Forensic DNA mixtures: Analysis and comparison of software results

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Forensic DNA mixtures: Analysis and comparison of software results

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Todas as correções determinadas pelo júri, e só essas, foram efetuadas.

O Presidente do Júri,

Porto, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

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Abstract

Forensic samples recovered from crime scenes often contain genetic material from more than one contributor, originating profiles with multiple alleles per *locus*. Also, these samples are frequently composed by DNA in low quantity and/or quality, which favors the occurrence of stochastic effects, like drop-in and/or drop-out. Adding the possible presence of artifacts in an electropherogram, like stutter peaks, the outcome can be a very complex interpretation.

The number of contributors of DNA to a mixture can only be estimated, typically through the observation of the number of alleles per marker and peak imbalance. However, the mentioned effects and allele sharing between contributors (masking effect), can lead to a wrong estimation.

Mainly when dealing with complex samples, it is important to quantify its probative value through the computation of the Likelihood Ratio (LR), which compares the probabilities of observing the evidence assuming two opposite hypotheses. Several computer programs based on the LR approach have arisen, differing on the applied probabilistic methods. These programs are typically divided into those which are based on a) qualitative models, that only use qualitative information of the electropherogram; and b) quantitative models, that also use quantitative information (peak heights).

In this work, we recovered real casework mixture profiles (of two and three estimated contributors) from former cases of the Laboratório de Polícia Científica da Polícia Judiciária (LPC-PJ), as well as its respective reference profiles. Also, we simulated profiles of relatives of the casework references – one full-sibling and one parent. To each of the references (casework and simulated), we perform identity tests computing a LR (with the hypotheses of the reference being a contributor to the mixture and being genetically unrelated to any contributor of the mixture) using the estimated number of contributors and varying it by under- and overestimation. Moreover, we observed the impact on the LR when varying other parameters considered by the software, related to the co-ancestry coefficient of the population, allele drop-in and detection threshold limit, using the casework references. All the analyses were performed resorting to a quantitative software (Euroformix) and a qualitative one (LRmix Studio). The obtained LRs were also compared in an inter-software analysis.

The computed LRs through the different approaches diverged, producing the quantitative model higher LRs. Generally, the parameters' variation and the change of the estimated number of contributors had little effect on the LR. Notwithstanding, in some cases, the LR was greatly affected, specifically when the number of contributors was underestimated.

The results reinforce the importance of a cautious electropherogram interpretation and statistical analysis in order to obtain a reliable weight of the genetic evidence.

Keywords: Forensic casework; DNA mixture; STR profile; Likelihood Ratio; Software

Resumo

Amostras forenses recolhidas em local de crime muitas vezes contêm material genético proveniente de mais do que um contribuidor, originando perfis com múltiplos alelos por *locus*. Estas amostras são, frequentemente, compostas por ADN em baixa quantidade e/ou qualidade, o que favorece a ocorrência de efeitos estocásticos, como *drop-in* e/ou *drop-out*. Adicionando a possível presença de artefactos num electroferograma, como picos *stutter*, a interpretação pode-se tornar bastante complexa, consequentemente. O número de pessoas que contribuíram com ADN a uma mistura apenas pode ser estimado, o que normalmente é conseguido através da observação do número de alelos por marcador e pelo balanço de massas. Contudo, os efeitos mencionados e a partilha de alelos entre contribuidores (*masking effect*), podem levar a uma estimativa errada.

Principalmente lidando com amostras complexas, é importante quantificar o seu valor probativo através de uma Razão de Verosimilhança (LR, do inglês *Likelihood Ratio*), que compara as probabilidades de observar a prova segundo duas hipóteses opostas.

Vários programas de computador baseados na abordagem do cálculo de LR surgiram, diferindo no método probabilístico aplicado. Estes programas são tipicamente divididos naqueles que se baseiam em a) modelos qualitativos, que apenas utilizam informação qualitativo do electroferograma; e em b) modelos quantitativos que também utilizam informação quantitativa (alturas dos picos).

Neste trabalho, recuperámos perfis de mistura (de dois e três contribuidores estimados) de antigos casos reais do Laboratório de Polícia Científica da Polícia Judiciária (LPC-PJ), assim como os respetivos perfis referência. Também simulámos perfis de parentes das referências dos casos reais – um irmão e um pai. Para cada uma das referências (dos casos reais e simuladas), foram efetuados testes de identidade, calculando um LR (com as hipóteses da referência pertencer à mistura e de ser geneticamente não relacionada com nenhum contribuidor da mistura) usando o número de contribuidores estimado e variando-o, sub- e sobrestimando-o. Adicionalmente, observámos o impacto no LR ao variar outros parâmetros considerados pelos *software*, relacionados com o coeficiente de co-ancestralidade da população, *drop-in* e limite de deteção, para as referências reais.

Todas as análises foram realizadas recorrendo a um *software* quantitativo (*Euroformix*) e a um qualitativo (*LRmix Studio*). Os LRs obtidos foram também comparados numa análise inter*software*.

Os LR calculados através das diferentes abordagens divergiram, sendo que o modelo quantitativo produziu LRs mais elevados. Globalmente, a variação dos parâmetros e a alteração do número de contribuidores estimado teve pouco efeito no LR. Contudo, nalguns casos, o LR foi fortemente afetado, concretamente quando o número de contribuidores fui subestimado. Os resultados reforçam a importância de uma interpretação do electroferograma e análise estatística cuidadas e atentas, de forma a obter um valor probatório fiável.

Palavras-chave: Forense; Misturas de ADN; Perfil de STRs; *Likelihood Ratio*; *Software*

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Abbreviations

- **DNA –** Deoxyribonucleic acid
- **VNTR –** Variable Number Tandem Repeat
- **bp –** Base Pair
- **STR –** Short Tandem Repeat
- **SNP –** Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
- **InDel –** Insertion or Deletion
- **RFLP –** Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism
- **PCR –** Polymerase Chain Reaction
- **SDS -** Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate
- **DTT –** Dithiothreitol
- **epg -** Electropherogram
- **qPCR –** Quantitative PCR
- **C^T –** Cycle Threshold
- **IPC –** Internal PCR Control
- **dNTP -** Deoxynucleotide Triphosphate
- **CE –** Capillary Electrophoresis
- **RFU –** Relative Fluorescent Unit
- **LT-DNA –** Low Template DNA
- **LCN –** Low Copy Number
- **ISFG –** International Society of Forensic Genetics
- **MAC –** Maximum Allele Count
- **POI –** Person of Interest
- **LR –** Likelihood Ratio
- **RMNE –** Random Man Not Excluded
- **FST –** Co-ancestry Coefficient
- **IBD –** Identical by Descendent
- **T –** Threshold Limit
- **LPC-PJ –** Laboratório de Polícia Científica da Polícia Judiciária
- **NIST -** National Institute of Standards and Technology

1. Introduction

1.1. DNA structure and organization

The deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is a double stranded molecule arranged in helical form, discovered in 1953 by Watson and Crick [1], localized in the nucleus of the cells. It is formed by nucleotides units, which comprises a triphosphate group, a deoxyribose sugar and a nitrogenous base - adenine, cytosine, thymine or guanine. These are complementary in a specific way: adenine only pairs with thymine and cytosine with guanine; hydrogen bonds between the bases sustain the double strand conformation [1]. Humans have approximately three billion base pairs [2]; each of the nitrogenous bases provides the variation in nucleotides, since it is the variable element. Its immense possible sequence yields the biological diversity among living beings [3]. Concerning to the human beings, in some regions, the DNA sequence is the same to all the individuals of the specie and, in other regions, different; some of these differences are responsible for the distinct physical features of each individual.

This nucleic acid codes the information needed to accomplish its purpose: replicate itself so that all cells of the individual carry the same genetic material and synthetize proteins required for cell functions [3].

The human nuclear DNA is condensed and organized in 23 pairs of chromosomes (22 autosomal, i.e. similar in both females and males, and one sex-determining); each of the chromosomes of a pair is inherited from each parent (although they do not comprise exactly the same genetic information due to an exchange of information between the chromosomes of the parents - crossing over, during meiosis). These organization structures are contained in the nucleus of the cells and the entire genetic information of a cell is called the genome.

The human genome was studied through the Human Genome Project, that sequenced 99% of the euchromatic human DNA [4].

Based on the structure and function of different regions of the DNA, it can be divided in different groups. Most of the DNA does not code the synthesis of proteins, being either extragenic regions or introns (within the genes). The polymorphic DNA markers used for forensic purposes are required to be located in these non-coding regions [5].

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1.2.Types of genetic polymorphisms

Except identical twins (barring somatic mutations), it is expected that all individuals have different DNA and so, although it is estimated that only 0.3% of our DNA is variable, the probability of two individuals share the same DNA profile is virtually zero, for recombining markers [3; 6]. Recombination happens in autosomal and X-chromosomal markers in each generation, shuffling the genetic information and this way contributing to human diversity [5; 6]. The existing diversity in variable regions of autosomes makes it useful for forensic matters regarding to human identity, i.e., determining if there is a match or not between two samples [3], and other kinship problems. Due to the work developed on the human DNA, specific locations in those regions better suited for the mentioned purposes are now known (ex: markers with higher mutation rates).

Genetic variation can be seen in the form of sequence or length polymorphisms.

1.2.1. Minisatellites or Variable number tandem repeats (VNTRs)

Minisatellites or Variable number tandem repeats (VNTRs) are length polymorphisms consisting on a sequence being repeated in tandem in a variable number of times among different genome locations and also among individuals – reason why it is possible to differentiate persons with this type of markers.

The size of the repetitive motif of this polymorphism ranges from six to 100 bp (base pairs), which can be repeated thousands of times [7].

These were the first markers used in forensic genetics casework [8]. However, its use was limited by the high quantity of DNA required to the analysis and by the difficult interpretation of the results obtained, being their use in forensics replaced by other type of polymorphisms [2].

1.2.2. Microsatellites or Short Tandem repeats (STRs)

Microsatellites or Short Tandem repeats (STRs) are polymorphisms which also vary in length, distinguishable from the previously described by the smaller size of the repeated sequence, as the name indicates, ranging from one to six bp, being the most common in forensic use tetranucleotide repeats [2]. As in VNTRs, the variable number of repetitions is what differentiate individuals, with the distinction of smaller repetition numbers in this case. This variation is generated by random mutations, in which they gain or lose repeats by replication slippage [9].

Due to its characteristics, STRs become the widely used type of markers in forensics: (a.) abundant in the nuclear genome (mainly in non-coding regions [10]); (b.) high mutation rate ranging between 10^{-3} and 10^{-4} [11] - and consequently a high intrapopulational diversity (i.e., they are highly polymorphic since there are various allelic possibilities for a locus); (c.) low interpopulational diversity [10], which allows for not so distinct populational allele frequencies; (d.) it can be amplified in one multiplex (amplification of various loci in a single reaction), diminishing possible human errors and contamination;(e.) its processing can be automated, turning it simple and fast; (f.) the obtained results are easy to interpret since it consists on discrete alleles; (g) it is possible to amplify STRs with low quantities of DNA and even with degraded DNA [12].

