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1 **Effects of Nasal Cavity and Exhalation Dynamics on**
2 **Aerosol Spread in Simulated Respiratory Events**

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9
10 **Abstract**

11 Coughing and sneezing are critical mechanisms for the transmission of airborne
12 respiratory diseases, dispersing pathogen-laden aerosols into the environment. Previous
13 human volunteer studies provided valuable insights into aerosol dynamics but lacked
14 reproducibility due to individual variations. This paper presents a novel, replicable
15 experimental setup using three dimensional (3D) models of the upper respiratory tract
16 and nasal cavity to simulate isothermal human-like coughs and sneezes. Results indicate
17 that nasal cavity involvement decreases horizontal aerosol cloud spread while enhancing
18 vertical dispersion. Incorporating this experimental data with theoretical models
19 improves predictive accuracy of aerosol cloud evolution, particularly for indoor
20 environments. Finally, a single novel analytical expression for the evolution of the
21 particle cloud tip is derived that accurately predicts the cases studied.

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22 **1. Introduction**

23

24 The SARS-CoV2 pandemic, with over 650 million confirmed cases and 7 million deaths,¹
25 tragically highlighted the critical need to understand how respiratory diseases spread
26 through airborne aerosols (microscopic droplets expelled during breathing, coughing,
27 and sneezing).²⁻⁵ Accurately replicating these events in research settings is crucial for
28 developing effective mitigation strategies. However, a key limitation of current methods
29 lies in the use of human volunteers.⁶⁻⁸ Individual differences in cough/sneeze strength
30 and anatomy limit the robust characterization of exhalation flows and the resulting
31 aerosol cloud. This variability also hinders the development of reliable models for cloud
32 dispersion.⁶ To overcome these limitations, researchers are turning to replicable cough
33 and sneeze simulators (both numerical and experimental) which offer several
34 advantages over volunteer-based studies in terms of reproducibility and accuracy. These
35 cough and sneeze emulators enable the controlled generation of rapid exhalations with
36 adjustable parameters that allow researchers to conduct standardized experiments,
37 ensuring consistent and reproducible data collection. A critical factor in accurately
38 representing cough and sneeze events is incorporating realistic upper respiratory tract
39 within the simulator. Since coughs and sneezes air can be expelled through both the
40 mouth and the nose,³ these models should include both cavities and respective airways
41 along with the larynx and trachea.^{9,10}

42

43 In this regard, the nasal cavity plays a crucial role in shaping the airflow dynamics and
44 particle cloud dispersion influencing the size, direction, and dispersion rate of the
45 expelled droplets and, therefore, potentially impacting the spread of pathogens.⁹
46 Previous studies have characterized airflow and particle size distribution during coughs
47 and sneezes using various techniques like spirometry and Particle Image Velocity (PIV).<sup>6-
48 8,11,12</sup> These studies have revealed key insights on flow rates, particle velocities, and
49 droplet size distributions. Researchers have also developed theoretical models to predict
50 particle cloud evolution and droplet size based on factors like humidity and
51 composition.¹³⁻¹⁵ In this case, neglecting the nasal cavity can result in an incomplete
52 understanding of airflow dynamics and particle dispersion patterns, impacting the
53 accuracy of transmission models.^{2,16,17} Efforts specifically aimed at measuring differences

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54 between the nasal and oral routes have reported changes in droplet characteristics,
 55 droplet travel distance, airborne duration, and pathogen-carrying potential.¹⁸ The nasal
 56 cavity flow has also been found to modify the pathogen's capacity to adhere to mucosal
 57 surfaces.^{19,20}

58

59 To overcome the limitations, we designed and built a replicable cough and sneeze
 60 simulator. This novel experimental setup is used here to generate exhalations resembling
 61 human coughs and sneezes with adjustable parameters used to control the air ejection
 62 strength using the maximum velocity peak and duration of the simulated expiratory
 63 event. Using realistic 3D printed models of the upper respiratory tract and nasal cavity,
 64 we can investigate the role of the exhalation strength and the role of nasal airways (by
 65 blocking or not the nostrils of the model) on the aerosol cloud dispersion.

66

67 The objective of this study is to characterize experimentally, in a controlled and
 68 reproducible way, the aerosol cloud generated in a violent expiratory event. The
 69 collected experimental data, comprising three different flow rates, typical of coughs and
 70 sneezes, with and without nasal cavity flow are used to determine the entrainment
 71 coefficient of the jet flow and predict the range of the aerosol cloud using the model
 72 proposed by Pallares and Fabregat.²¹ A single correlation, experimentally validated, to
 73 predict the time evolution of the position of the tip of the cloud is proposed.

74

75 **2. Materials and methods**

76

77 **2.1. Experimental setup**

78

79 The experimental setup, sketched in Figure 1, consists of a compressor, a pressurized
 80 small tank with an electro valve and a relief valve, a plenum tank, a ball valve, a pipe, a
 81 pressure differential sensor, two flexible tubes, a mixing chamber, a nebulizer, and a 3D
 82 printed model of the upper respiratory tract and nasal cavity (see Fig. 2). The computer-
 83 controlled compressor, relief valve and electro valves allow to select target conditions
 84 for the exhalation.

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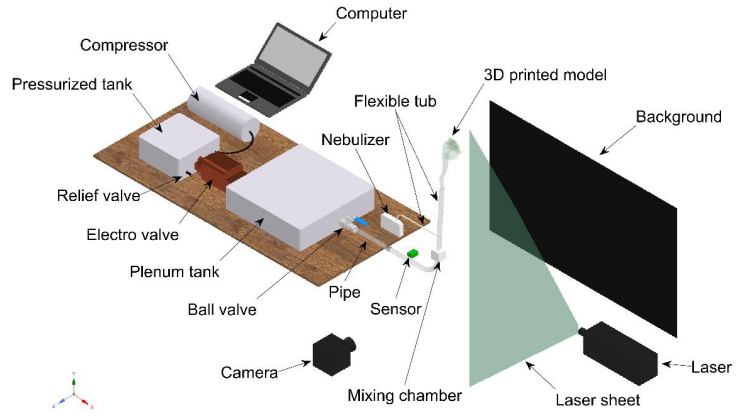
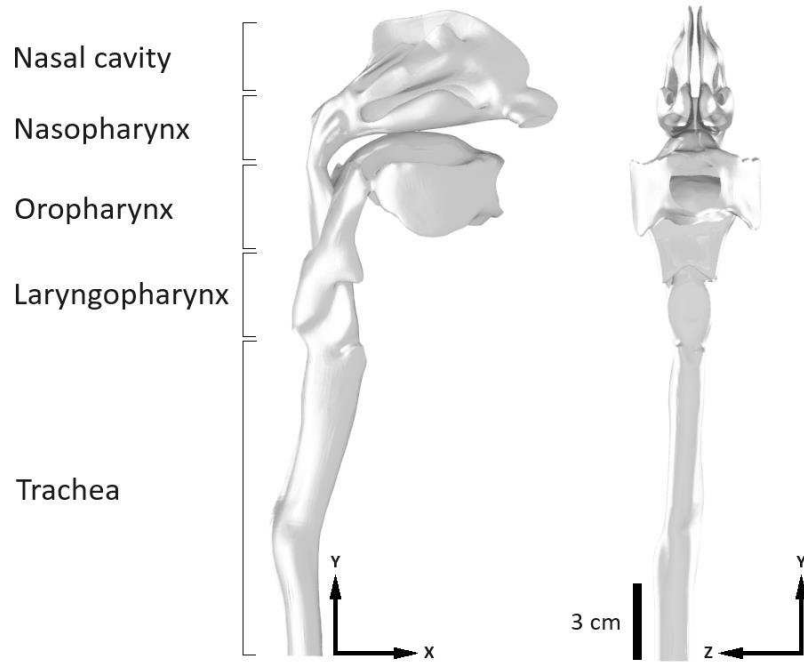


Figure 1. Sketch of the experimental setup.



