread of COVID-19 were enforced and the risk for any of the preterm birth categories or stillbirth (adjusted OR 0.78, CI 0.57 to 1.06) "[106]. Although society was not completely closed, Swedish authorities enforced many policies to mitigate the spread of COVID-19, such as promotion of general hygiene measures and social distancing (including remote working), ban of nonessential travel, prohibition of gatherings of more than 50 people and the closure of upper secondary schools and universities [106].

A look at Table 3 shows that the results of the FDA (1979) [58] and Howard experiments (2012) [59, 60] on toxic CO_2 levels may explain the increase in the incidence of stillbirths found in the above studies. Moreover, wearing N95 masks that are linked to a higher carbon dioxide re-breathing (Table 2) [31, 32, 41] is significantly more associated with higher gestational age than surgical masks [107].

Interestingly, a recent publication realised a large on-going longitudinal study of child neurodevelopment in Rhode Island, an USA state with mask mandates, examining general childhood cognitive scores in 2020 and 2021 vs. the preceding decade, 2011-2019 [108]. The scientists found that children born during the pandemic have significantly reduced verbal, motor, and overall cognitive performance compared to children born pre-

pandemic with consistent and significant reductions (p<0.001) showing lower cognitive skills [108]. Could there be a connection between the increased use of N95 masks by pregnant women [107], higher carbon dioxide re-breathing levels (Tables 1&2) [18–25, 27, 31, 32, 41] and the results [108] of this recent study? Fresh outdoor air has around 0.04% carbon dioxide [15, 16] and the level of re-breathed CO_2 under masks can rise to levels far higher than 1% as mentioned above [18, 19, 21–25, 27], especially when masks are worn in closed buildings additionally worsening the sick building syndrome [15, 16]. A look at Tables 1 and 3 shows that the results of the Kiray 2014 [77] experiments could be an explanation of these findings due to the fact that most human studies prove CO_2 exposition of higher than 0.3% while using a face mask. After low-level exposure of 0.3% CO_2 to the pregnant dams, Kiray was able to detect neuron destruction in prefrontal cortex and hippocampus, decreased IGF-1 levels, increased anxiety and impaired memory and learning after birth [77] of the offspring.

The problem of prolonged mask use in children and in schools needs to be discussed as well. One has to consider that children are not just small adults. This means that exposure criteria should be based on information relevant to predicting risks to children and should account for such toxicokinetic differences occurring with development [14]. It is necessary to evaluate the psychological and neurological effects when masks are compulsory at school [15, 16, 18–25, 27, 76]. A statement was made in a recent scoping review on masks that "the long-term sociological, psychological and educational consequences of a comprehensive masking requirement extended to schools are unpredictable with regard to the psychological and physical development of healthy children "[11]. In this psychological, neurological and pediatric context it is crucial to discuss the toxicological impact of prolonged mask wearing and the concomitant elevation in re-breathed carbon dioxide (Tables 1, 2 and 3). Regarding the experimentally measured CO₂ concentrations in the inhaled air under masks from Table 1 with values ranging from 0.22-3.52% being mostly above 0.3% [18-27], the results from Table 3 [81, 95] are remarkable. In 2014 Uysal could demonstrate with his experiments that a mere 0.3% CO₂ exposure to adolescent brain neurons can cause destruction in the gyrus dentatus and the prefrontal cortex with decreased IGF-1 levels resulting in less activity, increased anxiety and impaired learning and memory [81]. Already in 1972 Vandemark revealed - only after a 4-hour low level CO₂ exposure - a carbon dioxide dependent destruction of spermatid and Sertoli cells in testes, streaking & vacuolization of the tubular components with no maturation of spermatids [95]. Calculated with a human safety factor [59, 60, 96], the carbon dioxide content of the inhaled air should be at least below 0.5% CO2 for a 4-h exposure to avoid these adverse effects on testicular tissue. According to data from Table 1, when wearing masks – for example in schools- this seems difficult to achieve in many cases [18-25, 27] especially when room air (in crowded classrooms) already has an increased CO₂ content [15, 16, 76].

Altogether, there is disturbing experimental evidence for a possible negative impact risk on the mental and reproductive health of children, adolescents and pregnant women due to chronic carbon dioxide re-breathing since the introduction of mask mandates (Table 1 and Table 3). Indeed, masks (being a medical device) for general and long term use in the populace should be evaluated more thoroughly according to the German Medical Devices Act (Medizin-Produkte-Gesetz), the European MDR (Medical Device Regulation) and the FDA [17, 109, 110].

In summary, benefits and risks of masks have to be assessed according to the WHO especially for children, pregnant women, the elderly and the ill [11, 111]. Therefore, the justification of the mask mandate for the general public must be critically and scientifically questioned.

On the one hand there is no clear high-quality empirical data providing moderate or strong evidence that mask use in the general population could have a relevant impact on SARS-CoV2 virus transmission rates [3–8, 10]. An overview of systematic reviews on mask use against airborne virus diseases [8] did find only one high quality study [7]. Moreover, they concluded that "wearing a mask may make little to no difference".

