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Pilot randomised experimental study evaluating isopropyl alcohol and UVC radiation in the disinfection of healthcare workers' smartphones

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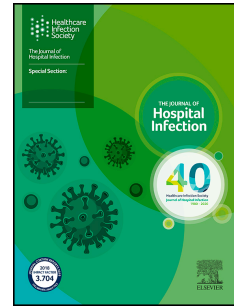
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1 **Pilot randomised experimental study evaluating isopropyl alcohol**
2 **and UVC radiation in the disinfection of healthcare workers'**
3 **smartphones**

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29 **Summary**

30 Smartphones in medical settings pose infection risks due to harbouring pathogenic bacteria.
31 This pilot study assesses the effectiveness duration of sanitisation methods, focusing on 70%
32 isopropyl alcohol wipes and UVC boxes, aiming to obtain preliminary data on the reduction in
33 Total Bacterial Load 3 hours post-sanitisation. A randomised monocentric trial with two
34 intervention arms (wipes and UVC boxes) was designed. As participants, healthcare workers
35 from three wards at Fondazione Policlinico Universitario “A. Gemelli” IRCCS Hospital were
36 recruited, stratified by ward, and block randomised within each ward to control confounders.
37 Seventy-one healthcare workers, mostly nurses (62%) were included in the study. Initial
38 bacterial load reduction was significant with both disinfection techniques, but after 3 hours
39 both methods showed increased bacterial levels, with wipes displaying potentially higher
40 residual efficacy ($p=0.056$). To adequately size a trial (89% power, significance level 0.05) for
41 assessing the residual efficacy of alcohol-impregnated wipes compared to UVC boxes at 3
42 hours post-sanitisation, 503 professionals per group were required. This study highlights the
43 necessity for guidelines on hospital smartphone sanitisation and educational initiatives for
44 healthcare workers and patients. Further studies, adequately sized, are necessary to determine
45 optimal sanitisation intervals and assess pathogen transmission risks.

46

47 **Keywords:** smartphone, disinfection, alcohol wipes, UVC, bacterial load

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49

50

51 Introduction

52 Inanimate surfaces can serve as reservoirs for pathogenic microorganisms; furthermore, they
53 may constitute a means of transmission of such microorganisms from the environment to
54 humans [1]. Smartphones have become a fundamental tool in our daily lives and clinical
55 practice, often kept in close contact with the body and, in particular, with the hands. Given that
56 modern smartphones are equipped with large touch screens, requiring repeated finger contact,
57 they are more susceptible to contamination by microorganisms compared to non-smartphones.
58 [2]. Furthermore, it is quite common for microorganisms to transfer between surfaces and
59 humans, as evidenced by the fact that the microbiota found on smartphones resembles that
60 observed on the hands of healthcare workers. [3,4].

61 It has been estimated that between 9% and 25% of smartphones are contaminated with
62 pathogenic bacteria. [1,5]. The primary pathogens isolated from the surfaces of smartphones
63 include *Staphylococcus aureus*, coagulase-negative *Staphylococci*, *Micrococcus* species,
64 *Pseudomonas* species, and *Escherichia coli*. [1,6]. Hence, high-touch devices pose an increased
65 risk of causing and transmitting infections within the nosocomial setting, particularly in units
66 where the most vulnerable patients are hospitalized. [7].

67 In the literature, some observational studies assessing the effectiveness of various sanitisation
68 methods in reducing the bacterial load of high-touch devices are available (7). Some of these
69 studies have considered chemical disinfection, comparing wipes impregnated with various
70 disinfectant solutions, such as 70% isopropyl alcohol, quaternary ammonium derivatives, and
71 chlorine derivatives, indicating a superiority of the former [8–10].

72 On the other hand, other studies have evaluated physical disinfection based on the use of UVC
73 radiation lamps, which function to induce damage to the nucleic acids of pathogens, resulting
74 in the inhibition of their reproductive and growth capabilities [9,11].