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Figure 2. Lateral (left) and front (right) views of the 3D printed model of the upper respiratory tract and trachea.

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91 To initialize the expiratory event, the following steps are taken: first, we select the
 92 desired pressure (hPa) in the pressurized tank with a volume of 4.1 liters. The relief valve
 93 is used to regulate the overpressure inside the box. Once the pressure reaches the set
 94 point, the electro valve is opened and the air flows to the plenum tank with a volume of
 95 1.3 liters. The opening of the ball valve (3/4") controls the duration of the simulated
 96 expiratory event letting the air to flow through a pipe of 75 cm long (Internal diameter
 97 of 16 mm). The pressure difference under fully-developed conditions is obtained from
 98 measurements at two points separated 10 cm using a calibrated SMI ultra-low pressure
 99 digital sensor (model SM9333 BCE-T-125-000) working at 1000 Hz. Microdroplets, with
 100 an average diameter of 1 μm generated with a nebulizer (Aroma Nebulizer 2.0), are
 101 introduced into the mixing chamber through a flexible tube 40 cm long (ID 8 mm) where
 102 the mixture is homogenized. A 50 cm long (ID 20 mm) flexible tube connects the mixing
 103 chamber with the 3D printed upper respiratory tract model as shown in Figure 1. The
 104 trachea and the upper respiratory tract of the model (see Fig. 2) were obtained from the
 105 ERCOFTAC database²² while the nasal cavity, corresponding to an average geometry for
 106 25 volunteers, was retrieved from Brüning *et al.*²³ The open area of the mouth (3.14
 107 cm^2) is circular with a diameter of 2 cm and the total area of the two nostrils is 1.99 cm^2 .
 108 When the nostrils are open, the total flow rate is distributed proportionally between the
 109 open areas of the mouth and nostrils, with 61% passing through the mouth and 39%
 110 through the nostrils. This distribution has been validated at various flow rates using
 111 numerical simulations of airflow within the geometry of the upper respiratory tract
 112 considered in this study. The flow rate measurements have a maximum error margin of
 113 $\pm 5\%$.

114
 115 The temperature in the laboratory, with dimensions 8.5 x 5 x 4 m^3 (length x width x
 116 height) was kept at 25°C during the measurements. The evolution of the particle cloud
 117 was obtained using a 5 mm thick laser sheet generated by a continuous green laser (CNI
 118 Model with PSU-W-LED MGL-W-532, wavelength: 532 nm). Images of an area of 1.27 x
 119 1.59 m^2 were acquired using a digital camera (Photron FASTCAM mini UX100 type 800K)
 120 running at 50 FPS with a resolution of 1280 x 1024 pixels for a period of 1.5 s. The
 121 postprocessing of the images was performed using an in-house Matlab code. The cloud
 122 contours were obtained by binarizing each frame using a constant threshold. Figure 2

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123 shows the coordinate system where x is the axial direction, y is the vertical direction and
 124 z is the transversal direction. The particle cloud centroid coordinates in the illuminated
 125 x - y plane (c_x, c_y) , and the horizontal (σ_x) and vertical (σ_y) widths are estimated using
 126 the standard deviation defined in Eqs. 1 and 2, respectively.

127

$$128 \quad c_x = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}, c_y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{n} \quad (1)$$

129

$$130 \quad \sigma_x = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - c_x)^2}{n}}, \sigma_y = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - c_y)^2}{n}}, \quad (2)$$

131

132 where n is the number of illuminated pixels in the binarized image, x_i is the horizontal
 133 pixel position and y_i is the vertical pixel position.

134

135 3. Results and discussion

136

137 3.1 Experimental results

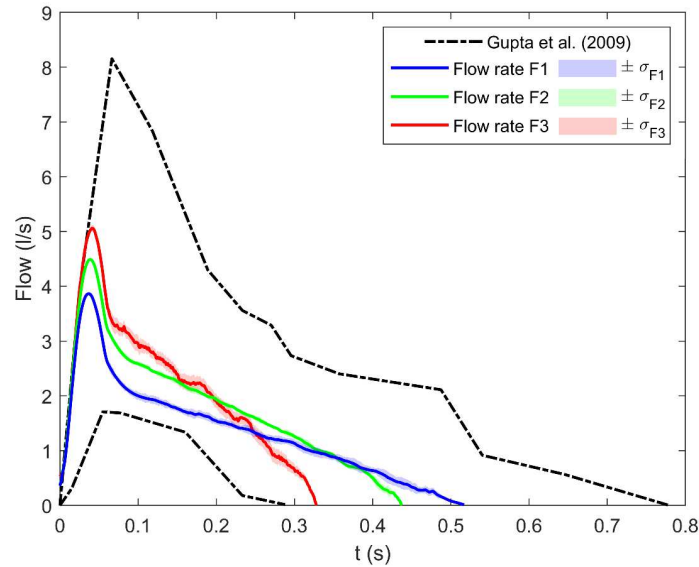
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139 To investigate the impact of the nasal cavity flow and exhalation strength, we conducted
 140 six different experimental cases, as listed in Table 1. The three different flow rates are
 141 identified by the first two digits of the case code, namely, F1, F2 and F3. The last two
 142 digits of the code, either N0 or N1, correspond to closed or open nostrils, respectively.
 143 Therefore, for instance, the case F2N0 would correspond to the second flow rate and
 144 closed nostrils. For each case, Table 1 shows the total flow rate in liters per second, the
 145 exhalation duration in seconds, the maximum velocity in meters per second and the
 146 nostril openness (for further information see Appendix II). To estimate the statistical
 147 variability of the different realizations of the same turbulent flow, each case was
 148 repeated 10 times. The results for each case presented and discussed in this section are
 149 obtained from the ensemble average of the 10 realizations.

