

1 **A study on contactless airborne transfer of textile fibres between different garments in**
2 **small compact semi-enclosed spaces**

3

4 **Keywords:** textile fibres; transfer; airborne; shedding; primary; secondary; contactless;
5 evaluation

6

7 **Abstract**

8 Interpretation of fibre evidence at activity level requires extensive knowledge of all the
9 possible transfer mechanisms that may explain the presence of fibres on a recipient surface
10 of interest. Herein, we investigate a transfer method that has been largely understudied in
11 previous literature: contactless transfer between garments through airborne travel. Volunteers
12 were asked to wear UV-luminescent garments composed of different textile materials and
13 situate themselves in a semi-enclosed space (elevator) for a pre-determined period of time
14 with other participants, who wore non-luminescent recipient garments. The latter were then
15 inspected for fibres using UV-luminescent photographic techniques. Results showed that
16 contactless transfer between garments is possible. Indeed, a number of fibres were observed
17 after most of the experiments. As many as 66 and 38 fibres were observed in the experiments
18 involving cotton and polyester donor garments, compared to 2 and 1 fibres in those involving
19 acrylic and wool donor garments, respectively. In this regard, the type of donor garment was
20 found to be a significant factor. Multifactorial ANOVA supported these observations ($p < 0.001$)
21 and further indicated a statistically significant influence of elevator door opening/closing ($p <$
22 0.001), people entering/exiting ($p = 0.078$) and the recipient garment ($p = 0.030$). Therefore,
23 contactless transfer of fibres between garments can occur and can do so in (ostensibly) high
24 numbers. This should be taken into consideration when interpreting fibre evidence at activity
25 level and may have a major implication for the assignment of evidential values in some specific
26 cases.

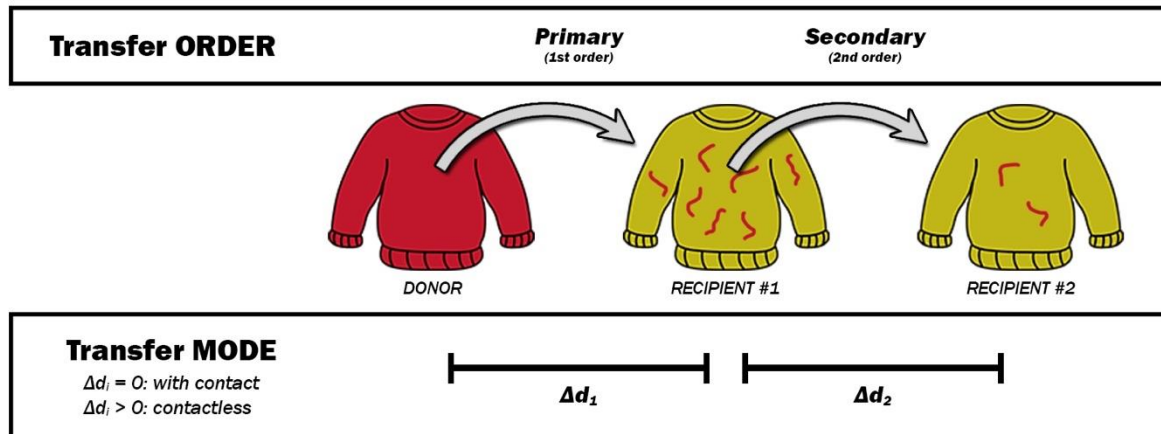
27

28 **1.0 Introduction**

29 Textile fibres are an important evidence type in forensic science and have proven utility
30 in the investigation of a number of complex major crimes. Thanks to their ability to be easily
31 transferred from one surface to another they enable associations of many different forms to
32 be made, including links between people, locations and/or objects. Robust and efficient
33 protocols to collect and examine fibre evidence currently exist [1-3]. Interpretation of observed
34 findings, nonetheless, is still a very delicate procedure that requires sensible management of
35 all available data, as well as careful consideration of many variables and influential factors. At
36 activity level, in particular, a thorough understanding of all the transfer mechanisms that could
37 potentially explain the presence of a group of questioned fibres on a recipient surface is
38 needed, in order to correctly assign evidential values [4].

39 Pounds and Smalldon were the first to quantitatively investigate fibre transfer
40 mechanisms. In a pioneering series of works published in 1975, they found that a large number
41 of textile fibres could be shed from a donor garment and transferred to a recipient through a
42 simple contact between them [5-7]. Consequently, they concluded that primary transfer
43 between garments as a result of contact often provides the most likely explanation for their
44 presence in the majority of situations. This is especially true in those cases where a large
45 number of fibres is observed. Furthermore, they also found that fibres could subsequently be
46 shed to a second recipient garment as a result of further additional contact events, thus
47 providing preliminary evidence of the potential for secondary transfer (Figure 1). This
48 additional mechanism was further investigated in-depth by Lowrie and Jackson [8], who
49 confirmed secondary transfer as a viable transfer method for textile fibres but also
50 demonstrated that it typically resulted in lower numbers of transferred fibres (1 – 11) in
51 comparison to primary transfer (3 – 341).

52



53

54

Figure 1: Overview of the two most common fibre transfer mechanisms.

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

Since these first investigations, many other studies have added to the body of knowledge of fibre transfer mechanisms and it is now widely accepted that textile fibres can potentially be transferred to a recipient surface in a number of ways during a criminal activity. Garment-to-garment, garment-to-surface and surface-to-garment transfers have all been documented [9-11]. Similarly, textile fibres were proven to be susceptible to serial transfer, through n -order subsequent transfer events: primary, secondary and even tertiary transfers have all been shown to be possible [5, 8, 12, 13]. Many different factors have been evidenced to affect all these transfer mechanisms, which include (amongst others) the donor garment, the recipient garment, the extent of contact and the length of contact.

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

Despite the extensive number of published works on this topic, most of them were solely aimed at the evaluation of transfer mechanisms by direct contact between the surfaces of interest. While this is admittedly the most represented scenario in typical forensic situations, it is not uncommon that the hypothesis of fibre transfer in the absence of contact is raised in real casework, in order to provide an alternative explanation for the presence of fibre evidence on a recipient surface. A typical case, for example, is when the accused claims that they collected the questioned group of fibres by airborne transfer, while having simply been in the

72 same room or space as the victim. When presented with such defence scenarios, knowledge
73 of mechanisms for the contactless transfer of textile fibres between surfaces of interest (e.g.,
74 garments) would be necessary for a proper interpretation of the findings.

