Environmental Science Processes & Impacts

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



rsc.li/process-impacts

Bronchoscopy is a procedure for viewing the inside of the respiratory tract for diagnostic or therapeutic purposes. The bronchoscope is inserted into the airways most often through the patient's nose and sometimes mouth. Bronchoscopy departments in hospital environments are among those most at risk of transmission of airborne infectious diseases. Bronchoscopies stimulate the cough reflex in patients. This cough represents the main aerosol generation process. The aerosols produced can contain pathogenic microorganisms such as mycobacteria, viruses and even moulds. These microorganisms can remain in the air for quite a long time. The main objective of this study was to measure the concentrations of the total and biological particles during bronchoscopy examinations, and to propose, using computational fluid dynamic, corrective measures.

EVALUATION OF BIOAEROSOL EXPOSURES DURING HOSPITAL BRONCHOSCOPY EXAMINATIONS

Jacques Lavoie^a, Geneviève Marchand^a, Yves Cloutier^a, Stéphane Hallé^b, Sylvie Nadeau^b, Caroline Duchaine^c and Gilbert Pichette^d

^{a*}IRSST, Montréal, Québec, Canada H3A 3C2
^bÉTS, Montréal, Québec, Canada H3C 1K3
^cCRIUCPQ, Ste-Foy, Québec, Canada G1V 4G5
^dHôpital Sacré-Coeur, Montréal, Québec, Canada H4J 1C5

Email: lavoie.jacques@irsst.qc.ca

ABSTRACT

During hospital bronchoscopy examinations, aerosols emitted from the patient's during coughing can be found suspended in the ambient air. The aerosols can contain pathogenic microorganisms. Depending on their size, these microorganisms can remain in the air for a long time. The objective of this study was to measure the sizes and concentrations of the biological and non-biological particles produced during bronchoscopy examinations, and to propose preventive or corrective measures.

7 Two bronchoscopy rooms were studied. An aerodynamic particle sizer (UV-APS) was used to establish the concentrations of the particles present and their size distributions. 8 9 This instrument determines the aerodynamic diameter of the aerosols and can distinguish fluorescent (bioaerosols) and non-fluorescent particles. Reference concentrations were 10 11 measured before the start of the examinations (morning background concentrations). They 12 were used as comparison levels for the concentrations measured during and at the end of the bronchoscopies. In parallel, computational fluid dynamics (CFD) made it possible to isolate 13 and understand different factors that can affect the concentration levels in bronchoscopy 14 rooms. 15

The concentrations of the non-fluorescent and fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) were 16 significantly higher ($p \le 0.05$) during the bronchoscopy examinations than the reference 17 18 concentrations. For the investigated factors, the bioaerosol concentrations were significantly 19 higher during bronchoscope insertion tasks. The time required at the end of the day for the 20 bioaerosols to reach the morning reference concentrations was about fifteen minutes. The average particle sizes were 2.9 μ m for the fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) and 0.9 μ m for 21 22 the non-fluorescent particles. Our models based on computational fluid dynamics (CFD) enabled us to observe the behaviour of aerosols for the different rooms. 23

25 INTRODUCTION

Bronchoscopy is a procedure for viewing the inside of the respiratory tract for diagnostic 26 purposes (e.g., lung diseases such as cancer or tuberculosis, congenital lung deformation, 27 28 suspected tumour, obstruction, secretion, bleeding, foreign body in the respiratory tract, 29 abnormalities) or therapeutic purposes (e.g., extraction of a foreign body and excessive secretions from the lungs)¹ The instrument (bronchoscope) is inserted into the airways most 30 often through the patient's nose and sometimes mouth, or occasionally via a tracheostomy.¹ 31 The bronchoscope consists of a flexible tube containing optical fibres that transmit the image 32 to an evepiece or a video camera. It can be equipped with an aspiration device. All the 33 34 bronchoscopies performed in this project used this type of bronchoscope.

Bronchoscopy departments in hospital environments are among those most at risk of transmission of airborne infectious diseases.¹⁻⁵ Hospital studies show a strong association between ventilation, air currents in the buildings, and the transmission and propagation of airborne pathogenic biological agents causing infectious diseases such as mumps, pneumonia, tuberculosis, influenza, chickenpox, smallpox, SARS, etc.^{1,3,6-9}

Bronchoscopies and endotracheal intubations stimulate the cough reflex in patients.^{6,10} 40 This cough during intubation possibly represents the main aerosol generation process when 41 bronchoscopy examinations are performed. According to Malasky et al. (1990), coughing 42 would generate droplets between 5 to 10 μ m in size. Liquid aerosols dry quickly to produce 43 droplet nuclei which, according to Yassi and Bryce, would be between 0.1 and 10 µm in the 44 case of coughing and sneezing.^{11,12} The phenomenon of drying of the liquid particles begins 45 immediately after they are expelled. The drying times for 100 and 50 µm droplets in air with a 46 relative humidity of 50% are 1.3 and 0.3 seconds respectively.¹³ Most viruses and bacteria that 47 cause respiratory diseases in humans are found on droplet nuclei of approximately 5 µm.^{6,11,12} 48 49 It is the size of the particles that determines whether they can be inhaled and retained in the respiratory tract.¹⁴ 50

The size of the particles is also what determines the sedimentation distance from the source.¹² According to Lenhart et al. (2004), it is incorrect to define a limit distance of one or two metres as being the space in which a health worker should not enter in order not to be exposed to respiratory infections. Large infectious droplets (bigger than 20 microns) are rapidly deposited and are generally not inhaled into the lungs because they are trapped by the cilia and the mucus in the nose and mouth.¹¹ However, they can be deposited in the pharynx if 57 the health worker is near the infectious patient.¹¹ The inhalation of a single microdroplet 58 containing fewer than three tuberculous bacilli can lead to an infection.¹⁵

Ventilation plays a vital role in ensuring the dilution and effective elimination of 59 potentially pathogenic aerosols. The fresh air flow rate and the ventilation strategy have a 60 direct impact on the risk of infectious disease propagation.^{3,4,16} The minimum ventilation level 61 recommended by the ASHRAE 170-2008 standard for a bronchoscopy unit is 12 air changes 62 per hour, two of which are fresh air.¹⁷ This is one of the standards used by the *ministère de la* 63 Santé et des Services sociaux (MSSS, Québec department of health and social services) and 64 the Québec Realty Corporation in their recommendations for hospitals. The room must be at 65 negative pressure and the air exhausted from the room must be evacuated outdoors.¹⁷ The 66 difference in pressure between the room and the immediate environment must be 2.5 Pa.¹⁸ In 67 order to better control the difference in pressure, ASHRAE recommends installing an 68 anteroom at the entrance to the room.^{18,19} Previous studies have shown that, in bronchoscopy 69 rooms, fresh air admission through the ceiling and exhaust outlets located 20 to 30 cm from 70 71 the floor on the opposite wall is the best way of maintaining acceptable air contamination levels.¹⁸ From our discussions with people from this community, very few hospitals comply 72 73 with this recommendation which is not a standard.