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151
 152 Figure 3. Temporal evolution of the ensemble-averaged volumetric flow rate for the three experiments (solid lines),
 153 with one deviation standard of 10 realizations for each case (shaded areas), and the envelopes of the measurements
 154 reported by Gupta *et al.*⁶ (dashed lines).
 155

156 The temporal evolution of the exhalation flow rate for the three experiments (F1, F2,
 157 and F3) are shown in Figure 3 with solid lines, while the shaded area represents the
 158 variability of $\pm 5\%$, corresponding to plus/minus one standard deviation, calculated from
 159 10 independent realizations. For validation purposes, the dashed line corresponds to the
 160 envelope of the different measurements, reported by Gupta *et al.*⁶, of coughs flows of
 161 volunteers. The general trend of the present results shown in Figure 3 are very similar
 162 to those reported by Gupta *et al.*⁶ with a rapid increase in flow rate that peaks shortly
 163 after the onset of the exhalation that then transitions to a slower decay until
 164 termination. In comparison to other studies^{7,8} on the characterization of sneezes, the
 165 present experiment airflow velocities are in very good agreement with values ranging
 166 between 10 and 18 m/s as well, allowing coughing and sneezing to be studied
 167 interchangeably.
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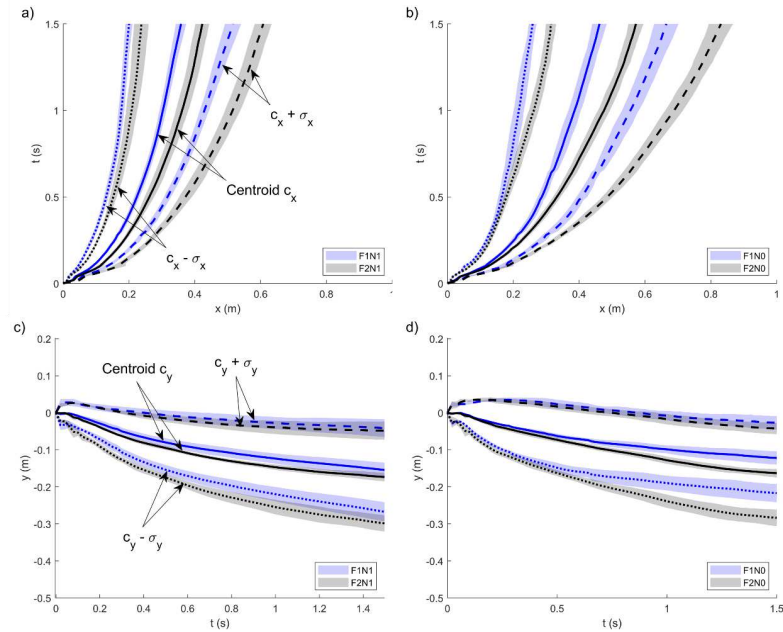
Code	Total flow rate (l/s)		Duration (s)	Max velocity (m/s)	Nostrils	
	Max.	Av.	t_d	Mouth	Closed	Open
F1N0	3.82	1.34	0.50	12,16	X	
F1N1						X
F2N0	4.44	1.77	0.44	14,14	X	
F2N1						X
F3N0	5.04	2.09	0.34	16,05	X	
F3N1						X

Table I. Experimental conditions.

171 Figure 4 compares the temporal evolution of the position of the centroid and the vertical
172 and horizontal widths of the aerosol for flow rates F1 (blue) and F2 (gray) with closed
173 (N0) and open (N1) nasal airways over 1.5 seconds. Panels a (N0) and b (N1) correspond
174 to the horizontal position of the centroid and horizontal width of the cloud. The
175 corresponding vertical metrics of the cloud and shown in panels c) and d). The middle
176 solid line in panels a) and b) correspond the c_x , the dashed line represents $+\sigma_x$ while
177 the pointed line indicates the $-\sigma_x$. Note that the vertical axis corresponds to elapsed
178 time. The vertical cloud centroid position and width are similarly shown in panels c) and
179 d) with elapsed time in the horizontal axis. Shaded areas show the one standard
180 deviation for the ensemble of 10 experimental realizations for each case.

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Figure 4. Tracking of the position of the ensemble-averaged centroid and time evolutions of the sizes of particle clouds for cases (a and c) F1N1 F2N1 and (b and d) F1N0 F2N0.

185 Considering F1 as the base case, results indicate that the increased flow rate in case F2
186 leads to larger horizontal reach for both cases N1 (panel a) and N0 (panel b). Increasing
187 the total amount of exhaled air leads to increased traveled distance in the horizontal axis
188 and also a slightly larger variability across all experiments in the ensemble as indicated
189 by the modestly wider shaded area. The existence of nasal flow has also a clear impact
190 on the cloud horizontal reach. Comparison of panels a) and b) show that the interaction
191 of the main (mouth) and the oblique nasal jet leads to a reduction in the horizontal
192 distance travelled by the particle cloud. This reduction might have a two-fold
193 explanation. On the one hand, the quasi-forward oriented mouth jet in cases N0 is
194 generated by a smaller fraction of air that now splits between the two airways.
195 Additionally, the nasal ejection disturbs the mouth jet by deflecting it downwards and
196 accelerating the decay of the kinetic energy along the horizontal axis. These findings
197 demonstrate how nasal exhalation can reduce the horizontal transmission distance of

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198 aerosols, which may have implications for designing protective measures in close-
199 contact settings.

200

201 In the vertical direction (panels c and d), the data suggest that increasing the flow rate
202 has only a modest effect on the vertical movement of the aerosol cloud. When
203 comparing to the baseline case (F1), the addition of nasal flow similarly has minimal
204 influence on the cloud's descent, maintaining a relatively stable vertical centroid
205 position. This limited vertical shift, despite increased flow or nasal involvement, suggests
206 that while nasal airflow affects horizontal spread significantly, its role in vertical
207 dispersion is comparatively minor. This could indicate that aerosols expelled through the
208 nose are less likely to rise or fall dramatically in the immediate aftermath of exhalation,
209 focusing their spread more horizontally, which could be important for understanding
210 near-field transmission in indoor environments.

211

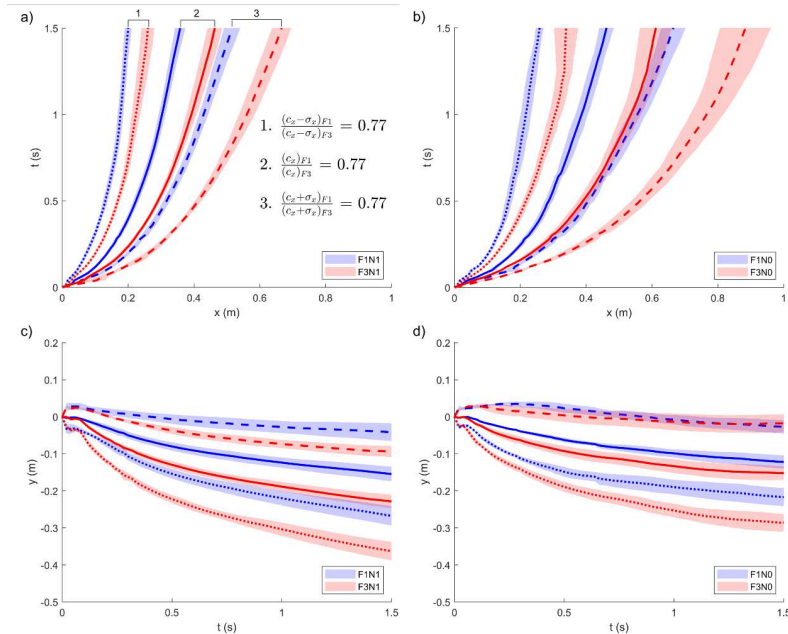
212 The differences observed between case F2 and the reference F1 (see Figure 4),
213 exacerbate when the flow rate is further increased in case F3 (red) as shown in Figure 5.
214 On the one hand, the largest flow rate in case F3 results in the largest horizontal reach
215 and increased variability in both cloud centroid position and width as shown in panels a)
216 and b). Again, the existence of nasal flow results in an increased cloud horizontal
217 travelled distance that reaches the maximum value for case F3.