Due to the general use of this type of markers, soon began to appear commercial kits to type STRs, which improved the interlaboratory consistency.

1.2.3. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)

SNPs are sequence polymorphisms in which, as the name indicates, a single nucleotide is substituted in a certain DNA sequence, through mutation occurrence during DNA replication in meiosis. It is the most abundant type of variation in the human genome: comparing a typical genome to the reference human genome, it was found that circa 96% of the variants consist of SNPs [13]. Because SNPs are typically biallelic (i.e., two possible bases for the respective nucleotide), these variable portions are not so polymorphic and, consequently, not so informative as STRs. To make them more discriminating it would be necessary to examine a large amount of them [14]. Particularly regarding to mixtures, the use of SNP markers would be problematic due to its only two allelic possibilities. On top of that, the processing is not as simple and rapid as the processing of STRs [2].

Despite such limitation, SNPs can be an option in cases involving degraded DNA, due to its small amplicons [15]. In addition, SNPs can be used to provide information on kinship analysis [16] (despite care should be taken when close relatives are involved [17]) and on geographic ancestry [18], considering its low mutation rate of the magnitude of 10^{-8} [19].

1.2.4. Insertions and deletions (Indels)

Insertions and deletions (Indels) are length polymorphisms which are characterized by the insertion or deletion of one or more nucleotides in the genome. They are fairly common in our genome, representing about 4% of the variants detected comparing a typical human genome to the reference one [13]

Its mutation rate is also low – order of magnitude of 10^{-8} [19], so they are not as polymorphic as STRs and, consequently, not as discriminating for individual identification. On the other hand, Indels can also be informative about populational studies and geographic ancestry [20, 21]. Small sized Indels allow for a short amplicon analysis, which is useful in cases with degraded DNA. Moreover, its processing can be simple as the processing of STRs [22].

1.3. Historical context of Forensic Genetics

In 1900, Karl Landsteiner observed that individuals could be placed in different groups based on their blood types, describing the ABO blood system. It was the first tool used in forensic matters, when in 1915 a paternity case was solved resorting to this system. Henceforth, other blood group markers were used in forensic laboratories, as well as protein profiling through gel electrophoresis. Despite the low discriminating power of these methods, they were capable of exclude individuals when reference and problem profiles did not match [3].

It was in 1985 that Alec Jeffreys realized the potential of hypervariable regions of genetic material to be applied to human identification, calling it "DNA fingerprint" [23, 24]. After digest human DNA with a restriction enzyme, he separated the fragments by agarose electrophoresis, transferred it to a nitrocellulose membrane and subjected it to hybridization with labeled probes complementary to minisatellites and flanking regions. The length polymorphism shown by these repetitive regions in DNA from different origins allowed him to infer that they could be used to specifically identify individuals. This method was applied for the first time in an immigration case, in the same year [25]. In 1987, the DNA fingerprinting was firstly successfully used in a criminal case [26].

Which takes us to the definition of forensic genetics. A descriptive one, used by the "Forensic Science International: Genetics" Journal is: "The application of genetics to human and non-human material (in the sense of a science with the purpose of studying inherited characteristics for the analysis of inter- and intra-specific variations in populations) for the

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resolution of legal conflicts". As so, DNA is currently used worldwide as a crucial tool in civil and criminal cases through kinship testing (identification included). In this work the focus will be the criminal application of identity testing, considering biological material containing DNA to link a perpetrator to a crime scene.

In the 1990s, methods and techniques quite evolved from the one previously described, as well as the types of DNA polymorphisms analyzed. Methods based in Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) had some limitations concerning to quality and quantity of DNA, besides the difficult comparison between genetic profiles, being replaced by more sensitive and fast methods based on Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) [26, 27]. Initially, the polymorphisms used in PCR based systems were SNPs, which substituted the use of VNTRs; afterwards, STRs became the most used DNA polymorphisms in forensic genetics, due to their great discriminating power [26, 28]. Around the change of the millennium, the first widely used commercial PCR kits to type multiple STRs arose, but with a limited number of markers [29]. Since then, the number of loci targeted in a multiplex reaction had been increasing and, currently, these kits are composed by more than 20 STRs, also increasing the ability to discriminate [30]. The set of STRs composing the current multiplex typing kits have an extremely low random match probability (chance of two random, unrelated, individuals share the same profile) [31].

These advances allowed for minimal quantities of (even degraded) DNA to be analyzed in an automated process, in short time and providing very informative data.

1.4. Forensic samples processing

1.4.1. Collection

In almost every criminal case, there is biological material left behind by the victim and/or perpetrator. After collection of the material, it is possible to obtain cells and, consequently, DNA. With the introduction of PCR, the ability to obtain a genetic profile through small quantities of biological material improved, since it became possible the amplification of specific DNA fragments. This increased sensibility can represent, however, a potential disadvantage. Indeed, it is required an extremely cautious collection and handling of the material in order to prevent contaminations of the evidential genetic material with DNA from a source extra to the crime scene, like from a crime scene officer, and possible wasting an important evidence to the investigation. Likewise, the preservation process must be done

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correctly by means of maintain a chain of custody so that the evidences can have value in court.

A wide variety of evidences can be collected from a crime scene to potentially extract DNA from it in the laboratory. Some of those items may be the weapon of the crime, clothes, shoes, balaclavas, cigarette butts, swab of a steering wheel and others. Commonly analyzed biological materials are blood, semen, rooted hair and epithelial cells from the skin.

While some biological stains are easily visible, other can be a little more challenging to detect or identify. Alternate light sources proved to be a helpful method of detection and/or identification of biological stains, since through emission of light in different wavelengths, biological fluids like semen, saliva and blood fluoresce [32]. Several rapid presumptive tests can also be used for identification of body fluids, mainly blood (most of these relying in the peroxidase-like activity of hemoglobin) [33, 34]. In addition, there are other type of techniques for identification of the origin of a biological material using profiling of mRNA, microRNA or DNA methylation [35-37].

So that it is possible to identify the origin of the DNA profiles obtained in the recovered evidences from the crime scene. Reference samples must also be collected to be compared. These are collected from the victim and the suspect(s), usually by buccal swab, yielding a single source, theoretically optimal, DNA profile.

1.4.2. DNA Extraction

To isolate the intended molecule $-$ the DNA $-$ it is necessary to extract it from inside the cells of the biological sample and separate them from other cellular components.

The extraction process can rely on different types of techniques, like organic extraction, Chelex extraction or solid-phase extraction.

The first typically uses a detergent (sodium dodecyl sulfate - SDS) and proteinase K to cause cell lysis and phenol-chloroform to denature the proteins. After centrifugation, an organic and an aqueous phases are formed, the latter containing the nucleic acids. The DNA is purified from this phase by ethanol precipitation or filter centrifugation [38]. This method was widely used but fall into disuse due to the toxicity of phenol. Another disadvantage was the multiple tube changes required that increased the possibility of contamination and make the process more laborious [2].

Chelex extraction is based on the use of a resin, with the name of the method, in the form of beads that are added to the sample as a suspension. The mixture is boiled so that the cell membranes disrupt, as well as cell proteins. Chelex has a very high affinity to polyvalent metal

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ions, such as magnesium, being, therefore, chelated. Magnesium can act as catalyst in DNA degradation; hence, by removing it, the DNA molecules are protected. After centrifugation, a supernatant with the DNA in single strand is obtained [39]. This is a rapid, low-cost and simple method, with diminished possibility of contamination [2].

FTA® paper was developed as a way of collect and store DNA samples, particularly blood. This paper is impregnated with denaturing chemicals that also protect and preserve the DNA, inhibiting degradation by nucleases and micro-organisms growth, allowing for the stability of the DNA for several months. So, when in contact with the paper, cell lyses and the DNA bounds to it. To purify the DNA, a small portion of the paper is punched and placed onto a tube and non-DNA components are washed off. The punched paper, now with purified DNA, is then directly subjected to PCR [40]. The major disadvantage and reason why it is not widely currently used, is because the dry piece of cut papers can move between wells in a sample tray due to static electricity [3].

Nevertheless, as in many other processes, laboratories have the need to automate. There are several systems that allow so, mainly solid-phase extractions, which relies on the selective bound of DNA to a solid substrate (silica, glass, magnetic beads) [41]. Currently in use in forensic laboratories are the commercial kits developed based on this type of extraction, such as PrepFiler™ Forensic DNA Extraction, which is a magnetic particle-based DNA extraction system. Initially, the piece of evidence is placed into a filter column, that goes into a spin tube. Then, a pre-processing stage is required: after the addition of a lysis buffer, dithiothreitol (DTT) and, in some kits, Proteinase K to the sample, the tubes are placed in a thermal shaker and then centrifuged. At this point, the samples lysate containing the genetic material are collected in the spin tube and the column is discarded. Henceforth, the remaining extraction process can be automatically completed in an equipment, since the kit also has cartridges with different compartments with the required reagents, including the magnetic particles [42].

Different types of kits can be used to deal with optimal, single source samples (reference samples), such as SwabSolution™ kit.

A particular case of extraction is the so-called differential extraction. This type of extraction is performed to separate female and male fractions of a mixed sample, generally in sexual assault crimes. The biological samples recovered in this type of crime usually contains epithelial cells originated from the female victim along with the spermatic cells from the male perpetrator (considering a typical case of this nature). The techniques used to separate the two distinct types of cells are based on the method described in 1985 by Peter Gill and colleagues [43]. The male DNA present in the spermatozoa is quite protected (by the acrosome, that encapsulates the nucleus). Thus, this is the base for the selective extraction:

the male fraction is extracted with a more aggressive technique, while the female epithelial cells can be lysed with a mild treatment. After the female cell lyses with a detergent (like SDS) and a proteinase (usually proteinase K), they are centrifuged and removed to a different tube to isolate the female fraction; the initial sample continues the extraction with the addition of DTT, to help the release of the male genetic material [43].

1.4.3. DNA Quantification

Before amplification, it is important to determine the amount of DNA present in the extracts, so that the quantity included into the PCR reaction be appropriate to yield a good quality electropherogram (epg). Too much or not enough DNA will result in a profile difficult to interpret. To ensure a good result, the samples may be adjusted by dilution or concentration.

Because reference samples are, in theory, optimal samples, they are not usually quantified. Contrary to current methods, in an early period, quantifications were not speciesselective, as they quantified the total DNA present in an extract, i.e., besides the human DNA, non-human DNA (from plant, animal, bacteria) that could be present were quantified as well. Ultraviolet and fluorescent spectroscopy and gel electrophoresis-based analysis were initially performed to quantify DNA. However, they had the disadvantages of low specificity or sensibility [44].

