

Association between Face mask use and Risk of SARS-CoV-2 Infection – Cross-sectional study

Ingeborg Hess Elgersma¹, MA

Atle Fretheim^{1,2}, Prof. *

Petter Elstrøm¹, PhD

Preben Aavitsland^{3,4}, Prof.

¹ Centre for Epidemic Intervention Research, Norwegian Institute of Public Health

² Faculty of Health Sciences, Oslo Metropolitan University

³ Division of Infection Control, Norwegian Institute of Public Health

⁴ Pandemic Centre, Department of Global Public Health and Primary Care, University of Bergen

*Corresponding author (atle.fretheim@fhi.no)

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2 SUMMARY

3 We examined the association between face masks and risk of infection with SARS-CoV-2
4 using cross-sectional data from 3,209 participants in a randomized trial of using glasses to
5 reduce the risk of infection with SARS-CoV-2. Face mask use was based on participants'
6 response to the end-of-follow-up survey. We found that the incidence of self-reported
7 COVID-19 was 33% (aRR 1.33; 95% CI 1.03 - 1.72) higher in those wearing face masks
8 often or sometimes, and 40% (aRR 1.40; 95% CI 1.08 - 1.82) higher in those wearing face
9 masks almost always or always, compared to participants who reported wearing face masks
10 never or almost never. We believe the observed increased incidence of infection associated
11 with wearing a face mask is likely due to unobservable and hence nonadjustable differences
12 between those wearing and not wearing a mask. Observational studies reporting on the
13 relationship between face mask use and risk of respiratory infections should be interpreted
14 cautiously, and more randomized trials are needed.

15 **Introduction**

16 Public health authorities in many countries have recommended, mandated or both, the use of
17 face masks to reduce the spread of COVID-19. This study examines the association between
18 self-reported face mask use and the risk of infection with SARS-CoV-2 in data obtained from
19 a randomized trial on the effectiveness of using glasses in the community against the risk of
20 infection with SARS-CoV-2.

21 The literature on mask effectiveness for respiratory infection prevention is growing, but their
22 use is still controversial, as demonstrated by the variation in recommendations on face mask
23 use across countries and states [1]. The most recent Cochrane review on the effect of physical
24 interventions to interrupt or reduce the spread of respiratory viruses stated that “Wearing
25 masks in the community probably makes little or no difference to the outcome of laboratory-
26 confirmed influenza/SARS-CoV-2 compared to not wearing mask”, but the authors also
27 pointed out that “the low to moderate certainty of evidence means our confidence in the effect
28 estimate is limited, and that the true effect may be different from the observed estimate of the
29 effect.” [2]. In controlled settings, mechanistic studies suggest that when masks are worn
30 correctly, the risk of infection should be strongly reduced [3]. Studies based on observational
31 data mainly find a negative association between wearing a mask and the risk of a COVID-19
32 infection [4–7], e.g. in their online survey, Xu et al found a manyfold increase in risk of
33 infection among the participants who reported not wearing a face mask [8]. In a similar study
34 by Kwon et al self-reported ‘always’ use of face mask outside the home was associated with
35 around a 65% reduced risk of predicted COVID-19 [9].

36 The World Health Organization recently revised their guideline on infection prevention and
37 control in the context of COVID-19, recommending use of face masks to reduce SARS-CoV-
38 2 transmission in certain situations, including “when in crowded, enclosed, or poorly

39 ventilated spaces” [10]. The certainty of the underlying evidence was assessed as low to
40 moderate, and the guideline development group concluded that “Well-conducted,
41 observational studies and/or RCTs exploring the use of masks versus no masks in various
42 settings (for example, indoor, outdoor, ventilation status) would further clarify outstanding
43 questions concerning mask use in community setting.”

44 Masks may have at least two types of effects on SARS-CoV-2 transmission. Wearing a mask
45 by an infected individual may prevent spread to others (source control). Wearing a mask may
46 also protect the wearers (protective effect) [11].

47 In this study we revisit the association between use of face masks and the protection against
48 infection from COVID-19. We examine this relationship by using already collected data from
49 a trial we conducted February to April 2022, of wearing glasses on viral transmission [12].

50 The primary objective was to examine the association between face mask use and the
51 incidence of infection with SARS-CoV-2 (self-reported) adjusted for all observable
52 confounding variables.