218

219 Regarding the vertical direction, the impact of both increased flow rate and nasal flow in
220 case 3 is much more obvious than in case 2 (see Figure 4) with both the cloud centroid
221 and width exhibiting significantly larger values. While the effect of nasal flow on the
222 cloud descent was very modest in Figure 4, results in Figure 5 for case 3 clearly show the
223 signature of this oblique jet on the vertical span of the cloud.

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Figure 5. Tracking of the position of the ensemble-averaged centroid and time evolutions of the sizes of particle clouds for cases (a and c) F1N1 F3N1 and (b and d) F1N0 F3N0.

Table II and Figure 5 (a) show the ratio between the position and sizes of the cloud for the different flow rates at the axial direction in both closed (N0) and open (N1) nostrils. The ratio of the flow rates and the ratio of distances are in both similar, with a maximum error of 4.34 % between the ratio of the flow rate and the size. A similar scaling has not been found for the vertical metrics.

Code	Flow rate ratio	N0			N1			Size ratio avg.	Difference % in abs. value
		$c_x - \sigma_x$ ratio	c_x ratio	$c_x + \sigma_x$ ratio	$c_x - \sigma_x$ ratio	c_x ratio	$c_x + \sigma_x$ ratio		
F1/F2	0.86	0.82	0.81	0.80	0.87	0.85	0.85	F1 = 0.83F2	3.61
F1/F3	0.75	0.76	0.75	0.75	0.77	0.77	0.77	F1 = 0.76F3	1.31
F2/F3	0.88	0.93	0.93	0.94	0.91	0.91	0.91	F2 = 0.92F3	4.34

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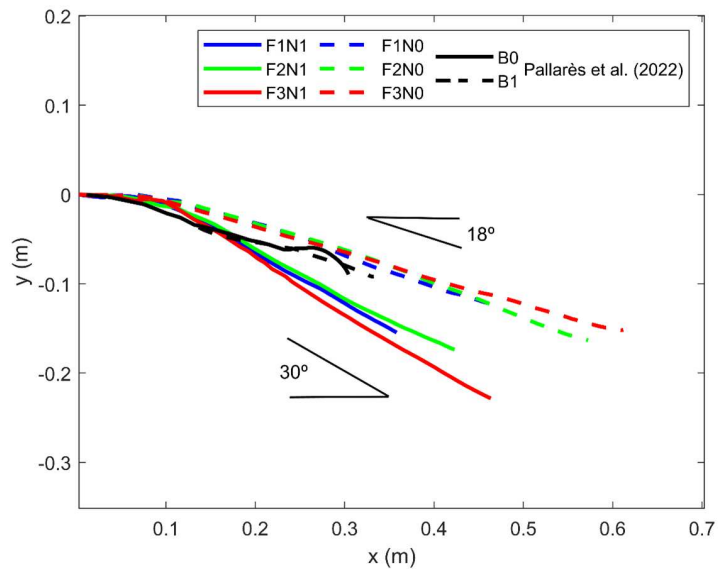
Table II. Flow rate ratio and difference of the distances of the puff between the cases compared.

The cloud average centroid trajectories are plotted in Figure 6 using colored solid and dashed lines for the cases with and without nasal flow, respectively. Results suggest that despite differences in the total travelled length, flow rate has a limited impact on the

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240 path followed by the particle cloud centroid over 1.5 s. The existence of nasal flow,
 241 however, clearly affects the deflection angle of the trajectory that increases from about
 242 $\alpha_{N0} = 18^\circ$ to $\alpha_{N1} = 30^\circ$, regardless of the flow rate and the duration of the flow
 243 injection. The black lines show the evolution of the centroid trajectory angle of the
 244 thermal field obtained in the Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) simulation by Pallarès
 245 *et al.*²⁴ over the same time span of 1.5 s. Solid and dashed lines for cases coded as B0
 246 and B1, respectively, correspond to two separate simulations without and with
 247 considering buoyancy forces. In this last case the temperature difference between the
 248 exhaled flow ($T = 34^\circ\text{C}$), and the ambient air ($T = 15^\circ\text{C}$) is 19°C . The CFD simulations
 249 differed from the experiments both in the exhalation flow rate (max = 1.5 l/s) and also
 250 in the 3D model, in which the nasal cavity was not considered. Despite these differences,
 251 the CFD results are in good agreement with the experiments with absence of nasal flow.
 252 These results suggest a robust independence of the cloud trajectory on the exhalation
 253 flow rate and the relatively modest role of the buoyancy forces as defined in the CFD
 254 simulation.

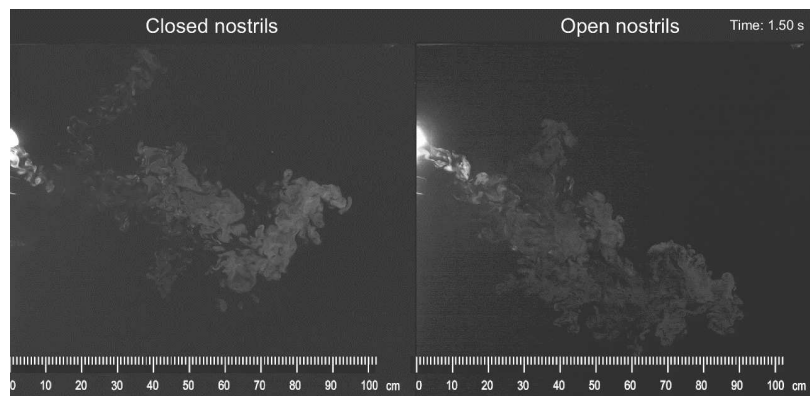


255
 256 Figure 6. Ensemble-averaged trajectories of the centroid. The trajectories in black represent the centroid of the
 257 thermal fields with buoyancy (B1) and without buoyancy (B0) reported in Pallarès *et al.*²⁴.
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259 Figure 7 (Multimedia available online) shows the effect of the nasal cavity on the particle
 260 cloud generated by a violent expiratory event under the same flow rate F3 during $t =$
 261 1.5 s. As a reference, the coughs studied in Bourouiba *et al.*¹⁰ using volunteers reached
 262 distances of about 0.7 m at $t = 0.34$ s, while in Tang *et al.*³, the generated puff, also
 263 using volunteers, reached 0.6 m between $t = 0.5 - 2.5$ s. In the experiment shown in
 264 Figure 7, the distance is 0.7 m at $t = 0.67$ s. Additionally, Gupta *et al.*⁶ characterized the
 265 angles, relative to the horizontal axis, of the particle cloud produced by of volunteer
 266 coughs. The measured upper and lower angles were $\theta_1 = 15 \pm 5^\circ$ and $\theta_2 = 40 \pm 4^\circ$,
 267 respectively. The angles extracted from Figure 7 in the case with closed nostrils are $\theta_1 =$
 268 10° and $\theta_2 = 30^\circ$ aligning with the values observed in volunteer-based studies. Finally,
 269 to analyze the influence of the maximum flow rate and total duration of the expiratory
 270 event (shown in Table I) on the particle cloud, the rapid evolution toward the peak flow
 271 rate and subsequent sharp decrease directly affects the maximum distance reached by
 272 the particle cloud. In contrast, the total duration of the expiratory event dictates the
 273 total flow expelled but does not influence the shape or extent of the particle cloud's
 274 trajectory.
 275