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) is a necessary technique for understanding air and heat movements in closed spaces.²⁰ Numerical resolution of airflow conservation equations can help in understanding the phenomena of gaseous and particulate contaminant transport and diffusion in hospitals. The impact of the supply air flow and temperature as well as the ventilation strategy can be studied without using experimental means.

The objective of this study was to measure the sizes and concentrations of the fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) and non-fluorescent particles produced during bronchoscopy examinations, and to propose preventive or corrective measures.

82

83 **METHOD**

84 Choice of rooms

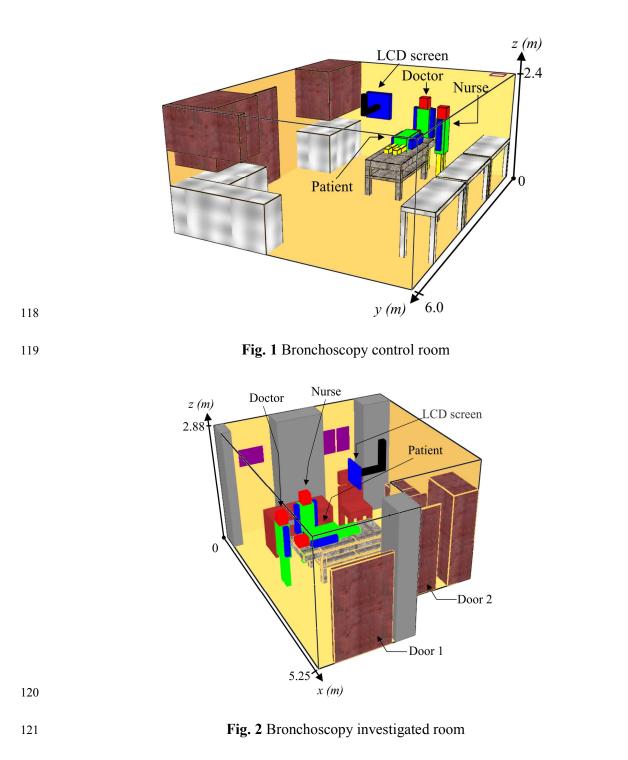
Two bronchoscopy rooms in two Québec hospitals were chosen. The choice was based on ventilation parameters.

The first bronchoscopy room evaluated is shown in Figure 1. According to its 87 designers, this room meets the current ventilation standards of ASHRAE and the American 88 Institute of Architects (AIA) that are used in designing bronchoscopy departments.^{17,21} For 89 this reason, it will be called the "control room" in this document. Two 0.6 m \times 0.6 m square 90 91 diffusers installed in the ceiling provide ventilation to the room. The return grille, also 92 installed in the ceiling, has a surface area of 0.09 m². The volume of this room was 79 m³. It also contained three tables, one bed, one LCD screen, cupboards and storage space. This room 93 was designed to be at negative pressure in relation to its anteroom. The number of theoretical 94 95 air changes per hour should be 12 in order to correspond to what is recommended by the ANSI/ASHRAE/ASHE 170-2008 standard.¹⁷ 96

The other evaluated room had a volume of 59.8 m³ (see Figure 2). Ventilation was 97 provided by two slot diffusers 1.2 m long, installed in the ceiling. Three exhaust systems 98 equipped with fans and HEPA (High Efficiency Particulate Air) filters evacuated the air to the 99 100 outdoors. An LCD screen was located above the stretcher; it descended from the ceiling to the 101 centre of the room. The equipment necessary for the examination, including the 102 bronchoscope, were placed on a tray beside the stretcher. This room had two entrances, one 103 for the stretcher that the patient lies on, and the other leading to a material storeroom. This room will be called the "investigated room" in this document. 104

On the sampling days, 10 bronchoscopies were performed in the investigated room and 5 in the control room. For each room, sampling was done for the entire day. In this study, the number of bronchoscopies necessary to be statistically representative ($p \le 0.05$) with an acceptable error of 20% was 14.²²

The measurements were taken consecutively for all the steps in the bronchoscopy 109 110 operations, from the arrival of the patient until his departure. The samples were all stationary 111 samples near the bronchoscopy operations and downstream from the air flow in relation to the 112 patient. During the bronchoscopies, the measuring instruments were installed within a radius of 1.5 m from the patient's mouth. This layout was chosen at the request of the pneumologists 113 114 and inhalation therapists so as not to impede their work. All the sampling equipment was close together, within an area of approximately 80 cm, to allow a better comparison of the 115 116 samples.



The samples for establishing the base concentrations or background concentrations were collected at the start of the day, before the bronchoscopies were performed and after the sampling equipment was installed. The researchers also asked the hospital staff not to enter the room, insofar as possible, during the sampling. The fluorescent and non-fluorescent particle concentrations obtained were used as a basis of comparison with those concentrations obtained during the bronchoscopies. Other end-of-day samples after the bronchoscopies,

5

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts Accepted Manu

performed under similar conditions, were used to evaluate the time required for the ambient
aerosol concentrations to return to the same level as those at the start of the day, equivalent to
the background concentrations.

In addition to one member of the research team, three people on average (the doctor, nurse and patient) were present in the bronchoscopy room. Continual comings and goings were observed in the control room and the investigated room, to the point that up to seven people were seen during one bronchoscopy examination.

135

136 Measurement of the number of air changes per hour (ACH)

137 The number of air changes per hour was determined using the tracer gas technique of ASTM International, 1993. A uniform concentration of tracer gas, SF6, is first established in the 138 139 investigated room. The SF6 concentrations were then measured as a function of time and at 140 different locations. They were used to estimate the age of the air at the different measurement positions with the decreasing method and its rate of change. The SF6 concentrations were 141 142 measured at a height of 1.7 m with a portable Autotrac electron capture chromatograph 143 (Autotrac 101, Lagus Applied Technology Inc., California, USA). This instrument's precision is $\pm 5\%$. With these measured concentrations, the basic ventilation parameters for CFD 144 145 modeling were obtained and the results validated.

