Chapter

The Role of Architecture and Urbanism in Preventing Pandemics

Bogdan Andrei Fezi

Abstract

This chapter aims to assess the historical role of architecture and urbanism in the prevention and mitigation of pandemics and the place it may occupy in future international strategies. During COVID-19, the contemporary healthcare system response to pandemics showed its limits. There must be investigated a more interdisciplinary answer in which the role of the built environment in the One Health should be clarified. Since the 19th century, the built environment traditionally occupied a decisive role in mitigating pandemics. The war against tuberculosis led to the Hygiene movement which set the principles of the Modernist architectural and urban movement. With the discovery of antibiotics, the medicine emancipated from architecture. In the absence of health implications, the social and environmental counterreactions to the Modernist movement led to the Green Architecture, New Urbanism or Urban Village movements. After the last decades warnings about future pandemics, some of the present COVID-19 scientific findings have notable impact on the built environment design: pollution, green areas, urban population density or air quality control. Finally, the chapter analyses architectural and urban measures for preventing and mitigating future pandemics: air control, residential approaches, public spaces, green areas design, working, transportation and mixed neighborhoods.

Keywords: architecture, urbanism, green buildings, built environment, pandemics, health, environment, ecology, COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2

1. Introduction

This chapter aims to reveal the role of architecture and urbanism in the prevention and mitigation of pandemics. Although since the 19th century the built environment traditionally had a decisive role in mitigating pandemics, such as tuberculosis, the emancipation of medicine, after the discovery of antibiotics, gradually excluded architecture and urbanism from the strategies against pandemics. In the context of COVID-19, there are relevant reasons for an interdisciplinary scientific approach of pandemics including the built environment and for a reevaluation of the future international strategies.
2. The limits of the contemporary healthcare system response to pandemics

In the second half of the 20th century, a complex set of measures was set in place that successfully fought against pandemics. Pharmaceutical interventions brought substances such as antibiotic drugs against tuberculosis or such as vaccine products against influenzas. In 1997, International Coordination Group (ICG) was established by the World Health Organization (WHO) “to manage and coordinate the provision of emergency vaccine supplies and antibiotics to countries [1]”. Unfortunately, although existing influenza vaccines are among the most effective protections and strategic stockpiles for several influenza types are gathered, they are ineffective against new strains. Developing and distributing a new vaccine takes several months, delaying the pharmaceutical response. As for antibiotics, WHO started, since the 1990s, to strengthen the surveillance of the drug resistance for the tuberculosis.

Lack of pharmaceutical means, non-pharmaceutical interventions “should be put in place, at the early stage of a pandemic [1]”. The foreseen interventions included hygiene, social distancing, using facemasks and schools’ closures. The non-pharmaceutical interventions were established as part of the international response interventions: anticipation, early detection, containment, control and mitigation as well as elimination or eradication. These measures were regulated, since 1969, by the International Health Regulations that aimed to “prevent, protect against, control and respond to the international spread of disease”. Events that might have international consequences were supposed to be promptly reported by the states to WHO for assessment.

The COVID-19 pandemic showed the limits of the existing healthcare system strategies. By the end of 2020, lack of adequate response, the pandemic led to a dramatic health impact, with more than 1.5 million deaths by December 2020 [1], to a huge social disruption and an economic result that brought to the biggest global recession since the 1930s Great Depression.

Without an effective treatment for COVID-19, governments adopted the 19th century traditional measures concerning people and the built environment. The 2020 approach was contrary to the WHO politics of 2018, which stated that “many traditional containment measures are no longer efficient” and that “measures such as quarantine, for example, once regarded as a matter of fact, would be unacceptable to many populations today [1]”. People oriented measures in 2020 addressed individuals, like hygiene or wearing face masks, or were related to contacts with people, like the social distancing (or physical distancing), curfew, isolation, quarantine and confinement (lockdown). Building oriented measures were also adopted by interior air control through ventilation.

The COVID-19 pandemic brought into attention other non-pharmaceutical methods that may prevent or mitigate the effects of pandemics. One of the directions concerns the environmental approaches. As for the role of the built environment in fighting against pandemics, scientific studies undergone during 2020 concerning pollution, urban heat islands, land use, green areas, urban density and interior air quality suggest that the buildings and the built environment may play a decisive role in the international strategies against future pandemics.

3. The One Health system response to pandemics and the role of the built environment

In the 1980s, after increased outbreaks of zoonoses, human healthcare system became aware of the benefits in approaching human and animal diseases together
with the unifying concept of One Medicine [2]. In the 1990s, due to the alteration of the ecosystems which led to new ways of diseases spread, the role of the environment in human health became relevant [3]. During the decade of the 2000s, the unification was extended to the humans, animals and environment resulting the One Health system in the 2000’s [4, 5]. A broader spectrum of professions was brought together, gathering veterinarians, ecologists, economists, sociologists or wildlife managers.

The 2010 decade brought an increased awareness of the urbanization risks for pandemics. The approaches were quantitative and focused on the overlapping of habitats, the heat that provide high-risk habitats for animals and the high density of people. As for the building health, there is also consistent literature about its role in supporting physical, social or psychological health. One of the key aspects is the indoor environmental quality, focused on the air quality.

Despite these advances in understanding the role of the built environment in human health, by the end of 2020 the was still not international strategy that included buildings and the built environment in the fighting against pandemics.

4. The historical role of the built environment in pandemics before the advent of antibiotics

Until the arrival of antibiotics in the middle of the 20th century, the main historical methods against bacterial pandemics were limiting the contacts between individuals through isolation, quarantine and confinement (lockdown) and, from the 19th century, the architectural and urban measures concerning air quality and sunlight.

In the case of leprosy, containment led to the appearance of the first dedicated architectural program, the leprosarium. The measure was common in Medieval Europe [6], although “less uniform and prescriptive [7]”.

Plagues were the deadliest pandemics. The 1346–1353 Black Death supposedly killed up to half of Europe’s population [8]. They pushed to a diversification of measures aiming the limitation of contacts between individuals, such as isolation, quarantine, confinement, the use of plague mask and the introduction of the medical passport. They also led to dedicated constructions, such as the 27 km long, six feet tall, Plague Wall in the French Vaucluse mountains traced in 1721 [9, 10]. Since the 19th century, plagues impact diminished.

The tuberculosis, “the white plague”, took the relay, with a peak mortality rate in Western Europe in 1800 [11]. Tuberculosis deaths counts for 45% between 1790 and 1796 in Bristol, 33.2% of deaths between 1751 and 1778 in Marseille [12] and for 25% of death between 1810 and 1815 in New York City [13]. In 1900, it remained the third cause of mortality after cardiovascular diseases and influenza–pneumonia in the US [14].