On the other hand, empirically, the assumption that asymptomatic persons are significant virus spreaders cannot be supported [112, 113] and systematic reviews do not provide moderate or strong evidence for the asymptomatic as significant spreaders [114–116]. Thus, if asymptomatic people are not the focus of infection according to these findings a mask for the asymptomatic must be questioned. Even if the mask were to work its widespread use should be questioned because of the lack of literature clearly demonstrating the infectiousness of symptomless SARS-CoV2 infected individuals [113]. Therefore, the argumentation to make a mask mandatory in places where symptomatic individuals are excluded (tests, admission control, restrictions etc.) in order to contain SARS-CoV2 spreading cannot be substantiated [112, 113].

In addition, the infectivity [117] and average lethality risk of SARS-CoV-2 ranging from 0.1 to 0.14% must be considered when recommending universal mask use [118, 119]. This figure is far lower for children and fertile young women [120]. In a recent study, no healthy children between 5 and 18 years of age were found to have died from COVID [121].

Indeed, if the potential adverse effects and possible long-term consequences of masks [11] are taken into account (Table 3) even greater doubts arise regarding masks as a defensible, effective and harmless means of combating SARS-CoV2 in widespread use, especially regarding our referenced data with possible deleterious effects for children, adolescents and pregnant women [18-25, 27, 58-60, 77, 81, 95]. The background of the political decisions on far-reaching mandatory mask use is difficult to understand scientifically [120]. According to the medical principle of "primum nihil nocere" (at first do not harm) and in view of the presented findings, the mask would have to be scientifically re-evaluated as a SARS-CoV2 pandemic control. The credo of all those involved in the containment of the crisis, including politicians, should be to prevent the damage caused by precautionary or therapeutic measures at all costs so as not to exceed the damage caused by the disease. When it comes to medical decision-making in a sick person, the assessment 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 people or if they are improperly applied, the consequences are usually much more severe and liability claims are often unavoidable. In view of the possible toxicological mask effects of re-breathed carbon dioxide in pregnant women, children and adolescents, and in view of the limited scientific evidence for masks as an effective pandemic measure, there is need to re-evaluate and rethink mask mandates especially for these vulnerable subgroups.

5. Conclusions

It is widely believed that the use of masks - including in the general population - could be an important measure to combat SARS-CoV2 [2] and a huge number of publications on this topic cannot be overlooked. However, elevated blood carbon dioxide levels are an important cornerstone of the so called Mask-Induced Exhaustion Syndrome (MIES) (Table 2) [11]. A significant rise in carbon dioxide occurring while wearing a mask is scientifically proven in many studies [11, 18–25, 27, 30–44], especially for N95-masks (Table 2) [20, 23–25, 27, 30–33, 35, 37–39, 41, 43, 44], due to their higher deadspace and breathing resistance [11].

Fresh air has around 0.04% CO₂ while masks bear a possible chronic exposure to low level carbon dioxide of 0.42 to 3.52% in laboratory test suites [20, 23], of 1-3.05% in modeling studies [21, 22] and reliable human measurements even yield values of 1.41 to 3.2% CO₂ of the inhaled air (Table 1) [18, 19, 24, 25, 27].

Animal experimental data shows deleterious proven effects of elevated CO_2 of inhaled air in the long term with threshold values of above 0.3%, 0.5% and 0.8% (Table 3) [58–60, 68, 77, 81, 95]. The risk for children's mental development starts at levels of above 0.3% [77, 81], to adolescent male sexual development at levels of above 0.5% [95], as well as to unborn life at levels of above 0.8% [58–60] resulting in reduced cognitive performance, reduced fertility and stillbirths (Table 3).

There is circumstantial evidence that popular mask use may be related to current observations of a significant rise of 28-33% in stillbirths worldwide and a reduced verbal, motor and overall cognitive performance of two full standard deviations in scores in children born during the pandemic [99, 102-105, 108]. Assuming that time is a toxicological variable equivalent to dose [52, 53] long term everyday mask use cannot be claimed as harmless, as exposure to smaller daily doses will not be much different from exposure to a single high dose. Instead of worrying only about the potential risks of a future harmful long-term CO_2 increase in the atmosphere with impact on human health [76, 122, 123], the focus of research should also be on the current mask-related CO_2 increase in breathing air (Table 1) with its numerous effects. In this article we only focused on CO_2 , however, other noxious agents in the masks contribute to toxicological long term effects like the inhalation of synthetic microfibers, carcinogenic compounds and volatile organic compounds could also play a role [124, 125].

It must be remembered that the increased carbon dioxide content of the breathing air behind the mask may also lead to a displacement of oxygen. In this case, in addition to hypercapnia, hypoxia could also have an effect, which would certainly be very important for the teratogenetic aspects (e.g. spinal malformations due to hypoxia) [126]. The fact that in this context (toxic effect of carbon dioxide versus hypoxia) no sharp distinction is made it can lead up to the mixing of sequelae, which was mentioned by Hubert Meesen [127].

The general extended masking requirement, especially for children and pregnant women [14], is a measure that has not been thoroughly tested and studied. According to the literature found, masks bear some toxicological unpredictable risks with respect to carbon dioxide [11, 18–25, 27]. Unfortunately, wearing of N95 masks, that are linked to a higher carbon dioxide re-breathing (Table 1&2) [32, 32, 41] has a considerable association with an advanced gestational week than surgical masks [107].