146

147 Concentrations and sizes of the fluorescent and non-fluorescent particles

148

The concentrations and particle sizes of the aerosols emitted during the bronchoscopy examinations were measured in real time, with stationary sampling, with a fluorescent aerodynamic particle sizer (TSI UV-APS 3314, Minnesota, USA) using an excitation wavelength of 355 nm and measuring the ultraviolet fluorescence between 420 and 575 nm.²⁴

This wavelength is considered as appropriate for microorganisms. The UV-APS allows the 153 user to differentiate the biological fraction associated with fluorescence from the non-154 biological fraction. In fact, because proteins in biological material fluoresce when they are 155 excited by a source of ultraviolet light, measurement of this fluorescence makes it possible to 156 157 determine, in real time, all the biological aerosols without distinction. It also establishes the the particle size of an aerosol, almost instantaneously, for particles whose aerodynamic 158 159 diameter is between 0.5 and 15 μ m. This range of diameters corresponds to the diameters of particles likely to reach the lower respiratory tract.^{6,11,12,14} This instrument was necessary for 160

& Impacts Accepted Manus

invironmental Science: Processes

such a project because an instantaneous evaluation cannot be done using conventional methods with culture or molecular biology. Due to its characteristics, this instrument can be used to evaluate the time necessary for the concentrations of the emitted aerosols to reach their base levels and to correlate them with the different ventilation rates. For purposes of comparison with the analysis of the aerosol concentrations, all the data obtained with the UV-APS cover a five-minute sampling duration. A total of 88 five-minute samples were collected, namely 58 in the investigated bronchoscopy room and 30 in the control room.

168

169 Ventilation modeling

170 Ventilation and bioaerosol transport were modeled using Fire Dynamics Simulator software (FDS, version 6) based on the *Large eddy simulation* method developed by the National 171 Institute of Standards and Technology.²⁵ This software is in the public domain and has been 172 the subject of numerous verification and validation studies.^{26,27} It consists of several sub-173 174 models, with the most important for this study being the hydrodynamic model capable of solving modified Navier-Stokes equations for low velocity and thermally induced flows. The 175 partial derivatives of the equations of mass conservation, quantity of movement, and energy, 176 are solved by an explicit predictor-corrector scheme with second order precision in time and 177 178 space. Closure of the equations is completed by the ideal gas relationship applied to a mixture. 179 The model that was used for modeling the aerodynamic behaviour of the bioaerosols

180 used the transport equation for a passive scalar.

Given the small mass fraction of droplet nuclei, their effect on the flow could be 181 disregarded. Also, the sedimentation velocity of droplet nuclei between 0.1 µm and 10 µm is 182 less than 0.02 m per minute in a calm environment.²⁸ In such a context, the droplet nuclei will 183 follow the lines of flow created by the cough and then be transported into the flow induced by 184 185 the room's ventilation system. The particles will very closely follow the behaviour of a passive scalar. With this model, bioaerosols behave exactly like an air flow. This model does 186 187 not take into account the inertia of the particles, does not solve the velocity field of the latter, 188 and the result is a mass fraction field expressed as kg of bioaerosol per kg of air. This mass 189 fraction varies with time and space. The "passive scalar" model implies that the ventilation 190 and the respiration of hospital personnel are the only mechanisms responsible for the 191 reduction in bioaerosol concentrations.

By taking into account the assumptions made above, the bioaerosol conservation equation is expressed by the following relationship:

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts

194
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho Z) + \nabla \cdot (\rho Z \mathbf{u}) = \nabla \cdot (\rho D \nabla Z)$$
(1)

where Z and **u** respectively represent the mass fraction of bioaerosols (kg/kg of air) and the air flow velocity vector. The air density is represented by ρ , and D is the contaminant's coefficient of diffusion.

In the bronchoscopy rooms, no source of heat was considered with respect to lighting, because the interventions were generally performed without light. However, a heat transfer rate of 40 W was imposed for the LCD screen located above the patient, which was in operation throughout the intervention. The air temperature at the air outlets was set at 18°C, which corresponds to the temperature measured with a TSI Velocicalc 8347 anemometer with a precision of ± 0.3 °C. The walls, floor and ceiling were considered as adiabatic. Also, the condition of adherence was imposed at the solid boundaries.

Table 1 presents the air delivery rates chosen for the two rooms. The investigated bronchoscopy room was at negative differential pressure (\approx 5 Pa) with respect to the adjacent corridor.

Table 1: Air delivery rates chosen for the simulated cases

ACH (h ⁻¹)	8	12	18	24
Investigated room	0.064 (diffusers)	0.149 (diffusers)	0.231 (diffusers)	0.299 (diffusers)
(m^3/s)	0.025 (infiltration)	0.039 (infiltration)	0.051 (infiltration)	0.077 (infiltration)
Control room (m ³ /s)	0.153	0.230	0.344	0.459

209

ACH: Number of air changes per hour

The measurements confirmed that the exhaust flow in the investigated room was slightly greater than the air delivery rate; the difference was mainly due to air infiltration under door 2 (Figure 2) under the effect of depressurization. Air infiltration under this door was measured and considered in the numeric code. The measurements in the control room showed that this room was not maintained at differential negative pressure. As a result, no infiltration flow was considered.

The respiration of hospital personnel was calculated during the simulations by imposing a flow rate varying between -0.67 m/s (respiration) and 0.67 m/s (expiration) for the mouth, which corresponds to an inhaled air flow of 6 l/min.²⁹ The temperature of the exhaled air was 37° C. The source of the bioaerosols was simulated at the patient's mouth by three coughs occurring at 60, 120 and 180 seconds respectively. For each cough, the flow velocity went from 0 to 25 m/s in 0.1 s, and then decreased linearly to 0 m/s within an interval of 0.5 s.

The velocity profile was similar to the one used by Redrow et al. (2011).³⁰

Numerical solutions for the governing equations for air flow and bioaerosol transport 223 224 require the domain to be discretized. In the FDS, the computational domain is discretized in a 225 Cartesian reference system. The grid elements consist of a volume parallelepiped ($\delta x \times \delta y \times \delta z$), 226 where δx , δy , δz represent the distances between two neighbouring nodes in the x, y and z directions respectively. The time step is set in such a way as to comply with the Courant-227 Friedrichs-Lewy (CFL) condition. With this condition, a "fluid particle" cannot cover more 228 than one cell within a time interval. The independence of the spatial discretization on the 229 230 numerical results was determined by the GCI (Grid Convergence Index), which is used to 231 evaluate the numerical error in the response related to the quality of the grid in a 232 computational domain. The numerical results presented in this report required up to 100 hours of calculations (by simulation) on a workstation equipped with a Xeon 2.66 GHz six-core 233 234 processor (Intel, CA, USA). It is therefore important to choose an "optimal" grid density in order to obtain precise results within a reasonable time. The characteristics of the grids 235 236 retained for the simulations in the two rooms are presented in Table 2.