To overcome the problem of low specificity, two methods had arisen: hybridization by slot blot using a primate-specific probe [45], and a system of detection using *Alu* repeats, which are specific and abundant in the human genome [46]. However, these procedures were very laborious and the sensitivity had room to improve [44].

Real-time PCR or quantitative PCR (qPCR) was described in the early 1990s [47, 48] and has been widely used in different assays to accomplish not only the purpose of quantification, but others (like indication of the level of DNA degradation of a sample) [49]. The most common approach to the technique uses a TaqMan probe, which is labeled with two molecules - the reporter fluorophore and the quencher (which suppresses the emission of fluorescence by the reporter when they are close to each other). The probe is complementary with the amplicon sequence (between the two primers region), hybridizing in the PCR reaction; then, during the primer extension, the *Taq* DNA polymerase cleaves out the probe separating the two label molecules, starting the reporter to fluoresce [50, 49]. The fluorescence emission is proportional to the quantity of amplified DNA, since as more PCR products are generated, the more the fluorescence signal increases. In this type of amplification, it is possible to monitor

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the production of amplicons in real time, through the measure of fluorescence signal, that generates an amplification curve. These have typically distinct phases: a) lag phase, the initial stage, where there is still no amplification product accumulated to be measured; b) exponential phase, when the reaction components are in abundance and the amplification products are being generated, doubling every cycle; c) linear phase, when the reagents become scarce and the PCR reaction slows down; and d) plateau phase, the final of the reaction. The quantification is based on the fact that the increase in the PCR product are related to the initial quantity of DNA. It is in the exponential phase that the measurements of fluorescence in function of the cycle number are performed, since is when that relationship is more consistent. The value used to do the quantification calculations is the number of cycles needed for the fluorescence to reach a determined threshold – the so-called cycle threshold (C_T) , which is detectable over the background noise, in the amplification phase, and is set by the real-time PCR software. The fewer cycles are needed to the fluorescence reach the threshold (i.e., lower the C_T), the higher is the initial quantity of DNA. The obtained curves for casework samples are then compared with standard curves [50].

Besides DNA quantification, available commercial kits provide more information about the genetic evidence due to the specific targeted regions: small autosomal, large autosomal and Y chromosomal portions. The ratio between the first two types of regions delivers an index of degradation (good quality samples amplify small and large fragments in similar proportion, so this index should be low). The quantification of male DNA compared to the autosomal quantification helps to evaluate mixtures with male and female DNA. Moreover, the kits contain an internal PCR control (IPC), which enables to test the presence of inhibitors. Examples of these kits are Quantifiler[™] Trio, Investigator Quantiplex and PowerQuant® System.

1.4.4. DNA Amplification

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), firstly described in 1985 by Kary Mullis [27], is one of the most important discovers to molecular science. The capacity to produce a massive quantity of copies of DNA out of small amounts of a specific fragment is an invaluable tool particularly to forensics, where samples are often limited in quantity.

The PCR is based on the natural replication of DNA during the cell cycle, where the DNA content is duplicated. This process was adapted to be executed in vitro, resourcing to an enzyme and to specific DNA fragments to amplify the target sequence.

A PCR reaction contains (a.) a DNA template, from which the copies are obtained, (b.) the enzyme – DNA polymerase, which must be thermostable, to resist to elevated temperature (classically, *Taq* polymerase, a DNA polymerase isolated from a thermophilic bacteria), (c.) primers, fragments of single stranded DNA designed to be complementary to the flanking regions of the sequence of interest; and (d.) deoxynucleotide triphosphates (dNTPs), containing the four bases in similar proportions.

The reaction consists in temperature cycles, provided by thermocyclers, with three stages: (i.) denaturation of the double stranded DNA molecule, (ii.) primers annealing to both strands of the denatured DNA template, (iii.) and synthesis of the new strands by primers extension through addition of dNTPs by the *Taq* polymerase (Figure 1).

This cycle is repeated several times; in each one, every target fragment doubles. Commercial kits containing al the needed components to the reaction are available, significantly simplifying the technique.

Figure 1. Polymerase Chain Reaction temperature cycles. Adapted from: http://2015.igem.org/Team:Pasteur_Paris/Experiments

Another major benefit of this technique is the possibility of multiplexing, which was developed just a few years later to the PCR description [51]. Multiplex PCR allows the amplification of several target sequences simultaneously at the same reaction, just by adding more sets of primers, directed to the intended regions of the DNA [52]. Current kits employed in forensics consist of STR multiplex kits, i.e., containing multiple pairs of primers directed to the target STRs (Figure 2). These primers have a fluorescent dye bound to one of its ends, which will be used in the next stage.

It is worth to mention that the phases pre- and pos-PCR should be executed in separate locations. Samples from the crime scene and samples from references should also be handled separately in time.

Figure 2. Primers position during DNA amplification process. [55]

1.4.5. STR Separation and Detection

Next to the amplification of the STR markers, they must be separated by length. Formerly, this was achieved by gel electrophoresis and the fragments were detected by silver staining, a laborious and time-consuming method [53]. Currently, the capillary electrophoresis (CE) [54] is the method used and the detection is fluorescent-based. This type of electrophoresis uses electrokinetic injections, where an electric voltage is applied across the capillary – a narrow glass tube, to which the DNA molecules of the samples are drawn according to the electric charge; there, they are separated by length due to a polymer solution on the capillary. A laser light placed close to the end of the capillary detects when a DNA molecule passes by; knowing that smaller fragments move faster across the polymer, the time span from the sample injection to the laser detection correlates to the size of the fragments. For alleles from different loci overlapping in size can be distinguish, the primers used in the amplification are labeled with a fluorescent dye bound; to account for the possible overlaps, in a reaction can be used up to five different dyes. They are excited by the light laser, emitting fluorescence in different regions of the spectra, that is detected by a camera, determining which dye is present, and sending the information to the respective software.

This technique holds a high resolution, allowing for the typing of microvariants too. Besides that, CE has the advantages of being totally automated and using a very small quantity of sample in one analysis (the samples can be reinjected if needed) [55].

1.4.6. STR genotyping

Software programs like GeneMapper® are able to assign the respective alleles to each of the STRs detected.

Along with the samples, an internal size standard and an allelic ladder are injected to the CE. The size standard contains DNA fragments of known size (labeled with a different colored dye); determining the software the size of the alleles from the analyzed samples by comparison with a curve produced by the internal size standard. The allelic ladder contains all the alleles of the loci, previously sequenced; STRs typing is accomplished by comparing the sizes of the alleles of the samples with the alleles of the allelic ladder [55]. Each allele is attributed with a number that represents the number of repeats.

This results in an epg, that contains all the detected alleles organized by marker (that are organized by dye color), in the form of peaks (Figure 3). An epg presents, then, a STR profile, that is, the combination of all the loci genotypes. The peaks are plotted as fluorescent intensity detected versus the time passing through the detector on the capillary on CE (data point). The data point is correlated with the allele size (as mentioned before, smaller sized DNA fragments pass through the detector first, hence having a smaller data point).

The peak height, measured in relative fluorescent units (RFUs), is correlated to the DNA quantity. Bigger the amount of a specific PCR product detected by its fluorescent dye, higher the RFU and, so, the peak height.

Figure 3. Electropherogram showing a profile with 20 STRs [56].

1.4.7. Profile interpretation

An exhibited peak in an epg is not necessarily an allele, as there are peaks that correspond to artifacts related to the biology of STRs or to the technologies of amplification or detection of PCR products [3, 56].

Despite the automatic evaluation performed by the software, an STR profile must always be reviewed manually by an expert, who verifies if there are artifact peaks incorrectly assigned as alleles, editing if needed. So that the results can be validated, typically, two analysts do the assessment of each profile, separately.

Each laboratory uses a determined threshold limit (e.g.: 50-100 RFUs), which separates analytical from background fluorescence. A too high threshold limit may lead to allele loss; in contrast, with a too low limit background noise and artefactual peaks may be shown [57].

Some laboratories also consider an additional higher threshold – interpretation or stochastic threshold - above which it is reliable that the data is free from stochastic effects and homozygotic peaks can be safely treated as so (as below the stochastic threshold, an apparent homozygous may, in fact, be a heterozygous with a dropped allele) [58].

The training of the analysts is essential, since the effects that can be featured in an epg are several, raising difficulties to its interpretation.

1.4.7.1. Artifacts

The most common artifacts present in a profile are *stutter* peaks (Figure 4) [59]. These peaks are formed during amplification, through a process explained as slippage of the DNA polymerase when extending a new formed strand. It releases from the DNA and the two strands separate as well; when they reattach, a loop is formed if the new strand binds to the template strand one repeat in front of the one supposed. It results in a new fragment that is one repeat (4 bp, for tetranucleotide markers) shorter than what it was supposed to. It usually happens late in the amplification process, and that is why stutter peaks commonly have less than 15% of the correspondent allelic peak [2, 56]. By the position and height, a stutter can be easily identified; however, in an epg with a mixture of DNA donors in which there are minor contributors, some peaks can be very complex to determine if it is a stutter or an allele from one minor contributor.

The so-called stutters generally refer to back stutters (for being placed right before the main peak), but forward stutters are also possible, albeit much less frequent [60]

The probability of stutter occurrence varies according to the STR: shorter core repeats are more prone to this artifact, being this the reason why the markers used in forensics are preferentially tetranucleotides [2].

Split peaks are another biological artifact that may occur (Figure 4) [61]. After copying the DNA template, DNA polymerase adds an adenine to the end of the PCR products. This activity is non-template dependent and happens frequently, being the residue added to the vast majority of the amplified molecules. However, when there is too much DNA or when the polymerase activity is sub-optimal, the enzyme does not add the adenine in all the molecules, resulting some of them one bp longer than the others, to the same allele. One of the split peaks should be assign as "off ladder" by the software. Visually, a peak corresponding to an allele will have the tip split in two (corresponding to the one bp difference).

Regarding to artifacts related to the techniques used in the processing of the samples, one that is common when there is an elevated DNA quantity is *pull-up* (Figure 4). Different dyes used to label different primers can have spectral overlap, which is adjusted by the software, attributing to the fragment the correct color (i.e., in the raw data, a peak is composed of more than one dye color – the correct one and minor ones; after the software correction, it is composed of just one dye color - Figure 5). If the linear range of detection is exceeded due to sample overload, a minor color is "pulled up" to another channel. The result is a minor peak in a different color panel from the major peak from where it was originated, in the same data point. That can help to identify this type of peak, as well as its typical rounded morphology [3; 56].

Residual dye molecules can also be an artifactual peak shown in epgs. These are called *dye blobs* (Figure 4) [62]. They are formed when the fluorescent dyes are not properly attached in the primer synthesis and are released in that phase or come off during the amplification process. The free dye molecule is detected in CE, appearing in the profile as a rounded peak. Dye residues can be removed through a filtration column. Nevertheless, due to their morphology, they can be generally easily identified.