276
 277 Figure 7. Videos Frames that show the effect of the nasal cavity on the particle cloud generated by a violent
 278 expiratory event under the same flow rate F3 at $t = 1.5$ s. The comparison between experiments for cases F3N0
 279 (closed nostrils) and F3N1 (open nostrils) illustrates the significant influence of nasal flow on the particle cloud
 280 trajectory (Multimedia available online).
 281

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282 Figure 8 shows snapshots of 4 different realizations (in columns) containing images of
283 the instantaneous particle clouds at $t = 0.5$ s for cases F1N0, F2N0 and F3N0 (in rows).
284 Inspection of the images reveal a common and persistent flow feature in all cases in the
285 form of a detached vortex ring traveling obliquely with respect to the main jet with an
286 angle ranging between 30° and 80° with respect to the horizontal. To investigate the
287 origin of this secondary flow we plotted in Figure 9 the time evolution of visualizations
288 of the particle cloud for the cases F3N0 (a) and F3N1 (b). On the one hand, in panel a)
289 initially the flow injection is essentially horizontal (see for example the visualization
290 corresponding to $t = 0.02$ s and $t = 0.04$ s). As time increases, the flow is progressively
291 oriented downwards by the effect of the bend generated by the larynx and the oral cavity
292 as discussed in Pallares *et al.*²⁴. This change in the flow direction, also shown in Figure 6
293 at $x \approx 0.1$ m, generates the detachment of a secondary vortex ring as illustrated by the
294 snapshots shown in Figure 9 (a). On the other hand, the case F3N1 shown in panel b) do
295 not develops a detachment of the vortex ring because of the nostril jets break this
296 structure. Videos showing the temporal evolution during $t = 200$ ms and detailed birth
297 of the vortex ring in both cases (F3N0 and F3N1) are included in Figure 10 (Multimedia
298 available online) respectively. Secondary flows originated by detached vortex ring have
299 been reported in simulations of violent expiratory events^{24,25} and in visualizations of
300 turbulent puffs²⁶.

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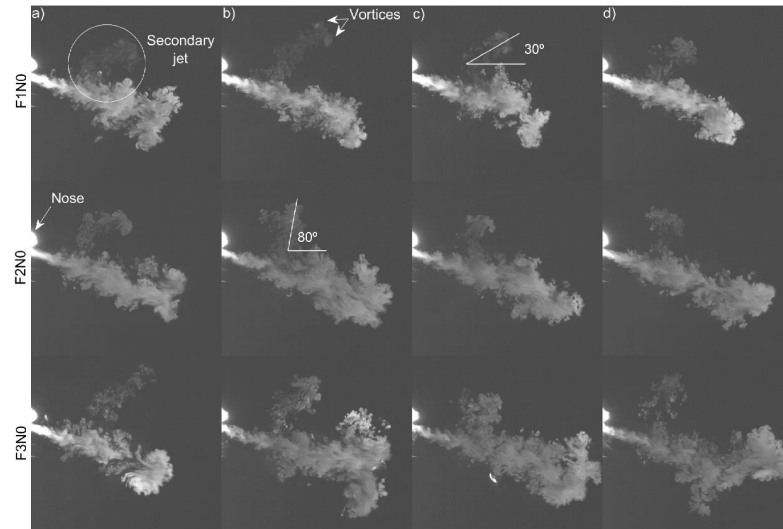
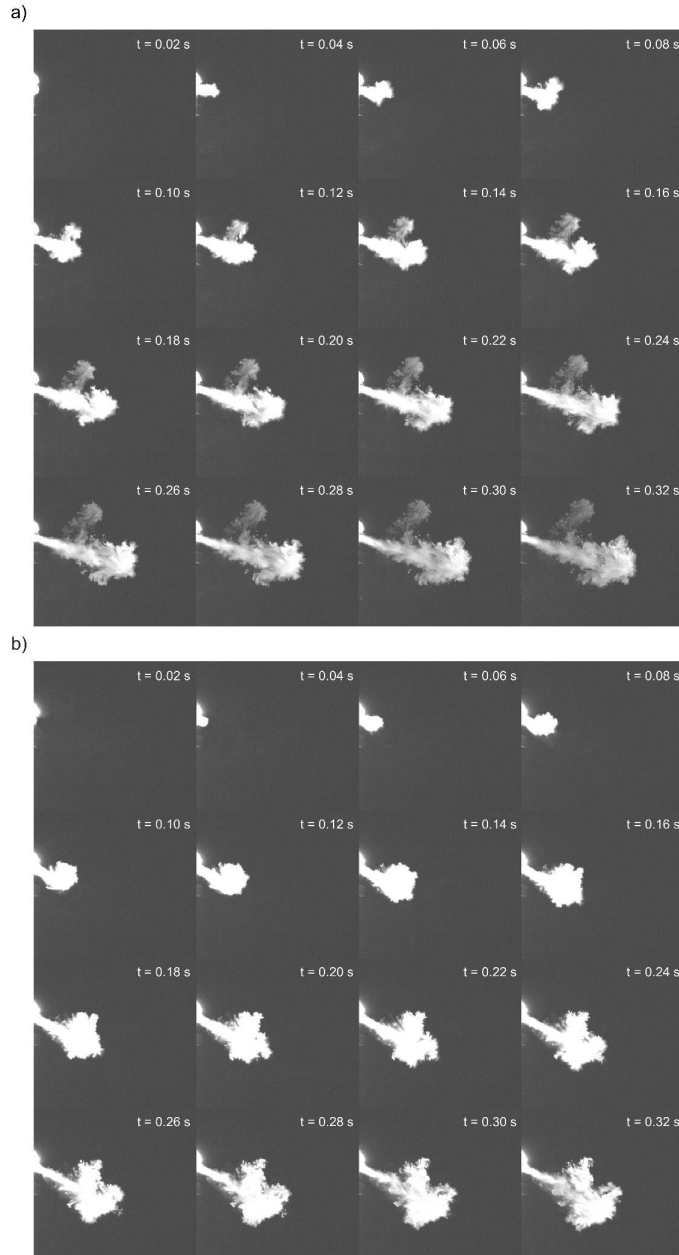


Figure 8. Snapshots at $t = 0.5$ s for 12 experiments showing the main jet and the vortex ring.

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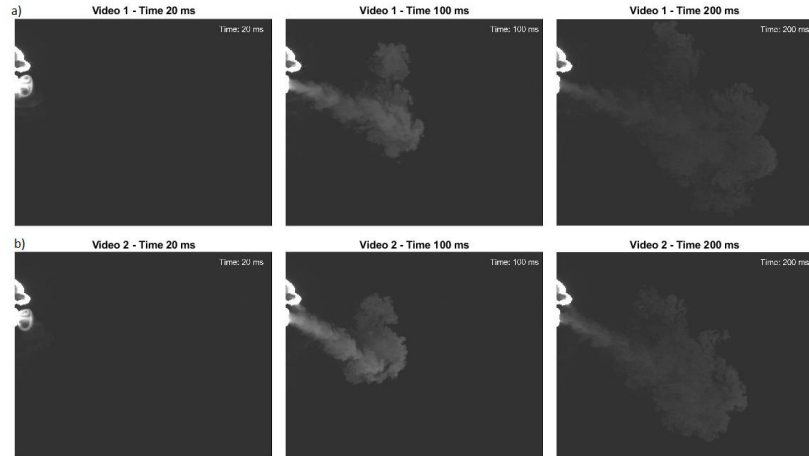


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Figure 9. Birth and detailed evolution of the vortex ring in F3N0 (a) and F3N0 (b) at different time points.

