Levenshtein Distance as a Measure of Accuracy and Precision in Forensic PCR-MPS Methods

Brian Young[1], Tom Faris[1], Luigi Armogida[1]

Author Affiliations

1 NicheVision Forensics, LLC, Akron, Ohio

Corresponding Author: Dr. Brian Young, NicheVision Forensics, LLC, 526 South Main Street, Akron, Ohio,

44311, brian@nichevision.com

ABSTRACT

Accuracy and precision determinations are standard components of method validations where they help

to describe the performance of methods. Despite their importance, a standard approach to calculating

these parameters is not available for forensic PCR-MPS methods that detect sequence-based alleles. In

this paper, we describe a method based on the Levenshtein distance metric which aptly summarizes

method accuracy in terms of the closeness of read sequences to reference sequences, and method

precision in terms of the agreement among read sequences. Inaccuracy or imprecision in forensic

methods can lead to wrong allele calls. By expressing method performance in terms of a distance

metric, this method places PCR-MPS on equal footing with distance-based measures in PCR-CE methods.

Summary statistics based on the Levenshtein distance can be used to compare performance of different

kits, markers, sequencers, or methods.

KEYWORDS

Accuracy, Precision, Massively Parallel Sequencing

1. Introduction

Performance evaluations of quantitative analytical methods used in forensics often includes

consideration of accuracy and precision [1]. These measures are particularly useful when describing the

suitability of a method in an intended application or when comparing the performance of alternative

methods [2]. Method accuracy and precision are core components of forensic method validations under

SWGDAM and ENFSI guidelines [3-5]. In this context, accuracy has been defined as the degree of

conformity of measurements to the true value; and precision has been defined as the degree of mutual

agreement among a series of individual measurements [3].

1.1. Accuracy and Precision in PCR-CE Methods

The goal of PCR-CE methods is to determine the true length of PCR-targeted markers in the genome. In

these methods, the measurements of interest are electrophoretic retention times from which the

lengths of PCR amplicons can be derived. Electrophoretic retention times are routinely transformed into

fractional base pair units. Even though "base pair" is a discontinuous measure, the fractional units are
essentially continuous. Means and standard deviations are calculated in units of fractional base pair
usually under an assumption that Normal distributions fit the data [6, 7]. To avoid length-miscalls, PCR-
CE methods must be accurate to retention times that are within $\pm$ 0.5 base pairs of the true amplicon
length [5, 8]. It is not possible to measure accuracy at the individual PCR amplicon level. Rather, the
entity measured is the mode of retention times of an aggregate of same-length amplicons that migrate
together under electrophoresis [9]. Precision is commonly described in terms of a standard deviation of
measurement error of the aggregate [10, 11]. That is, the standard deviation of replicate
electrophoretic peak retention times.

In addition to error present in the electrophoretic process, PCR-CE methods can introduce error in PCR
amplicons due to PCR misincorporation and PCR stutter. PCR misincorporation possibly contributes to
variation in electrophoretic retention times. Stutter error holds a special status in forensic STR analysis.
Stutter peaks are expected in electropherograms, and presence (or absence) of stutter contributes to
visual assessments of the sensitivity of the method. Stutter artifacts are not typically considered in
measures of accuracy or precision in PCR-CE methods.

1.2. Accuracy and Precision in PCR-MPS Methods

In contrast to PCR-CE methods, the goal of PCR-MPS methods is to determine the nucleotide sequence
of PCR-targeted markers in the genome. Experimental determination of a marker sequence results in a
sequencer read (hereafter simply called a read) expressed as a string of letters following the IUPAC
coding convention [12] for the four nucleotides in the DNA backbone (A, C, G, T)[1]. Like PCR-CE, the
genomic segments targeted by the assay are defined by the PCR primers, which for most STR markers,
includes flanking sequence that may contain additional polymorphisms. Targeted segments can be
bioinformatically trimmed to shorter extents, and typically at least the PCR primer sequences are
trimmed away. The read sequence that remains becomes the sequence-based allele under
consideration. Like PCR-CE, accuracy and precision should be sensitive to single nucleotide differences[2]
because authentic allele sequences can differ by a single nucleotide due to point polymorphisms [13,
14]. PCR-MPS methods generate a read sequence for each individual PCR amplicon, and a base call for
each nucleotide position. Thus, accuracy and precision can be determined at several levels: nucleotide,
read, and allele.