In France, the backbone of the fight against tuberculosis was the Hygiene movement in which public health was supposed to scientifically guide political decisions, architecture and urbanism. The movement started in the 1820s, continued with the creation of the Hygiene Commissions (1848) and of the Commission for Unhealthy Housing (1950) [15] and reached its peak in the urban renewal during the Haussmann period as Seine (Paris) prefect (1853–1870). The French capital applied the hygiene reform at the largest scale ever seen: sewage, wastewater treatment, waste removal, air circulation inside and between buildings, sunlight.

Hygiene movement derived principles definitively marked architecture and urbanism. The sunlight that kills bacteria imposed the sanatoriums as general architectural models, with vast windows stretching from one side to the other of the
room and terraces for sun baths. Sunlight and ventilation at the 45th parallel north are the reason for imposing distances in between buildings greater than the building height.

At the turn of the 20th century emerged the British Garden City movement, started with the Ebenezer Howard’s 1898 book, republished in 1902 as Garden Cities of To-morrow. In Germany and Switzerland appeared the Lebensreform (Life Reform) movement.

The turn of the 20th century brought the first International Congresses on Tuberculosis: Berlin (1899), London (1901), Paris (1905). The First International Congress for Sanitation and Housing Health Safety was held in Paris (1904). The congress report correlates population density and health. The European research of the French dr. Samuel Bernheim concludes that “The tuberculosis mortality is proportional to the housing density; the danger of infection is all the greater when the residents are more cramped in their housings [15].”

The hygiene measures led to a decline of tuberculosis and, at the turn of the 20th century, mortality was reduced at half in Paris between 1872–1900 and 1901–1925 periods [12].

The 19th century Hygiene movement marked the Interwar modernist architecture. Architect’s Le Corbusier Five Points of a New Architecture are derived from Hygiene movement theories. The house on pilotis, reinforced concrete columns raising the house from the ground, allows aeration. The roof garden is inspired by the sanatorium sunbath terraces. The free plan allows the liberation from being the “slave of the load-bearing walls”. The horizontal window, “essential goal of the house”, which “runs from one end to the other of the façade” is directly taken from the 19th century recommendations. The free façade in front of the columns is a “lightweight membrane made of isolating walls or windows”. Modernist urbanism is synthesized by the Le Corbusier architect book Athens Charter (1933) and the Josep Lluís Sert architect Can our cities survive? (1942). Hygiene movement principles were employed, emphasizing lighting and sunlight, light-oriented buildings and air circulation inside and between buildings.

One year later, in 1943, the discovery of the streptomycin antibiotic brought the first effective treatment for tuberculosis. The health strategies against bacterial pandemics no longer needed the support of architecture and urbanism.

5. Architecture and urbanism after the emancipation of medicine

As human health ceased to be an architectural and urban issue, Modernist movement, that promoted air, sun and light, was judged by social and environmental concerns determined by the functional segregation and the automobile-based traffic. In 1972 was symbolically declared the death of the modernist movement with the demolition of a 1955 modernist US housing planned according to the principles of Le Corbusier [16].

The environmental counterreaction appeared in the late 1960s with the green architecture, as a reaction to the suburban sprawl and to the energy crisis. Different approaches are green city, sustainable city, eco city, zero & low carbon cities, zero energy city, livable city, compact city, smart city or resilient city. They concern pollution, carbon emission, energy, water, waste management and recycling, green-space ratios, forests and agricultural land loss.

The counterreaction to the social environment led in the US to the New Urbanism movement, in the 1980s. It emphasized mixed-use neighborhood and encouraged walking and bicycle transportation [17]. At the same time emerged in Europe the Urban Village movement that also promotes mixed use zoning aiming
The Role of Architecture and Urbanism in Preventing Pandemics
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.98294

for partial self-containment by combining working, leisure and living, leads to medium-density housing, encourages walking and bicycling as well as public space encounters.

6. Health engaged architecture and urbanism certifications

At the end of the 20th century were introduced building certification systems. At the architectural level, green building certifications of the 1990s concerned health issues, such as the 1990 Building Research Establishment’s Environmental Assessment Method (BREEAM) and the 1993 Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED). They relate to indoor air quality, ventilation, interior lighting and daylight, thermal comfort, acoustic performance and the quality of views.

More health-oriented certifications started in the 2010s with the 2012 Fitwel, a joint initiative led by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and General Services Administration (GSA), or WELL Building Standard from the International WELL Building Institute, launched in 2014.

At the urban scale, healthy cities topics are only generally addressed by initiatives such as the WHO European Healthy Cities Network or the Urban Low Emissions Development Strategy (Urban LEDS). As for the LEED for Neighborhood Development, it repeatedly addressed health as a main issue: preferred location within existing cities to avoid the health consequences of sprawl, reduced motor vehicle use to reduce pollution, promote bicycling, walkable streets “to improve public health”, compact development, access to public space and connected community “to improve public health”, access to recreation facilities to “improve public health by providing recreational facilities close to work and home”, neighborhood schools “to improve students’ health by encouraging walking and bicycling to school [18]”.

7. The last decades warnings about future pandemics

According to a 2008 Nature paper, emerging infectious diseases, dominated by zoonoses, “are increasing significantly over time”, with “the emergence of 335 infectious diseases between 1940 and 2004” and “reflecting a large number of drug-resistant microbes [19]”. The most commonly cited reasons for this increase are the environmental issues, such as overlapping of habitats due to the agricultural intrusion in the ecosystems [20–22] or the global warming [23, 24] and urban heat islands [25, 26].

During the last decades, there was such concern about the zoonotic diseases impact that the COVID-19 pandemic seems the precise illustration: “Virtually every expert on influenza believes another pandemic is nearly inevitable, that it will kill millions of people, and that it could kill tens of millions—and a virus like 1918, or H5N1, might kill a hundred million or more—and that it could cause economic and social disruption on a massive scale. This disruption itself could kill as well. Given those facts, every laboratory investigator and every public health official involved with the disease has two tasks: first, to do his or her work, and second, to make political leaders aware of the risk. The preparedness effort needs resources. Only the political process can allocate them [27].”

In the 2016 United Nations Environment Programme report about the “Emerging Issues of Environmental Concern”, zoonosis arrived second out of the six issues [28]. In 2018, WHO estimated that “another influenza pandemic is inevitable but unpredictable [1]".
8. COVID-19 scientific findings with impact on the built environment design

The inevitable came with the COVID-19 pandemic. It led to an important allocation of resources in scientifically addressing the pandemic. Although the most notorious studies concern vaccines and antivirals, other research directions regard non-pharmaceutical measures aimed to prevent or mitigate pandemics. As in the 19th century, the implementation of some of these findings needs a dedicated built environment approach.