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306
307 Figure 10. Videos frames of birth and detailed evolution of the vortex ring. (a) F3N0 case (Multimedia available
308 online) and (b) F3N1 case (Multimedia available online) at three distinct time points: the initial time (20 ms) when
309 the vortex ring forms, the middle time (100 ms), and the final time (200 ms).

310

311 3.2 Comparison with theoretical models

312

313 A model to predict the time evolution of the tip of a starting new jet derived by Abani
314 and Reitz²⁷ was used to determine the range of the aerosol cloud generated in a violent
315 expiratory event²¹. The model is based on the definition of the effective injection velocity
316 to compute the time evolution of the position of the tip of the jet, given an entrainment
317 coefficient K (see Appendix I for a detailed description of the theoretical model). As an
318 example, Figure 11 shows the exit velocity at the mouth for cases F1N0 and F3N0 and
319 the effective injection velocity used to compute the time evolution of the tip of the jet.
320 It is evident that the effective injection velocity is slightly delayed with respect to the exit
321 jet velocity with peak values damped by approximately 70%. Also, in comparison to the
322 finite-time exit jet velocity, the effective injection velocity exhibits a monotonic decay
323 well passed the end of the exit jet velocity.

324

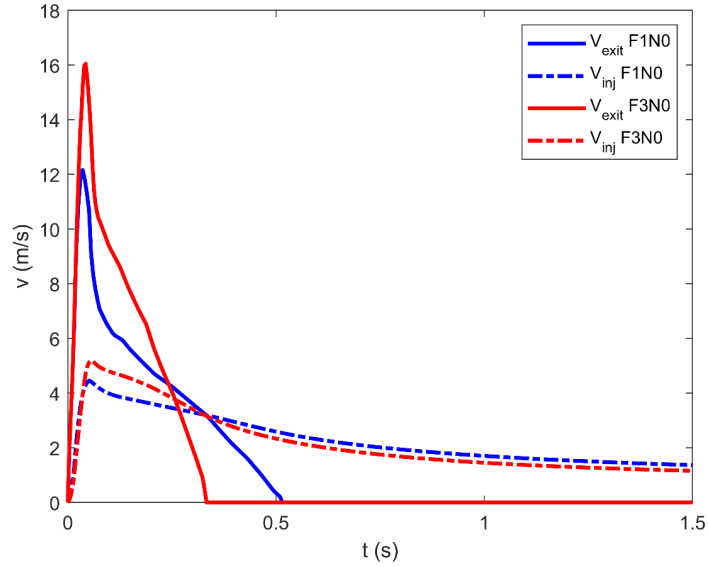


Figure 11. Time evolutions of the exit and injection velocities for cases F1N0 and F3N0.

325
326
327

328 Figure 12 shows an instantaneous binarized image of the particle cloud corresponding
 329 to the case F1N0 at $t = 0.75$ s. The position of the tip, x' , is defined as the distance from
 330 the mouth to the jet front. We computed the time evolution of the entrainment
 331 coefficient K using Eq. 3, where $U_{inj,eff}(x', t)$ is the velocity of the tip and d_{eq} is the
 332 diameter equivalent (see Appendix I). The time evolutions of $\frac{dx'}{dt}$ and x' were determined
 333 by analyzing instantaneous binarized images as the one shown in Figure 12.

334

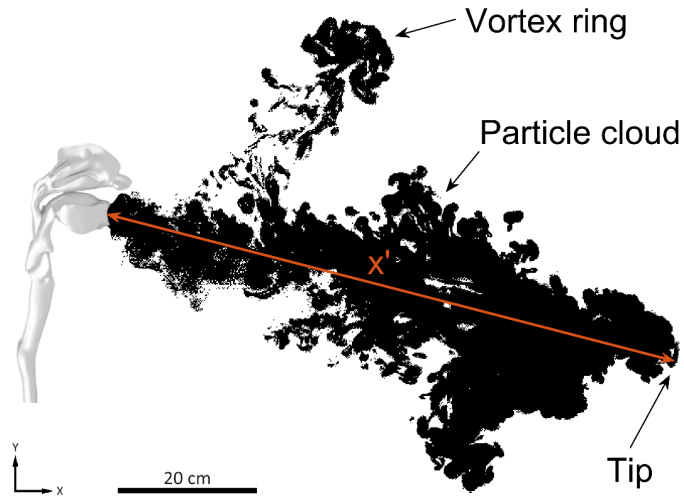
335

$$K = \frac{3U_{inj,eff}(x', t)d_{eq}}{\frac{dx'}{dt}x'} \quad (3)$$

336

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338
339

Figure 12. Particle cloud and vortex ring from a case with the nose closed F1N0 at $t = 0.75$ s.

340 As an example, Figure 13 shows the temporal evolution of the entrainment coefficient K
 341 obtained using Equation 3 for cases F1N1 (dashed blue line) and F3N1 (solid red line).
 342 These results show that K increases rapidly reaching its maximum value soon after the
 343 exhalation onset coinciding with the peak value of the exit velocity. For $t > 0.5$ s, K
 344 decreases back reaching a near constant value. Table III shows the averaged values of K
 345 at large times ($t > 0.5$) for the different cases considered. The values of the entrainment
 346 coefficient for each case are shown in Table III. Results suggest that the nasal flow
 347 increases the value of K while increasing the flow rate leads to decreasing entrainments.
 348 These results are in agreement with those reported by Ricout *et al.*²⁸ who found that K
 349 decreases as the injection Reynolds number is increased.

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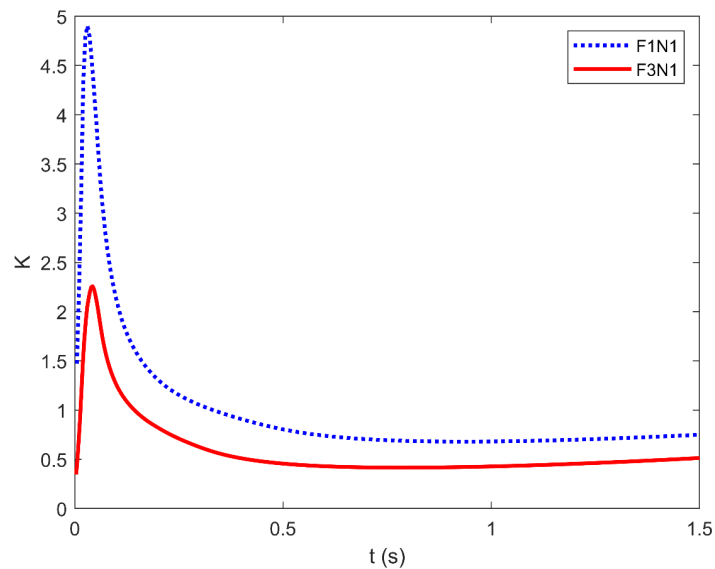


Figure 13. Computed time evolutions of the entrainment coefficients K for cases F1N1 and F3N1.