Consequently, it should be the task of governments in conjunction with their responsible health authorities to perform an appropriate benefit risk assessment of the mandatory use of masks in each country. This is the

fundamental basis of all approvals for chemicals, medical devices and drugs aimed to protect humans, animals and the environment.

Reliable studies on possible carbon dioxide re-breathing while wearing a mask in real-world scenarios are necessary to exclude possible damaging effects [99, 102–105, 108]. Therefore, health authorities should organise and perform further toxicological studies focusing on masks in specific user groups according to Good-Clinical-Practice and Good-Laboratory-Practice.

So far, such mandatory activities by governments and health authorities are not visible globally. Regarding the referenced literature, low level CO_2 exposure can be related to mask use. Keeping in mind the weak antiviral mask efficacy, the current behavior of the media, science and politics vehemently forcing mask mandate even for the vulnerable subgroups appears highly unethical and not in line with the obligation in particular to protect born or unborn children from potential harmful influences [14]. The actual – so called " preventive "– proceeding concerning mask obligations in many countries around the world and especially in schools is not in line with the Helsinki Declaration [128], the Lisbon Declaration [129] and the Nuremberg Code [130].

Declarations

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements: We thank Bonita Blankart and Markus Veit for proofreading the manuscript.

References

- 1. Li Y, Liang M, Gao L, et al. Face masks to prevent transmission of COVID-19: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Infect Control.* 2021;49(7):900-906. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2020.12.007
- 2. Howard J, Huang A, Li Z, et al. An evidence review of face masks against COVID-19. *PNAS*. 2021;118(4). doi:10.1073/pnas.2014564118
- 3. Bundgaard H, Bundgaard JS, Raaschou-Pedersen DET, 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.* Published online November 18, 2020. doi:10.7326/M20-6817
- 4. Gettings J. Mask Use and Ventilation Improvements to Reduce COVID-19 Incidence in Elementary Schools Georgia, November 16—December 11, 2020. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2021;70. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm7021e1
- 5. Guerra D, Guerra DJ. Mask mandate and use efficacy for COVID-19 containment in US States. *International Research Journal of Public Health.* 20210824;5. doi:10.28933/irjph-2021-08-1005
- 6. Fisher KA, Tenforde MW, Feldstein LR, et al. Community and close contact exposures associated with COVID-19 among symptomatic adults ≥18 years in 11 outpatient health care facilities United States, July

- 2020. MMWR Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 2020;69(36):1258-1264. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm6936a5
- 7. Jefferson T, Mar CBD, Dooley L, et al. Physical interventions to interrupt or reduce the spread of respiratory viruses. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2020;(11). doi:10.1002/14651858.CD006207.pub5
- 8. Fønhus MS, Dalsbø TK, Brurberg KG. *Facemasks to Prevent Transmission of Respiratory Illness, Such as COVID-19*. Norwegian Institute of Public Health; 2021. Accessed November 7, 2021. https://fhi.brage.unit.no/fhi-xmlui/handle/11250/2756758
- 9. Heneghan CJ, Spencer EA, Brassey J, et al. SARS-CoV-2 and the role of orofecal transmission: a systematic review. Published online November 2, 2021. doi:10.12688/f1000research.51592.2
- 10. Boretti A. Efficacy of Generalized Face Masking Mandates. Health Services Research and Managerial Epidemiology. January 2021. doi:10.1177/23333928211058023
- 11. Kisielinski K, Giboni P, Prescher A, et al. Is a Mask That Covers the Mouth and Nose Free from Undesirable Side Effects in Everyday Use and Free of Potential Hazards? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health.* 2021;18(8):4344. doi:10.3390/ijerph18084344
- 12. Kappstein I. Mund-Nasen-Schutz in der Öffentlichkeit: Keine Hinweise für eine Wirksamkeit. *Krankenhaushygiene up2date.* 2020;15(3):279-295. doi:10.1055/a-1174-6591
- 13. Gralton, J.; McLaws, M.-L. Protecting Healthcare Workers from Pandemic Influenza: N95 or Surgical Masks? *Crit. Care Med.* **2010**, *38*, 657–667
- 14. Faustman EM, Silbernagel SM, Fenske RA, Burbacher TM, Ponce RA. Mechanisms underlying Children's susceptibility to environmental toxicants. Environ Health Perspect. 2000;108 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):13-21. doi:10.1289/ehp.00108s113
- 15. Azuma K, Kagi N, Yanagi U, Osawa H. Effects of low-level inhalation exposure to carbon dioxide in indoor environments: A short review on human health and psychomotor performance. *Environment International*. 2018;121:51-56. doi:10.1016/j.envint.2018.08.059
- 16. Guais A, Brand G, Jacquot L, et al. Toxicity of Carbon Dioxide: A Review. *Chem Res Toxicol*. 2011;24(12):2061-2070. doi:10.1021/tx200220r
- 17. https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/npg/npgd0103.html
- 18. Butz U. Rückatmung von Kohlendioxid bei Verwendung von Operationsmasken als hygienischer Mundschutz an medizinischem Fachpersonal. Published online 2005.
- 19. Pifarré F, Zabala DD, Grazioli G, de Yzaguirre i Maura I. COVID 19 and mask in sports. *Apunts Sports Medicine*. Published online June 6, 2020. doi:10.1016/j.apunsm.2020.06.002