75 Unfortunately, existing literature on contactless transfer of textile fibres is very limited.
76 In this regard, some relevant studies were conducted by Moore [14] and Roux [15], although
77 their main focus was to solely assess fibre contamination in and around purpose built forensic
78 laboratory search rooms. Both authors found that textile fibres can become airborne during
79 and following routine garment examinations and were able to travel distances of up to 3 m,
80 before landing on a horizontal surface, such as the floor or a nearby bench. These studies
81 demonstrate the potential for contactless transfer of textile fibres. Yet, no investigation to date
82 has sought a quantitative assessment of contactless transfer mechanisms of textile fibres in
83 simulated scenarios of forensic interest. As a consequence, there is a fundamental gap in the
84 current state of knowledge on this topic and an overwhelming lack of published data to
85 establish if, and to what degree, contactless transfer of fibres can occur from one (clothed)
86 individual to another in a social (non-laboratory) environment.

87 The aim of this study was therefore to fill this gap and, more specifically, to investigate
88 the contactless transfer of textile fibres between different garments in a compact, semi-
89 enclosed space. For this purpose, elevators were specifically selected as test environments,
90 since this type of environment would be potentially conducive to 'contactless' fibre transfer,
91 thus providing a 'worst case scenario'. Experiments involved different garment compositions.
92 Specifically, four different donor garments and two recipient garments were tested and
93 contactless transfer between each possible combination of them was studied in replicate (n =
94 6). Each garment used was characterised in order to investigate the influence of composition,
95 shedding and retention properties on the number of transferred fibres. Donor garments
96 included those comprised of acrylic, cotton, polyester and wool fibres, while recipient garments
97 were comprised of cotton or polyester fibres. Participants were asked to wear a specific donor
98 or recipient garment, enter an elevator and remain inside for 10 minutes. The participants

99 subsequently exited the elevator and the wearer of the recipient garment entered a second
 100 elevator, along with a third participant. This allowed an assessment of both primary and
 101 secondary contactless fibre transfer.

102

103 **2.0 Materials and methods**

104 2.1 Materials

105 All of the garments used in this work were purchased from various local shops. Donor
 106 garments included a 100% acrylic jumper (D1), 100% cotton long sleeved top (D2), 100%
 107 polyester fleece (D3) and 100% wool jumper (D4). These were specifically chosen for their
 108 differing propensity to shed fibres and the regularity with which the fibre types are encountered
 109 in casework. Recipient garments included different 100% cotton long sleeved tops (R1) and
 110 100% polyester fleeces (R2). A breakdown of the garments and their properties is provided in
 111 Table 1.

112 Table 1: Characteristics of the garments used in this study

	Fibre type	Colour under UV light	Garment structure	Cross-section	Diameter (μm) (mean \pm std dev; n=10)	Length (mm) (mean \pm std dev; n=10)	Shedability (per 1 cm^2) (mean \pm std dev; n=5)
D1	Acrylic	Green	Knitted, open	Bean	24.5 \pm 4.95	12.7 \pm 14.08	3 \pm 1
D2	Cotton	Yellow	Knitted, open	N/A	n.m.	1.2 \pm 1.03	149 \pm 68
D3	Polyester	Orange	Fleece	Round	12.6 \pm 2.97	1.8 \pm 1.70	70 \pm 15
D4	Wool	Pink	Knitted, open	N/A	30.1 \pm 9.93	18.9 \pm 12.58	4 \pm 1
R1	Cotton	None	Knitted, open	N/A	n.m.	n.m.	n.m.
R2	Polyester	None	Fleece	Round	n.m.	n.m.	n.m.

113 n.m.: not measured

114 A desirable property for the donor garment was that their fibres fluoresced under UV
115 light as, following transfer, this facilitated identification, counting and monitoring using
116 luminescence photography. The fibres of garments D2 and D4 were naturally fluorescent as
117 a manufacturing characteristic. This was not the case for garments D1 and D3, which were
118 therefore dyed in the laboratory with different coloured UV-fluorescent dyes. This was carried
119 out using commercially available *Dylon* dyes, according to manufacturer instructions. As a
120 result, each donor garment fabric had different UV fluorescent properties, which avoided
121 mistaken identity and ensured accurate counting. Recipient garments were intentionally black
122 (and non-fluorescent), in order to provide contrast and aid fluorescent searching for target
123 fibres.

124

125 2.2 Characterisation of the donor garments

126 In order to further investigate the correlation between donor garment properties and
127 the number of fibres transferred, they were characterised in terms of their general structure,
128 fibre characteristics (i.e., cross-section, diameter, length) and shedability. Garment structure
129 and fibre characteristics were assessed using microscopy. Using phytohistol, a sample of
130 fibres from each garment was mounted onto glass slides and a glass cover slip placed over
131 the top. Fibre measurements were taken using a confocal *Leica DM5000 B* microscope
132 coupled with *Image-Pro Analyzer 7.0* software, at magnifications between x5 and x40. The
133 length of a fibre was measured by following the fibre from end to end and the diameter across
134 its full width using the free roam drawing tool. 10 randomly selected fibres were measured per
135 sample.

136 To assess the shedability, a single piece of *J-LarTM* tape was lightly placed on to the
137 front of the garment and firmly pressed along its length once, as is common practice by some
138 UK forensic providers. The *J-LarTM* was then removed from the garment and placed onto a
139 clear acetate sheet. A 1 x 1 cm square was drawn roughly in the centre of the tape, through

140 manual selection. The number of fibres within the square that originated from the garment was
141 counted with the aid of brightfield microscopy, using a *Leica S6ETM* low power
142 stereomicroscope (magnification x6.3 - x40).

143

144 2.3 Experimental set-up

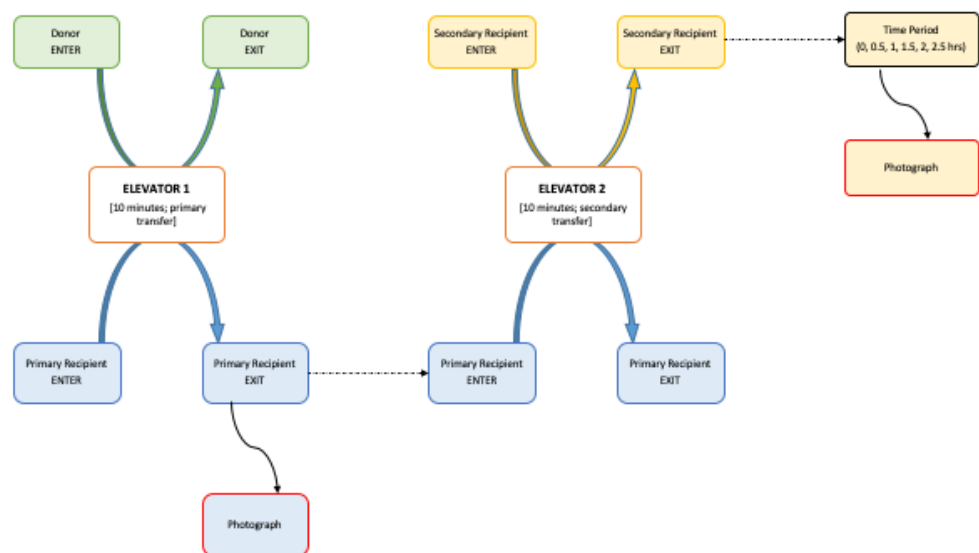
145 Both primary and secondary contactless transfer was assessed, starting from the same
146 donor garment. Each experiment involved three participants adopting different roles, i.e. a
147 donor, a primary recipient and a secondary recipient (Figure 1). The donor participant was
148 asked to wear a particular donor garment. The type (i.e. cotton or polyester) of recipient
149 garment was kept constant within a given experiment and, as such, the primary and secondary
150 recipients both wore the same garment type, albeit separate garments. Two different elevators
151 were used. Both were situated in a university building and measured 1.3 m x 1.7 m x 2.3 m
152 (total volume: 5.0 m³).