350

351

352

353 Figure 14 shows the temporal evolution of the experimental cloud tip, and the
 354 theoretical predictions obtained with the values of the entrainment coefficient in Table
 355 III. The agreement is good especially at large times, when time evolution of the
 356 entrainment coefficient reaches a plateau (see Fig. 13).

357

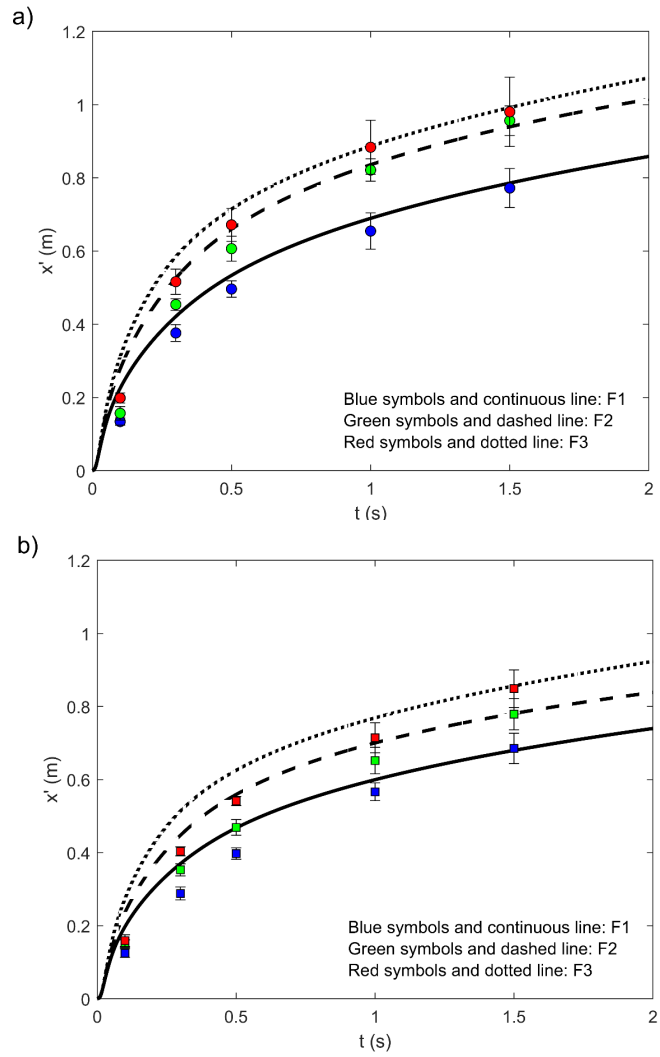
Code	α (°)	K
F1N0	18	0.60
F1N1	29	0.80
F2N0	18	0.45
F2N1	28	0.65
F3N0	16	0.37
F3N1	30	0.50

358 Table III. Time-averaged angle, with respect to the horizontal, of the centroid and entrainment coefficients for the
 359 different experimental conditions.

360

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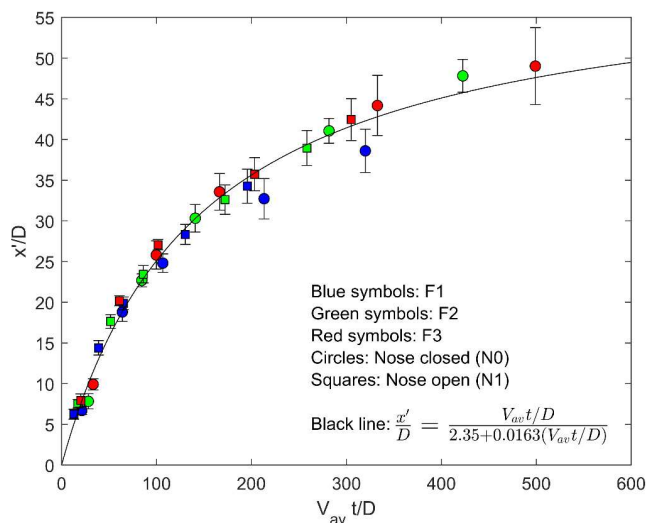
366

Figure 14. Time evolution of the range of the cloud along the direction of the centroid. Symbols correspond to the experiments and the lines to the theoretically predicted ranges. (a) Cases with the closed nostrils. (b) Cases with the open nostrils.

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367 Using dimensional analysis, we plotted in Figure 15 the non-dimensional position of the
 368 tip of the jet as a function of the time scaled with the average flow exit velocity. Results
 369 indicate that all experimental measurement, comprising three flow rate values with and
 370 without nasal flow, collapse into a single curve. The best fit expression for this data, also
 371 shown in Figure 15 as a solid black line, is shown in the legend of the figure. This modified
 372 expression can be used to accurately predict the horizontal extent of a particle cloud
 373 generated by a violent respiratory event over the parameter space considered in this
 374 work regardless of the nasal flow effect.
 375



376
 377 Figure 15. Non-dimensional time evolution of the range of the cloud along the direction of the centroid.
 378

379 **4. Conclusions**

380
 381 An experimental setup designed to reproduce an isothermal violent expiratory events
 382 using realistic upper respiratory tract has been designed and built to investigate the role
 383 of the exhaling flow rate and the existence of nasal flow on the resulting particle cloud
 384 trajectory and width. Specifically, we analyzed the dynamics of the aerosol cloud
 385 generated by three different flow rates over a duration of $t = 1.5$ s, under both open

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386 and closed nostrils conditions. Results suggest that the nasal flow impacts the direction
 387 and the shape of the cloud significantly modifying the angle, with respect to the
 388 horizontal, of the trajectory of the cloud centroid. The trajectory of the centroid of the
 389 cloud has a downward angle of 18° with the closed nostrils and of 30° with the open
 390 nostrils. These values are essentially independent of the flow rate and the duration of
 391 the violent expiratory event. This highlights the critical role of the nasal cavity in shaping
 392 the dynamics of coughing and sneezing events. The peak velocity directly influences the
 393 distance travelled by the particle cloud, while the duration of the violent expiratory event
 394 does not affect either the distance or the shape of the particle cloud.

395

396 Flow visualizations revealed a vortex ring detaching upwards from the turbulent particle
 397 cloud in cases in which the nostrils were closed. This vortex ring structure was consistent
 398 across all flows, shedding approximately 10 cm from the mouth. The presence of the
 399 vortex ring is significant because it transports particles upwards, increasing the
 400 dispersion of potentially of pathogen-laden aerosols.

401

402 The theoretical model proposed by Pallares and Fabregat²¹ with values of the
 403 entrainment coefficients measured in this study, accurately predicts the evolution of the
 404 tip of the particle cloud. The angles measured with respect to the horizontal axis in the
 405 experiments complement the direction of the particle cloud. Additionally, an expression
 406 derived from the experimental measurements of the tip of the particle cloud is provided
 407 to predict its evolution over time.

408

409 Real-world variables such as temperature and humidity have not been considered due
 410 to the limitations of our experimental setup. Although the temperature at the time
 411 studied does not have influence the evolution of the particle cloud, further studies at
 412 longer times are needed considering these variables.