- 20. Blad T, Nijssen J, Broeren F, et al. A Rapidly Deployable Test Suite for Respiratory Protective Devices in the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Applied Biosafety*. 2020;25(3):161-168. doi:10.1177/1535676020947284
- 21. Salati H, Khamooshi M, Vahaji S, Christo FC, Fletcher DF, Inthavong K. N95 respirator mask breathing leads to excessive carbon dioxide inhalation and reduced heat transfer in a human nasal cavity. *Phys Fluids* (1994). 2021;33(8):081913. doi:10.1063/5.0061574
- 22. Zhang X, Li H, Shen S, Cai M. Investigation of the flow-field in the upper respiratory system when wearing N95 filtering facepiece respirator. *J Occup Environ Hyg.* 2016;13(5):372-382. doi:10.1080/15459624.2015.1116697
- 23. Sinkule EJ, Powell JB, Goss FL. Evaluation of N95 respirator use with a surgical mask cover: effects on breathing resistance and inhaled carbon dioxide. *Ann Occup Hyg.* 2013;57(3):384-398. doi:10.1093/annhyg/mes068
- 24. Laferty EA, McKay RT. Physiologic effects and measurement of carbon dioxide and oxygen levels during qualitative respirator fit testing. *J Chem Health Saf.* 2006;13(5):22-28. doi:10.1016/j.jchas.2005.11.015
- 25. 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(5):569-577.
- 26. Geiss, O. (2021). Effect of Wearing Face Masks on the Carbon Dioxide Concentration in the Breathing Zone. Aerosol Air Qual. Res. 21, 200403.
- 27. Rhee MSM, Lindquist CD, Silvestrini MT, Chan AC, Ong JJY, Sharma VK. Carbon dioxide increases with face masks but remains below short-term NIOSH limits. BMC Infect Dis. 2021 Apr 16;21(1):354. doi: 10.1186/s12879-021-06056-0. PMID: 33858372; PMCID: PMC8049746.
- 28. Ellingsen I, Sydnes G, Hauge A, Zwart JA, Liestøl K, Nicolaysen G. CO2 sensitivity in humans breathing 1 or 2% CO2 in air. *Acta Physiologica Scandinavica*. 1987;129(2):195-202. doi:10.1111/j.1748-1716.1987.tb08059.x
- 29. 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*. Published online April 23, 2021. doi:10.13075/ijomeh.1896.01809
- 30. Bharatendu C, Ong JJY, Goh Y, 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
- 31. Epstein D, Korytny A, Isenberg Y, et al. Return to training in the COVID-19 era: The physiological effects of face masks during exercise. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports*. 2020;n/a(n/a). doi:10.1111/sms.13832
- 32. Georgi C, Haase-Fielitz A, Meretz D, Gäsert L, Butter C. Einfluss gängiger Gesichtsmasken auf physiologische Parameter und Belastungsempfinden unter arbeitstypischer körperlicher Anstrengung.

- 33. Kyung SY, Kim Y, Hwang H, Park JW, Jeong SH. Risks of N95 Face Mask Use in Subjects With COPD. *Respir Care.* 2020;65(5):658-664. doi:10.4187/respcare.06713
- 34. Mo Y. Risk and impact of using mask on COPD patients with acute exacerbation during the COVID-19 outbreak: a retrospective study. Published online July 16, 2020. doi:10.21203/rs.3.rs-39747/v1
- 35. 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(12):1218-1223. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2013.02.017
- 36. Roberge RJ, Kim JH, Benson SM. Absence of consequential changes in physiological, thermal and subjective responses from wearing a surgical mask. *Respiratory Physiology & Neurobiology*. 2012;181(1):29-35. doi:10.1016/j.resp.2012.01.010
- 37. Roberge RJ, Kim JH, Powell JB. N95 respirator use during advanced pregnancy. *Am J Infect Control*. 2014;42(10):1097-1100. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2014.06.025
- 38. Tong PSY, Kale AS, Ng K, et al. Respiratory consequences of N95-type Mask usage in pregnant healthcare workers—a controlled clinical study. *Antimicrobial Resistance & Infection Control.* 2015;4(1):48. doi:10.1186/s13756-015-0086-z
- 39. Lubrano R, Bloise S, Marcellino A, et al. Effects of N95 Mask Use on Pulmonary Function in Children. J Pediatr. 2021;237:143-147. doi:10.1016/j.jpeds.2021.05.050
- 40. Zhang G, Li M, Zheng M, 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
- 41. Mapelli M, Salvioni E, Martino FD, et al. "You can leave your mask on": effects on cardiopulmonary parameters of different airway protection masks at rest and during maximal exercise. European Respiratory Journal. Published online January 1, 2021. doi:10.1183/13993003.04473-2020
- 42. 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(11):821-825. doi:10.4149/BLL_2021_131
- 43. Kim JH, Benson SM, Roberge RJ. Pulmonary and heart rate responses to wearing N95 filtering facepiece respirators. Am J Infect Control. 2013;41(1):24-27. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2012.02.037
- 44. Sukul P, Bartels J, Fuchs P, et al. Adverse effects of COVID-protective face-masks and wearing durations onto respiratory-haemodynamic physiology and exhaled breath constituents. Published online December 5, 2021. doi:10.21203/rs.3.rs-930030/v1
- 45. Shein SL, Whitticar S, Mascho KK, Pace E, Speicher R, Deakins K. The effects of wearing facemasks on oxygenation and ventilation at rest and during physical activity. PLoS One. 2021;16(2):e0247414. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0247414