75 As highlighted by Bhardwaj *et al.*, while antibacterial wipes ensure immediate
76 decontamination, are ready-to-use, and cost-effective, UVC lamps take longer for disinfection,
77 yet they are more effective as UV light kills a broader spectrum of bacteria and have a longer
78 lifespan, as they can be used for numerous disinfection cycles [7].

79 Concerns about potential damage to the smartphone due to repeated disinfection have been
80 alleviated by major manufacturers, prompted by the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, who have issued
81 dedicated guidelines, indicating 70% isopropyl alcohol and UVC radiation as two safe and
82 effective disinfection methods [12].

83 The issue of potential concerns arising from UV radiation exposure, given its carcinogenic
84 potential, can be mitigated by employing lamps housed in specialised boxes designed to
85 optimise the dispersion of UV radiation. These boxes also halt the lamp's operation if opened
86 before the disinfection cycle is completed [13,14].

87 To our knowledge, real-world evidence comparing the residual effect of these two methods on
88 the bacterial load of mobile phones is not available, as all existing studies are conducted in the
89 laboratory with pre-established bacterial inocula, the reduction of which by the disinfectant is
90 monitored over time, and involve laptops [8] , tablets [10], and keyboards (1–4,15).

91 **Primary objective**

92 The primary objective of the pilot study is to obtain preliminary data regarding the reduction
93 in the average Total Bacterial Load 3 hours after the sanitisation intervention. These data will
94 be instrumental in appropriately designing a subsequent trial to assess whether, on the
95 smartphones of healthcare workers at the Fondazione Policlinico Universitario "A. Gemelli"
96 IRCCS, where the experimentation is conducted, wipes impregnated with 70% isopropyl
97 alcohol are more effective than UVC boxes in reducing the Total Bacterial Load immediately
98 after and at 3 hours post-sanitisation.

99

100 **Secondary objective**

- 101 • Determine the change in the average Total Bacterial Load at 3 hours post-sanitisation
102 compared to the value recorded before sanitisation.
- 103 • Quantify the presence, before sanitisation, immediately after sanitisation, and at 3 hours
104 post-sanitisation, of the following multi-resistant pathogens: Methicillin-Resistant
105 *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), Extended-Spectrum Beta-Lactamase (ESBL)-producing
106 *Enterobacteriaceae*, Carbapenem-Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (CRE), and Vancomycin-
107 Resistant *Enterococci* (VRE).

108

109

110 **Methods**

111 **Study design**

112 Randomised monocentric pilot study with two parallel arms. The two arms consist of:

- 113 1. Healthcare workers whose smartphones were disinfected using a chemical method (70%
114 isopropyl alcohol wipes);
- 115 2. Healthcare workers whose smartphones were disinfected using a physical method
116 (UVC box).

117 To exclude confounding factors of environmental origin arising from the different distribution
118 of pathogens and variations in temperature and relative humidity between various
119 departments, stratification was performed by department. Within each identified department,
120 block randomisation was conducted with block size calculated based on the number of
121 healthcare workers consenting to participate in the study. An allocation ratio of 1:1 was
122 employed for the two study devices to ensure a balanced distribution of participant
123 characteristics in each group, including compliance to hand hygiene.

124

125 **Population**

126 Healthcare professionals of any age and professional category working in the Neonatology,
127 Geriatric Internal Medicine, Anesthesia, Resuscitation, and Intensive Therapy departments of
128 the Fondazione Policlinico Universitario A. Gemelli IRCCS.

129

130 **Duration of the study**

131 The study lasted for 2 months.

132

133 **Inclusion criteria**

- 134 - Being a healthcare professional in the Neonatology, Geriatric Internal Medicine, Anesthesia,
- 135 Resuscitation, and Intensive Therapy departments of FPG;
- 136 - possession of a smartphone;
- 137 - carrying the smartphone throughout the duration of the working shift;
- 138 - providing consent to participate in the study;
- 139 - willingness to present for a control sampling 3 hours after sanitisation.

140

141 **Procedures**

142 The procedures envisaged an initial recruitment phase (M0), an intervention and sampling
143 phase (M1), and an analysis phase of the collected samples (M2)).