A sharp peak passing through all the color panels is called *spike* and is caused by the detection of crystalized salts in the CE (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Schematic illustration of several artifacts: stutter peaks, incomplete adenylation or split peaks, dye blob, spike and pull-up. [3]

Figure 5. Spectral overlap in raw data (top) and peaks composed of only one dye color after genotyping software correction. [2]

1.4.7.2. Low template DNA

Evidences collected from crime scenes often have a minimal content of biological material. These samples are typically called *Low template DNA* (LT-DNA). A method usually called *Low copy number* (LCN) can be used to process these samples, typically associated with a quantification of less than 200 pg of DNA. It consists in rising the number of PCR cycles to 34 in order to increase the sensibility of the technique [63, 64]. Although it is possible to obtain a profile, great sensibility potentiates the risk of contamination and the incidence of stochastic

effects like elevated heterozygotic imbalance, drop-in or drop-out; and it is also common to verify an increase in stutter peaks [64].

Heterozygote imbalance refers to a situation where the two alleles of an heterozygotic locus have substantial different heights due to the preferential amplification of one of the alleles. Theoretically, the both heterozygotic alleles would have the same height. However, they normally have some variation, due to preferential amplification of one of the alleles, typically the smaller sized one, i.e., the one with less number of repeats. With LCN, this discrepancy increases [65]. If the sample at stake is a mixed profile, the peak imbalance makes the deconvolution of the contributors very challenging, or impossible [66]. The imbalance also can be so pronounced that one of the heterozygotic alleles does has a height below the threshold limit. In this case, it is said that the allele had dropped out.

Allele drop-out is the condition of the presence of a certain allele in the DNA sample that is not displayed in the obtained profile. When drop-out occurs in all the alleles of a locus, it is called *locus drop-out*.

On the opposite, *allele drop-in* can also arise, that is, the presence of a spurious allele that is not from the evidence sample. It is originated from traces of randomly fragmented DNA in the laboratory environment and it should not be amplified in a duplicate reaction [67].

Drop-out and drop-in events create discrepancies between the DNA from the evidence and the reference profile being, therefore, a drawback in profile interpretation.

Nevertheless, the LCN technique is not currently applied very often, since existing kits have a sensibility that allows for the amplification and typing of very low quantities of DNA, without the need to increase the PCR cycles and consequently amplify the risk of the referred effects. However, when the quantified DNA is minimal, the volume of the sample that undergoes through PCR can be increased.

1.4.7.3. Degraded samples

In forensics routine it is usual to recover samples that may have been exposed to the environment for a long time, passing through high temperatures, humidity and microorganisms contamination [12]. In these conditions, the genetic material present in the samples can suffer physical and biochemical degradation, i.e., be fragmented in small portions. If the cleaved sites are located in the polymorphic markers analyzed, its corresponding peaks in the profile will have a lower height than the one that was supposed to (relatively to the true quantity of DNA present in the sample) or will even be undetected. Since larger markers (i.e., with higher number of repeat units) are more prone to fragmentation, degraded samples generate a characteristic type of profile (Figure 6), in which the peak heights decrease from the left side of the epg to the right side, showing the amplification success declining as the length of alleles increases.

The interpretation of these profiles is challenging, since they may be partial ones. Though, in some cases the limited information may not be a problem, if the present alleles are rare enough for yield a powerful probative value.

Mixture profiles, however, are much more complex to interpret if the DNA of the contributors is degraded or even if just one contributor DNA is degraded (in this situation, the contributor's relative proportions may vary in different markers).

If the regular STR multiplex amplification does not result in a reliable profile, there are alternatives to analyze degraded samples, like the use of SNP or mini-STRs, since these have a reduced size, are less likely to be fragmented, and so can provide a useful profile [68-70].

Figure 6. Typical degraded profile. The markers size increase from left to right; the PCR products declines with increased size. Adapted from: [2]

1.4.7.4. Mixed samples

Many collected samples in the context of a crime investigation are composed by biological material from more than one individual, being them involved in the crime (e.g.: DNA of both the victim and the suspect) or as background in the evidence (e.g.: a swab of a steering wheel of a car driven by more than one person). The obtained profile after processing these samples is a mixture of the genetic profiles of its contributors.

The DNA commission of the International Society for Forensic Genetics (ISFG) provided a recommended guideline to the interpretation of mixtures [71].

The first step should be the identification of the presence of a mixture, which is achieved by the presence of more than two alleles per locus, generally in several of them. Notwithstanding it is worth to note that extra alleles may not necessarily correspond to a contributor, but to artifacts or stochastic effects, which is a major barrier in mixtures' interpretation [72]. Also, a large height discrepancy between alleles can be observed, which can be due to allele sharing between the contributors or to different relative quantity proportions between them. Difficulties to detect a mixed profile arise in low quality or partial profiles (due to low quantity DNA and/or degraded) and in the presence of contributors who are genetically related [72].

Next to the mixture detection, the number of contributors must be determined. Note that this is always an estimated parameter, as it is never known how many individuals contributed with their DNA to the evidence. The commonly applied method to estimate the number of contributors is based on qualitative and quantitative information of the epg. The locus showing the maximum number of alleles determines the minimum number of contributors required to explain it - Maximum Allele Count (MAC) - (e.g.: in a certain profile, the locus/loci with more alleles show six, so the minimum number of individuals which can explain it is three, being all heterozygotic). The relative heights of the alleles in the analyzed markers contribute to the estimation of the number of donors too. Additionally, information about the circumstances of the crime may also assist to this stage [73]. It is generally accepted that the determination of the minimum number of contributors is sufficient [74, 71]. Nevertheless, alternative approaches have been suggested, like the estimation of the number of contributors by a maximum likelihood approach [75], and others [76-78].

Since the number of contributors is an estimation (made by the expert, most of the times), it is subjected to error, being possible to under or overestimate it. Bright et al. [79] describe scenarios where these situations are likely to occur. Contributors may be underestimated if: (a.) the DNA of one of them is in so tiny quantity that their presence is unnoticed; (b.) there is a significant allele sharing (e.g.: if the contributors are genetically related) or one donor is masked by other (masking effect) in such form that the peak heights does not allow the inference (c.) if there are multiple low-level donors whom, consequently, suffered drop-out. Concerning the (less common) possibility of overestimate the number of contributors, it generally occurs due to stochastic effects, like a high peak imbalance and/or stutter and dropin peaks.

Estimate the proportion of each of the components of the mixture is a useful step in its interpretation, knowing that the ratio of DNA template of each contributor in the extracts is maintained through the samples processing and being, therefore, reflected on the height of the peaks. They can be present in similar proportions or it can be possible to distinguish the

minor and major contributors. This determination is preferentially done using markers in which seems that all the contributors are heterozygous, to avoid estimate the ratio based in shared alleles. As the ratio increases, is easier to interpret the major donor; oppositely, the minor donor may be impossible to interpret [72].

Following, the possible genotype combinations should be considered. If the qualitative information brings several genotypic possibilities for a specific set of alleles in a locus, adding the quantitative information and the determinations done in the previous step, helps to delimit the possibilities (if there is a clear minor and major contributor) [72].

Only after these determinations, the reference sample from a putative contributor must be considered and compared with the mixture profile, to avoid the possibility of a biased interpretation. If the profile of a person of interest (POI), matches the determined genotypes, it cannot be excluded from having contributed to the mixture [71].

1.4.8. Quantification of the weight of the DNA evidence

When a DNA profile from a POI does not match a good quality profile from an evidence recovered from the crime scene, it is reasonable to say that the suspect is excluded from having contributed with his/her DNA to the sample. In contrast, when a match is observed, it cannot be excluded that the POI contributed with his/her DNA to the sample. However, it cannot be categorically stated that the individual had contributed to the sample, since there is the possibility that the evidence does not contain DNA from the POI, but the profiles coincide by chance, i.e., it is a random match. Therefore, the weight of the evidence must be quantified. Reversely to the classical fields of forensics that rely on the principle of discernable uniqueness, forensic genetics does not individualize, but calculates expected frequencies for types of observations [80].

The assessment of the probative value relies on the assumption that every DNA profile occurs with a certain frequency in the considered population. An evidence profile containing rare alleles (i.e., with low frequency), delivers a more powerful evidence.

The recommended method by the DNA Commission of the ISFG [71] and widely accepted by the scientific community for the quantification of the proof is the calculation of a Likelihood Ratio (LR) [81], which opposes two alternative and mutually exclusive hypotheses on the origin of the genetic material of the evidence. In the context of an identity test and a mixture evidence, the hypotheses generally state that a certain reference profile is a contributor of the mixture (H1) and that a certain reference profile is neither a contributor of the mixture, nor genetically related to a contributor (H2).

The probabilities of observing the evidence (*E*) under these two hypotheses are calculated using the frequencies of the alleles of the evidence and are then compared:

$$
LR = \frac{P(E|H1)}{P(E|H2)}
$$

According to Bayes' Theorem, posterior odds are calculated by multiplying prior odds (which considers other type of data) with the LR computed based on the genetic evidence [82]:

$$
\frac{P(H1|E)}{P(H2|E)} = \frac{P(H1)}{P(H2)} \times \frac{P(E|H1)}{P(E|H2)}
$$

The *a priori* probabilities of each of the hypotheses $- P(H1)$ and $P(H2) -$ are, generally, considered to be the same. Therefore, the posterior odds are equivalent to the LR computed by the forensic genetics' expert.

A LR greater than one favors the H1, and H2 is favored by an LR inferior to one (assuming *a priori* odds equally likely). The obtained result represents how many times it is more likely to observe the evidence assuming one hypothesis, than assuming the other. The interpretation of the obtained LR value is not objective, in terms of include or exclude a POI; instead, it provides different levels of support to the defined hypotheses.

It is worth mention that there is a common misconception of the LR, which is stating that the result represents a probability of identity or how many more times one hypothesis is more likely than the other. This falls within the fallacy of the transposed conditional or the prosecutor's fallacy [83], i.e., the likelihood of the hypothesis given the evidence, P(*H*|*E*).

In contrast to other approaches to assess the probative value, LR can account stochastic effects that may occur during samples processing and is, consequently, the generally considered most suitable method to what is the forensics reality.

Another method, currently in disuse, is a simple frequentist approach to evaluate the significance of the evidence, like the Random Man Not Excluded (RMNE). It considers how often a random individual from the population would be excluded as a contributor of the observed evidence. Although this method has the advantages of being easier to explain on court and not require estimates of the number of contributors, it entails a binary vision of alleles, as it does not consider stochastic effects and neglect information that could be used in the statistical assessment, since it does not depend on the genotype of the POI at stake, hence being a less powerful method compared to LR. RMNE relies on an unrealistic simplistic view of DNA evidence [84, 85].

1.4.8.1. Interpretation models

Several interpretation models are based on the calculation of the statistical weight by the LR method. The simplistic binary models assign a value of zero or one (non-match or match) to the evidence, depending on the observed data. This was achieved considering genotypes as possible or impossible, initially just based on the presence/absence of alleles and, afterwards, based on heterozygote balance and mixture proportion [86].