153 The donor participant was asked to enter one of the elevators and occupy one of the
154 far corners. The primary recipient wearer entered the elevator on another floor and stood
155 diagonally across from the donor, approximately 2 m apart; they both remained in position for
156 10 minutes before exiting separately on different floors. The primary recipient garment was
157 then immediately photographed *in-situ* (front and back) with the aid of a UV light source. Next,
158 the primary recipient wearer entered a second elevator and following exactly the same
159 methodology as just described was joined by the wearer of the secondary recipient garment.
160 After 10 minutes, the secondary recipient wearer left the elevator and photographed their
161 garment *in-situ* as per the primary recipient garment. For simplicity, the entire experimental
162 procedure is depicted in Figure 2.

163 Primary and secondary transfer experiments were repeated six times for each of the
164 four donor garments, resulting in a total of 48 experiments. Whilst the experiments were taking
165 place in the elevator, the elevator operated as normal and other non-participating people were

166 allowed to enter and exit as they would usually do. The number of people entering/exiting the
167 elevator during the 10-minute period was recorded, as was the number of times the elevator
168 doors opened/closed.

169 On completion of the transfer experiments, the wearers of the secondary recipient
170 garments carried on with their normal activities whilst still wearing the garment. At time intervals
171 of 0.5, 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 hours the recipient garment was again photographed *in-situ* as before.
172 Each experiment ended when no transferred fibres remained.



173

174 Figure 2. Schematic of the experimental procedure

175

176 2.4 Fibre counting

177 As target fibres were fluorescent, post-transfer recipient garments were examined
178 using a UV source and photographed in a darkened room. Photographs were taken using a
179 *Canon EOS 5D Mark II* camera with *Canon EF 28mm 1:2.8 lens*, using ISO 6400, shutter
180 speed 1/4 and aperture F3.2 settings, using the UV source *Crime-Lite 42S™* (350 – 380nm).
181 To minimize background reflection *Ultra Black* paper from *Creativity Backgrounds (Daler*

182 *Rowney Ltd*) was mounted behind the subject. To ensure photographs were
183 comparable/reproducible, the camera was mounted on a *GITZO* tripod attached with a *360*
184 *Precision Absolute MK2* and the *Crime-Lite* was clamped using a *Manfrotto 244 RC Variable*
185 *Friction Arm*. The garment wearer stood on a position marked 'X' and manually took
186 photographs (front and back) of themselves using a *Hahnel HRC280* remote shutter release.
187 No other person was present in the dark room when the photographs were taken. The number
188 of target fibres was manually counted from the images.

189 Strict anti-contamination measures were imposed to minimise the risk of cross-
190 contamination between experiments. Donor, primary and secondary recipient garments were
191 individually stored inside paper bags in separate laboratories. Immediately prior to an
192 experiment, the recipient garments were examined using a UV torch to ensure they were
193 absent of target fibres.

194

195 2.5 Statistical analysis

196 Multifactorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied in order to evaluate the effects
197 of the different variables monitored during the experiments. These were the composition of
198 the donor and recipient garments (controlled variables), as well as the number of times the
199 elevator doors opened/closed and the number of people who entered/exited (uncontrolled
200 variables). A model with main effects without interactions was built on data using a generalised
201 linear model with a Poisson distribution. Pairwise comparison (Tukey method) was additionally
202 used to assess statistically significant differences between donor groups.

203 Statistical modelling was performed only on data from primary contactless transfer.
204 Attempts to model data from the secondary contactless transfer experiments were
205 unsuccessful due to the low number of observations that differed from 0, resulting in model
206 instability. Statistical analysis was performed using the open source platform *R*, version 3.5.3
207 "Great Truth".

208 **3.0 Results**

209 3.1 Primary contactless transfer

210 Eight scenarios aimed at evaluating the possibility of primary contactless transfer
 211 between textiles were investigated using each of the four donor garments (i.e., cotton,
 212 polyester, acrylic and wool) coupled with one of the two different recipient garments (i.e.,
 213 cotton and polyester). Each scenario was replicated six times, resulting in a total of 48
 214 experiments. Primary contactless transfer of fibres occurred in 67% of these cases (32 of 48
 215 experiments) and, more specifically, in 100% of the experiments involving cotton as the donor
 216 garment (12 of 12), 100% of the experiments involving polyester (12 of 12), 42% of the
 217 experiments involving acrylic (5 of 12) and 25% of the experiments involving wool (3 of 12). A
 218 summary of the number of fibres observed is reported in Table 2 and depicted in Figure 3.

219

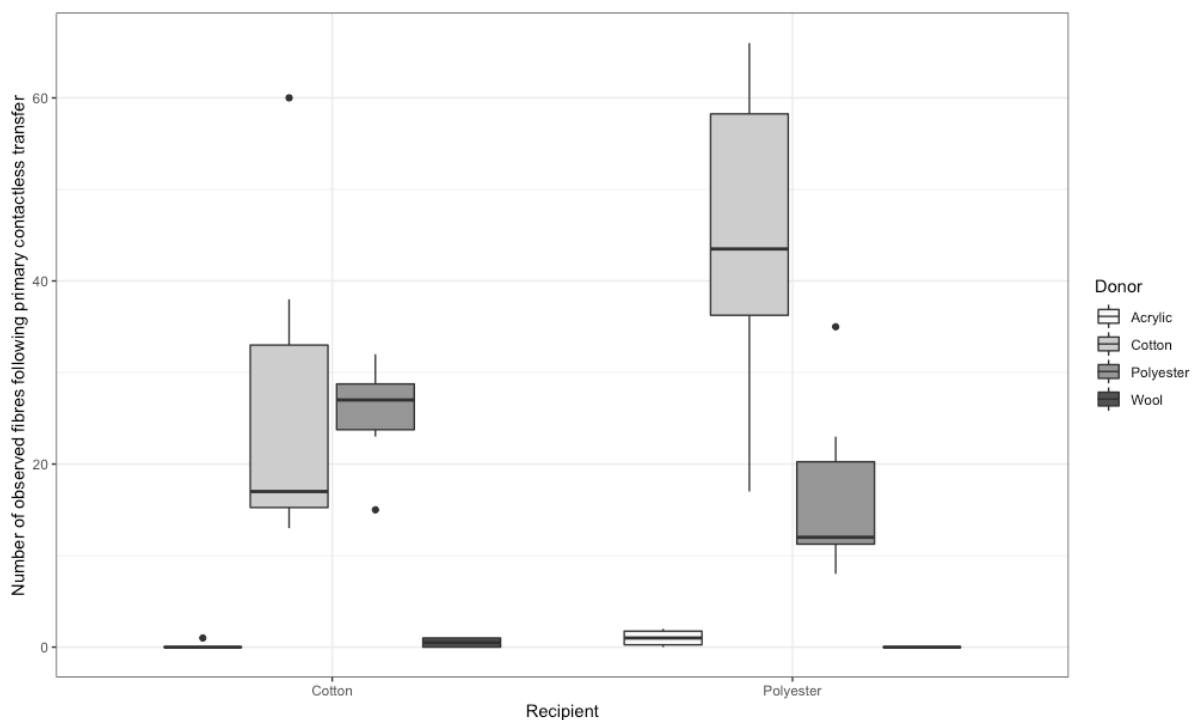
220 Table 2: Summary of the results observed after the primary transfer experiments.