- 46. Jafari E, Togha M, Kazemizadeh H, et al. Evaluation of headache associated with personal protective equipment during COVID-19. *Brain and Behavior*. n/a(n/a):e2435. doi:10.1002/brb3.2435
- 47. Doherty CJ, Mann LM, Angus SA, Chan JS, Molgat-Seon Y, Dominelli PB. Impact of wearing a surgical and cloth mask during cycle exercise. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab*. 2021;46(7):753-762. doi:10.1139/apnm-2021-0190
- 48. Lubrano R, Bloise S, Testa A, et al. Assessment of Respiratory Function in Infants and Young Children Wearing Face Masks During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2021;4(3):e210414. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.0414
- 49. 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(2):194-198. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2015.08.027
- 50. Schaefer KE. Respiratory adaptation to chronic hypercapnia. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 1963;109:772-782. doi:10.1111/j.1749-6632.1963.tb13505.x
- 51. Langford NJ. Carbon Dioxide Poisoning. *Toxicol Rev.* 2005;24(4):229-235. doi: 10.2165/00139709-200524040-00003.
- 52. Rozman KK, Doull J. Dose and time as variables of toxicity. *Toxicology*. 2000;144(1):169-178. doi:10.1016/S0300-483X(99)00204-8
- 53. Rozman KK. The role of time in toxicology or Haber's c×t product. *Toxicology*. 2000;149(1):35-42. doi:10.1016/S0300-483X(00)00230-4
- 54. Górska K, Korczyński P, Maskey-Warzęchowska 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
- 55. Razi E, Moosavi GA, Omidi 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(2):58-62. doi:10.5812/atr.6444
- 56. Contini M, Angelucci A, Aliverti A, et al. Comparison between PtCO2 and PaCO2 and Derived Parameters in Heart Failure Patients during Exercise: A Preliminary Study. *Sensors*. 2021;21(19):6666. doi:10.3390/s21196666
- 57. Wirth, W; Gloxhuber, C: Toxikologie (Georg Thieme Stuttgart New York, 3rd ed. 1981, p. 156
- 58. Evaluation of the Health Aspects of Carbon Dioxide as a Food Ingredient. Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology, Bethesda, MD. Life Sciences Research Office.; Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC. Bureau of Foods.; 1979. Accessed November 7, 2021. https://ntrl.ntis.gov/NTRL/dashboard/searchResults/titleDetail/PB80104615.xhtml

- 59. Howard WR, Wong B, Okolica M, Bynum KS, James RA. *The Prenatal Development Effects of Carbon Dioxide (CO2) Exposure in Rats (Rattus Norvegicus):* Defense Technical Information Center; 2012. doi:10.21236/ADA583166
- 60. Howard WR, Wong B, Yeager KSB, et al. Submarine exposure guideline recommendations for carbon dioxide based on the prenatal developmental effects of exposure in rats. Birth Defects Res. 2019;111(1):26-33. doi:10.1002/bdr2.1417
- 61. Burton RF. Intracellular buffering. *Respiration Physiology*. 1978;33(1):51-58. doi:10.1016/0034-5687(78)90083-X
- 62. Eckenhoff RG, Longnecker DE. Goodman and Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, 9th ed. | Sigma-Aldrich, (Hardman JG,ed). McGraw Hill, 355-356. Accessed November 7, 2021. http://www.sigmaaldrich.com/
- 63. Schaefer KE, Pasquale SM, Messier AA, Niemoeller H. CO2-induced kidney calcification. *Undersea Biomed Res.* 1979;6 Suppl:S143-153.
- 64. Adeva-Andany MM, Carneiro-Freire N, Donapetry-García C, Rañal-Muíño E, López-Pereiro Y. The Importance of the Ionic Product for Water to Understand the Physiology of the Acid-Base Balance in Humans. *BioMed Research International*. 2014;2014:e695281. doi:10.1155/2014/695281
- 65. Adeva-Andany MM, Fernández-Fernández C, Sánchez-Bello R, Donapetry-García C, Martínez-Rodríguez J. The role of carbonic anhydrase in the pathogenesis of vascular calcification in humans. *Atherosclerosis*. 2015;241(1):183-191. doi:10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2015.05.012
- 66. Kim IG, Jo BH, Kang DG, Kim CS, Choi YS, Cha HJ. Biomineralization-based conversion of carbon dioxide to calcium carbonate using recombinant carbonic anhydrase. *Chemosphere*. 2012;87(10):1091-1096. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2012.02.003
- 67. Tan SI, Han YL, Yu YJ, et al. Efficient carbon dioxide sequestration by using recombinant carbonic anhydrase. *Process Biochemistry*. 2018;73:38-46. doi:10.1016/j.procbio.2018.08.017
- 68. 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:S155-161.
- 69. Wallingford MC, Benson C, Chavkin NW, Chin MT, Frasch MG. Placental Vascular Calcification and Cardiovascular Health: It Is Time to Determine How Much of Maternal and Offspring Health Is Written in Stone. *Frontiers in Physiology*. 2018;9:1044. doi:10.3389/fphys.2018.01044
- 70. Chen KH, Chen LR, Lee YH. Exploring the relationship between preterm placental calcification and adverse maternal and fetal outcome. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics & Gynecology*. 2011;37(3):328-334. doi:10.1002/uog.7733
- 71. Chen KH, Seow KM, Chen LR. The role of preterm placental calcification on assessing risks of stillbirth. *Placenta*. 2015;36(9):1039-1044. doi:10.1016/j.placenta.2015.06.015