Consensus has not yet been reached for reporting accuracy and precision for forensic PCR-MPS
methods. Accuracy of PCR-MPS methods has been reported either as a call rate [15] or as a
concordance to CE allele numbers. Precision is often not reported at all [16-21] or has been reported as
a modified call rate [15].

---

[1] The IUPAC ambiguity code N can appear in sequencer output but reads containing N characters are typically not considered in forensic analysis and will be disregarded here.

[2] Our use of the term nucleotide is functionally equivalent to the term base pair commonly used in forensics. The term nucleotide is preferred because the object of most bioinformatic analysis is the sequencer read, which represents just one DNA strand.

1.3. Distance Measures

Accuracy and precision are often expressed in distance units. The measurement result of a PCR-MPS
method is a read string which may be close to or distant from the expected sequence. The distance
between two DNA sequences is called an edit distance. The concept of edit distance is tightly associated
with sequence alignment, which can be thought of as a transcript of the edits (nucleotide substitutions,
insertions, and deletions) required to convert one sequence string into another [22] (p 125). An
optimized alignment may not correspond to the minimum possible number of edits due to weightings
that may be assigned to mismatches and gaps in the aligned sequences. The minimum number of
equally-weighted edit operations is called the Levenshtein distance [22, 23].

Levenshtein distance has been shown to satisfy [24] the axioms [25] (p.147) required of distance metrics
(Appendix A). Distance metrics imply the existence of an underlying metric space. The concept of a
metric space where the elements of the space are DNA (or protein) sequence strings has a well-
established foundation. Maynard Smith [26] first described sequence spaces in the context of natural
selection, while Eigen [27] provided a formal topological/geometrical interpretation of sequence spaces.
In short, Levenshtein distance is a distance metric that can be used in mathematical and statistical
calculations. By employing the Levenshtein distance metric, accuracy and precision can be expressed in
accord with SWGDAM guidance. That is, accuracy in amplicon sequencing can be expressed as the
degree of conformity of read sequences to the true DNA sequence, and precision can be expressed as
the degree of mutual agreement among a series of individual read sequence determinations.

Here, we define concepts for accuracy and precision in sequence-based PCR-MPS methods that are 1)
compliant with SWGDAM and ENFSI guidelines, 2) analogous to the concepts of sizing accuracy and
precision currently used for PCR-CE methods [28], and 3) can be expressed in units that can be used in
statistical calculations.

2. Material and Methods
2.1. Samples and Sequencing

One ng aliquots of four DNA standards were sequenced in triplicate: 2800M (Promega, Madison, WI),
and NIST standard reference material 2391d components A, B, and E (NIST, Gaithersburg, MD).
Sequencing was performed at Intermountain Forensics (Salt Lake City, UT) using the ForenSeq™ kit and
MiSeq™ sequencer (Verogen, San Diego, CA). Raw FASTQ data files were analyzed using MixtureAce™
(NicheVision Forensics, Akron, OH) with an analytical threshold of zero. Read sequences were
bioinformatically trimmed to match the Verogen recommended analyzable regions [29] and exported to
comma separated value (CSV) files along with their read count intensities (RCI). Stutter artifacts
identified by MixtureAce were deleted from the CSV files. A custom Python script was used to modify
the CSV files for statistical analysis such that each data row corresponded to an individual sequencer
read (RCI = 1). Sixteen alleles were selected for analysis based on being homozygous in one of the DNA
standards (Table 1). Selecting homozygous alleles allowed unambiguous association of erroneous
sequences to parent alleles.

Table 1. Alleles selected for analysis.