DONOR GARMENTS	RECIPIENT GARMENTS											
	Cotton (R1)				Polyester (R2)				Combined results			
	Min	Max	Median	Mean	Min	Max	Median	Mean	Min	Max	Median	Mean
Acrylic (D1)	0	1	0.0	0.17	0	2	1.0	1.00	0	2	0.0	0.58
Cotton (D2)	13	60	17.0	26.70	17	66	43.5	44.50	13	66	36.0	35.58
Polyester (D3)	15	32	27.0	25.50	8	35	12.0	16.80	8	35	23.0	21.17
Wool (D4)	0	1	0.5	0.50	0	0	0.0	0.00	0	1	0.0	0.25
Combined results	0	60	7.0	13.21	0	66	5.0	15.58	0	66	5.0	14.40

221

222

223 From the analysis of the results it was evident that, under the chosen experimental
224 conditions, the donor garment made from cotton transferred the highest number of fibres
225 (median: 36.0, mean: 35.58), followed by (in decreasing order) those made from polyester
226 (median: 23.0, mean: 21.17), acrylic (median: 0.0, mean: 0.58) and wool (median: 0.0, mean:
227 0.25). The type of donor garment was therefore found to be an important factor in the
228 contactless transfer of fibres.



229
230 Figure 3: Boxplots of the number of fibres observed after the primary transfer experiments as
231 a function of the composition of the donor and recipient garments.

232
233 There was no clear difference between the number of fibres observed on the recipient
234 garments made of polyester (median: 5.0, mean: 15.58) compared with that made of cotton
235 (median: 7.0, mean: 13.21). However, further inspection of the data revealed notable
236 differences depending on which donor garment was used (Figure 3). For example, higher
237 numbers of fibres were consistently observed on the cotton recipient garments if the polyester
238 garment had been used as the donor (median: 27.0, mean: 25.50), in comparison with

239 experiments in which the cotton garment was the donor (median: 17.0, mean: 26.70). The
240 inverse was true for experiments in which the polyester recipient garments were used: in this
241 case, the number of fibres observed was lower if the polyester garment was the donor
242 (median: 43.5, mean: 44.50), compared with the situation in which the cotton garment was
243 donor (median: 12.0, mean: 16.80). These observations thus suggested an interaction effect
244 of some kind between the fibres that comprised the donor garment and the recipient garments
245 and also supported the hypothesis that the number of fibres transferred could vary greatly
246 depending on the specific situation and the recipient garment involved.

247 ANOVA was applied, in order to further investigate the data. Results showed that the
248 compositions of the donor and recipient garments had statistically significant effects on the
249 numbers of observed fibres, even if the effect of the recipient was less important than the
250 effect of the donor ($p = 0.030$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively) (Table 3). This largely supported
251 the conclusions previously inferred from the descriptive analysis.

252 Post-hoc pairwise comparisons of the model coefficients disclosed further differences
253 between donor groups, mainly between cotton and wool/acrylic ($p < 0.001$) and between
254 polyester and wool/acrylic ($p < 0.001$) (Table 3). As might be expected based on the low
255 number of fibres transferred, there was no significant difference between wool and acrylic
256 donors ($p = 0.544$). However, the analysis did reveal a significant difference between the two
257 most influential donors, i.e. cotton and polyester ($p < 0.001$).

258

259

260

261

262

263 Table 3: Analysis of effects (ANOVA) and pairwise comparisons (*italics*) of primary transfer
 264 experimental data.

Variable	df	Deviance	p-value ^a
Donor garment	3	899.44	< 0.001 (***)
<i>Acrylic - Cotton</i>			<i>< 0.001 (***)</i>
<i>Acrylic – Polyester</i>			<i>< 0.001 (***)</i>
<i>Acrylic – Wool</i>			<i>0.544</i>
<i>Cotton – Polyester</i>			<i>< 0.001 (***)</i>
<i>Cotton – Wool</i>			<i>< 0.001 (***)</i>
<i>Polyester - Wool</i>			<i>< 0.001 (***)</i>
Number of door openings/closing	1	47.22	< 0.001 (***)
Recipient garment	1	4.71	0.030 (*)
<i>Cotton – Polyester</i>			<i>0.072 (.)</i>
Number of entering/exiting people	1	3.11	0.078 (.)