8.1 Pollution

Air pollution was already subject to studies that proved the effects on human health, such as respiratory diseases or lung cancer [29]. The correlation between road traffic, pollution and health has been associated with heart disease mortality [30].

Studies undergone in 2020 almost unanimously found that the relationship between air pollution and the COVID-19 led to a “large increase [31]” in the US, clear increases in the Netherlands [32], to a “significant relationship [33]” in China, “aggravating [34]” in a study on nine cities form India, China, Pakistan, and Indonesia and “increase vulnerability [35]” or positively associated with higher fatality rates [36] in Italy.

8.2 Green areas

Pre-pandemic studies already concluded not only that “the percentage of green space in people’s living environment has a positive association with the perceived general health [37]” but also “consistent negative association between urban green space exposure and mortality, heart rate, and violence, and positive association with attention, mood, and physical activity [38]”.

In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, studies interpreted the distribution of green areas as part of the environment role on the infection’s risks [39]. Green spaces are also interpreted as a barometer for health inequity [39]. The green spaces help regulate the heat islands [40], generally considered as a zoonotic pandemic aggravating factor. There are studies that show how suburban forest fragmentation led to increased human disease risk.

8.3 Urban population density

Studies carried over time aimed to determine the correlation between population density and pandemics. For the 1918 Spanish flu, in England and Wales, research found “30–40% higher rates in cities and towns compared with rural areas” but “no association between transmissibility, death rates and indicators of population density and residential crowding [41]”. A research on India stretches that districts with a lower density experienced lower rates of population loss [42]. A US research revealed “the positive correlation between population density and influenza mortalities [43]” although another paper finds no significant correlation between population density and transmissibility measured by the reproductive number (R) [44]. As for Japan, a paper concluded that “lower morbidity in the towns and cities is likely explained by effective preventive measures in urban areas [45].”

Other researchers investigated the correlation between population density and epidemics of tuberculosis or avian flu [46–49]. Paper also discussed on the impact of urban form and land use on the transmission of vector-borne viruses [50].
During the COVID-19 pandemic, most of the researches consider increased population density as a health risk. Papers in Japan concluded that “the correlations between the morbidity and mortality rates and population density were statistically significant [51]” or “the population density was shown to be a major factor [52]”. In India, there was a “moderate association between Covid-19 spread and population density [53]”. In Algeria, “there is a strong correlation [54]”. In Turkey, “population density mediated the effect of wind speed (9%) on the number of COVID-19 cases [55]”. US studies show contradictory results which must be further analyzed through different criteria. A paper concludes that “counties with greater population density have greater rates of transmission [56]“. Some concluded that denser locations more likely to have an early outbreak but did not found evidence that linked the population density to the COVID-19 cases and deaths [57]. Another study pointed that “county density leads to significantly lower infection rates and lower death rates […] possibly due to superior health care systems [58]”.

Those conclusions must be correlated with studies that include income, education or health care systems [36, 59]. A study involving more variables was realized in Italy, showing that population density was not statistically significant but, instead, car and firm density were positively associated with higher fatality rates [36].

These researches are limited though by the ability of collecting geolocation data. In the US and in the EU, gathering spatial data about people movements was neither intended by the governments nor embraced by citizens’ free participation [60].

8.4 Air control

Respiratory route transmitted diseases can spread either by droplets or by aerosols (suspensions in air of finer particles). By 2020, “virtually all infectious disease dynamics models on influenza have thus far ignored aerosol-transmission [61]”.

Research conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic showed that aerosols could be one of the most dangerous way of transmission in the interior spaces. A paper concluded that “virus could be detected in aerosols up to 3 hours post aerosolization [61]”. The badly ventilated rooms present the highest risk as an article on a Wuhan Hospital shows that the highest virus concentration was found in the toilets [62].

A 2020 research shows that 3 air changes per hour, which is common in most countries legislation, “generated reductions in expected outbreak sizes that would normally only be possible with a substantial vaccination coverage of 50–60%, which is within the range of observed vaccination rates in school settings [63]”.

Studies show also that recirculating the air without proper filtration presents a potential risk. According to the study of a closed restaurant in Guangzhou, published on 2 April 2020, “droplet transmission was prompted by air-conditioned ventilation” and therefore the virus might have traveled through the central HVAC system [64]. The finding was confirmed by the April 2020 statement of the American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers (ASHARE) that “infectious aerosols can be disseminated through buildings by pathways that include air distribution systems and interzone airflows [65]”.

9. Architectural and urban measures in mitigating pandemics

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the established principles were opposed to contrary solutions:
• the need for creating public spaces for encounters was replaced by social distancing

• the dense city paradigm, as opposed to the urban sprawl, posed virus transmission problems

• encouraging public transport was replaced by the individual transportation.

Based on the scientific findings during the COVID-19 pandemic and based on previous experiences, architecture and urbanism can provide solution with the design of the buildings and of the built environment:

• interior spaces: air quality

• residential: middle density and the intermediate housing

• public spaces: the key for the social interaction

• green areas: a perennial goal

• working: downsizing and dispersion

• shopping: proximity and downscaling

• transportation: walking, bicycling, shared mobility and robo-taxies

• city scale: mixed use neighborhoods

9.1 Interior spaces: air quality

In the interior spaces, the virus transmission can be reduced by air control through ventilation, humidifying and filtering.

A 2020 research shows that 3 air changes per hour, which is common in most countries legislation, “generated reductions in expected outbreak sizes that would normally only be possible with a substantial vaccination coverage of 50–60%, which is within the range of observed vaccination rates in school settings [63]”.

As for filtering, pre-pandemic experiments have been conducted since 1968 on the efficiency of HEPA filters that “showed an average reduction of 99.996% [66]” or in which “aerosol transmission of PRRSV occurred in 0 of the 10 HEPA-filtration replicates [67]”. During COVID-19 pandemic, HEPA filters were recommended in hospitals for air filtering in operating rooms or in the breathing circuit [68, 69]. Some papers recommend HEPA for filtering the recirculating air in closed rooms or vehicles [70, 71], although certain studies are reserved concerning the HEPA filters capacity of filtering submicron size particles [70].

Humidifying could play an important role as long as a 2013 research concluded that “maintaining indoor relative humidity >40% will significantly reduce the infectivity of aerosolized virus [72]”.