With the introduction of software-based [87] probabilistic methods, the probabilities assigned for the assumed hypotheses could have any value from zero to one, solving the issue of binary models of not dealing with a locus showing a non-concordance [84, 86]. Accordingly, semicontinuous or qualitative models introduced the assignment of events of drop-in and drop-out to observed and missing alleles, respectively (for this reason these models are also called *dropmodels*). It includes on the probabilistic calculation, the probability of a dropped allele – Pr(*D*) – and allelic contamination – Pr(*C*) [87]. An example of a semi-continuous interpretation software is LRmix Studio [74; 89].

Continuous or quantitative models added the advantage of considering quantitative information, such as the height of the peaks (using it as continuous variables), into the assessment of the possible genotype combinations. This approach is also capable of modeling stutter peaks. Due to the consideration of stochastic effects and artifacts, these models are able to handle any non-concordance that may occur [90]. Euroformix is one of the software programs using quantitative models currently available [91].

Although the evaluation of a probative value through the computation of the LR using the quantitative model can be complex to explain in court, that should not overlap to the fact that it is the method which does the wider use of the available information provided within an epg and, consequently, the most appropriate.

1.4.8.2. Parameters influencing the quantification of the proof

The resulting LRs obtained through the currently used approaches (qualitative and quantitative) depend not only on the frequency of the alleles in the population, but are also influenced by other parameters, such as:

1.4.8.2.1. Number of contributors

As already mentioned (see 1.4.7.4), when dealing with a genetic evidence that consists on a mixed profile, the number of donors must be estimated (as the correct number is never known). However, this is a challenging task due to effects such as allele sharing between donors and stochastic events. Attention to this topic and its implication in LR computations has been devoted through empirical analysis [92, 93, 73].

1.4.8.2.2. Co-ancestry coefficient (F_{ST})

The calculation of a genotype frequency relies on the Hardy-Weinberg model, which entails some rules to be met in the population: be infinitely large, have random mating, free from effects of migration, free of natural selection, and no occurrence of mutations. Most populations do not meet these criteria, being sub-structured and its allele frequencies (and consequently profiles) varying between subpopulations. Within a subpopulation, there is a higher level of relatedness (relatively to the whole population) and, so, there is a higher probability that a shared allele between two individuals to be identical by descendent (IBD), that is, it descends from a common ancestor. Hence, if this is not taken into account, it leads to a wrong estimation of the profile frequencies [94]. Consequently, it is required to correct the statistical evaluation through the application of what it is called theta (θ) or F_{ST} in the calculations of profile frequencies [95]. This parameter is an empirical determined measure of population substructure. However, most laboratories with forensic casework routine, considers assigned values for similar populations, also based on previous recommendations [94].

1.4.8.2.3. Drop-in

As stated before (see 1.4.7.2), it is possible that alleles non-related to the crime appear in the epg. Existing qualitative and quantitative interpretation software are able to handle with the possibility of drop-in occurrence when computing a LR. For modelling drop-in occurrence is required to introduce the respective probability, as well as a parameter related to the height of drop-in peaks in the case of quantitative models, the so-called lambda, $λ$. Higher is the $λ$ value, higher is the sensitivity for peak heights, i.e., peaks little differentiated regarding to heights can have very different probabilities of being considered as a drop-in (given that the drop-in probability always decreases with height increase) [96]. Ideally, a drop-in probability should be
estimated to each profile using negative controls; however, it is common practice to use a default value in forensics routine [97].

Depending on the assigned drop-in probability, the observed alleles of an evidence are attributed with a certain weight: as the drop-in probability decreases, the chance that an observed peak on an epg belongs to a contributor increases.

1.4.8.2.4. Threshold limit (T)

A threshold limit is a value (measured in RFUs) beyond which peaks are considered an allele, separating them from baseline noise. A large threshold limit ensures the exclusion of noise signals from the genetic profile and, thus, that they are not assigned as alleles; however, it may also lead to information loss, since smaller alleles may not be detected. On the other side, a low threshold reduces the chance of data loss, but increases the possibility of noise peaks on the profile. With this in mind, it must be found a balanced threshold limit that minimizes the effects of drop-in and drop-out [57].

2. Aims

Under the framework of identity testing, the main aim of this work is to compare computed Likelihood Ratios (LRs) obtained through different statistical models, mostly using real casework mixtures and references.

For this, we compare LR results:

- (a.) Obtained through two software programs, one based on a qualitative model and other on a quantitative one;
- (b.) Considering mixtures with different estimated number of contributors;
- (c.) Varying the estimated number of contributors of each mixture for both real and simulated ($1st$ degree relatives of the first) references;
- (d.) Varying several parameters related to populational sub-structure and analytical factors, that are introduced in the software by the user for the casework references;

3. Methods

3.1. Sampling

3.1.1. Real casework samples

Although recognizing that mocked samples can be used to study the performance of software programs, in this work we mainly considered real criminal casework samples since these have a multifactorial complexity associated that are difficult to replicate. Thus, we sought to observe the behavior of the informatics programs using this type of samples. In this regard, the samples chosen to be part of this work were evidences selected from former cases of the Laboratório de Polícia Científica da Polícia Judiciária (LPC-PJ), with the criteria of being mixtures and have at least one reference (single profile) associated.

The reference STR profiles were obtained previously by the LPC-PJ through sampling of one individual that was considered to be a possible donor of the corresponding mixture, based on the police investigation. Consequently, in the respective caseworks, they were analyzed as POI and it was concluded that they could not be excluded to be a contributor of the mixture. Some of the references used in this work have a different background, as they do not were sampled from an individual, but are single profiles obtained in the same case that the respective mixture, that were also not excluded to belong to a contributor of the mixture.

The samples were previously processed in the context of the respective casework, through extraction in Automate ExpressTM Forensic DNA Extraction System, using the PrepFiler Express BTATM Forensic DNA Extraction kit; quantification in the equipment 7500 Real-Time PCR System, using the Quantifiler[™] Trio DNA Quantification kit; amplification in thermal cycler GeneAmp® PCR System 9700 using GlobalFilerTM PCR Amplification kit; and, finally, PCR products detection and separation by capillary electrophoresis in 3500 Genetic Analyzer. The work under the scope of this thesis initiated with the search for the required genetic profiles, which were found in report format (in tables).

3.1.2. Simulated samples

In this work we also analyzed the behavior of the computer programs when a close relative of the reference was considered as the POI and the number of contributors varied. To do so, profiles of one full-sibling and one parent were simulated for each reference through algorithms computed in software R. These profile simulations were conditioned to the alleles

of the reference profile. To simulate a profile of a parent of the reference, to each marker was attributed an allele of the reference on that marker, each of the two alleles with 50% of probability. The other allele of the parent to that marker was generated considering the cumulative frequency of the alleles in the population (to each allele corresponds the sum of the frequencies of the previous alleles). It is worth to note that this approach reflects the frequency of the alleles in the population as more frequent alleles have a wider interval associated. Random numbers between 0 and 1 were generated and the attributed allele is the one corresponding to the interval where the random number situates.

To simulate a full-sibling of the reference, the genotypes of their parents must be simulated first. To each marker, one parent was attributed with one allele of the reference, and the other parent with the other allele. The lacking allele in each parent was generated by the same method described above. Next, each parental allele was considered to be transmitted with 50% of probability to the full-sibling that is being simulated.

3.2. Profile Interpretation

The fsa files of the casework mixtures and corresponding reference profiles considered, were recovered so that they could be analyzed through the typing software GeneMapper[®] ID-X - with a threshold limit of 100 RFUs, in order to attribute the present alleles and obtain the electropherograms. In this stage, we decided about the peaks presented in the electropherogram, eliminating those that we considered that were not allelic but an artifact or a stochastic effect (see Chapters 4.7.1 and 4.7.2).

Afterwards, we estimated the number of contributors to each mixture by observation of the electropherogram through allele count per marker and their relative heights. Profiles with four or more apparent donors were discarded of this study, as they can be too complex to interpret.

As so, the final selected sample for this study was composed by 79 mixtures with two contributors estimated, and by the same number of mixtures with three contributors estimated. For each one of these 158 mixtures we considered one real casework reference sample, and one parent and one full-sibling simulated from the previous real profile.

3.3. Statistical Analyses

For each pair mixture/reference (real or simulated), a weight of evidence was calculated in the form of the LR, assuming as hypothesis: "the POI is a contributor of the mixture" (in the numerator) and "the POI is genetically unrelated to any contributor of the mixture" in the denominator (see 1.4.8). Note that when using the simulated references, we are not following the assumptions of the software and therefore the results will be biased. Nevertheless, with this approach we intended to simulate the case where, unknowingly, a relative of a reference compatible with a profile of the mixture is analyzed under the assumptions stated above (which are those generally considered).

LRs were calculated through two computer programs of interpretation of forensic samples: one using a quantitative model – Euroformix version 1.9.3; the other using a qualitative model - LRmix Studio version 2.1.3 (see 1.4.8.1).

The weighing of the probative value depends on the allelic frequencies of the population and, in this work, we considered the database of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) concerning the Caucasian population (see Appendix I).

The number of contributors (see 1.4.8.3) is a setting that must to be introduced by the user in the software before each analysis. This parameter is not known, being only possible an estimation by the expert, depending on his/her evaluation of the electropherogram, in each case. Given that the common bad quality and low quantity of DNA present in forensic evidences this can be a complex assessment, as it is possible that this parameter can be incorrectly estimated by being under or overestimated. Hence, these circumstances were experienced in this work, by computing a LR to a reference profile inputting a number of contributors that was below and above the number estimated. Precisely, for real pairs mixture/reference, mixtures assumed as having two contributors were also analyzed considering three; and mixtures assumed as having three were also analyzed assuming two and four contributors. On the other hand, and due to time constraints, for simulated reference profiles only mixtures with three donors estimated were analyzed with under- and overestimation.

In each of the computer programs, specific parameters can be introduced by the user. For those chosen to be tested in this work, we established some values, designated hereafter as "default values", which we considered reasonable for urban populations, taking into account the default values on the software, as well as values presented in the literature. The LRs were computed to all real and simulated references with these values. These obtained LRs are those used as benchmark for comparison with the LRs resulting from the variation of number of contributors and of other parameters, described next. Setting the parameters to the same default value on the two computer programs, allowed us to compare the results obtained through the both.

Then, we determined variations of the default values (under and above these), for each parameter, as described below in sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.3 (see also Table 1). Using those varied values, LRs were calculated for real casework references.

The LRs were computed varying the parameters each at a time, so it was possible to perceive the effect of the variation of each parameter separately. The impact on the probative value of each variation was measured by subtracting the LRs in 10-log scale (which is equal to the log₁₀ of the ratio of the two LRs at stake).

Note that all the LR variations were compared not only intra-, but also inter-computer programs.

In total, 3950 LR computations were performed.