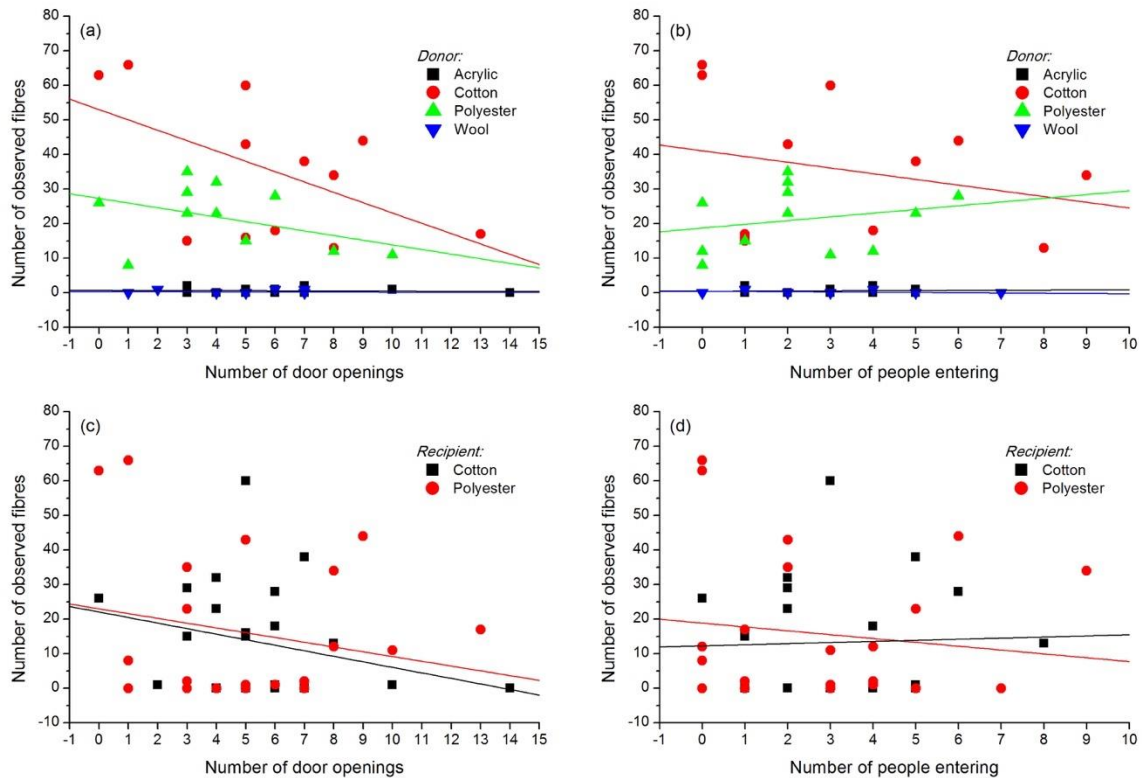
265 ^a Significance codes: '****' $p < 0.001$, '***' $p < 0.01$, '**' $p < 0.05$, '.' $p < 0.1$

266

267 Although variables not directly controlled in this study, the number of times the elevator
 268 doors opened/closed and the number of people who entered/exited the elevator during each
 269 experiment were recorded and analysed using ANOVA (Table 3). Results demonstrated that
 270 both variables had a significant effect on the number of observed fibres following the
 271 experiments and, therefore, could potentially influence the contactless transfer of fibres. This
 272 may be due to an increase of air movement [16]. Moreover, the effect of the number of
 273 opening/closing of elevator doors was considerably less important than the number of
 274 entering/exiting of people ($p = 0.078$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively). The scatter plots of the
 275 number of observed fibres against both variables were further studied and showed that,
 276 actually, there was a noticeable negative correlation between the number of observed fibres
 277 and the opening/closing of elevator doors, i.e. fewer fibres were transferred with an increase
 278 in elevator doors openings/closings (Figure 4) irrespective of the donor or recipient garments.

279 No clear linear trend was highlighted between the number of observed fibres and the number
280 of people entering/exiting.

281



282

283 Figure 4: Scatter plots of the number of fibres observed after the primary transfer
284 experiments against the number of door opening/closing and the number of people
285 entering/exiting the elevator grouped by the composition of the (a-b) donor and (c-d)
286 recipient garments.

287

288 3.2 Secondary contactless transfer

289 A primary contactless transfer was observed in 32 of the 48 experiments conducted
290 (see previous sub-chapter). Therefore, these 32 cases were further investigated for the
291 possibility of secondary contactless transfer. More specifically this entailed 12 experiments

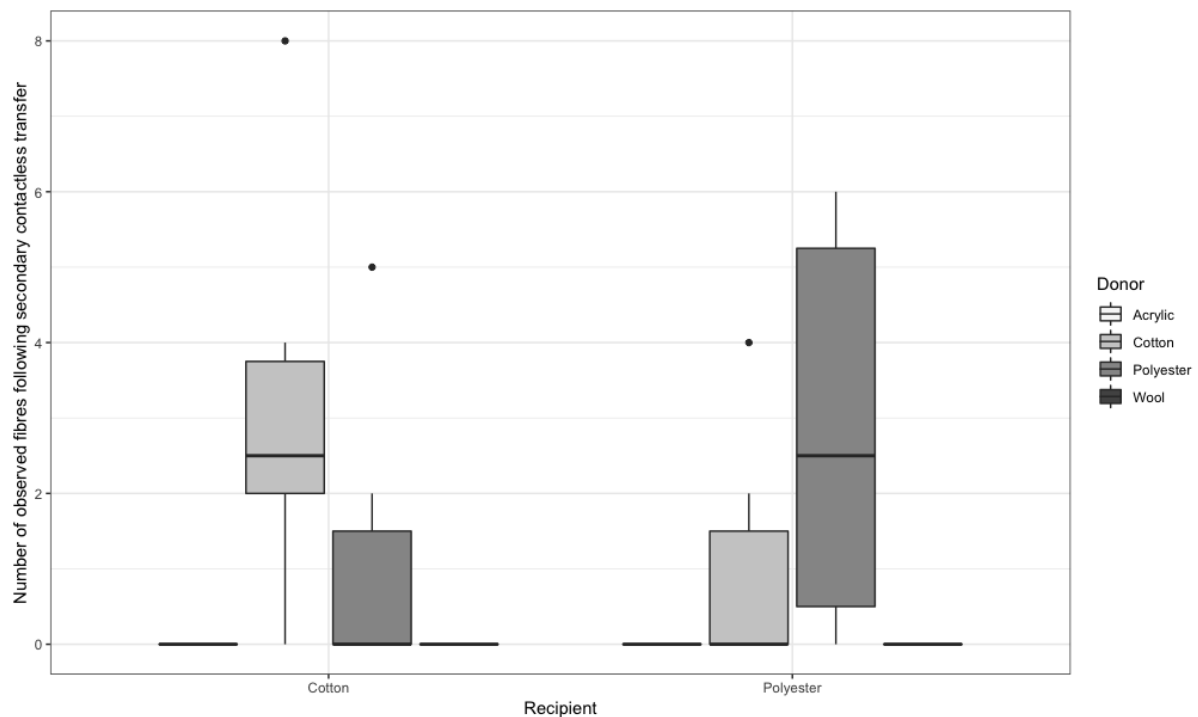
292 that concerned cotton and polyester as the initial donor garments, 5 experiments using the
 293 acrylic donor and 3 using the wool donor. Secondary contactless transfer of fibres occurred in
 294 41% of these cases (13 of 32 experiments) and, more specifically, in 58% of the experiments
 295 involving cotton fibres (7 of 12) and 50% of those involving the polyester fibres (6 of 12); on
 296 no occasion was contactless secondary transfer of wool or acrylic fibres observed. A summary
 297 of the number of fibres observed is reported in Table 4 and depicted in Figure 5.