144 *M0. Recruitment phase*

145 At the time of recruitment:

- 146 - Participants were provided with the information sheet, and informed consent was obtained.
- 147 - Within the identified strata, sequences were created for randomisation to one of the two
148 treatment arms based on the number of participants consenting to the study.

149 *M1. Intervention and sampling phase*

- 150 - On the day or days of data collection, two technicians visited a designated workspace
151 identified by the nursing coordinator. Data collection began within 3 hours of the end of
152 the recruited healthcare workers' shifts.

153 It was decided to sample devices at 3 hours by taking the shortest shift duration of health
154 care workers (6 hours) as a reference: it was therefore deemed acceptable to sanitise one's
155 smartphone at least once in the middle of a shift and it was decided to determine whether
156 it was possible to balance logistical needs with the rise in device bacterial load.

- 157 - At the agreed-upon time, healthcare workers visited the designated sampling area, where
158 technicians sampled the smartphones of the participants, both on the screen with Tryptic

159 Soy Agar (TSA) plates (to determine Total Bacterial Load) and on the back surface with a
160 swab (to determine the presence of multi-resistant pathogens). This moment is identified
161 as "PRE". Sampling was done only at the center of the screen and back so as not to affect
162 differently, by mechanical action, sampling that was subsequently conducted on the upper
163 and lower parts of the screen and back surfaces (**Fig. 1**).

164

165 [Insert Fig.1]

166

167 - Chemical disinfection: for each participant, the technician opened a new wipe with 70%
168 isopropyl alcohol and passed it three times on the screen, three times on the back surface,
169 and three times on each side of the smartphone. After allowing 5 minutes for the
170 smartphone to dry, a new sampling was performed to assess the baseline bacterial load and
171 the presence of multi-resistant pathogens after disinfection (identified as "T0"). Sampling
172 was repeated 3 hours after sanitisation using the same methods (identified as "T1").

173 - Physical disinfection: the technician placed the participant's smartphone inside the UVC
174 box, closed the lid, and activated the disinfection using the "on" button. After 3 minutes,
175 the technician opened the UVC box, rotated the smartphone by 180°, closed the box, and
176 pressed the "on" button again. Upon completion of the disinfection cycle, the technician
177 extracted the smartphone from the box and proceeded to a new sampling to assess the
178 baseline bacterial load and the presence of multi-resistant pathogens after disinfection
179 (identified as "T0"). Sampling was repeated 3 hours after sanitisation using the same
180 methods (identified as "T1").

181 *M2. Analysis phase of the collected samples*

182 - The collected samples were incubated for 24 or 48 hours (depending on whether
183 determining Total Bacterial Load or assessing the presence of multi-resistant pathogens;
184 for the latter, the incubation time varied based on the type of pathogen). Bacterial
185 colonies were counted and the presence of multi-resistant pathogens was determined.

186

187 **Collection, recording and statistical analysis of data**

188 *Interventions*

189 The tested devices include Klerwipe™ 70/30 IPA Blended with WFI from Ecolab and UV
190 SANITIZE ULX – 1059 from Ulsonix, both CE marked.

191

192 *Collection and analysis of biological samples*

193 To assess Total Bacterial Load (TBL), plates containing a non-selective Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA)
194 culture medium from Liofilchem S.r.l, (TE) Italy were employed. The “RODAC-WEIGHT”
195 system, sterile, with a standard weight and a sampling duration of 10 seconds, ensured an
196 objective and reproducible outcome. The plate's position during the three sampling phases
197 ("PRE", "T0," and "T1") is depicted by the red circle in **Figure 1**.

198 After sampling, TSA plates were incubated at 37°C for 48 hours, with an initial reading after
199 24 hours. Colonies, if present, were counted after 24 hours of incubation and marked on the
200 back of the Petri dish with a marker to facilitate enumeration if colonies formed an uncountable
201 layer. The colony count included all colonies grown on the plate, and the TBL concentration
202 was expressed as the number of colony-forming units per 24 cm² (CFU/24 cm²).