237

Table 2: Characteristics of the grids chosen for the simulations

	Volume of an element in	Number of nodes in the
	m ³ (minimum/maximum)	computational domain
Investigated room	6.2×10 ⁻⁶ / 6.4 ×10 ⁻⁵	1,407,456
Control room	8.0×10 ⁻⁶ / 5.4 ×10 ⁻⁵	1,725,000

238

239 Statistical analyses

The data were analyzed using multivariate variance tests, and multiple comparisons (Tukey-Kramer parametric tests). When necessary, they were normalized by logarithmic transformation in order to comply with the applicability criteria of the parametric tests used.³¹ NCSS 2007 software was used to perform all of the statistical analyses.

244

245 **RESULTS**

246 Measurement of the number of ACH

- 247 The arithmetic mean for six series of ACH measurements for the control room was $17 (\pm 1.1)$
- and that for five series of measurements for the investigated room was 24.4 (\pm 0.6) ACH.

249 Concentrations and sizes of fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) and non-fluorescent

250 particles

- 251 The concentrations of non-fluorescent and fluorescent particles measured with the TSI UV-
- APS 3314 for the two rooms are presented in Table 3. The results for each patient are given in
- relation to the time, to the order in the day, as well as to the moment of introduction of the
- bronchoscope which corresponds to the period zero. The periods are given by 5-minute range.
- 255

Table 3. Concentrations of non-fluorescent and fluorescent particles and median
 aerodynamic diameters (MAD) in number in the two rooms measured with the TSI UV APS 3314 .

Room	Sample	Row	Conc. without	Conc.	NMAD	NMAD	Period
			fluo.	With	Without	With	
			(#/m³)	Fluo.	Fluo.	Fluo.	
				(#/m³)	(µm)	(µm)	
	Background	1	48 399	13 000	1.11	3.11	-7
	concentration	2	20 200	5 200	1.01	1.84	-6
	(morning)	3	12 200	2 600	0.95	1.75	-5
		4	26 999	7 400	1.19	3.96	-4
		5	107 398	28 999	1.04	3.41	-3
		6	62 399	19 200	1.11	3.43	-2
С		7	51 199	20 200	1.03	3.81	-1
0	Patient 1	8	2 252 555	27 599	0.98	3.79	0
Ν		9	695 986	31 599	0.98	3.93	1
Т	Patient 2	10	16 177 084	42 999	1.01	3.66	0
R		11	4 639 907	27 599	0.99	3.89	1
0	Patient 3	12	12 137 356	30 999	0.99	3.51	0
L	Patient 4	13	52 799	18 600	1.02	3.16	-1
		14	14 888 109	25 000	0.98	3.51	0
R		15	4 209 716	17 400	0.97	2.95	1
0		16	1 085 378	15 800	0.97	3.07	2
0		17	348 593	14 600	0.96	3.76	3
Μ		18	126 197	11 600	0.94	3.28	4
		19	65 799	20 400	1.07	4.25	5
		20	85 398	36 199	1.19	3.86	6
		21	37 599	20 800	1.17	4.28	7
	Patient 5	22	30 599	15 600	1.10	2.39	-3
		23	32 399	12 600	1.17	3.43	-1
		24	4 921 502	28 199	0.95	3.54	0
		25	1 414 772	16 000	0.95	3.52	1
		26	405 592	16 600	0.93	3.49	2
	Background	27	208-996	34 199	1.08	3.75	3
	concentration	28	68 399	10 200	1.10	3.38	4
	(at the end)	29	30 599	7 400	1.08	3.75	5
		30	25 400	6 800	1.10	3.38	6
	Background	31	429 991	25 599	0.77	2.64	-5

ronmental Science: Processes & Impacts Accepted Manu

ш

concentration	32	382 792	12 200	0.76	2.10	-4
(morning)	33	347 593	9 000	0.75	1.61	-3
	34	337 193	8 400	0.75	2.29	-2
Patient 1	35	370 993	10 400	0.75	3.40	-1
	36	574 789	47 799	0.79	2.62	0
	37	527 989	18 600	0.77	1.83	1
	38	442 191	26 599	0.77	2.86	2
	39	473 391	25 199	0.78	1.98	3
	40	451 591	17 200	0.77	3.52	4
	41	448 791	17 600	0.77	2.81	5
Patient 2	42	470 791	32 199	0.78	2.26	0
	43	367 593	14 600	0.78	2.02	1
Patient 3	44	667 187	66 199	0.80	1.62	0
1 401010 5	45	457 791	25 599	0.78	2.55	1
	46	444 191	19 800	0.79	2.39	2
	40	641 788	1 200	0.80	3.19	3
Datiant 4			71 399			-3
Patient 4	48 49	716 785		0.82	2.75	
		539 590	38 799	0.78	2.39	
	50	564 189	32 799	0.79	2.48	0
	51	493 790	17 600	0.78	1.91	1
	52	558 189	50 999	0.80	2.81	3
Patient 5	53	765 385	53 399	0.81	3.06	-1
	54	604 988	37 799	0.79	2.63	0
	55	541 790	26 799	0.79	2.10	1
Patient 6	56	661 787	60 599	0.80	3.00	-4
	57	647 188	61 999	0.80	2.82	-3
	58	608 588	46 599	0.79	2.48	-2
	59 6	675 187	30 199	0.80	2.23	0
	60	540 789	28 999	0.79	2.91	1
Patient 7	61	559 789	46 999	0.80	2.58	-3
1 0010110 /	62	616 388	47 999	0.80	2.54	-2
	63	696 586	39 799	0.81	2.91	-1
	64	607 789	19 800	0.80	2.59	0
	65	667 387	66 599	0.81	3.03	1
Patient 8	66	683 787	67 999	0.80	2.35	-7
r attent o	67	641 387	44 399	0.80	3.30	-5
	68					
		620 788	38 599	0.79	2.81	-4
D. J. A.	69	856 382	52 199	0.81	2.96	0
Patient 9	70	846 584	94 398	0.81	3.00	-7
	71	729 385	66 999	0.80	2.80	-6
	72	739 585	67 199	0.80	2.81	-5
	73	695 586	52 399	0.78	2.02	-4
	74	728 785	25 799	0.77	1.78	-3
	75	750 985	37 799	0.78	2.19	-2
	76	663 986	26 399	0.78	2.51	-1
	77	612 788	24 600	0.79	1.80	0
Patient 10	78	605 589	52 399	0.79	2.00	-2
	79	862 783	62 399	0.82	2.16	-1
	80	653 587	28 999	0.80	1.83	0
	81	538 990	39 599	0.79	2.00	1
	82	483 590	26 599	0.79	1.71	2
	83	485 390	23 600	0.79	1.79	3
Background	84	1 581 768	25 599	0.79	2.08	4
concentration	85	1 331 708	15 600	0.74	2.08	5
(at the end)	86 87	639 586	14 400	0.76	2.64	6
	87	511590	11 600	0.77	1.78	7
	88	496 790	10 600	0.77	1.95	8

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts

Tables 4 and 5 summarize the results of the measurements of fluorescent and non-fluorescent particles for the two rooms. They were obtained by comparing the averages of the concentrations and particle sizes during the bronchoscopies, and the background concentrations at the end with the concentrations measured at the start of the day.