3.3.1. Co-ancestry coefficient

For F_{ST} (see 1.4.8.4), the defined default value was 0.01. This value corresponds to the default in LRmix Studio, and is sustained by studies with similar populations where this value was used, and on what was recommended as a value for a broad geographic group [97-99, 79], being however referred as a too conservative value for urban populations in some studies [100, 101]. Beyond the default value 0.01, the varied values of F_{ST} tested were: (a.) 0, representing a situation where the effect of subpopulation is ignored; (b.) 0.03, a value that already was recommended for broad geographic groups [99] but meanwhile was considered extremely conservative for nowadays populations [102]; and (c.) 0.015, an intermediate value to verify a possible trend on LR increase or decrease.

3.3.2. Drop-in

The probability of drop-in (see 1.4.8.5) was set to 0.05 as default, a value considered as reasonable in similar studies [97, 73], coinciding with the pre-set value in LRmix Studio. The variations made in this parameter were: (a.) 0, meaning that alleles not attributed to a contributor cannot be considered as a drop-in peak; (b.) 0.1, a high probability of unexplained alleles being a drop-in. Still related to drop-in peaks, but now regarding to the impact of the height of them, the so-called parameter lambda λ (only included in Euroformix), was also tested with a default value of 0.01 (corresponding to the default value on that software), and a varied one of 0.05 (the $λ$ cannot be equal to zero).

3.3.3. Threshold limit

Likewise, the threshold limit (see 1.4.8.6) is a parameter only allowed to be introduced by the user in the quantitative software Euroformix; so only in this program it was varied and tested. Its default value is 100 and the varied value was 150. With this latter setting, some higher peaks were not considered in the LR computation.

Table 1. Default and varied values inputted on the software for each parameter.

3.Results and Discussion

3.1. Weighing the evidence with real casework references

3.1.1. With the estimated number of contributors

3.1.1.1. Default parameters

Figure 7 shows the results of the analyses computed considering a profile of the POI, weighing the likelihoods of the observations assuming that the POI contributed to the mixture and assuming that the POI is genetically unrelated with any contributor of the mixture. These LRs were obtained through: (a.) LRmix Studio (qualitative model), and (b.) Euroformix (quantitative model). In this experiment, the analyses were computed for each case assuming the estimated number of contributors through the observation of the epg, namely two (n=79) and three (n=79) contributors. All the parameters which are needed to be introduced by the user (detection threshold, co-ancestry coefficient, drop-in properties) were set to what we considered as default values – see Table 1.

As can be seen in Figure 7, LRs calculated through Euroformix were generally greater than those computed with LRmix Studio for both types of mixtures (with two and three estimated contributors). In fact, only three cases out of 158 resulted in a higher LR obtained by LRmix Studio; however, these specific values were not much distant from those obtained by Euroformix (mean difference of less than one).

Since Euroformix takes quantitative information related with the peak heights into account (besides the allelic frequencies), it quantifies the likelihood of the different genotypic combinations based on the quantity of DNA. Indeed, the software attributes more weight to markers where the alleles of the POI match a possible genotype set that the software assumes as more likely, relatively to others, due to the peak heights. Consider for example a mixture where, for a specific marker, exactly the four alleles 12, 14, 16, 17 were undoubtedly identified. Alleles 12 and 16 have similar peak heights, as well as alleles 14 and 17, notwithstanding the uneven DNA quantity between the two pairs of alleles. Assuming two contributors, this scenario provides three possible pairwise genotypic configurations: 12-14 and 16-17; 12-16 and 14-17; or 12-17 and 14-16. However, the pairs of alleles with similar height are the most likely genotypic configurations; in this example, 12-16 and 14-17. If the POI has one of these genotypes on this marker, the quantitative model will attribute it a higher weight (than if she/he has one of the other genotypes). On the other hand, in the qualitative model,this information is not considered in the analysis. Therefore, the overall LR calculated for a true contributor of a mixture is expected to be superior when computed in a quantitative model, comparing with a qualitative one. This explains some large differences found between the LRs computed for the same sample (mixture/reference pair), through different programs.

The line represents log10(LR)EFM=log10(LR)LRmixStudio. The red dots represent the maximum LRs.

Table 2 shows the differences between the LRs calculated by the two considered software in a more detailed way. The $log_{10}(LR)$ from one software were subtracted to the corresponding $log_{10}(LR)$ from the other (which is equivalent to the log of the ratio of the two LRs). For mixtures of two estimated contributors, it was observed that 25% of the calculated LRs through the two software, were separated by more than ten units on the log_{10} scale, being

the largest difference of about 18. Regarding mixtures of three estimated contributors, 32% of the LRs differed by more than ten units on the same scale; here, the largest variation was of about 20.

Concerning the mixtures assumed to have two contributors, the maximum value of $log_{10}(LR)$ obtained through Euroformix was 34.30; in qualitative software LRmix Studio this value was 20.83, both obtained for the same sample (pair mixture/reference). While in mixtures with three contributors assumed, the maximum values obtained for $log_{10}(LR)$ were of 29.54 in Euroformix, and of 14.60 in LRmix, this time corresponding to different samples.

All the $log_{10}(LR)$ are presented in Appendix II.

Table 2. Distribution of the differences between the LRs (log¹⁰ scale) obtained by Euroformix and LRmix Studio for C estimated contributors, and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).

3.1.1.2. Varying parameters

3.1.1.2.1. Probability of drop-in

The probability of occurrence of drop-in was varied to lower and higher values relatively to the considered default value - 0.05, specifically to 0 and 0.1 – see Table 1.

Globally, these variations did not have much impact on the calculated LRs. As shown in Table 3, the great majority of the tests performed with varied drop-in values produced LRs with a difference of within one unit on the log_{10} scale, relatively to the LRs calculated with the default value. In fact, only in the variation to a null value in Euroformix were obtained LRs that differed in more than one unit on the log_{10} scale.

In quantitative software Euroformix, the larger differences between LRs were all decreases and were obtained in analyses with the probability of drop-in set null, in mixtures that have at least one marker where, although the number of peaks does not exceed the maximum number that is possible to belong to the number of contributors defined, the model infers that are more alleles than the ones that are possible, based on their relative heights (Figure 8).

In both software, when the number of peaks surpass the maximum that is possible to the defined number of contributors (or is the maximum possible but the reference is homozygous), the model cannot explain the data if the probability of drop-in is null, i.e. there are alleles that are not explained by the contributors nor drop-in, and it is not calculated a LR.

Table 3. Distribution of the differences between LRs (log¹⁰ scale) obtained with the varied values of probability of drop-in (0 and 0.1), comparing to those obtained with the default value (0.05), for C estimated contributors; and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).

	$C = 2$				$C = 3$			
	Euroformix		LRMix Studio		Euroformix		LRMix Studio	
$x = log_{10}(LR_{H}/LR_{L})$	0	0.1	0	0.1	0	0.1	0	0.1
0 < x < 1	90%	100%	100%	100%	91%	100%	100%	100%
1 < x < 2	2%		-	$\overline{}$	4%	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$		
2 < x < 3	3%		-	$\overline{}$	1%	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$		
3 < x < 4	2%		-		0%			
4 < x	3%		-	$\overline{}$	4%	$\overline{}$		
Max	5.89	0.96	0.08	0.91	6.71	0.76	0.07	0.31
Mean	0.42	0.10	0.03	0.08	0.37	0.09	0.02	0.03
Median	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.02

Figure 8. Representation of a marker with four alleles from a mixture with two estimated contributors and uneven relative peak heights, according to the number of contributors defined. This exemplifies a situation where by nulling the drop-in probability, alleles remain unexplained by the contributors and settings defined (hence lowering the LR).

The parameter λ , which influences the probability of drop-in depending on the height of peaks was also varied on Euroformix (the only software where this parameter was considered). Such as in the variation of the probability of drop-in, the LR was not greatly affected by the modification of the *λ* value (Figure 9).

Table 4 shows the distribution of the differences between the LR when the analyses were made with the default value of *λ* (0.01) and the LR when *λ* was changed to 0.05 – see Table 1. The differences were within one unit on the log_{10} scale in most part of the analysis, for both two contributors' mixtures and three contributors' mixtures. Nevertheless, a few larger differences were found when varying *λ* in mixtures of two estimated contributors, precisely decreasing of the LR. Probably because unattributed peaks that were no longer possible to be explained by drop-in.

Figure 9. Plots showing the obtained log10(LR) for λ=0.01 (default value) and for λ=0.05, on Euroformix, for mixtures with two (upper plot) and three (lower plot) estimated contributors.

$x = log_{10}(LR_{H}/LR_{L})$	$C = 2$	$C = 3$
0 < x < 1	89%	97%
1 < x < 2	5%	1%
2 < x < 3	1%	1%
3 < x < 4	3%	0%
4 < x	3%	0%
Max	4.49	2.09
Mean	0.39	0.10
Median	0.02	0.03

Table 4. Distribution of the differences between LRs (log¹⁰ scale) obtained with the varied value of λ *(0.05), comparing to those obtained with the default value (0.01), for C estimated contributors); and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).*

3.1.1.2.2. Co-ancestry coefficient (F_{ST})

Through comparison of the obtained LRs when the default value of F_{ST} (0.01) was varied to 0, 0.015 and 0.03 (see Table 1) it become evident (as expected) a linear tendency: higher values of F_{ST} lead to lower values of LR (Figure 10 and Appendix III). This was verified in all the cases.

This was the expected result, since with a higher F_{ST} , a match between an allele of the reference and the mixture has a higher probability of being an allele shared by descent and so, the attributed LR must be lower.

The amplitudes of the LR differences corresponding to the comparison of the results considering the default value (0.01) and each varied value are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

It was also noted that the instances where the F_{ST} variation had a larger impact were in the cases of mixture samples with several alleles with low frequencies in the population (on both software). This is coinciding with previous studies [99]. A rare allele is a feature that sustains and gives more weight to each of the two situations represented by an increase/decrease of the F_{ST} . Considering a situation where there is higher probability of identity by descent, if a matching allele is rare, it sustains the possibility of IBD, lowering the LR significantly (comparing to an identical situation with a frequent allele, where the impact of IBD is expected to be lower). On the other hand, with a reduced possibility of IBD alleles, a match between a rare allele of the reference and the mixture, gives more weight to the hypothesis of identity (compared to the same situation with an allele with higher frequency).

Figure 10. Plot showing the LRs obtained by <i>Euroformix when the F_{ST} correction is varied in mixtures of two person *estimated.* Each vertical group of dots represents the LRs obtained for the same sample when F_{ST} =0 (blue dots), *0.01(default value; orange dots), 0.015 (grey dots) and 0.03 (yellow dots). Each set of four dots with the same x corresponds to the results obtained for a single sample (mixture/reference). The same exact trend was observed in both software and in both type of mixture (Appendix III).*

Table 5. Distribution of the differences between LRs (log₁₀ scale) obtained with the varied values of probability of F_{ST} (0, 0.015 and 0.03), comparing to those obtained with the default value (0.01), for two estimated contributors; and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).