Standard[1]	Locus	Allele ID[1]	STRSEQ[2] Accession No.
2800M	CSF1PO	12 PD	MH085189.1
	D5S818	12 RR	MH167007.1
	D22S1045	16 AW	MH167279.1
	TPOX	11 UN	MF044255.1
NIST SRM 2391d Component A	D2S441	11 RC	MH167320.1
	D3S1358	17 ZU	MH166980.1
	D4S2408	9 ZI	MH039589.1
NIST SRM 2391d Component B	D7S820	10 TO	MH167034.1
	D13S317	11 AQ	MH167219.1
	TH01	7 CS	MH085116.1
NIST SRM 2391d Component E	D6S1043	11 BZ	MH166925.1
	D9S1122	11 KZ	MH085132.1
	D10S1248	14 TJ	MH167062.1
	D19S433	14 WU	MH174820.1
	D20S482	15 QX	MH085169.1
	PentaD	14 WB	MH232690.1

[1] Allele identifiers consist of the CE-equivalent allele number and the first two digits of the SID label [30].
[2] https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/380127

Reads exhibiting Levenshtein distances > 10 were omitted from the data set. Reads with extreme Levenshtein distances may arise from trace level contamination, or PCR mis-priming of non-human sequence, and therefore are not representative data. Of 125,994 reads in the dataset, only 107 exhibited Levenshtein distances of > 10 from the expected sequences. The maximum Levenshtein distance was 78. The truncated data set included 125,887 reads. Levenshtein distances were calculated using a custom Python script employing the Jellyfish module (https://github.com/jamesturk/jellyfish). All other data analysis was performed using custom R scripts.

3. Results
3.1. Distribution of Levenshtein Distances

Histograms of Levenshtein distances of the individual reads generated by a PCR-MPS method exhibit a characteristic shape independent of locus (Figures 1-2; Appendix B). Most reads match the expected sequence and therefore, exhibit a Levenshtein distance of zero from the expected sequence. The most abundant error type consists of reads exhibiting a single point error and a corresponding Levenshtein distance from expected equal to one. Read frequencies tend to decline exponentially with increasing Levenshtein distance (Figures 1-2). If point errors in reads arise randomly, read count distributions would be expected to be Poisson. However, it is known that sequencing error rates increase over the length of DNA templates, and that other error processes including PCR misincorporation contribute to the variance of the distribution. These factors contribute to overdispersion. Tests for overdispersion (not shown) indicate the Poisson does not fit the data. This is consistent with the observation that variances exceed means at all loci tested (Table 2). In addition, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) values consistently show that the negative binomial fit is better than the Poisson fit (Table 2).

139   **Figure 1. Histograms of read counts from selected loci after filtering stutter. Data was truncated to Levenshtein**
140   **distances ≤ 10. A) Raw read counts. B) Read counts on log scale to aid visualization of low counts.**

145   **Figure 2. Histograms of read counts from selected loci with stutter included. Data were truncated to**
146   **Levenshtein distances ≤ 10. A) Raw read counts. B) Read counts on log scale to aid visualization of low counts.**

Table 2. Read count statistics for 16 loci that were homozygous in the data set.

Locus	Reads (N)	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Poisson		Negative Binomial	
					AIC	BIC	AIC	BIC
TPOX	2,296	0.02918	0.04052	0.2013	655	661	606	617
D2S441	5,809	0.06335	0.1110	0.3332	2,918	2,925	2,699	2,713
D3S1358	10,822	0.1351	0.3811	0.6173	10,088	10,095	8,092	8,106
D4S2408	4,881	0.03176	0.04878	0.2209	1,430	1,436	1,334	1,347
CSF1PO	1,170	0.06838	0.1782	0.4221	653	658	531	541
D5S818	1,062	0.06309	0.1213	0.3483	603	608	493	503
D6S1043	15,335	0.1111	0.3090	0.5559	12,355	12,363	9,985	10,001
D7S820	3,747	0.1703	0.4354	0.6598	4,074	4,080	3,347	3,359
D9S1122	8,670	0.03956	0.09382	0.3063	3,134	3,141	2,605	2,619
D10S1248	6,407	0.1313	0.3294	0.5739	5,741	5,748	4,824	4,837
TH01	24,670	0.07937	0.1824	0.4271	15,112	15,120	12,967	12,983
D13S317	4,185	0.1101	0.2065	0.4544	3,185	3,192	2,906	2,918
D19S433	10,271	0.5516	1.643	1.282	24,843	24,850	19,489	19,504
D20S482	18,769	0.09414	0.2498	0.4998	13,340	13,348	10,760	10,776
PentaD	2,292	0.2133	0.3834	0.6192	2,731	2,737	2,567	2,578
D22S1045	5,501	0.1736	0.4270	0.6534	655	661	606	618
TOTAL	**125,887**							
Average		**0.1291**	**0.3213**	**0.5668**				