298

299 Table 4: Summary of the results observed after the secondary transfer experiments.

DONOR GARMENTS	RECIPIENT GARMENTS											
	Cotton (R1)				Polyester (R2)				Combined results			
	Min	Max	Median	Mean	Min	Max	Median	Mean	Min	Max	Median	Mean
Acrylic (D1)	0	0	0.0	0.00	0	0	0.0	0.00	0	0	0.0	0.00
Cotton (D2)	0	8	2.5	3.17	0	4	0.0	1.00	0	8	2.0	2.01
Polyester (D3)	0	2	0.0	1.17	0	6	2.5	2.83	0	6	1.0	2.00
Wool (D4)	0	0	0.0	0.00	0	0	0.0	0.00	0	0	0.0	0.00
Combined results	0	8	0.0	1.73	0	6	0.0	1.44	0	8	0.0	1.58

300



301

302 Figure 5: Boxplots of the number of fibres counted after the secondary transfer experiments
 303 as a function of the composition of the donor and recipient garments.

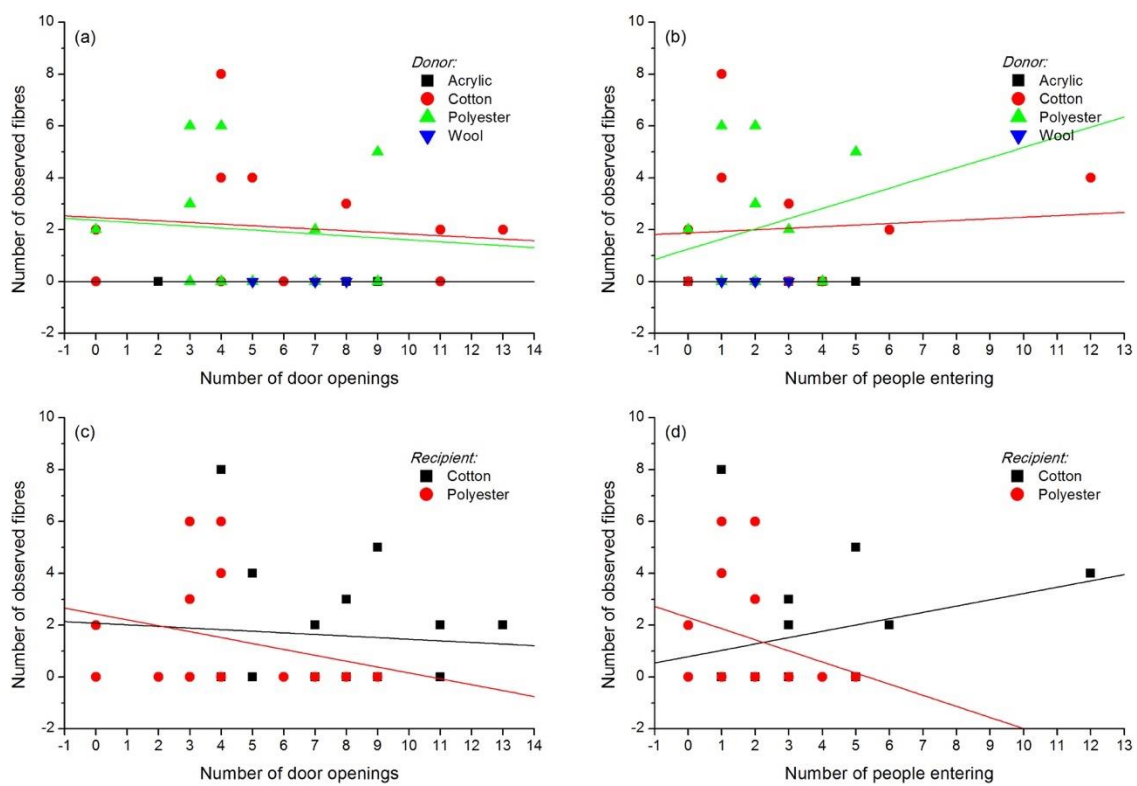
304

305 Again, differences in the number of fibres transferred were observed between the types
 306 of fibre, as originating from their respective donor garments. These differences were broadly
 307 consistent with those observed for primary transfer experiments. Indeed, cotton fibres
 308 displayed the largest degree of secondary transfer (median: 2.0, mean: 2.01) compared with
 309 polyester (median: 1.0, mean: 2.00), even if their relative difference was less pronounced than
 310 in primary transfer experiments. No acrylic or wool fibres were observed on the secondary
 311 recipient garments (median: 0.0, mean: 0.00), likely owing to the small pool of fibres available
 312 for (secondary) transfer following primary transfer (max = 2). No remarkable difference was
 313 noticed between the different recipient garments.

314 As before, ANOVA was attempted, but it did not produce any reliable results, due to
 315 the instability of the model resulting from the low number of data points for certain experiments.
 316 Consequently, statistical significance could not be investigated. Nonetheless, the scatter plot

317 showing the numbers of fibres observed were again studied for noticeable trends. Although
 318 not as prominent as for primary transfer experiments, a slight negative correlation between
 319 the number of observed fibres and the number of opening/closing of elevator doors was again
 320 observed (Figure 6). On the contrary, no apparent linear trend was evident here between the
 321 number of observed fibres and the number of people entering/exiting the elevator, as with
 322 primary contactless transfer.

323



324

325 Figure 6: Scatter plots of the number of fibres observed after the secondary transfer
 326 experiments against the number of door opening/closing and the number of people
 327 entering/exiting the elevator grouped by the composition of the (a-b) donor and (c-d)
 328 recipient garments.

329

330 For completeness, the persistence of the cotton and polyester fibres that had
331 undergone secondary transfer was tracked over time. In seven of the 13 experiments, all fibres
332 were lost within 30 minutes and, for the remaining six experiments, a maximum of five fibres
333 remained. On two occasions a single fibre remained after 60 minutes but they were both then
334 lost within 120 minutes.