203 For the sampling of multi-drug resistant pathogens, sterile swabs (APTACA SpA) were used.
204 The swab was streaked during the three sampling phases ("PRE", "T0," and "T1"), as described
205 in **Figure 1**.

206 After sampling, the swab was immersed in Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) for 48 hours at 37°C. The
207 presence of growth was assessed by the turbidity of the culture medium. Subsequently, positive
208 samples (indicating growth) were inoculated onto selective plates for the detection of:

- 209 1. Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) - CHROMID MRSA SMART by
210 BIOMERIEUX ITALIA SpA;
- 211 2. Vancomycin-Resistant *Enterococci* (VRE) - CHROMID VRE by BIOMERIEUX
212 ITALIA SpA;
- 213 3. Carbapenem-Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (CRE) - CHROMID CARBA
214 BIOMERIEUX ITALIA SpA;
- 215 4. Extended-Spectrum Beta-Lactamase (ESBL)-Producing (ESBL) - CHROMID ESBL
216 BIOMERIEUX ITALIA SpA.

217
218 After sampling, MRSA and CRE plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours, while VRE and
219 ESBL plates were incubated at 37°C for 48 hours. The grown colonies were identified using
220 the Vitek 2 compact system by BIOMERIEUX ITALIA SpA.

221 All samples were stored at the Hospital Hygiene Unit.

222

223 *Ethical Board approval*

224 Personal data of enrolled subjects were processed according to Italian law, in compliance with
225 Legislative Decree 196/03 and all other relevant regulations. All data was exported in a pseudo-
226 anonymised form for statistical analysis. The study received approval from the Local Ethics
227 Committee (Comitato Etico Territoriale Lazio Area 3) with ID 6015.

228

229 **Statistical analysis**

230 The participants, research staff, and physicians were informed of the study group assignment
231 after randomisation.

232 *Sample size definition*

233 For the pilot study, 71 healthcare workers from the aforementioned departments were recruited.
234 This sample size was chosen due to the potentially high variability in the observed Total
235 Bacterial Load. Therefore, a larger sample was deemed necessary than is typically seen in pilot
236 studies to gather more precise and accurate measures of central tendency and dispersion[16].

237 *Analysis*

238 Position and dispersion statistics for the Total Bacterial Load at 3 hours post-sanitisation were
239 calculated for each method to appropriately size a definitive trial. Inferential exploratory
240 analyses were conducted to compare the two techniques.

241 Changes in the average Total Bacterial Load recorded for the two treatments at 3 hours were
242 compared using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, as the distribution of sample means for the
243 variables considered was non-normal.

244 Exploratory analyses included calculating changes in Total Bacterial Load between the “PRE”
245 (pre-sanitisation) and “T1” (3 hours) times and the “T0” (post-sanitisation) and “T1” times
246 using the Mann-Whitney U test. Descriptively, the prevalence of multi-drug resistant pathogens
247 (MRSA, ESBL, CRE, VRE) on smartphones at “PRE”, “T0”, and “T1” times was reported for
248 each method.

249 Significance was considered for p-values < 0.05.

250 Statistical analyses were conducted using STATA 18 (StataCorp, USA).

251 Sample size calculation for sizing the subsequent trial was performed using the two-sided
252 Mann-Whitney U test with Monte Carlo simulations with PASS 2021 software.

253

254

255 **Results**

256 The sampling involved 71 healthcare workers (median age 35 years; IQR 29 - 44) distributed
257 similarly among the Neonatal Intensive Care, Geriatrics, and Intensive Care departments. Most
258 participants were nurses (62%), followed by physicians (21%), and medical residents
259 (approximately 17%). No statistically significant differences were observed in the considered
260 variables between the two treatment arms (**Table I**).

261

262 *[Insert Table I]*

263

264 The total bacterial load was nearly eradicated following the use of wipes (median 1; IQR (0 -
265 5)) and UVC boxes (median 0.5; IQR (0 - 2)), increasing again after 3 hours post-sanitisation
266 to a level not significantly different from the pre-sanitisation for both methods (**Table II**).