3.2. Accounting for Elevated Frequencies of Reads with Levenshtein Distances Equal to The Length of Stutter Motifs After Filtering Stutter

Even when stutter artifacts have been filtered from the data, these artifacts can still contribute to overdispersion in a cryptic way. Frequencies of reads with Levenshtein distances in multiples of tandem repeat motifs are slightly elevated relative to the overall pattern. For example, counts of reads with Levenshtein distances equal to four and eight tend to be slightly elevated for loci with tetramer repeat motifs (Figure 1). This phenomenon is a consequence of defining stutter as a pure motif shift; combined with how Levenshtein distances are calculated. In PCR-MPS, stutter artifacts formed during the PCR step are subject to sequencing error during the sequencing step. If a point sequencing error occurs in a stutter artifact, then a doubly mutated read results where the total number of nucleotide changes is five (assuming a tetramer repeat motif). If the sequencing error occurred in the same repeat motif that was increased or decreased in number due to stutter, then the minimum number of edit operations required to convert the doubly mutated sequence to the correct parent allele sequence may be only four. In the case of N+1 stutter the number of tandem repeats increased by one. When a point error occurs somewhere in the tandem repeat that increased by one repeat, then only the repeat motif containing the sequencing point error need be deleted for an edit distance equal to four. In the case of N-1 stutter, the structure of the repeat motif may be such that the conversion of the doubly mutated sequence to the parent allele sequence can also be solved using only four edits (Appendix C). Elevated frequencies can also be observed for reads with Levenshtein distances of 5 and 9 (assuming a tetramer repeat motif). These elevated frequencies can be attributed to the presence of sequencing errors outside the STR repeat motif of stutter artifacts. In this case, the stutter error necessitates four (or eight) edits, and a point sequencing error necessitates an additional edit. Mechanisms other than those described here may also be involved.

3.3. Levenshtein Distance as an Estimator of Error Rates

Locus and profile error rates can be estimated from Levenshtein distances. The mean Levenshtein
distances for the sixteen loci studied here ranged from 0.58 errors per 1,000 nucleotides (D9S1122) to
3.73 errors per 1000 nucleotides (D19S433, Table 3). Error rates for most loci were less than 1 per 1,000
nucleotides, which is consistent with published error rates for Illumina sequencing [31]. However,
different loci exhibit different error rates, and these differences can be quantified using Levenshtein
distances.

Table 3. Inference of error rate using Levenshtein distance statistics.

Locus	Sample	Allele	Allele Length	Mean Levenshtein Distance	Inferred Error Rate	
					Per nt	Per 1000 nt
TPOX	2800M	11 UN	49	0.02918	5.96×10^{-4}	0.596
D2S441	2391d_A	11 RC	96	0.06335	6.60×10^{-4}	0.660
D3S1358	2391d_A	17 ZU	134	0.1351	1.01×10^{-3}	1.01
D4S2408	2391d_A	9 ZI	50	0.03176	6.35×10^{-4}	0.635
CSF1PO	2800M	12 PD	68	0.06838	1.01×10^{-3}	1.01
D5S818	2800M	12 RR	68	0.06309	9.28×10^{-4}	0.928
D6D1043	2391d_E	11 BZ	129	0.1111	8.61×10^{-4}	0.861
D7S820	2391d_B	10 TO	95	0.1703	1.79×10^{-3}	1.79
D9S1122	2391d_E	11 KZ	68	0.03956	5.82×10^{-4}	0.582
D10S1248	2391d_E	14 TJ	97	0.1313	1.35×10^{-3}	1.35
TH01	2391d_B	7 CS	72	0.07937	1.10×10^{-3}	1.10
D13S317	2391d_B	11 AQ	122	0.1101	9.02×10^{-4}	0.902
D19S433	2391d_E	14 WU	148	0.5516	3.73×10^{-3}	3.73
D20S482	2391d_E	15 QX	102	0.09414	9.23×10^{-4}	0.923
PentaD	2391d_E	14 WB	228	0.2133	9.36×10^{-4}	0.936
D22S1045	2800M	16 AW	174	0.1736	9.98×10^{-4}	0.998
Overall Average				**0.1291**	**1.13×10^{-3}**	**1.13**