For both the control room and the investigated room, the average concentrations of the particles with and without fluorescence measured at the beginning and end of the day were significantly smaller than those measured during the bronchoscopies. No statistically significant difference was found for the mean aerodynamic diameters in both rooms.

The particle concentrations measured during the bronchoscopies were also compared 270 with the background concentrations. For the two examination rooms, the average 271 272 concentrations of the non-fluorescent and fluorescent particles were significantly higher ($p\leq$ 273 (0.05) than the background concentrations measured at the start of the day. As an example, the 274 average concentration of non-fluorescent particles in the control room was 124 times higher 275 during the procedures than the room's background concentrations at the start of the day, while that of the fluorescent particles was three times higher (Table 4). In the investigated room, the 276 average concentration of the fluorescent particles was also three times higher than that of the 277 background concentrations determined at the start of the day (Table 5). 278

The particle size profiles for the fluorescent and non-fluorescent particles were different. The average of the median aerodynamic diameters in number for the fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) was 2.9 µm and that for the non-fluorescent particles was 0.9 µm (Tables 4 and 5).

284

 Table 4: Results of the particle measurements for the control room

		Without fluoresce	ence	With fluorescence			
	n	Average of the concentrations (±S.D.)	Average of the NMAD	n	Average of the concentrations (±S.D.)	Average of the NMAD	
		(#/m³)	(µm)		(#/m³)	(µm)	
Background concentrations (start)	3	26,933 (19,016)	1.06	3	6,933 (5,412)	3.04	
(0.0)		(10,010)			(0,112)		
Bronchoscopy	19	3,344,555*	1.02	19	22,640*	3.54	
		(5,219,242)			(8,662)		

Background	4	68,700	1.09	4	14,650	3.56
concentrations (end)		(72,910)			(13,120)	

n: number of measurements; S.D.: standard deviation; (#/m³): number of particles per cubic metre of air; NMAD: Number Median Aerodynamic Diameter; *: Statistically significant difference ($p \le 0.05$)

Table 5: Results of the descriptive statistical analysis of the particles for the investigated room

		Without fluoresce	ence	With fluorescence			
	n	Average of the concentrations (±S.D.)	Average of the NMAD	n	Average of the concentrations (±S.D.)	Average of the NMAD	
		(#/m³)	(µm)		(#/m³)	(µm)	
Background concentrations (start)	4	374,390 (41,890)	0.76	4	13,800 (8,041)	2.20	
Bronchoscopy	46	610,830* (120,180)	0.79	46	41,238* (19,027)	2.53	
Background concentrations (end)	4	744,935 (396,444)	0.76	4	13,050 (2,340)	2.16	

n: number of measurements; S.D.: standard deviation; (#/m³): number of particles per cubic metre of air; NMAD: Number Median Aerodynamic Diameter *: Statistically significant difference ($p \le 0.05$)

291

292 *Comparison of the different tasks*

293 Multiple Tukey-Kramer comparisons performed for the two rooms having, as factors, the waiting periods (negative periods in Table 3), the manipulations (period 0 and positive 294 periods in Table 3), and the measurements of the background concentrations (in the morning 295 and at the end of the day) showed that the concentrations of the non-fluorescent particles 296 measured during the manipulations were significantly higher than those for the waiting 297 298 periods or the background concentrations. This stage of bronchoscopy therefore dominates the 299 process of non-fluorescent aerosol generation caused by the introduction of the bronchoscope (periods 0 and after in Table 3), the patient's multiple coughs and emissions, and the injection 300 of water and medications into the bronchi during the examinations. For the fluorescent 301 302 particles, the concentrations during the waiting periods and during the manipulations were 303 significantly higher than the background concentrations. This clearly shows that regardless of 304 the type of particle, the tasks in the rooms produce an increase in the existing concentrations.

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts

Once the significant impact on the particle concentrations shown for the "tasks performed" factor had been identified, another log ANOVA was performed to isolate the tasks (before insertion (negative periods in Table 3, during insertion (period 0 in Table 3) and after insertion of the bronchoscope (positive periods in Table 3)). These concentrations for bronchoscope insertion in the control room were significantly higher for the non-fluorescent particles (p = 0.014 and F = 6.80) and fluorescent (bioaerosol) particles (p = 0.009 and F = 7.70).

However, this increase was not significant for the investigated room, for the two typesof particles.

315

312

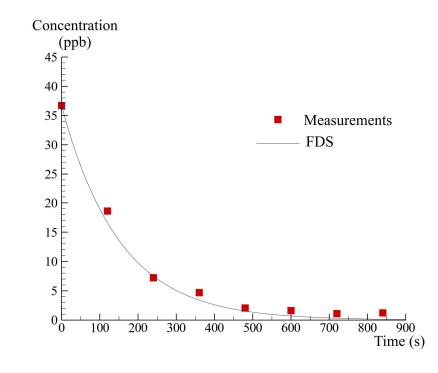
316 Modeling

317 Validation of the model

Simulations were repeated for the actual ventilation conditions by imposing the initial mass fraction of SF6 measured experimentally. Figures 3 and 4 compare the measured concentrations as a function of time with the SF6 concentrations obtained numerically. The mass fractions obtained from simulation were converted into a volume fraction (parts per billion - ppb) to allow comparison. The correlation coefficients were 0.998 for the investigated room and 0.997 for the control room. They were all highly significant.

324 Bioaerosol dispersion

It was difficult to represent the time evolution of bioaerosol dispersion in the modeled rooms. Figures 5 and 6 indicate in a general way what happened to the bioaerosols released when the patient coughed. Each flow line is represented by a line whose colour indicates the time passed since the bioaerosols were suspended in the room. This behaviour was identical to the one that emerged from our simulations except that it involved, in this case, a representation based on actual phenomena (Figures 5 and 6).