413

414 By studying the behavior of the turbulent particle cloud, we gain valuable insights into
 415 the spread and infection mechanisms of respiratory diseases. These findings provide
 416 valuable insights into the influence of nasal airflow on aerosol dispersion. The downward
 417 deflection caused by nasal exhalation may reduce the horizontal spread but increases

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418 the vertical dispersion, suggesting that masks designed to block both nasal and oral
 419 pathways may significantly curb airborne transmission. This knowledge can inform the
 420 design of ventilation strategies in enclosed spaces such as restaurants, classrooms,
 421 hospitals, and transportation, among others. Optimizing ventilation systems based on
 422 particle cloud dynamics has the potential to significantly reduce the risk of airborne
 423 disease transmission.

424

425 **Acknowledgments**

426

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431

432 **Author declarations**

433

434 The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

435

436 **Appendix I**

437

438 In this Appendix we summarize the model proposed Abani and Reitz²⁷ to predict the time
 439 evolution of the axial position of the tip of a new jet. The equivalent diameter, d_{eq} , is
 440 defined as

441

$$442 \quad d_{eq} = d_{noz} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_l}{\rho_g}} \quad (11)$$

443

444 where $d_{noz} = 0.02 \text{ m}$ is the diameter of the nozzle where the flow is injected and ρ_l and
 445 ρ_g are the injected and surrounding fluid densities, respectively. In the isothermal case
 446 considered, $\rho_l = \rho_g$.

447

448 The velocity of the tip can be expressed as

449

$$450 \quad \frac{dx'}{dt} = \frac{3U_{inj,eff}(x',t)d_{eq}}{Kx'} \quad (12)$$

451

452 where x' is the position of the tip, $U_{inj,eff}(x',t)$ is the velocity of the jet tip, K is the
 453 entrainment coefficient. Ricout *et al.*²⁸ found that the values of K increase as the
 454 injection Reynolds number is reduced. Abani and Reitz²⁷ considered a constant value and
 455 assumed $K = 0.5$. On the other hand, Abraham²⁹ established typical values in the range
 456 $0.2 \leq K \leq 0.457$. Lastly, Pallares and Fabregat²¹ fixed an entrainment coefficient $K =$
 457 0.24 for the flow conditions corresponding to a mild cough. The integration of Equation
 458 12 needs the definition of the initial position of the tip x'_0 . According to Abani and Reitz²⁷
 459 is defined as

460

$$461 \quad x'_0 = \frac{3d_{eq}}{K} \quad (13)$$

462

463 The time evolution of the effective injection velocity, $U_{inj,eff}(x',t)$, can be computed as,

464

$$465 \quad U_{inj,eff}(x',t) = U_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n A(x',t-t_k)(\Delta U)_k \quad (14)$$

$$466 \quad A(x',t-t_k) = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{(t-t_k)}{\tau_{v,k}}\right) \quad (15)$$

$$467 \quad \tau_{v,k} = St \frac{x'}{U_k} \quad (16)$$

468

469 where U_0 is the initial injection velocity, t is the current time, t_k is the previous time,
 470 $(\Delta U)_k = (U_k - U_{k-1})$ where U_k is the velocity injected at the nozzle, St is the Strouhal
 471 number. Abani and Reitz²⁷ considered a $St = 3$ because it was found to agree with
 472 results obtained from different injection profiles investigated in their study.

473

474 **Appendix II**

475

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476 The parameters controlling the experimental setup are the set pressure in the
477 pressurized tank and the angle of the ball valve. These variables influence the shape of
478 the flow rate curve and the time duration, as shown in Figure 3 and summarized in Table
479 I. To characterize the coughs and sneezes simulator, two pressures $P_1 = 200 \text{ hPa}$ and
480 $P_2 = 250 \text{ hPa}$, and six angles of the ball valve, $\theta = \{42^\circ, 45^\circ, 48^\circ, 50^\circ, 53^\circ, 58^\circ\}$, were
481 studied. These angles correspond to the degree of opening of the ball valve.

482

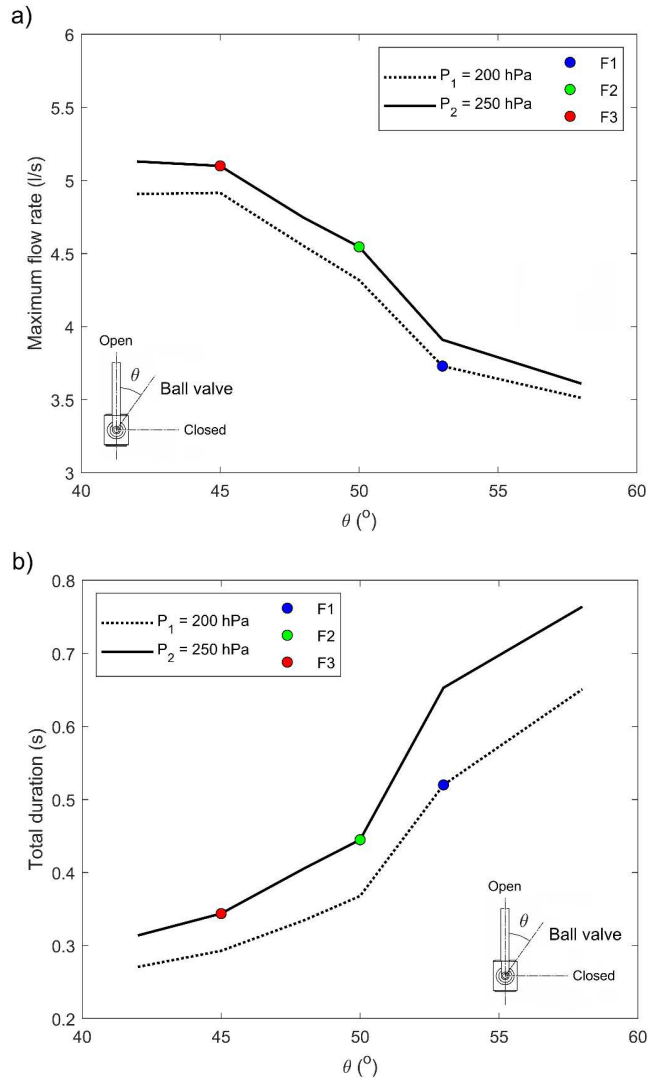
483 Figure II1 shows the evolution of peak flow rate (panel a) and total duration (panel b) as
484 a function of the ball valve angle. It has been observed that the maximum flow rate
485 decreases non-linearly as the angle of the ball valve increases (Figure II1 (a)). Conversely,
486 the duration of the expiratory events follows a similar trends, showing a positive slope as
487 illustrated in Figure II1 (b). These relationships correspond directly to the values plotted
488 in Figure 3 and summarized in Table I.

489

490 The selection of the three flow rates were based on a combination of two variables: the
491 set pressure in the pressurized tank, $P_1 = 200 \text{ hPa}$ and $P_2 = 250 \text{ hPa}$, and the ball
492 valve angle, $\theta_1 = 45^\circ$, $\theta_2 = 50^\circ$, and $\theta_3 = 53^\circ$. Flow rate F1 corresponds to $P_1\theta_3$, flow
493 rate F2 to $P_2\theta_2$, and flow rate F3 to $P_2\theta_1$. For instance, flow rate F3 reached the
494 maximum flow rate in the shortest time due to the combination of the higher pressure
495 and the most open valve position.

496

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497

498 Figure II.1. Relationship between the set pressure and ball valve angle. Panel (a) shows the evolution of the peak flow

499 rate, while panel (b) illustrates the total duration of the expiratory event as a function of various ball valve angles.

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