267 Specifically, three hours after sanitisation, the total bacterial load values on smartphone
268 surfaces treated with UVC boxes (median 22.5; IQR (10 - 37)) were higher than the values on
269 smartphones sanitised with alcohol-impregnated wipes (median 10; IQR (4 - 23)). This
270 indicates a greater residual effectiveness of the disinfectant in wipes, albeit at the threshold of
271 statistical significance ($p=0.056$) (**Tables II-III**).

272

273 *[Insert Table II]*

274 *[Insert Table III]*

275

276 Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* was isolated from a healthcare worker's
277 smartphone before sanitisation with wipes; the same device tested negative immediately after
278 sanitisation and again positive for the same pathogen after 3 hours. Methicillin-resistant

279 *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* was isolated from another healthcare worker's smartphone 3
280 hours after sanitisation with wipes, while the two previous samplings showed no contamination.
281 Based on the estimates obtained, to adequately size a trial for assessing the residual efficacy of
282 alcohol-impregnated wipes compared to UVC boxes at 3 hours post-sanitisation, 503 operators
283 per treatment group are required. These dimensions would achieve an 80% power to detect an
284 average difference of 4.5 (standard deviations assumed in the two groups: 30 and 18 as per
285 preliminary data) using a Mann-Whitney U test with a significance level (alpha) of 0.05. These
286 results are based on 2000 Monte Carlo samples from the normal distribution.

287

288

289 Discussion

290 The primary aim of this pilot study was to collect data on the total bacterial load on the screens
291 of healthcare workers' smartphones three hours after two different sanitation interventions to
292 determine an appropriate sample size for a future and more extensive experimental
293 investigation on this topic in a hospital setting. The results revealed, for both sanitation methods
294 employed, a similar reduction in bacterial load values immediately after sanitation ("T0").
295 However, a higher residual effect, approaching statistical significance, was observed on
296 surfaces treated with wipes impregnated with 70% isopropyl alcohol 3 hours after sanitation
297 ("T1"). Several examples in the literature highlight the effectiveness of both methods in
298 sanitising smartphones [5,7,10,11,13,17,18].

299 One of the earliest notable studies in this field was conducted in 2010 at the Manipal College
300 of Dental Sciences in India [18]. The authors examined the effectiveness of wipes impregnated
301 with 70% isopropyl alcohol on 50 mobile devices, observing a statistically significant reduction
302 in Colony Forming Units (CFU) compared to unsanitised devices, with an approximately 87%
303 reduction in total bacterial load immediately after disinfection. Another study conducted in
304 Germany by Egert *et al.* [5] demonstrated an equally significant reduction in CFU by sanitising
305 smartphones using wipes containing ethanol and isopropyl alcohol, resulting in a bacterial load
306 decrease close to 95% immediately after cleaning. Scientific evidence has also emphasised the
307 need to wipe at least 3-5 times for proper decontamination [19].

308 Regarding the disinfection process using UVC irradiation, the results obtained in the short
309 report published by Muzslay *et al.* [11] in 2018 represent the initial data on the use of this
310 device. The study employed the D6000TM device, allowing decontamination on both sides of
311 tablets and reducing the bacterial count to below the detection limit within a few minutes of
312 disinfection.

313 Literature evidence diverges on which of the two methods is more effective.

314 In a cross-sectional study conducted in an Indian dental clinic[9] the two different sanitisation
315 methods used in our study were simultaneously evaluated on a sample of 30 smartphones,
316 resulting in an immediate reduction in bacterial contamination on the analyzed surfaces of
317 79.89% for isopropyl alcohol and 71.00% for UVC irradiation with no significant differences
318 ($p=0.884$). Similar results were also obtained by Huffman *et al.*[17], who compared the use of
319 alcohol or hydrogen peroxide wipes with UVC irradiation and found that disinfection twice a
320 day with UVC was not superior to that performed with wipes. A study by Lieberman *et al.* [13],
321 however, showed a significantly greater reduction percentage for UVC irradiation.
322 Nevertheless, in this study the comparison was made with two sprays of 70% ethanol
323 subsequently rubbed on both sides of the smartphone with clean absorbent paper.