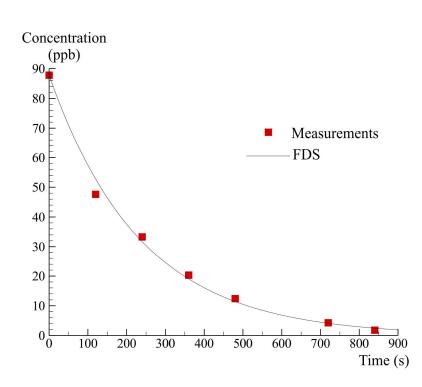


331

332

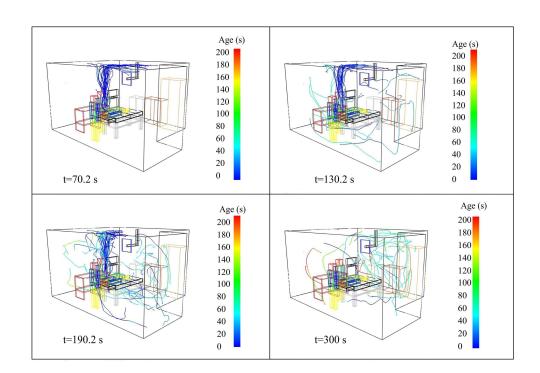
Fig. 3 SF6 concentration as a function of time for the investigated room

333



334

Fig. 4 SF6 concentration as a function of time for the control room



336

337

338

Fig. 5 Trajectories of the bioaerosols as a function of time (from 70.2 to 300 sec) in the investigated room

339

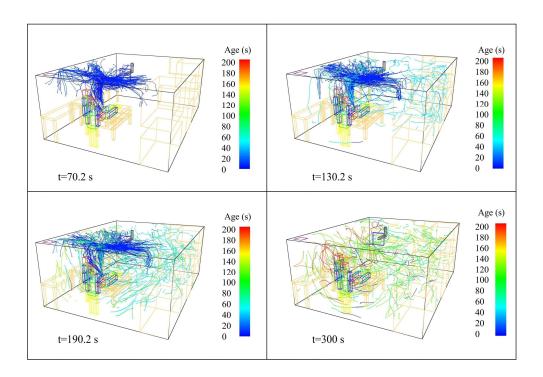




Fig. 6 Trajectories of the bioaerosols as a function of (from 70.2 to 300 sec) in the control

room

342

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts Accepted Manuscri

& Impacts Accepted Manu

nvironmental Science: Processes

343 **DISCUSSION**

344 Number of air changes per hour

The number of air changes per hour measured in the two rooms complied with the standards of ASHRAE Ventilation of Health Care Facilities (ANSI/ASHRAE/ASHE Standard 170-2008) of 12 air changes per hour (ACH) for a bronchoscopy room. These standards requiring that the examination room be at negative pressure, that all the exhausted air be evacuated outdoors, and that the depressurization between the room and the peripheral rooms be at least 2.5 Pa (0.01 in. water) were respected for the investigated room, but not for the control room at the time of sampling.¹⁸

352

353 Concentrations and sizes of fluorescent and non-fluorescent particles

The background concentrations and the particle size profiles will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

The background concentrations in the investigated room were higher than those measured in the control room. The concentrations in this room were as high as 14 times those in the control room for non-fluorescent particles, while they were approximately two times greater for the fluorescent particles.

360 A more rapid decrease was observed for the fluorescent particles in all the rooms; this may be explained by their more rapid sedimentation related to their size. The smaller non-361 fluorescent particles would remain in the air for a longer time due to their slower 362 363 sedimentation. The ambient air conditions may also explain these differences. At the end of the day, after the bronchoscopies, the time it took for the concentrations to return to those at 364 the start of the day could be evaluated (ref. Tables 4 and 5). Thus, for the two rooms, it 365 appears that some fifteen minutes was necessary for the fluorescent particles to return to their 366 base level of the morning. A higher ventilation rate does not necessarily result in a more 367 rapid reduction in concentrations. The higher ventilation rate in the investigated room did not 368 shorten the time it took to return to the base level for the fluorescent particles. At this stage, 369 the observed differences can only be attributed to the ambient physical conditions, such as the 370 room's layout, the position of the air inlets and outlets, the air flows, etc. 371

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts

Bronchoscope insertion is another factor that contributes to the presence of particles in the ambient air during the examinations. The dangers that these particles can present will vary with their type.

375 The dimensions of the fluorescent and non-fluorescent particles measured in this study correspond to aerosols or droplet nuclei as defined by the medical community.^{4,6,11,13,14,32} At 376 these dimensions, the time required for particles to deposit from a height of three metres in 377 stagnant free air is several hours.¹³ In ventilated locations, the deposition time is even longer, 378 and these particles can travel by following the air currents, and are likely to be inhaled by the 379 personnel present.^{4,11,12,14,29,33-35} Under these conditions, it is recommended that personnel 380 working in these rooms wear disposable N95 respirators continuously in the context of a 381 complete respiratory protection program for infectious patients or those suspected of being 382 infectious.36 383

384

385 Comparison of the different tasks

In the control room, the concentrations measured during bronchoscope insertion into the respiratory tract were significantly higher than those measured before and after its insertion. This increase was not significant for the investigated room. The *a posteriori* analysis also established a significant difference between the hospitals for the concentrations of nonfluorescent and fluorescent particles measured during this period, which can be explained by the different ventilation rates and air flow profiles for these rooms.

Bronchoscope insertion is a factor that contributes to the presence of particles in the ambient air during the examinations, as shown at a short distance from the patient's mouth. The dangers that these particles can present will vary with their type.

395

396 Modeling

Validation of the model

The numerical results for the rates of decrease of SF6 as a function of time were similar to the rates of decrease measured experimentally (Figures 4 and 5). The coefficients of correlation in these figures are 0.997 for the control room and 0.998 for the investigated room. These coefficients are all statistically significant ($p \le 0.05$). The imposed air flows for these simulations were determined following flow velocity measurements at the supply and exhaust

nvironmental Science: Processes

grilles. These flows correspond to 24 air changes per hour for the investigated unit and 15 for
the control unit. These simulation results compare to those measured experimentally,
presented in Table 3.