53 Secondary objectives were to carry out analyses of the association between face mask use and
54 (1) the risk of infection with SARS-CoV-2 (notified to health authorities) and (2) the risk of
55 respiratory infection (self-reported).

56 **Methods**

57 **Study design**

58 In this study we used previously collected data from our trial on the effectiveness of using
59 glasses in the community against the risk of infection with SARS-CoV-2, which took place
60 from February 2 to April 24, 2022, during which participants were continuously recruited
61 [12]. We redistributed the participants from the two trial arms (glasses use or no use) into

62 three groups based on their retrospective report of the level of face mask use during the study
63 period. The analysis was prespecified [13].

64 The trial data stemmed from the following sources: (1) End of follow-up survey, including
65 items on use of face masks, use of glasses, COVID-19 testing and public transportation during
66 the follow-up period; (2) the Norwegian Surveillance System for Communicable Diseases
67 (MSIS), including date of positive COVID-19 PCR test; (3) Norwegian Immunization
68 Registry (SYSVAK), including date of vaccination for a COVID-19 vaccine; and (4) Personal
69 identification number, including date of birth and sex.

70 During the study period, the recommendation to wear a face mask changed in Norway. After
71 arrival of the omicron variant in November 2021, public health measures were reintroduced to
72 suppress the epidemic, but were then gradually lifted between January 13 and February 12,
73 2022. This was followed by a huge wave of intensive viral transmission and record levels of
74 hospitalizations for COVID-19 during January–April. Pre-February 12, 2022, face mask use
75 was mandated when it was not possible to retain one meter distance in shops, shopping malls,
76 restaurants, public transport, taxis, and inside public venues. The mandate also applied to
77 employees unless physical barriers were used. To cater for any bias which may have arisen
78 due a time-dependable relationship between wearing a mask and the risk of infection, we
79 control for time in the main model as well as in sensitivity analysis.

80 During the study period, both antigen tests for home use and PCR testing in test stations or in
81 the ordinary health services were widely and freely available to inhabitants in Norway. Only
82 PCR tests results were universally registered in the national surveillance system. In the
83 primary analysis we rely on self-reported positive COVID-19 test, while we look at reported
84 (notified) COVID-19 test as a secondary outcome.

85 **Participants**

86 The following eligibility requirements had to be met by all participants in the original trial:

- 87 1. at least 18 years of age
- 88 2. did not regularly wear glasses
- 89 3. owned or could borrow glasses that they could use (e.g., sunglasses)
- 90 4. had not contracted COVID-19 in the 6 weeks prior to participation
- 91 5. did not have COVID-19 symptoms when providing consent
- 92 6. willing to be randomly assigned to wear or not wear glasses outside their home when
- 93 close to others for a 2-week period provided informed consent.

94 Participants were followed for 17 days, from when they completed the consent form until they
95 completed the end-of follow up survey.

96 **Exposure**

97 In the end-of-follow-up survey we asked the participants about their face mask use during the
98 study period. Participants reported on face mask use by selecting one of six responses to the
99 question “How often over the last two weeks have you used a face mask when you have been
100 close to others outside your home?”: (1) Always; (2) Almost always (at least 75% of the
101 time); (3) Often (50-75% of the time); (4) Sometimes (25-50 % of the time); (5) A few times
102 (up to 25% of the time); and (6) Never (0% of the time).

103 Owing to few responses for some of the categories, in our analysis we combined the response
104 categories into: Always/Almost always; Often / Sometimes; and Almost never/Never. This
105 was prespecified in the protocol.

106 **Outcomes**

107 The primary outcome was a positive COVID-19 test result (self-reported - days 1-17 of the
108 study period).

109 Secondary outcomes included (1) a reported positive COVID-19 test result (notified; days 1-
110 17 of study period) and (2) an episode of respiratory infection (self-reported symptoms; days
111 1-17 of study period), defined as having 1 respiratory symptom (stuffed or runny nose, sore
112 throat, cough, sneezing, or heavy breathing) and fever or 1 respiratory symptom and at least 2
113 more symptoms (body ache, muscular pain, fatigue, reduced appetite, stomach pain,
114 headache, and/or loss of smell).