Table 6. Distribution of the differences between LRs (log¹⁰ scale) obtained with the varied values of probability of FST (0, 0.015 and 0.03), comparing to those obtained with the default value (0.01), for three estimated contributors; and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).

3.1.1.2.3. Threshold limit (T)

Figure 11 shows the impact on the LR of varying the threshold limit of peak detection, which was tested considering the default value 100 and the varied value 150 (see Table 1). As seen on Table 7, the majority of the differences on the computed LRs for the two mentioned values were within one unit on the log_{10} scale. However, a small percentage of samples yield considerable differences – until about four units on the same scale.

All these larger differences consisted of LR decreases and correspond to cases where the extension of the limit of detection eliminated some alleles that matched with the reference.

Figure 11. Plots showing the obtained log10(LR) for T=100 (default value) and for T=150, on Euroformix, for mixtures with two (upper plot) and three (lower plot) estimated contributors.

Table 7. Distribution of the differences between LRs (log¹⁰ scale) obtained with the varied value of threshold limit (150), comparing to those obtained with the default value (100), for C estimated contributors; and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).

3.1.2. Varying the estimated number of contributors

3.1.2.1. Overestimation

The samples which were estimated to be two and three contributors' mixtures were also analyzed on both software assuming as having three and four contributors, respectively, so that the effect of overestimating the number of donors could be analyzed. On both of those variations, the verified trends were similar.

As can be seen on Figure 12, assuming a higher number of contributors than the one inferred by epg observation did not have much effect on the calculated LR. Although about 90% of the cases showed a decrease on the LRs computed in LRmix Studio (Table 10), these changes were slight: 61% were between one and two units on the log_{10} scale for mixtures of

two contributors analyzed as three; 86% within one unit for overestimate from three to four (Table 8). Introducing an additional donor to the analysis increases the possible genotype combinations; therefore, the genotype weights diffuse, consequently tending to lower the LR for the POI analyzed.

On quantitative model Euroformix, the impact of overestimation was even smaller. There was not observed an obvious trend in LRs variation - 58% of the obtained results with overestimation increased (Table 10) – and the great majority of the differences between the LRs calculated under the condition of overestimation and the LRs calculated with the first estimated number of donors were within one unit on the log_{10} scale (Table 8).

3.1.2.2. Underestimation

Samples which number of contributors was estimated as three were also analyzed assuming two donors. Oppositely to the latter experiment, in this one it was striking variations in a non-negligible proportion of cases. Figure 13 and Table 10 show how the underestimation led to a general decrease on the obtained LRs (mainly in quantitative model Euroformix). Although most of the differences in the calculated LRs were within two units on the log_{10} scale on both software - 68% for Euroformix and 76% for LRmix Studio – the former software registered some substantial declines on the LRs: 4% of the LRs computed by Euroformix were separated by more than 10 units on the log_{10} scale (Table 9). In fact, some of these cases were very distinct as they reduced their $log_{10}(LR)$ to negative values (LR dropped to values below one).

Accordingly, the effect of lowering the LR when reducing the estimated number of contributors was more emphasized in the quantitative model. This is likely to be explained by the alleles that become impossible to attribute to a contributor assuming an inferior number of donors. If there are peaks with small height (relatively to other alleles in the same marker) and in stutter position, the quantitative software considers it as unspecific (drop-in) or stutter; if those peaks correspond to alleles from the POI, the LR assigned by the software to that marker drops considerably.

To exemplify this, we present a particularly interesting case, exhibited in Figure 14. The quantitative model produced a nearly null LR (-73.61 in log_{10} scale) in a mixture with three estimated contributors, when two contributors were considered in the analysis. The obtained LR when analyzed with the estimated number of three contributors was 24.60, log_{10} scale. Specifically analyzing this case we noticed that the alleles of the reference sample corresponded to the alleles with smaller heights of the mixture. Withdrawing one contributor,

precisely the alleles with lower quantity of DNA are devaluated by the software. So, the software produces a result translating a residual probability of that reference profile being a contributor, given the observed mixture and under the assumption of two contributors.

As mentioned above, by lowering the estimate of number of contributors, some markers reveal a number of alleles that are not compatible with the new number of contributors defined, remaining alleles that cannot be explained as belonging to a donor. In the case where there are peaks that are not assigned but there are no peaks in stutter position nor very likely to be considered as drop-in (due to the drop-in probability or the peak height), it is assumed that the POI should not be a donor and a low LR is obtained as well. Figure 15 illustrates a marker representing one of these circumstances. It belongs to a mixture estimated to have three donors; analyzing it as a two contributors' mixture, the maximum allele number per marker should be four, representing a situation where all the contributors are heterozygotic. In this represented case, the POI is homozygotic; so, there is one allele remaining impossible to attribute to a contributor nor likely to be considered drop-in or stutter (due to the peak heights and positions). Hence, the software returns an extremely low LR value for such marker, which, due to the product rule, will condition the final numerical result.

The samples which dropped its log10(LR) to negative values are characterized by a relatively elevated number of alleles per mixture (4.24 to 3.95 alleles per locus, being the average in mixtures of three contributors of 3.71) and/or an elevated number of homozygotic loci in the POI profile (5 to 8 homozygous per profile, while the average of homozygous in all casework references is 4.13).

Figure 12. Plots showing the obtained log10(LR) through Euroformix (blue dots) and LRmix Studio (orange dots) when the number of contributors is overestimated. The upper plot represents the overestimation from two to three contributors; the lower plot represents the overestimation from three to four. The line represents log10(LR) estimated contributors = log10(LR) overestimation.

Table 8. Distribution of the differences between the LR (log¹⁰ scale) obtained with overestimating the number of contributors (from 2 to 3 and from 3 to 4) and with the initial estimate; and the maximum, mean, median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LR_L).

Figure 13. Plot showing the obtained log10(LR) through Euroformix (blue dots) and LRmix Studio (orange dots) when the number of contributors is underestimated from three to two. The line represents log10(LR) estimated contributors = log10(LR) underestimation.

Table 9. Distribution of the differences between the LR (log¹⁰ scale) obtained with underestimating the number of contributors (from 3 to 2) and with the initial estimate; and the maximum, mean and median values of these differences. For simplicity purposes we considered the difference between the highest of the two LR (LRH) and the lowest one (LRL).

Table 10. Proportion of analyses that resulted in an increase or decrease of the LR when overestimating and underestimating the number of contributors, on both software.

Figure 14. Case-example for a major alteration in the LR when the number of estimated contributors is lowered. The alleles highlighted in red correspond to matching alleles with the POI profile (all minor alleles).

Figure 15. Representation of a marker with four alleles and where the POI is homozygotic (19). This exemplifies a situation where by decreasing the number of contributors (from three to two), alleles remain unexplained by the contributors and settings defined (hence lowering the LR).

3.2. Weighing the evidence with simulated references

3.2.1. With the estimated number of contributors

Barring mutation, a father-son duo shares at least one half of the total of their autosomal alleles. On the other hand, full-siblings share, with the same probability (0.25), none or two alleles originated in the same ancestral allele (IBD alleles). In this part of the work, for each pair mixture/reference, we simulated a full-sibling and a parent of the reference, based on his/her genotype and on the population allelic frequencies (Appendix I). Then, we computed the LR using these simulated profiles, on both software. That is, we calculated the likelihood of the observation of the mixture, assuming that the full-sibling or parent was a donor in the main hypothesis and unrelated with any contributor in the alternative one.

Although we are aware of the results on this experiment being biased, since the relatives' profiles were simulated from a profile that is not excluded to be a donor to the mixture, and the alternative hypothesis states that the reference is genetically unrelated of any donor of the mixture, we aimed to observe how the programs deal with cases where the reference is compatible only in some markers.

This experiment was carried out for each type of mixture (two and three contributors estimated) and for each software.

Figures 16 and 17 show the distribution of the computed LRs obtained for the simulated profiles of one full-sibling and one parent of the casework reference for each mixture (without changing the *a priori* hypotheses: the POI is a contributor of the mixture; and the POI is genetically unrelated to any donor of the mixture).

The obtained results were very similar varying the relative used as reference (Tables 11 and 12).

Comparing the results produced by the two software, some differences were found. The median of LRs produced by Euroformix was lower compared to the one obtained through LRmix Studio for mixtures with 2 contributors estimated, since the reference genotypes were simulated and often did not match likely genotypes assumed by the program based on peak heights. This trend was inversed for mixtures of 3 donors estimated, although with smaller discrepant results.

However, it was also observed that mixtures of three contributors estimated produced generally higher LRs comparing to those obtained for mixtures with two contributors estimated: not only produced more results with positive $log_{10}(LR)$, but also its negative

 $log_{10}(LR)$ are not as low as in assumed two person mixtures, as shown by Figures 16 and 17 and in Tables 11 and 12.

This indicates that more complex mixtures, here translated in number of estimated contributors, generally become less informative (and consequently, less discriminatory). In the instances where the consideration of a full-sibling or a parent of the casework reference produced the higher LRs, the profiles generally had a great number of alleles in common with the casework reference (its relative); but not all the cases with higher amount of shared alleles produced higher LRs. Suppose that a shared allele between the full-sibling and the casework reference is present in the mixture. If this allele has a low frequency, this marker will be assigned with a high LR, influencing the total LR; although the full-sibling may have some mismatches with the mixture. Indeed, population allele frequencies have a great impact on the calculated LR. Take as example a specific case where considering a simulated full-sibling of the reference we obtained $log_{10}(LR) = -35.36$. It may be expected that that profile and the corresponding casework reference shared just a few alleles; however, the profiles share 31 out of 42 alleles; which is even more that the number of alleles shared between some full-sibling and casework references that produced the higher $log_{10}(LR)$: for example, one of these samples (of a mixture of two estimated donors) produced a $log_{10}(LR) = 3.63$, sharing only 26 out of the 42 alleles with its corresponding real reference.

Notwithstanding, the positive $log_{10}(LR)$ obtained in these analyses would not be a statistically strong result – all were situated below $log_{10}(LR)=8$.

Figure 16. Computed log10(LR) for each of the mixtures with two estimated contributors for casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated full-sibling (orange bar) and for a simulated parent (green bar), in Euroformix (upper) and *LRmix Studio (lower).*

Figure 17. Computed log10(LR) of each of the mixtures with three estimated contributors for casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated full-sibling (orange bar) and for a simulated parent (green bar), in Euroformix (upper) and LRmix Studio (lower).

Table 11. Proportion of simulated profiles of full-siblings that produced a positive log10(LR), the maximum log10(LR) value, the total median and the median of positive log10(LRs), on both software, for mixtures of C estimated contributors.

Table 12. Proportion of simulated profiles of parents that produced a positive log10(LR), the maximum log10(LR) value, the total median and the median of positive log10(LRs), on both software, for mixtures of C estimated contributors.