406 Bioaerosol dispersion

The flow lines presented at four different times (Figures 5 and 6) show that bioaerosols are 407 projected by coughing to the ceiling of the rooms, where their dispersion will depend on the 408 409 air movements induced by the ventilation. In the investigated room (Figure 5), most of the bioaerosols dispersed in the direction of the y axis before being uniformly mixed with the air. 410 411 For the control room, the initial dispersion was more limited (Figure 6): at t=70, 130 and 190 412 s, the contaminant remained mostly in the region above the patient before being dispersed 413 throughout the room (t=300s). For the two rooms, general bioaerosol dispersion was observed in the entire room. No zone was spared. The results of a laboratory study on the dispersion of 414 415 particles generated by a cough or a sneeze have shown that the particles propagated rapidly 416 throughout the room and that a worker located anywhere in the room was exposed to the potentially infectious aerosols in less than five minutes.³⁷ This general dispersion throughout 417 the rooms was also noted by Lindsley et al. (2012) in their laboratory study on the dispersion 418 419 of aerosols produced by coughing or sneezing.

420 Scope and limitations of this study

The TSI UV-APS 3314 is the only instrument that can be used to detect non-fluorescent and fluorescent (bioaerosol) particles and to establish their particle sizes in real time. However, the samples were collected at a distance of approximately 1.5 metres from the patient's mouth due to the dimensions of our measuring equipment. The concentrations would clearly have been higher if they had been measured a few centimetres from the patient's mouth, but this would have had a negative impact on how the bronchoscopies were performed.

This study was carried out in only two bronchoscopy rooms. Fifteen bronchoscopies were nonetheless followed. This number is statistically representative.²²

The models and numerical modeling techniques validated by experimental SF6 measurements provided an understanding and graphical representation of the air flows as well as their effects on particle deposition. From a qualitative standpoint, our models corresponded very well to our measurements. In fact, the maximum concentrations of particles were found immediately after insertion of the bronchoscope when coughing occurs. The models could be tools to be given priority in the reorganization of bronchoscopy rooms since an increase in
ventilation does not always translate into a reduction in concentrations.

The number of ACH for the two rooms was relatively high (17 and 24 ACH respectively for the control and investigated rooms) and represents an almost ideal situation. According to Nardell et al., (1991), due to the exponential relationship that exists between ventilation and the presence of infectious bioaerosols, high ventilation rates have minimal effect on their concentrations.³ For the other bronchoscopy rooms in Québec with lower ACH, the diversity and concentrations of microorganisms should be even higher.

442

443 CONCLUSION

The primary objective of this study, namely to measure and characterize the sizes and the total concentrations of fluorescent and non-fluorescent particles during bronchoscopies and to evaluate the effectiveness of the ventilation strategies, was achieved.

The numbers of ACH complied with all the standards in force. However, regarding pressure, the control room did not comply with the standards, because it was at positive pressure during our measurements.

The particle sizes and concentrations of the three types of particles were determined.
The average median aerodynamic diameter of the fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) was
between 2.9 μm. The average median aerodynamic diameter of the non-fluorescent particles
was smaller, namely 0.9 μm.

In the two rooms, the average concentrations of the non-fluorescent and fluorescent (bioaerosol) particles were significantly higher during bronchoscopies when compared to the background concentrations at the start of the day. Some fifteen minutes were necessary to return to the base concentration of the fluorescent particles (bioaerosols) in the morning. The time could be as long as 95 minutes for the investigated room for the non-fluorescent particles.

In the analyses of the factors studied with ANOVA, the tasks (bronchoscope insertion, before insertion and after insertion) constitute the only factor that produced a significant difference for the three types of particles. In the control room, the concentrations of nonfluorescent and fluorescent particles were significantly higher during bronchoscope insertion when compared to the periods before and up to 15 minutes after insertion. The number of ACH was not the only factor having an impact on the concentrations.
This observation supports the hypothesis that the different concentrations could be due to the
different air flows.

Bioaerosol dispersion in relation to the number of air changes per hour was modeled. Significant deviations were observed between 18 and 24 ACH. Regardless of the room modeled, a ventilation flow of 24 ACH does not allow the asymptotic value of the average age of the air to be achieved.

The numerical results for the rates of decrease of SF6 as a function of time were similar to the rates of decrease measured experimentally. Our models have therefore been validated.

In the principles of reduction of exposure at source, the location of the inlet and outlet grilles in relation to the emission source is one of the most important aspects to be considered.

478 **REFERENCES**

479 1 Q. Gui, Field analysis of the Efficiency of the Three Most Frequently-Used Mobile
480 Ventilation Systems in Bronchoscopy Suite at Montreal Sacre-Cœur Hospital, Graduate
481 Research Project Report, McGill University, 2008, 65 pages.

- 2 C. B. Beggs, C. J. Noakes, P. A. Sleigh, L. A. Fletcher, K. Siddiqi, The Transmission of
 Tuberculosis in Confined Spaces: an Analytical Review of Alternative Epidemiological
 Models, *Int. J. Tuberc. Lung. Dis.*, 2003, 7, 1015-26.
- 3 E. A. Nardell, J. Keegan, S. A. Cheney, S. C. Etkind, Airborne Infection: Theoretical Limits
 of Protection Achievable by Building Ventilation. *Am. Rev. Resp. Dis.*, 1991, 144, 302-6.
- 4 Y. Li, G. M. Leung, J. W. Tang, Role of Ventilation in Airborne Transmission of Infectious
 Agents in the Built Environment- A Multidisciplinary Systematic Review, *Indoor Air*,
 2007, 7, 2-18.
- 5 Recommandations du directeur national de santé publique pour la prise en charge de cas de grippe A(H1N1) dans les installations d'hospitalisation et les installations d'hébergement des établissements de santé du Québec, Santé et services sociaux du Québec, 2009, 19 pages.
- 6 C. Malasky, T. Jordan, F. Potulsky, L. B. Reichman, Occupational Tuberculosis Infections among Pulmonary Physicians in Training. *Am. Rev. Resp. Dis.*, 1990, 142, 505-507.
- K. Schwartzman, V. Loo, J. Pasztor, D. Menzies, Tuberculosis Infection among Health
 Care Workers in Montreal. *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.*, 1996, **154**, 1006-1012.
- 498 8 ASHRAE (American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers),
 499 ASHRAE Position Document on Airborne Infectious Diseases, ASHRAE, Atlanta, GA, 17
 500 p., 2009.