As in the 19th century, air control becomes a key measure in mitigating pandemics in 2020.
9.2 Residential: middle density and the intermediate housing

There seems to be a conflict between epidemiologic studies that suggest a lower people density and the environmental approach that recommends the increasing of the built density. The urban sprawl is considered to increase pollution, to cause the loss of a sense of community [73], global warming [74], higher transportation costs and create health effects due to the dependence on automobiles [75]. It is addressed by professional organizations such as Architects’ Council of Europe, the American Institute of Architects and the American Planning Association, by agencies such as European Environment Agency or by national legislation, such as the French law for Solidarity and Urban Renewal.

On the other hand, lowering the people density is not only implied by studies carried over time that correlate population density and pandemics but also the public preference. Pre-pandemic surveys showed that 76% of French [76] and 80% of US Americans [77] would choose to live in single-family houses. The COVID-19 pandemic increased this desire. Teleworking and the reduced access to shops, “led to a reduced demand for housing in neighborhoods with high population density”, trend which strengthen after the market recovery in June 2020 [78].

The solution to reconcile the dense city environmental paradigm with the low density of population suggested by epidemiologic studies can only find the answer in architecture and urbanism. For most epidemiological approaches, people density is a figure in a quantitative approach while for architecture and urbanism there is also a shape-related morphological and typological building approach. Urban approach also considers different densities, such as population density (related to inhabitant’s number), residential density (related to number of housings) or built density (related to gross floor area). Moreover, the same people density can be achieved with different urban typologies, such as parallel buildings, courtyard or scattered. Architectural approach also takes into account building morphology. The same people density can be achieved under different morphologies, such as detached houses, row houses or blocks. Therefore, addressing population density as a figure is not enough for analyzing the complexity of the built environment.

A more detailed approach should also be based on studies carried over the virus transmission in the interior spaces. Small, confined and poorly ventilated spaces, such as stairs or elevators, must be carefully planned as they are the most susceptible for aerosol contamination [79].

Medium density environments are the mostly supposed to reach this goal. Both New Urbanism and Urban village movements promote medium density housing. There are urban and architectural approaches that stay in between the single family detached house and the block paradigm. The French Intermediate Housing concept addresses buildings with more than one superposed apartments and with private access to each apartments. The definition appears in a French 1973 decree: the social intermediate housing (habitat social intermédiaire) is supposed to have a private access, a private exterior space of one quarter of the apartment surface and a height of no more than three floors. The organization led to densities of 80 to 100 dwellings per hectare for intermediate housing compared to the 10–50 dwellings per hectare for dense single-family houses [80].

9.3 Public spaces: the key for the social interaction

One of the problems the COVID-19 pandemic created was the social disruption. The public space was put under scrutiny [81]. In this matter, exterior public spaces...
could play a key role. The COVID-19 droplets transmission occurs up to 6 feet (2 meters). According to Edward T. Hall’s proxemics theories, the social distance far phase is in between 7 and 12 ft. (2.1–3.7 m) and the public distance is in between 12 and 25 ft. (3.7–7.6 m) for the close phase and more than 25 ft. (7.6 m) for the far phase. Therefore, far social and public contacts could be achieved in exterior spaces without transmission risks.

According to Jan Gehl’s theories, social contacts in public spaces are among the most important. They have the characteristic of being spontaneous because people interact as a result of necessary or optional activities. The space in between the buildings is ideal for conversation, greetings, children playing: “life between buildings as dimension of architecture, urban design and city planning to be carefully treated [82]”.

9.4 Green areas: a perennial goal

As recent scientific studies show, green areas can improve the response to pandemics. They were already present in the 1900s urban theories and they maintain their permanent importance.

9.5 Working: downsizing and dispersion

Architectural measures can be taken in the case of office buildings. Some approaches concern general building measures, such as air control by ventilation filtration and humidification. Other methods should lean on morphologic changes that consider access separation and office space distribution.

There is also question of the offices size and their urban distribution. During the COVID-19 pandemic, an Italian multicriterial research concluded that firm density, based on an over 250 employees firm index for each region, was positively associated with higher fatality rates [36].

The COVID-19 pandemic also accelerated the use of telecommuting (teleworking or working from home). In 2019, 5.5% of workers in the US already worked from home [83] and, in April 2020, already 20% of Americans were able to work from home and doing so [84]. Estimations from 2020 are that “37 percent of U.S. jobs that can plausibly be performed at home account for 46 percent of all wages [85]”. Telecommuting has an indirect environment impact by reducing the greenhouse emissions, fuel and energy usage and network congestion [86, 87].

9.6 Shopping: proximity and downscaling

Apart air quality methods, different measures can be taken for shops. Reducing the size cold lead to a better ventilation and less potential contacts. Proximity shopping is also an environmental desideratum as it allows for less automobile transportation, lead to pedestrian cities, reduced pollution, less energy consumption and less environmental impacts. Recent study shows that “to achieve a balance between energy consumption, GHG [Greenhouse Gas] emissions and energy generation potential, a neighborhood should contain an optimal ratio of commercial to residential buildings of about 0.25 [88].”

The proximity and downscaling decision have long term social and environment motivations more than short term economic reasons. An example are hypermarkets, huge stores combing supermarkets to department stores. It is symptomatic how France, the country that first implemented hypermarkets with Carrefour, in 1963, prevented their implantation in cities ten years later, by the Royer law which regulated the creation of shops over 1500 m² inside towns.
9.7 Transportation: walking, bicycling, shared mobility and robo-taxis

Before the pandemic there was already very strong evidence of aerosol transmission over long distances [89]. Studies during 2020 showed substantial transmission in closed vehicles and suggest “future efforts at prevention and control must consider the potential for airborne spread of SARS-CoV-2, which is a highly transmissible pathogen in closed environments with air recirculation [90]”. At the beginning of 2020, studies drew a warning about public transportation showing that, for New York City, the subway system was the major disseminator of COVID-19 [91].

To keep the present transportation system there could be applied methods that reduce the viral transmission. Airborne virus spread in public transport can be reduced by installing HEPA filters and surface disinfection can be done by UV disinfection.