3.4. PCR-MPS Method Accuracy and Precision

PCR-MPS method accuracy can be expressed as the mean Levenshtein distance of reads relative to zero.
The mean Levenshtein distance is an expression of the degree of conformity of experimentally
determined sequences to the expected sequences. In the data presented here, the overall method
accuracy is 0.1291 distance units. The standard deviation of Levenshtein distance values is an
expression of the degree of mutual agreement among a series of individual sequence determinations. In
the data presented here, the overall method precision is the overall standard deviation of 0.5668.

3.5. Comparison to Other Measures of Accuracy and Precision

Currently published methods for expressing accuracy and precision in PCR-MPS methods involve either
allele call rates [15] or standard deviations of allele read count intensities [32]. These measures are
indicators of PCR efficiency and variability but are less informative for whole method accuracy and
precision. In many cases where inhibition or low template is not involved, percent call rate can be an
insensitive measure (Table 4, Figure 3). Levenshtein distance is more closely related to total method
error and is sensitive to differences in method error rates.   In this study, we demonstrated the utility of
Levenshtein distance-based accuracy and precision by discriminating performances at different loci

within a single forensic kit. However, this same method can be employed in the comparison of kits,
sequencers, technicians, laboratories, etc.

Table 4. Comparison of call rates and standard deviations of read count intensities with
Levenshtein distance statistics.

Locus	Call Rate (%)	Read Count Intensity			Levenshtein Distance	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Mean	Standard Deviation
TPOX	100	722	149	60.8	0.02918	0.04052
D2S441	100	1,884	421	172.0	0.06335	0.1110
D3S1358	100	3,040	817	333.4	0.1351	0.3811
D4S2408	100	1,561	507	206.8	0.03176	0.04878
CSF1PO	100	352	104	42.3	0.06838	0.1782
D5S818	100	426	146	59.5	0.06309	0.1213
D6D1043	100	4,745	621	358.7	0.1111	0.3090
D7S820	100	1,204	182	74.5	0.1703	0.4354
D9S1122	100	2,809	92	53.1	0.03956	0.09382
D10S1248	100	1,948	142	82	0.1313	0.3294
TH01	100	7,571	1,378	562.4	0.07937	0.1824
D13S317	100	1,482	559	228.3	0.1101	0.2065
D19S433	100	2,537	892	515.0	0.5516	1.643
D20S482	100	5,876	687	396.8	0.09414	0.2498
PentaD	100	639	315	181.8	0.2133	0.3834
D22S1045	100	1,942	420	171.5	0.1736	0.4270
Average	**100**	**2,421**	**464**	**218.7**	**0.1291**	**0.3213**

Figure 3. Alternative measures of accuracy and precision in PCR-MPS methods. Each plot represents data pooled across triplicate analyses of DNA standards. A) The mean Levenshtein distance is a measure of method accuracy where larger values indicate lower method accuracy. B) The standard deviation of Levenshtein distance is a measure of method precision where larger values correspond to lower precision. C) Call rates. D) Standard deviations of read count intensities.

4. Conclusions

Levenshtein distance is a metric that can be used to calculate accuracy and precision of forensic PCR-MPS methods in compliance with SWGDAM and ENSFI guidelines. The Levenshtein distance has an intuitive interpretation as the edit distance between experimentally determined reads and expected or reference sequences.

Acknowledgements

Supported by Army SBIR W911NF-20-P-0068

 Appendix A

Definitions for mean and variance imply the need for a metric that can be used to quantitatively
calculate accuracy and precision. A measure that satisfies the axioms of a metric is essential for
calculating accuracy and precision in a way analogous to the approach used for PCR-CE methods,
including calculation of standard deviations. Metrics are distance functions that must satisfy four
axioms [25] p.147. Let $d(x, y)$ be a function measuring the distance between two elements **x** and **y** in a
set of elements S.