335

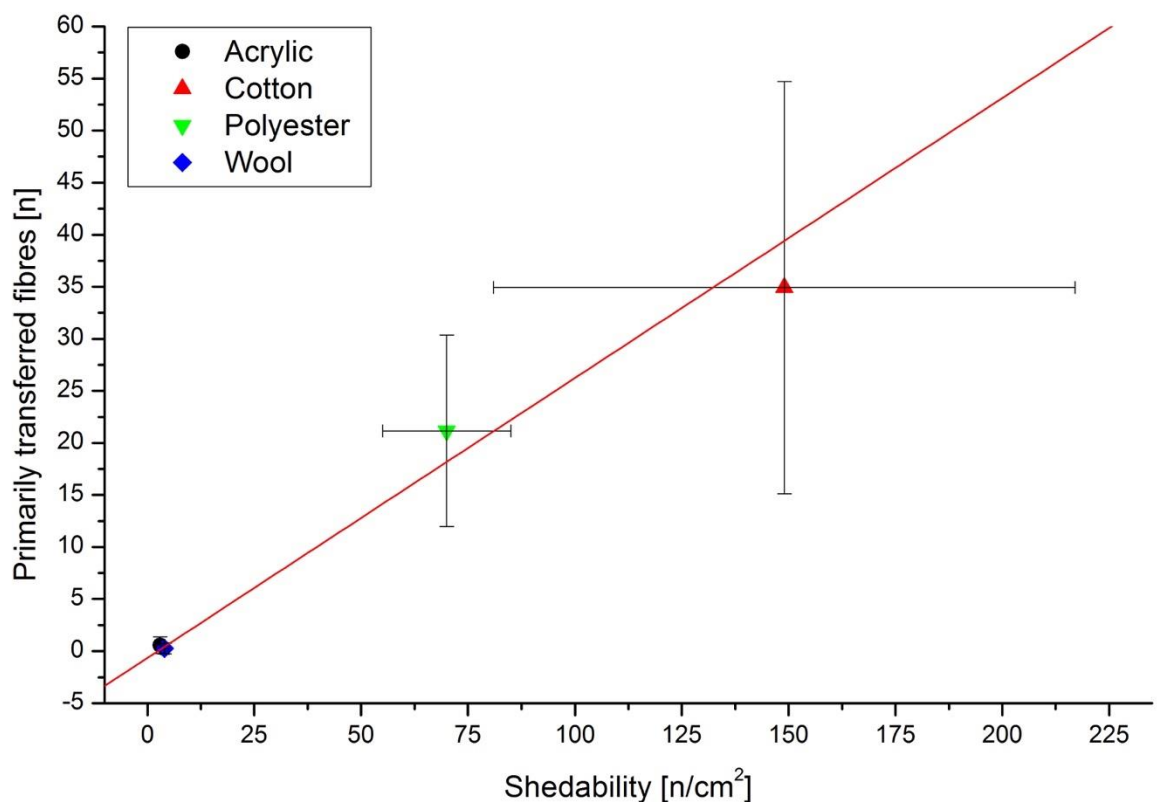
336 **4.0 Discussion**

337 Contactless transfer of textile fibres has been demonstrated in small, compact and
338 semi-enclosed spaces (elevators) that simulated real situations. In particular, up to 66 fibres
339 were transferred in a single primary transfer experiment and, on one occasion, 8 fibres (half
340 of those transferred through primary contactless transfer) were further transferred through
341 secondary contactless transfer. Different influential variables were studied and shown to have
342 a noticeable effect on the number of observed fibres on the different recipient garments. These
343 variables were, in order of their relative importance, i) the donor garment, ii) the number of
344 door opening/closing, iii) the recipient garment and iv) the number of people entering/exiting.

345 The donor garment was found to have the most influential effect on the number of
346 transferred fibres observed on the recipient garments, supporting its fundamental role in the
347 mechanism of contactless transfer. The underlying principle(s) for this may be multifaceted.
348 The number of fibres transferred is contingent on how susceptible the fibres themselves are
349 to (1) become airborne and (2) remain airborne (as if they immediately fell to the ground no
350 transfer could occur). Their ability to do so will, in turn, be dependent on a number of intrinsic
351 characteristics of both the garment and the fibres themselves, such as the textile composition
352 and structure, and type of fibre and their dimensions. The experimental design of this study
353 did not fully allow an extensive analysis of the direct effect of each of these influential factors
354 on the mechanism of contactless transfer. Nonetheless, an obvious distinction was observed
355 between garments comprised of cotton/polyester versus acrylic/wool, supporting the

356 hypothesis that the donor composition, fibre type and size may be very important contributing
357 factors. Indeed, the dimensions of the fibres comprising the donor garments support this in
358 that the longer, wider fibres (wool, acrylic) were much less likely to be contactlessly transferred
359 in comparison with shorter, thinner fibres (cotton, polyester), advocating the importance
360 size/dimensions of the fibre themselves [17, 18]. A very strong positive correlation was
361 expectedly observed between the amount of fibres observed on the recipient garments
362 following primary transfer and the shedability of the donor garment (Figure 7), underlying the
363 direct and significant role of the propensity of the garment to shed its constituent fibres on the
364 transfer mechanism [19].

365



366

367 Figure 7: Plot of the number of fibres observed after primary contactless transfer against the
368 shedability of the donor garment. A clear relationship could be established between the two
369 variables.

370 The importance of the fibres themselves, opposed to the donor garment and its
371 structure, on contactless transfer may be further evidenced through the influence of the
372 recipient garment and the effect of air movement. In contrast to fibre transfer through contact,
373 which involves a degree of pressure, contactless fibre transfer (and subsequent persistence)
374 relies solely on the relationship between the transferring fibre and the recipient surface. The
375 negative correlation between the number of observed fibres on recipient garments and the
376 opening/closing of the elevator doors may further substantiate this theory. This is supported
377 through previous studies which have demonstrated that air movement keeps fibres in the air
378 [14, 15] and thus may affect weak interactions. Such interactions between the composition of
379 the donor and recipient garment were indeed found to be a notable factor affecting contactless
380 transfer and, in this study, more so than the exclusive retentive properties of the recipient
381 garment. The polyester recipient garment, being a fleece, had a rougher texture than the
382 cotton garment, and as such was expected to be more retentive [16, 20]. However, the effect
383 was not as pronounced as may have been anticipated, with this apparent disparity perhaps
384 being explained by both garments having inherently retentive surfaces. Arguably, a greater
385 difference between the retentive properties of the recipient garments may have resulted in a
386 more distinct variance in the number of fibres observed.

387 Comparison of the results of this study with the previous literature regarding fibre
388 transfer involving contact, and in particular the original work of Pounds and Smalldon [5] and
389 Lowrie and Jackson [8], revealed both similarities and differences between the transfer
390 mechanisms. A clear similarity was the significant role the donor and recipient variables have
391 on the transfer of fibres both with, and in the absence of, contact. On the contrary, the
392 quantities of fibres transferred as a result of physical contact are far in excess of the order of
393 quantities seen in this study (allowing for differences in experimental design). This was
394 somewhat expected given the weaker forces involved in the process (physical contact vs air
395 movement). It may therefore be reasonable to conclude that the quantity of fibres transferred
396 as a result of contactless transfer, despite being (ostensibly) high in the case of

397 cotton/polyester, are much lower than that which would be expected from a transfer involving
398 contact. Interestingly, the order of fibre quantities transferred, particularly for acrylic and wool
399 fibres, are more akin with that previously observed as a result of secondary contact [8]. Thus,
400 there is a danger that similar numbers observed in casework could be misinterpreted in the
401 absence of detailed case specific information (i.e. the framework of circumstances) when
402 evaluating activity level propositions.

403 The results of this study demonstrate that contactless transfer should be considered
404 as a viable transfer mechanism in the interpretation of fibre evidence, but its importance, and
405 thus, contribution, to activity level evaluation is dependent upon the specific case at hand. In
406 cases where a high number of transferred fibres have been found, the contribution of
407 contactless transfer to that finding is likely to be negligible and thus would be of limited
408 importance in any evidential interpretation. However, for those cases in which a small number
409 of transferred fibres are recovered contactless transfer should be a greater consideration,
410 particularly if case circumstances involve a passive interaction between a suspect and victim.

