

WHAT'S HIDING BETWEEN THE PRIMERS? USING MASSIVELY PARALLEL SEQUENCING TO CAPTURE STR REPEAT REGION AND FLANKING REGION SEQUENCE VARIATION

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Introduction

The current standard methodology in forensic DNA typing relies on amplification of short tandem repeat (STR) markers by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and allele sizes (i.e., length-based) determined for each locus using capillary electrophoresis (CE). Massively parallel sequencing (MPS), also known as next generation sequencing (NGS), allows high throughput sequencing of STR amplicons, which can identify nominal length-based (LB) genetic variation but equally as well inter-allelic sequence (sequence-based; SB) variation. The increased effective number of alleles per marker for some STR loci improves discrimination power, which may be invaluable in some cases of kinship analysis and for mixture de-convolution. Furthermore, allelic variation captured using MPS may be useful towards understanding of STR mutations and their rates and may contribute to evolutionary studies using STR markers.

One issue with current massively parallel sequencing (MPS) is the need to capture flanking region sequence variation to exploit the full power of forensically relevant STR loci. The application of such data will increase our knowledge and understanding of each locus, gain additional genetic information about population specific genetic parameters, increase the power of discrimination of a locus, and potentially aid in mixture de-convolution efforts. The underlying genetic variation needs to be described through studies on various population groups.

Allele sequence variation that resides within repeat and flanking regions will be presented on 27 autosomal, 7 X chromosome and 24 Y chromosome STRs identified in 777 unrelated individuals from four population groups. These markers were sequenced using the ForenSeq™ DNA Signature Prep Kit (Illumina) and MiSeq (Illumina) benchtop sequencer using the Forensic Genomics (FGx)™ software system. Data were analyzed with the supporting ForenSeq™ Universal Analysis Software (UAS) and supplemented with STRait Razor and in-house excel workbooks.

Methods

Samples, Extraction and Quantification

Whole blood samples were obtained from 777 unrelated individuals from four major population groups (US Caucasian, N=210; Hispanic, N=198; African American, N=200; and East Asian, i.e., Chinese, N=169). DNA was extracted using the Qiagen® QIAamp™ DNA Mini Kit and quantitated using the Qubit® 2.0 Fluorimeter.

ForenSeq™ Library Preparation and MiSeq Sequencing

The ForenSeq™ DNA Signature Prep Kit was used to barcode and create libraries for DNA sample batches of 32-34 samples per library, including controls. Sequencing was performed on the MiSeq Desktop Sequencer using the MiSeq FGx Forensic Genomics System (Illumina).

Sequence Variation Identification

Characterization of STR data was performed using a modified version of STRait Razor 2.0 and in-house Excel-based workbooks. A minimum coverage threshold of 5X was used for STR allele-calling. A stutter threshold of 20% was used for initial screening. Alleles were reported using nomenclature recommended by ISFG (Parson *et al*). Sequence variants were described as either pre-existing or novel, based on whether or not they have been characterized in the literature, and further defined by the location of the sequence variant, as either a repeat region (RR) variant or a flanking region (FR) variant.

Concordance Testing

Concordance testing was performed by CE generated genotypes using the GlobalFiler® PCR Amplification Kit and AmpFLSTR® Yfiler® PCR Amplification Kit on a subset of the population samples (n=170 for Globalfiler; n=59 for Yfiler). Discordance was defined as any instance in which an allele detected by one approach was not observed above the operationally defined coverage threshold by the comparison approach and/or the sequence was not the same.

Results

Novel sequence variants were identified in STR repeat regions and flanking regions. Four general categories of variation were observed with the SB information for the 777 population samples.

First, the effective increase in allele number due to sequence variation compared with alleles characterized by repeat number (or length) alone was due predominately to internal sequence variation present within the repeat regions of some of the STR loci. Consistent with the literature, the loci D2S1338, D12S391, and D21S11 exhibit the largest contribution to increased diversity via sequence variation in the RR. Among the four populations studied, there were 50 additional alleles detected in the D2S1338 locus; 60 additional alleles found at the D12S391 locus; and 63 additional alleles observed in the D21S11 locus. Other loci, such as D8S1179 and D6S1043, also had a number of sequence variant alleles, and most variants observed were different from the currently published repeat motifs.

Second, some loci demonstrated an effective increase in allele number only when FR sequence information was included. This category of variation includes STR loci in which the repeat regions of the alleles did not display sequence differences, but did show substantial variability in the flanking regions surrounding the repeat regions of interest. For example, the loci D7S820, D13S317, and D22S1045 did not have many sequence variant alleles observed within their RRs; however within the FRs, all three loci exhibited at least a 40% increase in the total number of alleles.

Third, several loci showed either RR variation or FR sequence variation in the SB alleles. The loci D18S51, DXS10135, and DYS385a-b are three examples in which there were alleles that contained both RR sequence and FR sequence variation.

Fourth, some loci such as DYS643, Y-GATA-H4 and TPOX did not display any effective increase in diversity using MPS beyond that which was observed by CE.

Of note, 400 alleles from 46 loci were observed in this study which have not yet been reported in the scientific literature, illustrating the additional degree of genetic variation that exists within

some of the most commonly used STR markers. By capturing flanking sequence information, correct repeat annotation for loci, such as vWA and D13S317, is possible. This method also allowed for resolution of indels present within the primer regions of traditional PCR-CE kits, allowing for better characterization of repeat regions of alleles and increased power of discrimination due to these flanking region variants. Allele frequencies, heterozygosities, and other forensic parameters by population were calculated.

There were examples of MPS data that rely solely on RR variation that were discordant with operationally defined CE-based data. In total, there were only 2 instances out of 7980 comparisons (170 samples x 20 loci x 2 alleles, assuming 2 alleles for a homozygote plus 59 samples x 18 Y-STR loci x 1 allele, assuming hemizygous loci and 59 samples X 1 Y-STR locus X 2 alleles (DYS385)) where a “potential mismatch” in allele designation occurred. The first was an allele with repeat [TATC]₁₁ at the D7S820 locus where an upstream single nucleotide deletion caused the allele designation by CE to be a 10.3. If MPS analysis only targets the repeat region, this allele would be called an 11. The other example was observed at the D22S1045 locus that was designated as a 15.1 allele by CE while the true RR number is a 15.

Conclusions

The population data described in this study demonstrate that there is variation and substantial novel variation within repeat regions and/or flanking regions of a number of STR markers, whereas a few loci present little to no additional discrimination power using MPS. While the current forensically relevant STR loci were not selected based on total genetic variation, moving forward it may be worthwhile to consider inclusion of STR loci that offer additional discrimination power in the form of RR and/or FR sequence variation.

Current PCR-CE genotyping methods are able to address the major portion of the current needs of the forensic community. However higher throughput, increased resolution, and better mixture de-convolution of complex biological samples are still needed. While the data described herein are sufficient to use for calculating the strength of STR results from casework evidence, the data are still only a small representation of the variation that likely exists for these loci. Sequence data currently does not exist in DNA databases, therefore sequence-based DNA profiles will likely for the time being be used for 1:1 comparisons of suspect or victim to evidence.

This study is the first of its kind to thoroughly evaluate flanking and repeat region sequence variation for 58 STR loci in five populations, which will prove invaluable to the forensic community for future investigations, including kinship analyses and mixture de-convolution assays. Continued efforts to establish population-based databases of these markers are essential for a greater understanding of STR diversity.

Related Publication

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