- 72. Ezraty B, Chabalier M, Ducret A, Maisonneuve E, Dukan S. CO2 exacerbates oxygen toxicity. *EMBO reports*. 2011;12(4):321-326. doi:10.1038/embor.2011.7
- 73. Thom SR, Bhopale VM, Hu J, Yang M. Inflammatory responses to acute elevations of carbon dioxide in mice. *Journal of Applied Physiology*. 2017;123(2):297-302. doi:10.1152/japplphysiol.00343.2017
- 74. 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(1):4191. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-22613-1
- 75. Zappulla D. Environmental Stress, Erythrocyte Dysfunctions, Inflammation, and the Metabolic Syndrome: Adaptations to CO2 Increases? *Journal of the CardioMetabolic Syndrome*. 2008;3(1):30-34. doi:10.1111/j.1559-4572.2008.07263.x
- 76. 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(8):691-701. doi:10.1038/s41893-019-0323-1
- 77. Kiray M, Sisman AR, Camsari UM, et al. Effects of carbon dioxide exposure on early brain development in rats. *Biotechnic & Histochemistry*. 2014;89(5):371-383. doi:10.3109/10520295.2013.872298
- 78. Veselá A, Wilhelm J. The role of carbon dioxide in free radical reactions of the organism. *Physiol Res.* 2002;51(4):335-339.
- 79. Forrest VJ, Kang YH, McClain DE, Robinson DH, Ramakrishnan N. Oxidative stress-induced apoptosis prevented by Trolox. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 1994;16(6):675-684. doi:10.1016/0891-5849(94)90182-1
- 80. Leon J, Acuña-Castroviejo D, Sainz RM, Mayo JC, Tan DX, Reiter RJ. Melatonin and mitochondrial function. *Life Sci.* 2004;75(7):765-790. doi:10.1016/j.lfs.2004.03.003
- 81. Uysal N, Kiray M, Sisman AR, et al. Effects of exercise and poor indoor air quality on learning, memory and blood IGF-1 in adolescent mice. *Biotechnic & Histochemistry*. 2014;89(2):126-135. doi:10.3109/10520295.2013.825318
- 82. Wine RN, McPherson CA, Harry GJ. IGF-1 and pAKT Signaling Promote Hippocampal CA1 Neuronal Survival Following Injury to Dentate Granule Cells. *Neurotox Res.* 2009;16(3):280-292. doi:10.1007/s12640-009-9060-y
- 83. Aksu I, Ates M, Baykara B, et al. Anxiety correlates to decreased blood and prefrontal cortex IGF-1 levels in streptozotocin induced diabetes. *Neurosci Lett.* 2012;531(2):176-181. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2012.10.045
- 84. Aksu I, Baykara B, Kiray M, et al. Serum IGF-1 levels correlate negatively to liver damage in diabetic rats. *Biotechnic & Histochemistry*. 2013;88(3-4):194-201. doi:10.3109/10520295.2012.758311
- 85. Uysal N, Tugyan K, Kayatekin BM, et al. The effects of regular aerobic exercise in adolescent period on hippocampal neuron density, apoptosis and spatial memory. *Neuroscience Letters*. 2005;383(3):241-245. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2005.04.054

- 86. Uysal N, Gonenc S, Acikgoz O, et al. Age-dependent effects of maternal deprivation on oxidative stress in infant rat brain. *Neurosci Lett.* 2005;384(1-2):98-101. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2005.04.052
- 87. Uysal N, Sisman AR, Dayi A, et al. Acute footshock-stress increases spatial learning-memory and correlates to increased hippocampal BDNF and VEGF and cell numbers in adolescent male and female rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 2012;514(2):141-146. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2012.02.049
- 88. Tugyan K, Uysal N, Ozdemir D, et al. Protective effect of melatonin against maternal deprivation-induced acute hippocampal damage in infant rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 2006;398(1-2):145-150. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2005.12.090
- 89. 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(3):161-173.
- 90. Hoffman WE, Charbel FT, Edelman G, Ausman JI. Brain tissue acid-base response to hypercapnia in neurosurgical patients. Neurol Res. 1995 Dec;17(6):417-20. PMID: 8622793
- 91. Huo XL, Min JJ, Pan CY, 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(4):e94278. Published 2014 Apr 9. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0094278
- 92. Dodge FA, Rahamimoff R. Co-operative action a calcium ions in transmitter release at the neuromuscular junction. *J Physiol.* 1967;193(2):419-432. doi:10.1113/jphysiol.1967.sp008367
- 93. Tombaugh GC, Somjen GG. Differential sensitivity to intracellular pH among high- and low-threshold Ca2+ currents in isolated rat CA1 neurons. *J Neurophysiol*. 1997;77(2):639-653. doi:10.1152/jn.1997.77.2.639
- 94. Hota KB, Hota SK, Chaurasia OP, Singh SB. Acetyl-L-carnitine-mediated neuroprotection during hypoxia is attributed to ERK1/2-Nrf2-regulated mitochondrial biosynthesis. *Hippocampus*. 2012;22(4):723-736. doi:10.1002/hipo.20934
- 95. Vandemark NL, Schanbacher BD, Gomes WR. Alterations in testes of rats exposed to elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Reproduction*. 1972;28(3):457-459. doi:10.1530/jrf.0.0280457
- 96. National Research Council. *Standing Operating Procedures for Developing Acute Exposure Guideline Levels for Hazardous Chemicals.* The National Academies Press; 2001. doi:10.17226/10122
- 97. Safety Data Sheets. Linde Industrial Gases. Accessed May 13, 2021. http://www.gas.linde.co.th/en/sheq/product_and_process_safety_information/safety_data_sheets/index.html
- 98. What Countries Require or Recommend Masks In Public? #Masks4All. Published April 23, 2020. Accessed November 7, 2021. https://masks4all.co/what-countries-require-masks-in-public/
- 99. Chmielewska B, Barratt I, Townsend R, et al. Effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on maternal and perinatal outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *The Lancet Global Health*. 2021;0(0).