1. The distance between two elements in the metric space is non-negative: $d(x, y) \geq 0$
2. The distance between two entities is zero if and only if the two entities are the same: $d(x, x) = 0$
3. The order of comparison does not matter: $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
4. The distance between two elements is less than or equal to the sum of the distances obtained when
an intermediate element is inserted. In other words, the triangle inequality is satisfied: $d(x, z) \leq$
$d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

These properties hold for common metrics such as meters or inches in metric spaces of ordinary
experience. These properties also hold when the metric $d(x, y)$ is Levenshtein distance and the
elements in the metric space are DNA sequence strings [24].

Appendix B

Figure B-1. Histograms for sixteen loci in normal scale.

Figure B-2. Histograms for sixteen loci in log scale.

241
242

243
244

247 **Appendix C**
248 **Explanation of Elevated Frequencies of Levenshtein Distances of Four and Five at Loci for Tetrameric**
249 **Tandem Repeat Motifs**

```
D19S433_14_WU    1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTCTCC----TTCCTTCCTTCCTT   46
                   ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||    ||||||||||||||
D19S433_15_AH    1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTCTCCTTCTTTCCTTCCTTCCTT   50

D19S433_14_WU   47 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCA   96
                   ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_15_AH   51 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCA  100

D19S433_14_WU   97 ACAGAATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAG  146
                   ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_15_AH  101 ACAGAATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAG  150

D19S433_14_WU  147 CT       148
                   ||
D19S433_15_AH  151 CT       152
```

Figure C-1. Alignment of the D19S433 14 WU and 15 AH sequences. The 15 AH sequence is
an N+1 stutter artifact of the 14 WU allele sequence with the addition of a sequencing error
inside the repeat motif of the stutter artifact. Alignment can be solved using only four edit
operations. The bracketed STR sequences are [CCTT]$_{12}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ and
[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_{11}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ respectively. Alignment was
performed using EMBOS Needle with default parameter values.

```
D19S433_14_WU    1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTCTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT   50
                   |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_13_TA    1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTCTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT   50

D19S433_14_WU   51 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCAACAG  100
                   ||||||||||||||||||| |   ||  ||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_13_TA   51 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT-C--CC-TCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCAACAG   96

D19S433_14_WU  101 AATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAGCT   148
                   ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_13_TA   97 AATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAGCT   144
```

Figure C-2. Alignment of the D19S433 14 WU and 13 TA sequences. The 13 TA sequence is
an N-1 stutter artifact of the 14 WU allele sequence with the addition of a sequencing error
inside the repeat motif of the stutter artifact. Alignment can be solved using only four edit
operations. The bracketed STR sequences are [CCTT]$_{12}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ and
[CCTT]$_{10}$CCCT[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ respectively. Alignment was performed using
EMBOS Needle, with gap open = 5.0 and gap extend = 0.0005.

```
D19S433_14_WU      1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTCTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT      50
                     |||||||||||||||||||||||||||       |||||||||||||||||
D19S433_13_PG      1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTC----TCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT      46

D19S433_14_WU     51 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCAACAG     100
                     |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_13_PG     47 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCAACAG      96

D19S433_14_WU    101 AATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAGCT     148
                     |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||·||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_13_PG     97 AATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGT GCAGTGGTACAATTATAGCT     144
```

Figure C-3. Alignment of the D19S433 14 WU and 13 PG sequences. The 13 PG sequence is
an N-1 stutter artifact of the 14 WU allele sequence with the addition of a sequencing error
outside the repeat motif of the stutter artifact. Alignment can be solved using five edit
operations. The bracketed STR sequences are [CCTT]$_{12}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ and
[CCTT]$_{11}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ respectively. Alignment was performed using EMBOS
Needle, with default parameter values.

```
D19S433_14_WU      1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTC----TCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT      46
                     ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||    |||||||||||||||||
D19S433_15_HW      1 AATAAAAATCTTCTCTCTTTCTTCCTCTCTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTT      50

D19S433_14_WU     47 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCA      96
                     ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_15_HW     51 CCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTTCCTACCTTCTTTCCTTCA     100

D19S433_14_WU     97 ACAGAATCTTATTCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAG     146
                     |||||||||||·||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
D19S433_15_HW    101 ACAGAATCTTAATCTGTTGCCCAGGCTGGAGTGCAGTGGTACAATTATAG     150

D19S433_14_WU    147 CT      148
                     ||
D19S433_15_HW    151 CT      152
```

Figure C-4. Alignment of the D19S433 14 WU and 15HW sequences. The 15 HW sequence is
an N+1 stutter artifact of the 14 WU allele sequence with the addition of a sequencing error
outside the repeat motif of the stutter artifact. Alignment can be solved using five edit
operations. The bracketed STR sequences are [CCTT]$_{12}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ and
[CCTT]$_{13}$[CCTA]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$[CTTT]$_1$[CCTT]$_1$ respectively. Alignment was performed using EMBOS
Needle, with default parameter values.