411 It is important, too, to emphasise that, not only were the experiments in this study
412 specifically designed to maximise the potential for contactless fibre transfer, but that fibre
413 transfer was recorded within minutes of transfer, providing a reference point at $t = 0$. As such,
414 the results of this study should be considered within the setting in which the experiments were
415 conducted, and expectations altered accordingly. Real case situations will differ in terms of
416 the area/environment in which contactless transfer is alleged to have taken place. As an
417 environment becomes larger and/or more open than used in this study, the likelihood of fibres
418 being transferred in large numbers as a result of contactless fibre transfer is likely to be
419 concomitantly reduced, although further studies would be needed to evidence this.
420 Furthermore, in real casework, exhibits are likely to be seized sometime after the incident,
421 thus reducing the number of transferred fibres expected to be recovered.

422

423 **5.0 Conclusions**

424 In this study, the potential of fibre movement between different garments through
425 contactless airborne mechanisms has been assessed for small, compact and semi-enclosed
426 spaces, such as elevators. It was proven, not only that this transfer mechanism is fully possible
427 in authentic forensic scenarios (both as primary and secondary transfer), but also that the
428 number of fibres transferred could be particularly significant for certain types of textile
429 materials (such as cotton and polyester) and, importantly, comparable to other transfer
430 mechanisms involving contact. Therefore, the potential for contactless fibre transfer should be
431 carefully assessed in real casework and appropriately taken into account in the interpretation
432 of findings at activity level. In this respect, the authors believe that the empirical data provided
433 in this work may constitute a reference point.

434

435 **Conflict of interest**

436 There are no conflicts to declare.

437

438 **Bibliography**

- 439 [1] ENFSI, European Textile and Hair Group, Best Practice Guideline for the Forensic Examination of
440 Fibres, (2nd Ed.), 2011.
- 441 [2] ASTM E1492-11, Standard Practice for Receiving, Documenting, Storing, and Retrieving Evidence
442 in a Forensic Science Laboratory, ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2017.
- 443 [3] ASTM E2228-19, Standard Guide for Microscopical Examination of Textile Fibers, ASTM
444 International, West Conshohocken, PA, 2019.
- 445 [4] C. Champod, F. Taroni, Bayesian framework for the evaluation of fibre transfer evidence, *Science*
446 & Justice 37(2) (1997) 75-83. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1355-0306\(97\)72151-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1355-0306(97)72151-8)
- 447 [5] C.A. Pounds, K.W. Smalldon, Transfer of fibers between clothing materials during simulated
448 contacts and their persistence during wear. 1. Fiber transference, *Journal of the Forensic Science*
449 *Society* 15(1) (1975) 17-27. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368\(75\)70932-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(75)70932-5)
- 450 [6] C.A. Pounds, K.W. Smalldon, Transfer of fibers between clothing materials during simulated
451 contacts and their persistence during wear. 2. Fiber persistence, *Journal of the Forensic Science*
452 *Society* 15(1) (1975) 29-37. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368\(75\)70933-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(75)70933-7)
- 453 [7] C.A. Pounds, K.W. Smalldon, Transfer of fibers between clothing materials during simulated
454 contacts and their persistence during wear. 3. Preliminary investigation of mechanisms involved,
455 *Journal of the Forensic Science Society* 15(3) (1975) 197-207. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(75)70933-7)
456 [7368\(75\)70933-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(75)70933-7)

457 [8] C.N. Lowrie, G. Jackson, Secondary transfer of fibers, *Forensic Science International* 64(2-3)
458 (1994) 73-82. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0379-0738\(94\)90215-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/0379-0738(94)90215-1)

459 [9] C. Roux, J. Chable, P. Margot, Fibre transfer experiments onto car seats, *Science & Justice* 36(3)
460 (1996) 143-151. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1355-0306\(96\)72589-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1355-0306(96)72589-3)

461 [10] R. Palmer, H.J. Burch, The population, transfer and persistence of fibres on the skin of living
462 subjects, *Science & Justice* 49(4) (2009) 259-264. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scijus.2009.02.008>

463 [11] D. Sneath, H. Tidy, B. Wood, The transfer of fibres via weapons from garments, *Forensic Science*
464 *International (Online)* 301 (2019) 278-283. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forsciint.2019.05.027>

465 [12] C.B.M. Kidd, J. Robertson, The transfer of textile fibers during simulated contacts, *Journal of the*
466 *Forensic Science Society* 22(3) (1982) 301-308. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368\(82\)71496-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(82)71496-3)

467 [13] R. Palmer, K. Sheridan, J. Puckett, N. Richardson, W. Lo, An investigation into secondary
468 transfer—The transfer of textile fibres to seats, *Forensic Science International* 278 (2017) 334-337.
469 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forsciint.2017.07.035>

470 [14] J.E. Moore, G. Jackson, M. Firth, Movement of fibers between working areas as a result of
471 routine examination of garments, *Journal of the Forensic Science Society* 24(4) (1984) 394-394.
472 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368\(86\)72534-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(86)72534-6)

473 [15] C. Roux, J. Huttunen, K. Rampling, J. Robertson, Factors affecting the potential for fibre
474 contamination in purpose-designed forensic search rooms, *Science & Justice* 41(3) (2001) 135-144.
475 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1355-0306\(01\)71878-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1355-0306(01)71878-3)

476 [16] A. Bucknell, T. Bassindale, An investigation into the effect of surveillance drones on textile
477 evidence at crime scenes, *Science and Justice* 57(5) (2017) 373-375.
478 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scijus.2017.05.004>

479 [17] R.R. Bresee, P.A. Annis, Fiber transfer and the influence of fabric softener, *Journal of forensic*
480 *sciences* 36(6) (1991) 1699-1713. <https://doi.org/10.1520/JFS13193J>

481 [18] A. Coxon, M. Grieve, J. Dunlop, A method of assessing the fiber shedding potential of fabrics,
482 *Journal of the Forensic Science Society* 32(2) (1992) 151-158. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(92)73064-3)
483 [7368\(92\)73064-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0015-7368(92)73064-3)

484 [19] L. Skokan, A. Tremblay, C. Muehlethaler, Differential Shedding: A Study of the Fiber Transfer
485 Mechanisms of Blended Cotton and Polyester Textiles, *Forensic Science International* (2020)
486 110181. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forsciint.2020.110181>

487 [20] H.G. Scott, The Persistence of Fibres Transferred During Contact of Automobile Carpets and
488 Clothing Fabrics, *Canadian Society of Forensic Science Journal* 18(4) (1985) 185-199.
489 <https://doi.org/10.1080/00085030.1985.10757393>

490