115 **Statistical analysis**

116 We first display characteristics of participants according to face mask use. We then estimate
117 cumulative incidence proportion (i.e. the risk) of each of the outcomes in each of the three
118 groups defined by frequency of mask use. We compute risk ratios (RR) and adjusted risk
119 ratios (aRR) using binomial generalized linear models with log link functions [14], or when
120 these do not converge, robust Poisson regression [15]. Reporting “Almost never”/“never”
121 having used face masks is set as the reference level. We adjust for age (continuous + quadratic
122 term), sex, using contact lenses, having used glasses (Always / almost always; Often /
123 sometimes; Almost never / never), use of public transportation and vaccination status
124 (0,1,2,3+ doses) as well as the share of the follow-up time where face mask use was
125 mandatory.

126 We pre-specified two sensitivity analyses: First, we stratify according to whether face mask
127 use was mandatory in at least parts of the total follow-up time. A χ^2 test of interaction
128 determines whether the effect of exposure was heterogenous. Second, we add the use of
129 fractional polynomials to our model estimating adjusted risk ratios, in order to address time-

130 varying differences in a person's background risk of infection. We do this by letting t be the
131 time in years since the day before the first participant was enrolled in the trial. We consider
132 fractional polynomials of t of maximum degree 2, with powers restricted to the set [5 0, 0.5, 1,
133 2, 3]. We choose among models using a closed testing procedure [16]. All analyses are
134 conducted in R [17].

135 Data on face mask use was collected in the end-of-follow up survey, therefore all participants
136 who did not respond to this survey are excluded from the analysis. We analyze the data using
137 only complete cases as the number of participants who responded to the face mask question
138 and who did not respond to other survey questions, was small ($n=23$, 0.7%).

139 **Bias**

140 The participants in the study were not randomly assigned to wear or not wear face masks, and
141 they were not provided with or encouraged to use face masks. During the study period,
142 official guidelines for face mask use changed, with mandatory use in certain situations. This
143 may have affected the participants' use of face masks, with some choosing to wear them based
144 on their own assessment of risk and effectiveness.

145 Additionally, there may be other factors that could confound the relationship between face
146 mask use and study outcomes, such as participants in high-risk professions or with risk factors
147 for severe COVID-19. Both groups may be more or less prone to wear face masks, while also
148 observing different social distancing practices than the average population. We also cannot
149 rule reverse causality, in which those testing positive for COVID-19 were more prone to wear
150 masks afterwards in order to protect others. Finally, there could be an association between the
151 inclination to test and the propensity to wear a face mask.

152 To address these concerns, we control for those variables that are available to us, and that may
153 confound the relationship between face mask use and risk of infection. We also consider

154 several ways to control for differences in background risk over time, as elaborated above. All
155 analyses were pre-specified in the protocol and reporting adheres to the STROBE guidelines on
156 items that should be included in reports of observational studies [18]. However, it is important
157 to interpret the results with caution and not infer that our estimates represent the true causal
158 relationship between face mask use and infection risk.

159 **Results**

160 **Main results**

161 In total, 3,231 participants reported on face mask use in the follow-up survey. However, 23
162 (0.7%) participants were excluded due to missing responses in the adjusted analysis, leaving a
163 total of 3,209 participants with an average age of 46.9 years (SD 15) and the majority being
164 women (2,129, 66.4%). Over 50% of the participants enrolled within the first two days
165 (February 2 and 3, 2022). Of the participants, 852 (26.6%) reported using a face mask at least
166 75% of the time when near others outside their home, 861 (26.8%) reported using a face mask
167 between 25% and 75% of the time, and 1,495 (46.6%) reported using a face mask less than
168 25% of the time (Table 1).

169 The main findings are summarized in Table 2. The crude estimates show a higher incidence of
170 testing positive for COVID-19 in the groups that used face masks more frequently, with 8.6%
171 of participants who never or almost never used masks, 15.0% of participants who sometimes
172 used masks, and 15.1% of participants who almost always or always used masks reporting a
173 positive test result. The risk was 1.74 (1.38 to 2.18) times higher in those who wore face
174 masks often or sometimes and 1.75 (1.39 to 2.21) times higher in those who wore face masks
175 almost always or always, compared to participants who reported never or almost never wore
176 masks (reference group).

177 Adjusting for observable confounders, including vaccination status, resulted in more modest
178 results, with a risk of 1.33 (1.03 to 1.72) higher in those who wore face masks often or
179 sometimes and 1.40 (1.08 to 1.82) higher in those who wore face masks almost always or
180 always, compared to participants who reported never or almost never wearing masks
181 (reference group).