There is also question of changing the current transportation paradigm. Changes that may reduce the virus transmission in the transportation system already begun before the COVID-19 pandemic. Cities designed at the scale of walking or bicycle distances were proposed by the 1900s Garden City movement, the 1970s Intermediate Housing or 1980s New Urbanism and Urban Village movements. Mobility sharing with bicycles can increase the efficiency of an urban public transport network [92] and has health benefits [93]. Starting with the white bicycle and white path proposed by the Provo movement in Amsterdam, in 1965, the Vélib’ in Paris, launched in 2007 and reached the Chinese bike sharing system where the two largest operators, Ofo, launched in 2014, and Mobikke 2015, totalize over 50 million orders per day [94]. Electric car sharing, on which UV disinfection could be applied, could be a pandemic and environmental solution too. It has a positive environmental approach by “reducing 29% of CO2 emissions and increasing 36% electric vehicle adoption, when compared to the business-as-usual scenario [95]”. Along with UV disinfection, robo-taxis (robo-cabs, self-driving taxis or driverless taxis) could be used. Experiment in Beijing with electric robo-taxis showed a good impact in lower energy consumption, zero tailpipe emissions, traffic decongestion and reduced health risks [96] while simulation in Milan “propose that introducing a robo-taxi fleet of 9500 vehicles, centered around mid-size 6 seaters, can solve traffic congestion and emission problems in Milan [97]”.

From the larger urban point of view, transportation is influenced not only by the means of transport but also by the overall cities’ organization.

9.8 City scale: mixed use neighborhoods

Reducing transportation while maintaining social contacts and the access to urban facilities is a key aspect in preventing and mitigating pandemics. Research done during the 2020 pandemic suggest that “connectivity matters more than density in the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic [98]”. The risks are represented by commuting, tourists and businesspeople. Studies emerged during pandemic concern health inequities derived from the urban development [99].

This desideratum can be reached by designing mixed use neighborhoods that could concentrate transportation on walking and bicycling. These neighborhoods are likely to lead to a medium density environments [100]. They should combine living with working, leisure, education and public space encounters.

The concept is not new, as it is already present in Ebenezer Howard’s Garden City with self-contained mixed-use new towns and socially mixed population. It is also relevant for the US 1980s New Urbanism or for the European Urban Village.
10. Opportunities

There is a consistent scientific literature about the opportunities highlighted by COVID-19 pandemic in different domains. There is also an expressed confidence that “architecture and urbanism after the COVID-19 epidemic will never be the same [101]”. Some built environment related trends may be accelerated by the pandemic:

- the recognition of the role of environmental impacts on zoonosis, such as deforestation and destroying natural habitats
- an increased awareness of the public space importance
- the architectural research on new medium density typologies
- the acceleration of promoting mixed-use neighborhood and encouraging walking and bicycle transportation
- accelerate advancements in transportation such as shared mobility and robo-taxis.

11. Conclusion

Healthcare shape our cities and vice versa. Although fighting against pandemics was traditionally associated with the built environment, the 20th century pharmaceutical progress allowed medicine to emancipate from architecture and urbanism. As WHO stated in 2018, “Will history repeat itself? The answer must be: Yes, it will [1].” Last decades evolutions which culminated with the COVID-19 pandemic stretched the role of a new interdisciplinary strategy in both combating and mitigating future outbursts.

There is an important COVID-19 scientific literature concerning pollution, green areas role, urban population density or air control that can be addressed mainly through built environment measures. These measures include air control, residential measures, public spaces, green areas design, working, transportation and mixed neighborhoods.

The COVID-19 pandemic dramatic implications can be also perceived as an opportunity for setting up a more stable health and built environment systems. Scientific evidence is not enough and it should be doubled by public awareness and by political implication. Otherwise, it may end like The Great Illusion, the 1910 book of the Nobel Prize winner Sir Norman Angell, which, although scientifically proved that economic interconnection among nations made future wars illogical and counterproductive, was followed by two World Wars.
References

[1] World Health Organization. WHO Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) Dashboard, retrieved from https://covid19.who.int/table, accessed on December 11, 2020

[2] Schwabe CW. Veterinary medicine and human health. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1984

[3] Rapport, D., Böhm, G., Buckingham, D., Cairns, J., Jr., Costanza, R., Karr, J., De Kruijf, H., Levins, R., McMichael, A., Nielsen, N. and Whitford, W. (1999), Ecosystem Health: The Concept, the ISEH, and the Important Tasks Ahead. Ecosystem Health, 5: 82-90. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1526-0992.1999.09913.x

[4] Osofsky SA, Cleaveland S, Karesh WB, et al. Conservation and development interventions at the wildlife/livestock interface: implications for wildlife, livestock and human health. IUCN. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: the World Conservation Union IUCN, 2005

[5] Wildlife Conservation Society, One World, One Health symposium. September 29, 2004. Retrieved from www.oneworldonehealth.org, accessed on December 1, 2020

[6] Touati, François-Olivier. Maladie et société au Moyen Âge: la lèpre, les lépreux et les léproseries dans la province ecclésiastique de Sens jusqu’au milieu du xive siècle, Paris; Bruxelles: De Boeck université, 1998

[7] Carole Rawcliffe. Leprosy in Medieval England. Woodbridge, U.K.: Boydell Press, 2006, p. 7

[8] Hatcher J, The Black Death: an intimate history. London: Weidenfeld & Nicolson, 2010

[9] Lassure C, Larcena D et al., La Muraille de la Peste, Les Alpes de Lumière, No 114, September 1993. First published in L’Architecture vernaculaire, tome 17, 1993. Retrieved from http://www.pierreseche.com/recension_4.html on December, 11, 2020.

[10] Duranty. La peste de 1720 à Marseille et en France: d’après des documents inédits... /Paul Gaffarel et Mis de Duranty. Paris, 1911

[11] Murray J. A Century of Tuberculosis, Am J Respir Crit Care Med Vol 169. pp 1181-1186, 2004, DOI: 10.1164/rccm.200402-140OE

[12] Bello S. La mortalité par tuberculose en France du XVI e au XX e siècle: approche paléoépidémiologique, Médecine Maladies Infectieuses 2000; 30: 275-2783

[13] Holmberg SD. The rise of tuberculosis in America before 1820. American Review of Respiratory Disease, 1990, Volume 142, Issue 5. https://doi.org/10.1164/ajrccm/142.5.1228

[14] U.S. Bureau of the Census. Historical statistics of the United States: colonial times to 1970. Bicentennial edition, Parts 1 and 2. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975, p. 6.

[15] Marié-Davy F. (1905). Premier Congrès international d’assainissement et de salubrité de l’habitation [de 1904] : Compte rendu, p. 19-20

[16] Jenks C. The Language of Post Modern Architecture, New York: Rizzoli, 1977

[17] Congress for the New Urbanism, Charter of the New Urbanism, https://www.cnu.org/resources/what-new-urbanism, retrieved on 05.20.2020.