324

325 As expected, an increase in bacterial count was observed in both groups 3 hours after
326 sanitisation, and this increase was statistically significant compared to the value recorded
327 immediately after sanitisation. Additionally, a difference in mid-term efficacy (3 hours)
328 between the two methods was detected, bordering statistical significance in favor of wipes
329 impregnated with isopropyl alcohol.

330 This occurrence can be explained by referring to the residual disinfectant effect of alcohol.
331 Indeed, as highlighted in the literature, wipes impregnated with 70% isopropyl alcohol and 2%
332 chlorhexidine have shown a residual antimicrobial effect up to 6 hours after disinfection when
333 these experiments are conducted in the laboratory with artificial contaminations. In clinical
334 practice, however, repeated and continuous device contaminations may occur, reducing the
335 observed residual effect duration [10]. In contrast, it is known that UVC irradiation does not
336 possess a residual effect (27,28). Additionally, UVC rays penetrate poorly into cracks or
337 crevices in smartphone cases, increasing the risk of post-sanitisation cross-contamination
338 [7,17].

339 Regardless, the use of 70% isopropyl alcohol-impregnated wipes is more intuitive and practical
340 than UVC boxes, making it easier to use them repeatedly throughout the work shift.

341 In addition to cell phone screens, there are numerous other high-touch surfaces in the hospital
342 environment that contribute to defining a cumulative bacterial load: multiple devices with
343 diagnostic function monitors that involve constant interaction with the hands of health care
344 workers (e.g., at intensive care units, in operating rooms). It is important for the manufacturer
345 to place clear guidelines on how to sanitize these devices.

346

347 The results obtained from this study allow for several considerations.

348 It is widely known that smartphones in hospital settings act as potential carriers for healthcare-
349 associated infections [20], posing a significant risk, especially for immunocompromised
350 individuals. Concurrently, the increasingly widespread integration of smartphones and tablets
351 into clinical practice is an established phenomenon and, as highlighted in this real-world study,
352 contamination from these devices is associated with work activity (e.g. contact with patients,
353 environmental surfaces, uniform pockets, and hands).

354 Nevertheless, few facilities have adopted specific procedures for their proper sanitisation. This
355 scenario emphasises the need, at a macro level, for interventions by policymakers and health
356 authorities aimed at issuing guidelines and specific directives. Such regulation would be
357 focused on ensuring the correct and safe use of these devices, now essential in daily work life,
358 with a view to effectively controlling infections.

359 At a meso level, promoting the implementation of specific continuous training programmes on
360 this topic is recommended within healthcare management, targeting healthcare professionals.
361 Results from a survey conducted in an intensive care unit at a South African hospital [21]
362 indicate that lack of awareness, absence of specific procedures, and fear of damaging one's
363 smartphone during disinfection are the main barriers reported by healthcare professionals on

364 this topic. These efforts should be accompanied by initiatives aimed at increasing adherence to
365 hand hygiene practices and environmental disinfection procedures.

366 At a micro level, raising awareness among healthcare professionals about sanitisation methods
367 is of crucial importance. This awareness not only aims to promote good practices in infection
368 prevention but also acts as a catalyst to positively influence patient education. This provides
369 healthcare professionals with additional tools to prevent the spread of infections, placing them
370 in an essential role that significantly contributes to public health protection.