- 9 CINQ (Comité sur les infections nosocomiales du Québec), Évaluation du risque et opinion
 sur le port d'un appareil de protection respiratoire de type N-95 lors du retraitement d'un
 bronchoscope potentiellement contaminé par un bacille tuberculeux, Institut national de
 santé publique du Québec, QC, 7 p., 2011.
- R. Loudon, S. Spohn, Cough Frequency and Infectivity in Patients with Pulmonary
 Tuberculosis, Am. Rev. Resp. Dis. 1969, 99, 109-111.
- A. Yassi, E. Bryce, D. Moore, Protecting the Faces of Health Care Workers: Knowledge
 Gaps and Research Priorities for Effective Protection against Occupationally-Acquired Respiratory Infectious Diseases, Report to Change Foundation, Vancouver, BC, Canada,
 103 p., 2004.
- 511 12 J. Lavoie, Y. Cloutier, J. Lara, G. Marchand, *Guide sur la protection respiratoire contre*512 *les bioaérosols. Recommandations sur le choix et l'utilisation*, Études et projets de
 513 recherche, guide technique RG-497, Institut de recherche Robert-Sauvé en santé et en
 514 sécurité du travail, Québec, 30 pages, 2007.
- 515 13 S.W. Lenhart, T. Seitz, D. Trout, N. Bollinger, 2004. Issues Affecting Respirator Selection
 516 for Workers Exposed to Infectious Aerosols: Emphasis on Heathcare Settings, *Applied* 517 *Biosafety*, 2004, 9, 2-36.
- 518 14 D. Verreault, S. Moineau, C. Duchaine, Methods for Sampling Airborne Viruses.
 519 *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. R.*, 2008, 72, 413-444.
- 15 ASPC (Agence de santé publique du Canada), Normes canadiennes pour la lutte
 antituberculeuse, 6e édition, Ottawa, Canada, 2007.
- 522 16 J. Sundell, H. Levin, W. W. Nazaroff, W. S. Cain, W. J. Fisk, D. T. Grimsrud, F.
 523 Gyntelberg, Y. Li, A. K. Persily, A.K. Pickering, J. M. Samet, J. D. Spengler, S. T. Taylor,
 524 C. J. Weschler, Ventilation Rates and Health: Multidisciplinary Review of the Scientific
 525 Literature, *Indoor Air*, 2011, 21, 191-204.
- 17 ASHRAE (American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers),
 Ventilation of Health Care Facilities. ANSI/ASHRAE/ASHE Standard 170-2008,
 ASHRAE, Atlanta, GA, 2008.
- 18 ASHRAE (American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers),
 Heating, Ventilating, and Air-Conditioning Applications, in *Chapter 7: Health Care facilities*, ASHRAE Handbook, SI edition, Atlanta, GA, 16 p., 2007.
- 532 19 CDC (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention), *Guidelines for Preventing the* 533 *Transmission of Mycobacterium tuberculosis in Health-Care Settings*, Morbidity and
 534 Mortality Weekly Report 54 (RR-17):1-142, 2005.
- 20 C. B. Beggs, K. G. Kerr, C. J. Noakes, E. A. Hathway, P. A. Sleigh, The Ventilation of
 Multiple-Bed Hospital Wards: Review and Analysis, *Am. J. Infect. Control*, 2008, 36, 250259.
- AIA (American Institute of Architects), *Guidelines for Design and Construction of Hospital and health Care Facilities*, American Institute of Architects Press, Washington,
 DC, 18 p. 2006.

- 22 BOHS (British Occupational Hygiene Society), Sampling Strategies for Airborne
 Contaminants in the Workplace, Technical Guide No. 11, H and H Scientific Consultants
 Ltd., Leeds, UK, 84 p., 1993.
- 544 23 American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM), 1993. *Standard Test Methods for* 545 *Determining Air Change in a Single Zone by Means of a Tracer Gas Dilution*. Designation E
- 546 741 93. American Society For Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, PA, pp. 1-16, 1993.
- 547 24 TSI Inc., Model 3314 Ultraviolet Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (UV-APS) Spectrometer,
 548 User's Manual, Shoreview, MN 55126, USA, 2010.
- 549 25 K. McGrattan, S. Hostikka, R. McDermott, J. Floyd, C. Weinschenk, K. Overholt, *Fire Dynamics Simulator User's Guide*, FDS Version 6.0, SVN Repository Revision: 16162, 288 pages, 2013.
- 26 K. McGrattan, S. Hostikka, R. McDermott, J. Floyd, C. Weinschenk, K. Overholt, *Fire Dynamics Simulator User's Guide*, Volume 2: Verification, FDS Version 6.0, SVN Repository Revision: 16162, 184 pages, 2013.
- 27 K. McGrattan, S. Hostikka, R. McDermott, J. Floyd, C. Weinschenk, K. Overholt, *Fire Dynamics Simulator User's Guide*, Volume 3: Validation, FDS Version 6.0, SVN Repository Revision: 16162, 496 pages, 2013.
- W. C. Hinds, *Aerosol Technology*, Wiley-Interscience publication, NY, USA, 424 p., 1982.
- 29 H. Qian, Y. Li, P. V. Nielsen, C. E. Hyldgaar, Dispersion of Exhalation Pollutants in a
 Two-Bed Hospital Ward with a Downward Ventilation System, *Build. Environ.*, 2008,
 43, 344–354.
- 30 J. Redrow, S. Mao, I. Celik, A. Posada, Z.-G. Feng, 2011. Modeling the Evaporation and
 Dispersion of Airborne Sputum Droplets Expelled from a Human Cough, *Build. Environ.*,
 2011, 46, 2042-2051.
- 31 AIHA® (American Industrial Hygiene Association), *Mathematical models for estimating occupational exposure to chemicals*, AIHA®, Ed. B. Keil, C.E. Simmons, T.R. Anthony,
 2nd edition, 2009.
- 32 W. F. Wells, W. R. Stone, On Air-Borne Infection. Study III. Viability of Droplet Nuclei
 Infection, Am. J. Epidemiol., 1034, 20, 619-627.
- 33 C. J. Roy, D. K. Milton, Airborne Transmission of Communicable Infections. The Elusive
 Pathway. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, 2004, **350**, 1731-1739.
- 34 W. Sun, J. Ji, Transport of Droplets Expelled by Coughing in Ventilated Rooms, *Indoor Built Environ.*, 2007, 16, 493-504.
- 575 35. S. Welty, Swine H1NI Influenza A: Transmission of Viruses in Indoor Air: HVAC System
 576 Protection Options, Federal Interagency Committee for Indoor Air Quality, US
 577 Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, 2009.

Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts
36. C. R. MacIntyre, Q. Wang, H. Seale, P. Yang, W. Shi, Z. Gao, B. Rahman, Y. Zhang, X. Wang, A. T. Newall, A. Heywood, A. Dwyer, A Randomized Clinical Trial of Three Options for N95 Respirators and Medical Masks in Health Workers, <i>Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.</i> , 2013, 187 , 960-966.
37 W. G. Lindsley, W. P. King, R. E. Thewlis <i>et al.</i> , Dispersion and Exposure to a Cough-Generated Aerosol in a Simulated Medical Examination Room, <i>J. Occup. Environ. Hyg.</i> , 2012, 9, 681–690.

585

578

579

580 581

582

583 584