[18] LEED (2018), LEED v4 for NEIGHBORHOOD DEVELOPMENT, July 2, 2018
[19] Jones, K., Patel, N., Levy, M. et al. (2008) Global trends in emerging infectious diseases. Nature 451, 990-993 (2008). https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06536

[20] Jones, B.A., Grace, D., Kock, R., Alonso, S., Rushton, J., Said, M.Y., McKeever, D., Mutua, F., Young, J., McDermott, J. and Pfeiffer, D.U. (2013). Zoonosis emergence linked to agricultural intensification and environmental change. Proceedings of the National Academy of Science, 110(21), 8399-8404. http://www.pnas.org/content/110/21/8399.full.pdf

[21] Allen, T., Murray, K.A., Zambrana-Torrelio, C. et al. (2017) Global hotspots and correlates of emerging zoonotic diseases. Nat Commun 8, 1124 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00923-8.

[22] IPBES (2020) Workshop Report on Biodiversity and Pandemics of the Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services. Daszak, P., das Neves, C., Amuasi, J., Hayman, D., Kuiken, T., Roche, B., Zambrana-Torrelio, C., Buss, P., Dundarova, H., Feferholtz, Y., Foldvari, G., Igbinosi, E., Junglen, S., Liu, Q., Suzan, G., Uhart, M., Wannous, C., Woolaston, K., Mosig Reidl, P., O’Brien, K., Pascual, U., Pfeiffer, D.U., IPBES secretariat, Bonn, Germany, DOI:10.5281/zenodo.4147317

[23] Naicker PR, The impact of climate change and other factors on zoonotic diseases, Archives of Clinical Microbiology, 2011, Vol. 2 No. 2-4, doi: 10.3823/226

[24] Grace D, Bett B, Lindahl J, Robinson T. (2015). Climate and livestock disease: assessing the vulnerability of agricultural systems to livestock pests under climate change scenarios. CCAFS Working Paper no. 116. Copenhagen, Denmark. CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS). Available online at: www.ccafs.cgiar.org

[25] Akhtar R., Gupta P.T., Srivastava A.K. (2016) Urbanization, Urban Heat Island Effects and Dengue Outbreak in Delhi. In: Akhtar R. (eds) Climate Change and Human Health Scenario in South and Southeast Asia. Advances in Asian Human-Environmental Research. Springer, Cham. http://doi-org-443.webvpn.fjmu.edu.cn/10.1007/978-3-319-23684-1_7

[26] Ooi, Eng. (2015). The re-emergence of dengue in China. BMC medicine. 13. 99. 10.1186/s12916-015-0345-0.

[27] Barry J. (2005), 1918 Revisited: Lessons and Suggestions for Further Inquiry, in Institute of Medicine (US) Forum on Microbial Threats; Knobler SL, Mack A, Mahmoud A, et al., editors. The Threat of Pandemic Influenza: Are We Ready? Workshop Summary. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US); 2005. 1, The Story of Influenza. Available from: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK22148/

[28] UNEP (2016). UNEP Frontiers 2016 Report: Emerging Issues of Environmental Concern. United Nations Environment Programme, Nairobi

[29] Kampa M, Castanas E. Human health effects of air pollution, Environmental Pollution, Volume 151, Issue 2, 2008, Pages 362-367, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2007.06.012.

[30] Wen Qi Gan, Hugh W. Davies, Mieke Koehoorn, Michael Brauer, Association of Long-term Exposure to Community Noise and Traffic-related Air Pollution With Coronary Heart Disease Mortality, American Journal of Epidemiology, Volume 175, Issue 9, 1 May 2012, Pages 898-906, https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwr424
[31] Wu, X., Nethery, R.C., Sabath, M.B., Braun, D. and Dominici, F., 2020. Air pollution and COVID-19 mortality in the United States: strengths and limitations of an ecological regression analysis. Science Advances 04 Nov 2020: Vol. 6, no. 45, eabd4049, DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.abd4049

[32] Cole, Matthew A. and Ozgen, Ceren and Strobl, Eric, Air Pollution Exposure and COVID-19. IZA Discussion Paper No. 13367, Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3628242

[33] Yongjian Zhu, Jingui Xie, Fengming Huang, Liqing Cao, Association between short-term exposure to air pollution and COVID-19 infection: Evidence from China, Science of The Total Environment, Volume 727, 2020, 138704, ISSN 0048-9697, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138704.

[34] Gupta, A., Bherwani, H., Gautam, S. et al. Air pollution aggravating COVID-19 lethality? Exploration in Asian cities using statistical models. Environ Dev Sustain (2020). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-020-00878-9

[35] Contini, Daniele. Costabile, Francesca. Does Air Pollution Influence COVID-19 Outbreaks? Atmosphere 2020, 11(4), 377; https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos11040377

[36] Gaetano Perone, The determinants of COVID-19 case fatality rate (CFR) in the Italian regions and provinces: An analysis of environmental, demographic, and healthcare factors, Science of The Total Environment, Volume 755, Part 1, 2021, 142523, ISSN 0048-9697, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.142523.

[37] Maas J, Verheij RA, Groenewegen PP, et al Green space, urbanity, and health: how strong is the relation? Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health 2006;60:587-592.

[38] Kondo, M.C.; Fluehr, J.M.; McKeon, T.; Branas, C.C. Urban Green Space and Its Impact on Human Health. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health 2018, 15, 445.

[39] Helen V. S. Cole, Isabelle Anguelovski, Francesc Baró, Melissa García-Lamarca, Panagiota Kotsila, Carmen Pérez del Pulgar, Galia Shokry & Margarita Triguero-Mas (2020) The COVID-19 pandemic: power and privilege, gentrification, and urban environmental justice in the global north, Cities & Health, DOI: 10.1080/23748834.2020.1785176

[40] Wood E, Harsant A, Dallimer M, Cronin de Chavez A, McEachan RRC and Hassall C (2018) Not All Green Space Is Created Equal: Biodiversity Predicts Psychological Restorative Benefits From Urban Green Space. Front. Psychol. 9:2320. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02320

[41] Chowell Gerardo, Bettencourt Luís M.A, Johnson Niall, Alonso Wladimir J and Viboud Cécile 2008The 1918-1919 influenza pandemic in England and Wales: spatial patterns in transmissibility and mortality impact Proc. R. Soc. B.275501-509. http://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2007 .1477

[42] Chandra, S., Kassens-Noor, E., Kuljanin, G. et al. A geographic analysis of population density thresholds in the influenza pandemic of 1918-19. Int J Health Geogr 12, 9 (2013). https://doi.org/10.1186/1476-072X-12-9

[43] Garrett, Thomas. (2007). Economic Effects of the 1918 Influenza Pandemic Implications for a Modern-day Pandemic. Working paper CA0721.