3.2.2. Varying the estimated number of contributors

3.2.2.1. Overestimation

When considering an extra contributor beyond those estimated in the analysis (from three to four contributors), in both software and in both relative profiles tested, there was a general increase of the LRs (Table 15; Appendix IV) (oppositely to the trend verified with overestimation using real references, in LRmix Studio – see 3.1.2.1).

In Euroformix computer program, the greater part of the analyses produced positive $log_{10}(LR)$ results, for both full-sibling and parent references (Tables 13 and 14).

Regarding the qualitative model LRmix Studio, it also revealed similar percentages for both types of relatives when overestimating the number of contributors: about 45% of the cases obtained a positive $log_{10}(LR)$, for full-siblings and parents (Tables 13 and 14).

Although the majority of the positive $log_{10}(LR)$ obtained may not be considered very informative - medians between 1.01 and 1.77 -, these results show that introducing a different number that the one inferred through the epg, in this case by increasing it, can potentially lead to a false inclusion, especially in circumstances like this, where a relative of a contributor is considered the POI.

3.2.2.2. Underestimation

Contrarily to the previously situation, reducing the number of contributors (from three to two) induced a general decline of the LRs (Appendix V). In fact, both quantitative and qualitative software responded equally, with all cases showing the decrease trend (Table 16). Also for both programs, the proportions of cases with positive $log_{10}(LR)$ in this situation was very low (Tables 13 and 14).

Not only the amount of samples with a negative $log_{10}(LR)$ increased (relatively to the ones obtained for full-siblings and parents assigning the estimated number of contributors by allele count), but also the result values dropped considerably.

By reducing the number of contributors, the possible genotype combinations drop as well, narrowing the possibility of the profile of the POI, that is a non contributor in this instance, to fit into the mixture.

Table 13. Proportion of simulated profiles of full-siblings that produced a positive log10(LR) when the number of contributors was over- and underestimated, the maximum log10(LR) value, the total median and the median of positive log10(LRs), on both software.

Table 14. Proportion of simulated profiles of parents that produced a positive log10(LR) when the number of contributors was over- and underestimated, the maximum log10(LR) value, the total median and the median of positive log10(LRs), on both software.

Table 15. Proportion of analyses that resulted in an increase or decrease of the LR when overestimating and underestimating the number of contributors using simulated full-sibling references, on both software.

Table 16. Proportion of analyses that resulted in an increase or decrease of the LR when overestimating and underestimating the number of contributors using simulated parent references, on both software.

4. Conclusions

Existing software programs of interpretation of forensic samples are invaluable tools for applying the mathematical models implied to the computation of a probative value. This calculation is able to account for several parameters, regarding population and analytical factors, on which the LR depends on and which are introduced by the user. Naturally, many forensic laboratories adopt default values and the entered values are subjected to errors.

Complexity increases in the cases where the genetic evidence contains a mixture of profiles, where the number of sources who contributed to the sample must be estimated and introduced in the software by the user. Since this is a parameter generally empirically estimated by an expert, it is also comprehensible that different persons can have a different interpretation on this regard, in more challenging samples.

Accordingly, it is important to know in which extent variations in those parameters can affect the statistical evaluation of the genetic evidence (measured via LRs). It is also essential to be aware of the differences that different types of software can yield on the computed results.

Mixtures with different number of contributors estimated were included in this work, showing differences in the general computed LRs, being that higher order mixtures (three estimated contributors) generated lower LRs than estimated two contributors' mixtures. The more estimated contributors for a mixture, the less powerful probative value achieved.

Overall, the variation of the parameters: co ancestry coefficient of the population, allele drop-in and allele detection threshold, did not impact LR in a substantial form. The exceptional cases in which LR was more affected were: when altering the drop-in probability to zero in the quantitative program; when varying the F_{ST} value in evidences containing rare alleles matching with the reference; when increasing the threshold limit discarded several alleles that would match between the evidence and the reference.

The variation of the referred parameters influenced in similarly mixtures with two and three estimated donors.

Varying the number of contributors of a mixture had little to moderate effect, in general. However, overestimation led to a slight decrease trend in qualitative software LRmix Studio; more significantly, the LR results of a few samples suffered a great impact when underestimating this parameter in quantitative model Euroformix, potentially leading to a different interpretation of the final result. This reinforces that the previous interpretation of the expert, where the number of contributors is estimated is, indeed, a crucial step in forensic mixtures analyses.

Drop-in and F_{ST} were the other analyzed parameters in both programs. In these variations, the LRs were similarly influenced in two programs, except when drop-in was considered as null, in which case programs produced more differentiating results, since Euroformix computed much lower LRs.

As expected, the quantitative model generally produces stronger results (higher LRs), since it integrates more information of the electropherogram on its calculations.

A situation that may occur in casework forensics is the sampling of a reference that is, in fact, relative to a contributor to the evidence, being the expert unaware of this fact. Unsurprisingly, the LRs decreased when considering a simulated profile of $1st$ degree relatives of the casework reference. However, some of the results were fairly elevated for a noncontributor, which we know is due to the familiar link to a person that cannot be excluded from have contributed to the mixture; but which in casework context could be an inconclusive result.

For the case of simulated profiles of relatives of the real reference, much more samples of mixtures with three donors estimated produced a positive $log_{10}(LR)$ (and higher LRs as well), comparing to those obtained with mixtures with two donors estimated. For estimated three donors' mixtures, some computed LRs for simulated references were higher than LRs obtained with casework references. Precisely, the maximum LR obtained for a simulated parent in Euroformix was higher than 9% of the LRs obtained for casework references (regarding three donors' mixtures). The same situation was verified for 10% of the LRs calculated on the qualitative model.

On the other hand, the overestimation of the number of donors of the mixture and the consideration of simulated references, led Euroformix to produce positive log10(LRs) in about the double of the cases obtained through LRmix Studio.

Globally, the results obtained in this work show that a software based in the quantitative model can be more effective in assist in more complex interpretations, comparing to a qualitative model. Nevertheless, it presupposes a correct and meticulous analysis from the very beginning of the process, i.e., from the evidence collection, to the epg analysis, so that possible errors are minimized. A well collected sample (maximizing the genetic material subjected to analysis and minimizing the possible sources of contamination) provides a profile easier to interpret. Consequently, the decisions that the expert must ensure about some presented peaks (belonging to a donor, artefacts or stochastic effects) and the estimation of the number of contributors will be optimized and, finally, the software interpretation will be more reliable. It is worth mention that the experts experience and knowledge have a central importance, since his interpretation will affect the software computation interpretation.

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Appendices

Appendix II

Table 2. Likelihood Ratios (LRs) computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors, on continuous software Euroformix.

Table 4. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 5. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 6. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors assuming three contributors, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 8. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors assuming two contributors, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 9. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors assuming four contributors, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 10. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors assuming two contributors, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 11. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors assuming four contributors, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 12. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with F_{ST}=0, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 13. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with F_{ST}=0.015, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 14. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with F_{ST}=0.03, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 25. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with F_{ST}=0, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 16. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with F_{ST}=0.015, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 37. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with F_{ST}=0.03, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 48. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with F_{ST}=0, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 19. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with F_{ST}=0.015, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 20. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with F_{ST}=0.03, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 51. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with F_{ST}=0, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

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Table 62. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with FST=0.015, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 73. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with F_{ST}=0.03, on qualitative software LRmix Studio

Table 84. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with drop-in=0, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Sample LR 40 25,56443907 1 17,52811045 2 22,07453314 3 14,05675871 4 18,66806037 5 20,42315302 6 26,34180641 7 25,40549326 8 15,73503769 9 16,73298554 10 34,25596358 11 16,50934718 12 28,16187164 13 23,58335792 14 8,562938326 15 17,61492664 16 20,65842084 17 18,59373861 18 18,58040865 19 25,4161014 20 16,75165927 21 22,93866774 22 16,20794868 23 17,16862033 24 20,18129521 25 22,13113114 26 26,19256557 27 28,63443034 28 22,10801344 29 28,5503785 30 23,77132241 31 15,66560567 32 16,57821028 33 19,69354291 34 26,39170319 35 16,32934163 36 24,15553831 37 21,0079529 38 19,00185563 39 8,23727704 79 15,67546455

Table 25. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with drop-in=0.1, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 96. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with drop-in=0, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 118. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with drop-in=0, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 29. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with drop-in=0.01, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 30. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with drop-in=0, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 31. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with drop-in=0.01, on qualitative software LRmix Studio.

Table 32. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with λ=0.05, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 33. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with λ=0.05, on continuous software Euroformix.

Table 34. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated two contributors with threshold limit T=150, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Table 35. LRs computed for mixtures with estimated three contributors with threshold limit T=150, on quantitative software Euroformix.

Appendix III

Figure 1. Plot showing the obtained LRs by LRmix Studio when the FST correction is varied in mixtures of two person estimated. Each vertical group of dots represents the LRs obtained for the same sample when F_{ST}=0 (blue dots), 0.01(default value; orange dots), 0.015 (grey dots) and 0.03 (yellow dots). Each set of four dots with the same x corresponds to the results obtained for a single sample (mixture/reference).

Figure 2. Plot showing the obtained LRs by Euroformix when the F_{ST} correction is varied in mixtures of three person estimated. Each vertical group of dots represents the LRs obtained for the same sample when F_{ST}=0 (blue dots), 0.01(default value; orange dots), 0.015 (grey dots) and 0.03 (yellow dots). Each set of four dots with the same x corresponds to the results obtained for a single sample (mixture/reference).

Figure 3. Plot showing the obtained LRs by Euroformix when the F_{ST} correction is varied in mixtures of three person estimated. Each vertical group of dots represents the LRs obtained for the same sample when F_{ST}=0 (blue dots), 0.01(default value; orange dots), 0.015 (grey dots) and 0.03 (yellow dots). Each set of four dots with the same x corresponds to the results obtained for a single sample (mixture/reference).

Appendix IV

Figure 4. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated full-sibling (orange bar) and for a simulated full-sibling assuming four contributors (grey bar), in Euroformix.

Figure 5. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated parent (orange bar) and for a simulated parent assuming four contributors (grey bar), in Euroformix.

Figure 6. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated full-sibling (orange bar) and for a simulated full-sibling assuming four contributors (grey bar), in LRmix Studio.

Figure 7. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated parent (orange bar) and for a simulated parent assuming four contributors (grey bar), in LRmix Studio.

Appendix V

Figure 8. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated full-sibling (orange bar) and for a simulated full-sibling assuming two contributors (grey bar), in Euroformix.

Figure 10. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated full-sibling (orange bar) and for a simulated full-sibling assuming two contributors (grey bar), in LRmix Studio.

Figure 1. Computed LRs for each of the mixtures with three contributors estimated for the casework reference (blue bar), for a simulated parent (orange bar) and for a simulated parent assuming two contributors (grey bar), in LRmix Studio.