371

372 The results should be interpreted in light of the assessments of the strengths and weaknesses of
373 the study. An intrinsic limitation lies in the evaluation and comparison of only two disinfection
374 methods, although these represent the most effective modalities according to the literature.
375 However, to our knowledge, this pilot study, despite being preliminary, is the first to provide
376 data on the variation of bacterial load over time using a real-world approach instead of
377 employing controlled inoculation. Moreover, this study managed the potential confounding
378 effect of some environmental, organisational, and behavioral variables, thanks to the use of
379 block randomisation with stratification by sampling department. Another critical aspect could
380 be the decision to sample different areas of the front part (screen) of smartphones in the three
381 study phases ("PRE", "T0," and "T1"). This choice is related to the need to perform the
382 maximum number of samplings on the same surface without the previous samplings affecting
383 the subsequent ones through mechanical removal of any pathogens present by placing the plate
384 on the surface itself. However, it is important to emphasise that all procedures were performed
385 by the same prevention and laboratory technicians, thus reducing variability in behaviors
386 during sample collection or laboratory material preparation.

387 Further studies are essential to determine the most appropriate sanitisation time interval for
388 both methodologies as well as to investigate long term contamination, taking into account the

389 behavior of healthcare workers during their work shift. In addition, it is necessary to quantify
390 the risk of transmission not only of already known multidrug-resistant bacteria and fungi but
391 also of new emerging species (e.g., *Candida Auris*), examining the direct connection with the
392 incidence of nosocomial infections.

393

394 **Conclusion**

395 Currently, universally accepted guidelines are lacking to limit and control the contamination of
396 mobile devices in healthcare. However, our pilot study has highlighted that the use of wipes
397 containing 70% isopropyl alcohol appears to be a more effective method than UVC boxes for
398 short-term disinfection of smartphones, albeit at the limits of statistical significance. These
399 results provide a preliminary foundation for determining an appropriate sample size, a
400 prerequisite for conducting a larger study useful in establishing optimal times for proper and
401 safe disinfection.

402

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407

408 **Conflicts of interest**

409 None

410 **Ethics**

411 None

412

413 **Funding statement**

414 None

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	Tot	Wipes N=37	UVC box N=34	p-value
Age (median; IQR)	35 (29 - 44)	35 (29 - 43)	37 (30 - 45)	0.316
Gender (N, %)				0.209
M	26 (36.62)	11 (40.74)	16 (59.26)	
F	45 (63.38)	26 (57.78)	19 (42.22)	
Profession (N, %)				0.638
Physician	15 (21.13)	9 (60.00)	6 (40.00)	
Nurse/Physiotherapist	44 (61.97)	23 (51.11)	22 (48.89)	
Medical resident	12 (16.90)	5 (41.67)	7 (58.33)	
Department (N, %)				1.000
Neonatal Intensive Care Unit	23 (32.39)	12 (52.17)	11 (47.83)	
Geriatrics	23 (32.39)	12 (50.00)	12 (50.00)	
Intensive Care Unit	25 (35.21)	13 (52.00)	12 (48.00)	

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505 **Table I.** Socio-demographic variables related to the enrolled and randomised healthcare

506 workers in the two treatment arms.

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	WIPES Total Bacterial Load (median; IQR)	UVC BOX Total Bacterial Load (median; IQR)	p-value
PRE	12 (4 - 30)	11 (5 - 27)	0.791
T0	1 (0 - 5)	0.5 (0 - 2)	0.201
T1	10 (4 - 23)	22.5 (10 - 37)	0.056

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515 **Table II.** Median Total Bacterial Load and its correspondent measure of dispersion for the two
516 considered methods at each sampling time.

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	WIPES Variation in Total Bacterial Load (median; IQR)	p-value	UVC BOX Variation in Total Bacterial Load (median; IQR)	p-value
PRE-T0	9 (3 - 24)	<0.001	9 (4 - 26)	<0.001
T1-T0	5 (2 -23)	<0.001	19.5 (8 - 36)	<0.001
T1-PRE	-1 (-20 - 7)	0.424	6 (-10 - 26)	0.274

532 **Table III.** Variation in Total Bacterial Load between the sampling moments for the two
533 methods.

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545 **Figure 1:** sampling of the screen and back surface of smartphones using TSA plates and
546 swabbing before sanitization, immediately after sanitization, and 3 hours after sanitization.

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Fig. 1: sampling of the screen and back surface of smartphones using TSA plates and swabbing before sanitization, immediately after sanitization, and 3 hours after sanitization.