[44] Mills, C., Robins, J. & Lipsitch, M. Transmissibility of 1918 pandemic influenza. Nature 432, 904-906 (2004). https://doi.org/10.1038/nature03063

[45] H. Nishiura, G. Chowell. Rurality and pandemic influenza: geographic
heterogeneity in the risks of infection and death in Kanagawa Prefecture, Japan, from 1918-1919. The New Zealand Medical Journal 121(1284):18-27 (2008).

[46] Wallace, D. (1994), The resurgence of tuberculosis in New York City: a mixed hierarchical and spatially diffused epidemic. American Journal of Public Health, June 1994, Vol. 84, No. 6, p. 1000-1002.

[47] Wallace, D., & Wallace, R. (2008). Urban Systems during Disasters: Factors for Resilience. Ecology and Society, 13(1). www.jstor.org/stable/26267922, retrieved on 04.26.2020

[48] Diez-Roux A. V. (1998). Bringing context back into epidemiology: variables and fallacies in multilevel analysis. American Journal of Public Health, 88(2), 216-222. https://doi.org/10.2105/ajph.88.2.216

[49] Fan, Y., & Song, Y. (2009). Is sprawl associated with a widening urban-suburban mortality gap?. Journal of urban health : bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine, 86(5), 708-728. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11524-009-9382-3

[50] Ruiz, M.O., Walker, E.D., Foster, E.S. et al. Association of West Nile virus illness and urban landscapes in Chicago and Detroit. Int J Health Geogr 6, 10 (2007). https://doi.org/10.1186/1476-072X-6-10.

[51] Kodera, S.; Rashed, E. A.; Hirata, A. Correlation between COVID-19 Morbidity and Mortality Rates in Japan and Local Population Density, Temperature, and Absolute Humidity. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health 2020, 17, 5477.

[52] Rashed E, Kodera S, Gomez-Tames J, Hirata A. Influence of Absolute Humidity, Temperature and Population Density on COVID-19 Spread and Decay Durations: Multi-Prefecture Study in Japan. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health 2020, 17(15), 5354; https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17155354

[53] Bhadra, A., Mukherjee, A. & Sarkar, K. Impact of population density on Covid-19 infected and mortality rate in India. Model. Earth Syst. Environ. (2020). https://doi.org/10.1007/s40808-020-00984-7

[54] Kadi, N., Khelfaoui, M. Population density, a factor in the spread of COVID-19 in Algeria: statistic study. Bull Natl Res Cent 44, 138 (2020). https://doi.org/10.1186/s42269-020-00393-x

[55] Hamit Coşkun, Nazmiye Yıldırım, Samettin Gündüz, The spread of COVID-19 virus through population density and wind in Turkey cities, Science of The Total Environment, Volume 751, 2021, 141663, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141663

[56] Therese KL, Sy, White LF, Nichols BE. Population density and basic reproductive number of COVID-19 across United States counties, medRxiv 2020.06.12.20130021; doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.12.20130021

[57] Carozzi, Felipe, Urban Density and Covid-19. IZA Discussion Paper No. 13440, Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3643204

[58] Shima Hamidi, Reid Ewing, Sadegh Sabouri, Longitudinal analyses of the relationship between development density and the COVID-19 morbidity and mortality rates: Early evidence from 1,165 metropolitan counties in the United States, Health & Place, Volume 64, 2020, 102378, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.healthplace.2020.102378

[59] Jack Cordes, Marcia C. Castro, Spatial analysis of COVID-19 clusters
and contextual factors in New York City, Spatial and Spatio-temporal Epidemiology, Volume 34, 2020, 100355, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sste.2020.100355.

[60] Rosenkrantz, Leah & Schuurman, Nadine & Bell, Nathaniel & Amram, Ofer. (2020). The need for GIScience in mapping COVID-19. Health & Place. 102389. 10.1016/j.healthplace.2020.102389

[61] Doremalen, N. van et al. (2020) Aerosol and surface stability of HCoV-19 (SARS-CoV-2) compared to SARS-CoV-1, In The New England Journal of Medicine doi: 10.1056/NEJMc2004973.

[62] Liu Y. et al. (2020), Aerodynamic Characteristics and RNA Concentration of SARS-CoV-2 Aerosol in Wuhan Hospitals during COVID-19 Outbreak, bioRxiv 2020.03.08.982637; doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.03.08.982637, retrieved on 26.04.2020

[63] Smieszek, T., Lazzari, G. & Salathé, M. Assessing the Dynamics and Control of Droplet- and Aerosol-Transmitted Influenza Using an Indoor Positioning System. Sci Rep 9, 2185 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-38825-y, retrieved on 05.20.2020.

[64] Lu J. et al. (2020) COVID-19 outbreak associated with air conditioning in restaurant, Guangzhou, China, 2020. Emerg Infect Dis. 2020 Jul. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2607.200764, retrieved on 04.26.2020.

[65] ASHARE (2020), ASHRAE Position Document on Infectious Aerosols, April 14, 2020.

[66] Roelants, P., Boon, B., Lhoest W. (1968), Evaluation of a Commercial Air Filter for Removal of Virus from the Air, Applied Microbiology, Oct 1968, 16 (10) 1465-1467.

[67] Dee SA, Deen J, Cano JP, Batista L, Pijoan C. (2006), Further evaluation of alternative air-filtration systems for reducing the transmission of Porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus by aerosol. Can J Vet Res. 2006;70(3):168-175.

[68] Ti, L.K., Ang, L. S., Foong, T. W., & Ng, B. (2020). What we do when a COVID-19 patient needs an operation: operating room preparation and guidance. Canadian journal of anaesthesia = Journal canadien d'anesthesie, 67(6), 756-758. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12630-020-01617-4.

[69] Wong, J., Goh, Q.Y., Tan, Z. et al. (2020) Preparing for a COVID-19 pandemic: a review of operating room outbreak response measures in a large tertiary hospital in Singapore. Can J Anesth/J Can Anesth 67, 732-745 (2020). https://doi.org/10.1007/s12630-020-01620-9

[70] Blake Elias and Yaneer Bar-Yam (2020), Could air filtration reduce COVID-19 severity and spread?, New England Complex Systems Institute (March 9, 2020).

[71] Rodrigues-Pinto, R., Sousa, R., & Oliveira, A. (2020). Preparing to Perform Trauma and Orthopaedic Surgery on Patients with COVID-19. The Journal of bone and joint surgery. American volume, e20.00454. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.2106/JBJS.20.00454.