182 For the secondary objectives (Table 3), we found that the proportion of registered COVID-19
183 cases was higher in the groups using face masks, but adjusted risk ratios showed no
184 statistically significant difference in risk. Similarly, the risk of self-reported respiratory
185 infection was higher among those wearing face masks, but adjusted risk ratios were only
186 statistically significant for those wearing face masks sometimes or often (1.19, 95% CI 1.06 to
187 1.34).

188 **Sensitivity tests**

189 Using second degree fractional polynomials we fitted a model where we let time of inclusion
190 in the study be non-linearly associated with the risk of infection, thereby modeling any
191 differences in background risk linked to the population prevalence of infection when the
192 participant entered the trial. With this approach, the risk of self-reported COVID-19 infection
193 when wearing a face mask was more moderate, 1.03 (95% CI 1.00 to 1.06) higher in those
194 wearing face masks often or sometimes, and 1.04 (95% CI 1.01 to 1.07) higher in those
195 wearing face masks almost always / always than in participants having worn face masks never
196 or almost never (Supplementary Table S1). Per peer reviewer's suggestion, we also conducted
197 a post hoc sensitivity analysis where we used fractional polynomial terms for age instead of
198 quadratic terms for age, with the benefit of fractional polynomials being more flexible in
199 terms of modelling non-linearity. The aRRs were identical to that in the prespecified analysis
200 (Supplementary Table S2).

201 The second prespecified analysis, in which the sample was split according to whether face
202 mask was mandatory for at least parts of the follow-up period, there was a higher risk
203 associated with wearing face masks in the period where there was no general recommendation
204 on face mask use in force (Supplementary Figure S1), however a χ^2 test of interaction was
205 non-significant (p-value 0.09).

206 **Patient and public involvement**

207 No patient or member of the public was involved in conducting this research.

208 **Discussion**

209 In this cross-sectional study of 3231 participants, we observed that persons reporting to wear a
210 face mask sometimes/often or almost always/always had a 33% (95% CI 3% to 72%) and
211 40% (95% CI 8% to 82%) higher incidence of self-reported COVID-19 compared to those
212 wearing face masks never or almost never, adjusting for available, relevant confounders.
213 Sensitivity analysis showed that when adjusting for differences in baseline risk over time, the
214 risk of wearing a mask was less pronounced, with only a 4% (95% CI 1% to 7%) increased
215 incidence of infection with COVID-19 for those wearing face mask almost always or always
216 compared to those wearing face masks never or almost never. Results from secondary
217 outcomes were largely in the same direction, i.e. mask wearing was associated with an
218 increased relative risk of experiencing respiratory symptoms (1.04 [95% CI 1.01 to 1.07]),
219 while we found no clear association between mask wearing and notified COVID-19 cases.

220 The results contradict earlier randomized and non-randomized studies of the effectiveness of
221 mask wearing on the risk of infection [4,9,19–24]. Most of these studies reported that wearing
222 a face mask reduces the risk of COVID-19 infection. Some observational studies have
223 reported manyfold reductions [8,24], while one community based randomized trial failed to

224 demonstrate a statistically significant reduction in infection risk [25] and one cluster
225 randomized community trial found only a modest reduction [20]. .

226 Our findings may be explained by several factors. A major limitation of our study is the non-
227 randomized, cross-sectional study design. It may be that mask wearers were more prone to
228 wear masks to protect others from their own infection. This reverse causality may explain the
229 positive association between risk of infection and mask usage, and could be supported by the
230 finding that participants reporting to wear masks also were more likely to test themselves for
231 COVID-19. Furthermore, there may be other behavioral differences related to perception of
232 risk [26] or occupation that we did not observe, that are linked to the likelihood of wearing
233 mask [27] or to the likelihood of being tested for COVID-19 when symptomatic. There is
234 also the possibility that mask wearers feel somewhat protected and thus change their
235 behaviors to not observe social distancing, so that any benefit of masking is offset by
236 increased exposure. Lastly, our main outcome was based on self-report, which is also a
237 possible source of bias.