- 100. Flaherman VJ, Afshar Y, Boscardin WJ, et al. Infant Outcomes Following Maternal Infection With Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2): First Report From the Pregnancy Coronavirus Outcomes Registry (PRIORITY) Study. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2020;(ciaa1411). doi:10.1093/cid/ciaa1411
- 101 DeSisto, Carla L. Risk for Stillbirth Among Women With and Without COVID-19 at Delivery Hospitalization—United States, March 2020—September 2021. MMWR. Morbidity and mortality weekly report 70 (2021)
- Hui L, Marzan MB, Potenza S, et al. Increase in Preterm Stillbirths and Reduction in latrogenic Preterm Births for Fetal Compromise: A Multi-Centre Cohort Study of COVID-19 Lockdown Effects in Melbourne, Australia.; 2021:2021.10.04.21264500. doi:10.1101/2021.10.04.21264500
- 103. Rangel EL, Castillo-Angeles M, Easter SR, et al. Incidence of Infertility and Pregnancy Complications in US Female Surgeons. *JAMA Surg.* 2021;156(10):905-915. doi:10.1001/jamasurg.2021.3301
- 104. Curtis MD, Villani L, Polo A. Increase of stillbirth and decrease of late preterm infants during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown. *Archives of Disease in Childhood Fetal and Neonatal Edition*. 2021;106(4):456-456. doi:10.1136/archdischild-2020-320682
- 105. Vaccaro C, Mahmoud F, Aboulatta L, Aloud B, Eltonsy S. The impact of COVID-19 first wave national lockdowns on perinatal outcomes: a rapid review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*. 2021;21(1):676. doi:10.1186/s12884-021-04156-y
- 106. Pasternak B, Neovius M, Söderling J, et al. Preterm Birth and Stillbirth During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Sweden: A Nationwide Cohort Study. *Ann Intern Med.* 2021;174(6):873-875. doi:10.7326/M20-6367
- 107. Toprak E, Bulut AN. The effect of mask use on maternal oxygen saturation in term pregnancies during the COVID-19 process. *Journal of Perinatal Medicine*. 2021;49(2):148-152. doi:10.1515/jpm-2020-0422
- 108. Deoni SC, Beauchemin J, Volpe A, D'Sa V, Consortium the R. Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Early Child Cognitive Development: Initial Findings in a Longitudinal Observational Study of Child Health.; 2021:2021.08.10.21261846. doi:10.1101/2021.08.10.21261846
- 109. MPG nichtamtliches Inhaltsverzeichnis. Accessed June 6, 2021. https://www.gesetze-im-internet.de/mpg/
- 110. REGULATION (EU) 2017/745 OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL of 5 April 2017 on medical devices, amending Directive 2001/83/EC, Regulation (EC) No 178/2002 and Regulation (EC) No 1223/2009 and repealing Council Directives 90/385/EEC and 93/42/EECL_2017117EN.01000101.xml. Accessed June 6, 2021. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/? uri=CELEX:32017R0745&from=DE.