[72] Noti JD, Blachere FM, McMillen CM, Lindsley WG, Kashon ML, et al. (2013) High Humidity Leads to Loss of Infectious Influenza Virus from Simulated Coughs. PLoS ONE 8(2): e57485. February 27, 2013. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0057485

[73] Nechyba, Thomas, J., and Randall P. Walsh. 2004. "Urban Sprawl." Journal of Economic Perspectives, 18 (4): 177-200. DOI: 10.1257/0895330042632681

[74] George A Gonzalez (2005) Urban Sprawl, Global Warming and the Limits
of Ecological Modernisation, Environmental Politics, 14:3, 344-362, DOI: 10.1080/0964410500087558

[75] Frumkin H. Urban Sprawl and Public Health, Public Health Reports, Volume: 117 issue: 3, May 1, 2002, page(s): 201-217, https://doi.org/10.1093/phr/117.3.201

[76] Damon J. (2017), Les Français et l’habitat individuel : préférences révélées et déclarées, SociologieS [online], Dossiers, Où en est le pavillonnaire ?, published 02.21.2017, http://journals.openedition.org/sociologies/5886, retrieved on 05.20.2020.

[77] National Association of Realtors (2011). The 2011 Community Preference Survey What Americans are looking for when deciding where to live Analysis of a survey of 2,071 American adults nationally, Belden Russonello & Stewart.

[78] Liu, Sitian and Su, Yichen, The Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on the Demand for Density: Evidence from the U.S. Housing Market (October 17, 2020). Available at SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3661052 or http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3661052

[79] Liu J, Huang J, Xiang D. Large SARS-CoV-2 Outbreak Caused by Asymptomatic Traveler, China. Emerging Infectious Diseases. 2020;26(9):2260-2263. doi:10.3201/eid2609.201798.

[80] Allen B., Bonetti M., Werlen J. (2010) Entre individuel et collectif : l’habitat intermédiaire. Plan Urbanisme Construction Architecture et Union sociale de l’Habitat, p. 10.

[81] Honey-Roses, J., Anguelovski, I., Bohigas, J., Chireh, V. K., Mr., Daher, C., Konijnendijk, C., ... Nieuwenhuijsen, M. (2020, April 21). The Impact of COVID-19 on Public Space: A Review of the

Emerging Questions. https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/rg7xa

[82] Gehl J (2011), Life Between Buildings, Island Press, p. 7.

[83] US Census, apud. Kopf D. (2019), Slowly but surely, working at home is becoming more common, Quartz, https://qz.com/work/1392302/more-than-5-of-americans-now-work-from-home-new-statistics-show/, retrieved on 22.05.2020

[84] Statista (2020), Work situation of adults in the United States during the COVID-19 outbreak as of April 2020. May 6, 2020, https://www.statista.com/statistics/1110076/share-adults-work-situation-covid-19-us/, retrieved on 05.22.2020.

[85] Dingel J., and Neiman B. (2020) How Many Jobs Can be Done at Home? University of Chicago, Booth School of Business, NBER, and CEPR April 16, 2020.

[86] Shabanpour, R. et al. (2018). Analysis of telecommuting behavior and impacts on travel demand and the environment. Transportation Research Part D Transport and Environment. 62. 10.1016/j.trd.2018.04.003

[87] Shamshiripour A, Rahimi E, Shabanpour R, Mohammadian A. How is COVID-19 reshaping activity-travel behavior? Evidence from a comprehensive survey in Chicago, Transportation Research Interdisciplinary Perspectives, Volume 7, 2020, 100216, ISSN 2590-1982, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trip.2020.100216.

[88] Hachem-Vermette C, Grewal KS. Investigation of the impact of residential mixture on energy and environmental performance of mixed use neighborhoods, Applied Energy, Volume 241, 2019, Pages 362-379, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apenergy.2019.03.030.
[89] Jones, Rachael M. PhD; Brosseau, Lisa M. ScD Aerosol Transmission of Infectious Disease, Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine: May 2015 - Volume 57 - Issue 5 - p 501-508 doi: 10.1097/JOM.0000000000000448

[90] Shen Y, Li C, Dong H, et al. Community Outbreak Investigation of SARS-CoV-2 Transmission Among Bus Riders in Eastern China. JAMA Intern Med. 2020;180(12):1665-1671. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.5225

[91] Harris J. (2020), The Subways Seeded the Massive Coronavirus Epidemic in New York City, Department of Economics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA 02139 USA, updated April 24, 2020, http://web.mit.edu/jeffrey/harris/HarrisJE_WP2_COVID19_NYC_24-Apr-2020.pdf retrieved on 05.04.2020.

[92] Yang X-H et al. (2018), The impact of a public bicycle-sharing system on urban public transport networks, Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, Volume 107, January 2018, pages 246-256.

[93] Woodcock J. et al. (2014). Health effects of the London bicycle sharing system: health impact modelling study BMJ 2014; 348 :g425.

[94] Zheyan Chen Z., van Lierop D., & Ettema D. (2020) Dockless bike-sharing systems: what are the implications?, Transport Reviews, 40:3, 333-353, DOI: 10.1080/01441647.2019.1710306.

[95] Luna T.F. et al. (2020), The influence of e-carsharing schemes on electric vehicle adoption and carbon emissions: An emerging economy study, Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment, Volume 79, February 2020, 102226, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2020.102226.

[96] Taiebat M. and Ming X (2017), Environmental Benefits of Robotaxi Fleet. Proceedings of 2017 AEESP Research and Education Conference. June 20-22, 2017, Ann Arbor, MI. (Paper #237).

[97] Alazzawi S. (2018), Simulating the Impact of Shared, Autonomous Vehicles on Urban Mobility – a Case Study of Milan, EPiC Series in Engineering Volume 2, 2018, Pages 94-110. SUMO 2018- Simulating Autonomous and Intermodal Transport Systems.

[98] Shima Hamidi, Sadegh Sabouri & Reid Ewing (2020) Does Density Aggravate the COVID-19 Pandemic?, Journal of the American Planning Association, 86:4, 495-509, DOI: 10.1080/01944363.2020.1777891

[99] Helen V. S. Cole, Isabelle Anguelovski, Francesc Baró, Melissa GarcíaLamarca, Panagiota Kotsila, Carmen Pérez del Pulgar, Galia Shokry & Margarita Triguero-Mas (2020): The COVID-19 pandemic: power and privilege, gentrification, and urban environmental justice in the global north, Cities & Health, DOI: 10.1080/23748834.2020.1785176

[100] Moudon AV, Hess PM, Snyder MC, Stanilov K. Effects of Site Design on Pedestrian Travel in Mixed-Use, Medium-Density Environments. Transportation Research Record. 1997;1578(1):48-55. doi:10.3141/1578-07

[101] Megahed, N. A., & Ghoneim, E. M. (2020). Antivirus-built environment: Lessons learned from Covid-19 pandemic. Sustainable cities and society, 61, 102350. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2020.102350