238

239 **Conclusion**

240 We examined the association between face mask use and the incidence of SARS-CoV-2
241 infection in data obtained from a randomized trial on the effectiveness of using glasses to
242 reduce the risk of infection. Our findings suggest that wearing a face mask may be associated
243 with an increased risk of infection. However, it is important to note that this association may
244 be due to unobservable and non-adjustable differences between those wearing and not
245 wearing a mask. Therefore, caution is imperative when interpreting the results from this and
246 other observational studies on the relationship between mask wearing and infection risk.
247 Recommendations to wear face masks in the community are largely informed by low certainty

248 evidence from observational studies [10]. More randomized trials or quasi-experimental
249 studies are needed to improve our insights on the effectiveness of face masks for protection
250 against transmission of respiratory pathogens.

251

252 **Acknowledgements**

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254 With SARS-CoV-2 in the Community”-trial, and thereby provided data for this study.

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257 **Conflicts of interest**

258 None.

259 **Ethics statement**

260 The Norwegian Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics (REC)
261 approved the original trial study protocol, approval number 2022/ 427320. We confirm that all
262 administrative permissions have been granted to access and use the data for this study.

263 All participants provided informed consent to participating in the trial in accordance with the
264 relevant guidelines and regulations (Declaration of Helsinki).

265 **Data availability statement**

266 The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are not publicly available due
267 to the data containing personal data but are available from the corresponding author on
268 reasonable request, provided that the data is anonymized according to the Norwegian Data
269 Protection Authority guide on anonymization of personal data.

270 **Authors' contributions**

271 PA conceived the study. All authors designed the study. IHE conducted the statistical analysis
272 and wrote the initial manuscript draft. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the
273 results and revisions of the manuscript.

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Characteristic	Use of face masks		
	Almost / Almost never (n = 1495)	Sometimes/Often (n = 861)	Almost always / always (n = 852)
Sex			
Female	930 (62.2%)	605 (70.3%)	594 (69.7%)
Male	565 (37.8%)	256 (29.7%)	258 (30.3%)
Age (mean, sd)	47.8 (15.2)	44.7 (14.7)	47.7 (14.9)
Had covid 19	146 (9.8%)	54 (6.3%)	28 (3.3%)
No. of COVID-19 vaccines received			
0	45 (3.0%)	15 (1.7%)	22 (2.6%)
1	13 (0.9%)	9 (1.0%)	10 (1.2%)
2	263 (17.6%)	173 (20.1%)	154 (18.1%)
3+	1174 (78.5%)	664 (77.1%)	666 (78.2%)
Wearing glasses			
Almost never / Never	841 (56.3%)	407 (47.3%)	318 (37.3%)
Sometimes / Often	194 (13.0%)	122 (14.2%)	94 (11.0%)
Almost always / Always	460 (30.8%)	332 (38.6%)	440 (51.6%)
Uses of COVID-19 test			

Yes, home test and at test station	68 (4.5%)	79 (9.2%)	74 (8.7%)
Yes, at test station	10 (0.7%)	6 (0.7%)	7 (0.8%)
Yes, home test	608 (40.7%)	506 (58.8%)	470 (55.2%)
No	809 (54.1%)	270 (31.4%)	301 (35.3%)

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381 *Table 2: Main findings. Primary outcome self-reported COVID-19 infection.*

Exposure group	Infected/total	Risk	Risk ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted risk ratio (95% CI)
Almost never / Never	129/1495	8.6%	Reference	Reference
Sometimes / Often	129/861	15.0%	1.74 (1.38 - 2.18)	1.33 (1.03 - 1.72)
Almost always / Always	129/852	15.1%	1.75 (1.39 - 2.21)	1.4 (1.08 - 1.82)

382 Note: Please be informed that in each group, there were 129 individuals infected, purely due to chance.

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384 *Table 3: Secondary outcomes*

Reported (notified) COVID-19					Self-reported respiratory infection			
Exposure group	Infected/ total	Risk	RR (95% CI)	aRR (95% CI)	Infected/ total	Risk	RR (95% CI)	aRR (95% CI)
<i>Almost never / Never</i>	48/1495	3.2%	Ref	Ref	491/149 5	32.8 %	Ref	Ref
<i>Sometimes / Often</i>	40/861	4.7%	1.45 (0.96 - 2.18)	0.94 (0.61 - 1.48)	371/861	43.1 %	1.31 (1.18 - 1.46)	1.19 (1.06 - 1.34)
<i>Almost always / Always</i>	40/852	4.7%	1.46 (0.97 - 2.20)	0.99 (0.63 - 1.55)	333/852	39.1 %	1.19 (1.06 - 1.33)	1.13 (0.99 - 1.28)

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