References

[1] S. Bell, Measurement uncertainty in forensic science : a practical guide, CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, Boca Raton, 2017.

[2] T. Vosk, A.F. Emery, Forensic metrology : scientific measurement and inference for lawyers, judges and criminalists, CRC Press,Taylor & Francis Group, Boca Raton, 2015.

[3] SWGDAM, Scientific Working Group on DNA Analysis Methods Validation Guidelines for DNA Analysis Methods, 2016.

[4] SWGDAM, Addendum to "SWGDAM Interpretation Guidelines for Autosomal STR Typing by Forensic DNA Testing Laboratories" to Address Next Generation Sequencing, 2019.

[5] ENFSI, Recommended Minimum Criteria for the Validation of Various Aspects of the DNA Profiling Process, 2010.

[6] D.Y. Wang, C.W. Chang, R.E. Lagace, L.M. Calandro, L.K. Hennessy, Developmental validation of the AmpFlSTR(R) Identifiler(R) Plus PCR Amplification Kit: an established multiplex assay with improved performance, J Forensic Sci 57(2) (2012) 453-65.

[7] R.L. Green, R.E. Lagace, N.J. Oldroyd, L.K. Hennessy, J.J. Mulero, Developmental validation of the AmpFlSTR(R) NGM SElect PCR Amplification Kit: A next-generation STR multiplex with the SE33 locus, Forensic Sci Int Genet 7(1) (2013) 41-51.

[8] T.R. Moretti, A.L. Baumstark, D.A. Defenbaugh, K.M. Keys, A.L. Brown, B. Budowle, Validation of STR typing by capillary electrophoresis, J Forensic Sci 46(3) (2001) 661-76.

[9] R.M. Goor, L. Forman Neall, D. Hoffman, S.T. Sherry, A mathematical approach to the analysis of multiplex DNA profiles, Bull Math Biol 73(8) (2011) 1909-31.

[10] M.G. Ensenberger, K.A. Lenz, L.K. Matthies, G.M. Hadinoto, J.E. Schienman, A.J. Przech, M.W. Morganti, D.T. Renstrom, V.M. Baker, K.M. Gawrys, M. Hoogendoorn, C.R. Steffen, P. Martin, A. Alonso, H.R. Olson, C.J. Sprecher, D.R. Storts, Developmental validation of the PowerPlex((R)) Fusion 6C System, Forensic Sci Int Genet 21 (2016) 134-44.

[11] L.K. Hennessy, N. Mehendale, K. Chear, S. Jovanovich, S. Williams, C. Park, S. Gangano, Developmental validation of the GlobalFiler((R)) express kit, a 24-marker STR assay, on the RapidHIT((R)) System, Forensic Sci Int Genet 13 (2014) 247-58.

[12] I.-I.C.o.B. Nomenclature, Abbreviations and symbols for nucleic acids, polynucleotides, and their constituents, Biochemistry 9(20) (1970) 4022-4027.

[13] K.B. Gettings, L.A. Borsuk, D. Ballard, M. Bodner, B. Budowle, L. Devesse, J. King, W. Parson, C. Phillips, P.M. Vallone, STRSeq: A catalog of sequence diversity at human identification Short Tandem Repeat loci, Forensic Sci Int Genet 31 (2017) 111-117.

[14] K.B. Gettings, L.A. Borsuk, C.R. Steffen, K.M. Kiesler, P.M. Vallone, Sequence-based U.S. population data for 27 autosomal STR loci, Forensic Sci Int Genet 37 (2018) 106-115.