- 111. Organization WH. WHO Advice on the use of masks in the context of COVID-19: interim guidance, 1 December 2020. Published online 2020. Accessed June 6, 2021. https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/337199.
- 112. Cao S, Gan Y, Wang C, et al. Post-lockdown SARS-CoV-2 nucleic acid screening in nearly ten million residents of Wuhan, China. *Nat Commun.* 2020;11(1):5917. doi:10.1038/s41467-020-19802-w
- 113. Obi OC, Odoh DA. Transmission of Coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) by Presymptomatic and Asymptomatic COVID-19 Carriers: A Systematic Review. *EUROPEAN J MED ED TE*. 2021;14(3):em2110. doi:10.30935/ejmets/11060
- 114. Jefferson T, Spencer EA, Brassey J, et al. Transmission of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) from pre and asymptomatic infected individuals. A systematic review. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*. Published online October 29, 2021. doi:10.1016/j.cmi.2021.10.015
- 115. Qiu X, Nergiz Al, Maraolo AE, Bogoch II, Low N, Cevik M. The role of asymptomatic and presymptomatic infection in SARS-CoV-2 transmission—a living systematic review. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*. 2021;27(4):511-519. doi:10.1016/j.cmi.2021.01.011
- 116. Savvides C, Siegel R. Asymptomatic and presymptomatic transmission of SARS-CoV-2: A systematic review. *medRxiv*. doi:10.1101/2020.06.11.201290727
- 117. Streeck H, Schulte B, Kuemmerer B, et al. Infection fatality rate of SARS-CoV-2 infection in a German community with a super-spreading event. *medRxiv*. Published online June 2, 2020:2020.05.04.20090076. doi:10.1101/2020.05.04.20090076
- 118. Ioannidis J. The infection fatality rate of COVID-19 inferred from seroprevalence data. *medRxiv*. Published online July 14, 2020:2020.05.13.20101253. doi:10.1101/2020.05.13.20101253
- 119. Ioannidis JPA. Reconciling estimates of global spread and infection fatality rates of COVID-19: An overview of systematic evaluations. *Eur J Clin Invest*. 2021;51(5):e13554. doi:10.1111/eci.13554
- 120. Bagus P, Peña-Ramos JA, Sánchez-Bayón A. COVID-19 and the Political Economy of Mass Hysteria. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2021;18(4):1376. doi:10.3390/ijerph180413768.
- 121. Sorg A, Hufnagel M, Doenhardt M, et al. Risk of Hospitalization, severe disease, and mortality due to COVID-19 and PIMS-TS in children with SARS-CoV-2 infection in Germany. medRxiv; 2021. DOI: 10.1101/2021.11.30.21267048.
- 122. Karnauskas, K. B., Miller, S. L., & Schapiro, A. C. (2020). Fossil fuel combustion is driving indoor CO2 toward levels harmful to human cognition. GeoHealth, 4(5), e2019GH000237.
- 123. Duarte, C. M., Jaremko, Ł., & Jaremko, M. (2020). Hypothesis: Potentially Systemic Impacts of Elevated CO2 on the Human Proteome and Health. Frontiers in public health, 8, 645.

- 124. Bayati M, Vu DC, Vo PH, et al. Health risk assessment of volatile organic compounds at daycare facilities. *Indoor Air.* 2021;31(4):977-988. doi:10.1111/ina.12801
- 125. Kerkeling S, Sandten C, Schupp T, Kreyenschmidt M. VOC emissions from particle filtering half masks methods, risks and need for further action. *EXCLI Journal*. 2021;20:995-1008. doi:10.17179/excli2021-3734
- 126. Töndury, G. (1958). Entwicklungsgeschichte und Fehlbildungen der Wirbelsäule (Vol. 7). Hippokrates-Verlag
- 127. Meessen, H. (1948). Chronic Carbon Dioxide Poisoning. Experimental Studies. Arch. Pathol., 45(1), 36-40]
- 128. WMA The World Medical Association-Declaration of Helsinki. Accessed November 8, 2021. https://www.wma.net/what-we-do/medical-ethics/declaration-of-helsinki/
- 129. WMA The World Medical Association-WMA Declaration of Lisbon on the Rights of the Patient. Accessed November 8, 2021. https://www.wma.net/policies-post/wma-declaration-of-lisbon-on-the-rights-of-the-patient/
- 130. Nuremberg Code. United States Holocaust Memorial Museum. Accessed November 8, 2021. https://www.ushmm.org/information/exhibitions/online-exhibitions/special-focus/doctors-trial/nuremberg-code

Figures

Scoping Review Flow Diagram

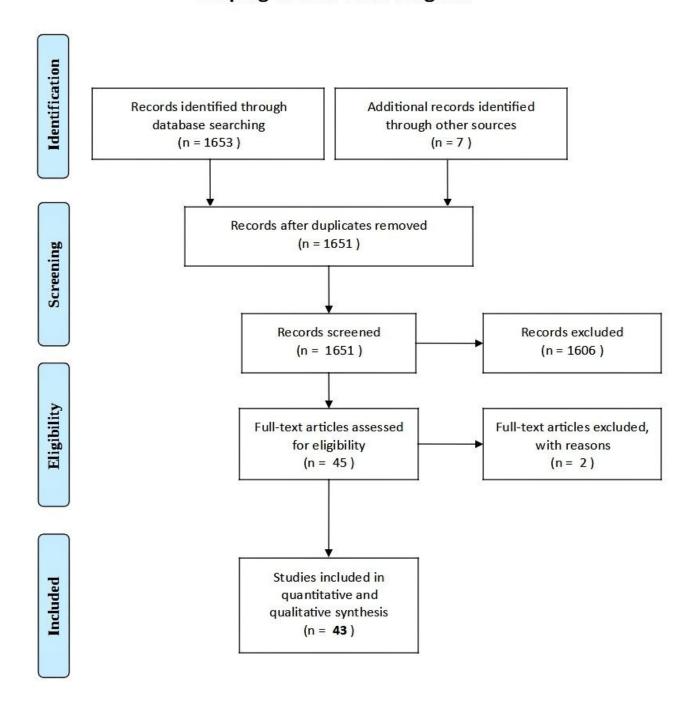


Figure 1

Flow diagram according to the PRISMA scheme.