[15] A.C. Jager, M.L. Alvarez, C.P. Davis, E. Guzman, Y. Han, L. Way, P. Walichiewicz, D. Silva, N. Pham, G. Caves, J. Bruand, F. Schlesinger, S.J.K. Pond, J. Varlaro, K.M. Stephens, C.L. Holt, Developmental validation of the MiSeq FGx Forensic Genomics System for Targeted Next Generation Sequencing in Forensic DNA Casework and Database Laboratories, Forensic Sci Int Genet 28 (2017) 52-70.

[16] R.S. Just, L.I. Moreno, J.B. Smerick, J.A. Irwin, Performance and concordance of the ForenSeq system for autosomal and Y chromosome short tandem repeat sequencing of reference-type specimens, Forensic Sci Int Genet 28 (2017) 1-9.

[17] J.D. Churchill, S.E. Schmedes, J.L. King, B. Budowle, Evaluation of the Illumina((R)) Beta Version ForenSeq DNA Signature Prep Kit for use in genetic profiling, Forensic Sci Int Genet 20 (2016) 20-29.

[18] J.D. Churchill, J. Chang, J. Ge, N. Rajagopalan, S.C. Wootton, C.W. Chang, R. Lagace, W. Liao, J.L. King, B. Budowle, Blind study evaluation illustrates utility of the Ion PGM system for use in human identity DNA typing, Croat Med J 56(3) (2015) 218-29.

[19] S. Kocher, P. Muller, B. Berger, M. Bodner, W. Parson, L. Roewer, S. Willuweit, D.N. Consortium, Inter-laboratory validation study of the ForenSeq DNA Signature Prep Kit, Forensic Sci Int Genet 36 (2018) 77-85.

[20] V. Sharma, H.Y. Chow, D. Siegel, E. Wurmbach, Qualitative and quantitative assessment of Illumina's forensic STR and SNP kits on MiSeq FGx, PLoS One 12(11) (2017) e0187932.

[21] A.L. Silvia, N. Shugarts, J. Smith, A preliminary assessment of the ForenSeq FGx System: next generation sequencing of an STR and SNP multiplex, Int J Legal Med 131(1) (2017) 73-86.

[22] D. Gusfield, Algorithms for Strings, Trees, and Sequences, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1997.

[23] V. Levenshtein, Binary codes capable of correcting deletions, insertions, and reversals, Soviet Physics Doklady 10(8) (1965) 707-710.

[24] G. Navarro, A guided tour to approximate string matching, ACM Comput. Surv. 33(1) (2001) 31–88.

[25] S. Axler, Measure, Integration & Real Analysis, Springer, Cham, Switzerland, 2020.

[26] J. Maynard Smith, Natural selection and the concept of a protein space, Nature 225(February 7) (1970) 563-564.

[27] M. Eigen, R. Winkler-Oswatitsch, A. Dress, Statistical geometry in sequence space: a method of quantitative comparative sequence analysis, Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 85(16) (1988) 5913-7.

[28] A.R. Isenberg, R.O. Allen, K.M. Keys, J.B. Smerick, B. Budowle, B.R. McCord, Analysis of two multiplexed short tandem repeat systems using capillary electrophoresis with multiwavelength fluorescence detection, Electrophoresis 19(1) (1998) 94-100.

[29] K.B. Gettings, D. Ballard, M. Bodner, L.A. Borsuk, J.L. King, W. Parson, C. Phillips, Report from the STRAND Working Group on the 2019 STR sequence nomenclature meeting, Forensic Sci Int Genet 43 (2019) 102165.

[30] B. Young, T. Faris, L. Armogida, A nomenclature for sequence-based forensic DNA analysis, Forensic Sci Int Genet 42 (2019) 14-20.

[31] M. Schirmer, U.Z. Ijaz, R. D'Amore, N. Hall, W.T. Sloan, C. Quince, Insight into biases and sequencing errors for amplicon sequencing with the Illumina MiSeq platform, Nucleic Acids Res 43(6) (2015) e37.

[32] R. Tao, W. Qi, C. Chen, J. Zhang, Z. Yang, W. Song, S. Zhang, C. Li, Pilot study for forensic evaluations of the Precision ID GlobalFiler NGS STR Panel v2 with the Ion S5 system, Forensic Sci Int Genet 43 (2019) 102147.