

**Title: Evaluation of nucleosome forming potentials (NFPs) of forensically important STRs**

Authors: Phuvadol Thanakiatkrai, Lindsey Welch

Address: Centre for Forensic Science, University of Strathclyde, 204 George Street, Glasgow, United Kingdom, G1 1XW

Tel: +441415484519, Fax: +441415482532, [pthanakiatkrai@gmail.com](mailto:pthanakiatkrai@gmail.com),  
[lindsey.welch@strath.ac.uk](mailto:lindsey.welch@strath.ac.uk)

**Abstract:**

Degraded forensic samples have proved difficult to analyze and interpret. New analysis techniques are constantly being discovered and improved but researchers have overlooked the structural properties that could prevent or slow the process of degradation. In theory, DNA that are bound to histones as nucleosomes are less prone to degradation, because nucleosomes prevent DNA from being exposed to degradative enzymes. In this study we determined the probability of 60 forensic DNA markers to be bound to histones based on their base sequence composition. Two web-based tools – NXSensor and nuScore – were used to analyze four hundred base pairs surrounding each DNA marker for properties that inhibit or promote the binding of DNA to histones. Our results showed that the majority of markers analyzed were likely to be bound as nucleosomes. Selection of the markers that are more protected to form a multiplex could increase the chance of obtaining a better balanced, easier to interpret DNA profile from degraded samples.

Keywords: nucleosome, nucleosome forming potential, nucleosome positioning signal, forensic, STR

## **Introduction:**

Recent advancements in forensic DNA analysis have focused on improving analysis techniques, such as pyrosequencing [1], increased PCR cycles [2], post-PCR purification [3], and mini-STR designs [4]. These improvements have proved to be successful in obtaining better DNA profiles with degraded DNA samples often found in mass disasters and samples exposed to the environment. However, the intrinsic structural properties of DNA that might prevent its degradation have been overlooked. Using these structural properties as guidelines, forensic scientists might be able to choose the loci that can better withstand degradation and hence obtain more information from a degraded sample.

The binding of the octameric histone cores to 147 bp of DNA is a complex, multifactorial process that limits the interactions of DNA with other proteins. The formation and location of nucleosomes, the association of DNA with histones, are known to depend on the following factors: dinucleotide periodicity, base stacking, GC content, and chromatin remodelers [5-16]. It has been shown that certain properties, such as low deformation energy [17] and periodicity repeats of GG/CC dinucleotides [9], favor nucleosome formation. They are called “nucleosome positioning signals” [11].

Dixon *et al* [18, 19] suggested that a nucleosome could offer protection to the 147 bp of DNA that are bound to it from the attacks of endonucleases, which would freely digest post-mortem DNA at exposed sites. An *in silico* whole

human genome annotation for nucleosome exclusion regions also showed that regions free of nucleosomes correlated well with DNase I hypersensitive sites, from which an inference can be made that DNA bound in the nucleosomes could be protected against DNases [20].

The *in silico* study presented here was carried out to evaluate the “nucleosome forming potentials” (NFPs) (how likely it is for a certain sequence of DNA to be bound by nucleosomes) of 60 forensically important markers (58 STRs plus amelogenin X and Y). After analysis of the softwares available, we explored two nucleosome positioning signals – DNA bendability based on known stiff sequences and dinucleotide base stacking – via two freely available tools, NXSensor [21] and nuScore [22], respectively.

NXSensor searches for three sequences that are known to be rigid and therefore resist bending into a nucleosome. These sequences, when located near each other, could indicate a nucleosome-free region of DNA [21]. A modified version of NXSensor has been shown *in silico* to achieve good correlations with regions lacking nucleosomes [20]. On the other hand, nuScore works by determining the energy needed to bend a sequence of DNA. This deformation energy is calculated based on the specific arrangements of dinucleotides and their interactions, a phenomenon called dinucleotide stacking. The six possible interactions between the neighbouring two bases are tilt and shift (x-axis), roll and slide (y-axis), and twist and rise (z-axis) [23]. Locations of minimal deformation energy have been shown to correspond well to empirically determined locations of nucleosome dyads, the center of the nucleosome [22].

We hypothesized that some forensically important STR loci evaluated in this study may be more protected by nucleosomes than other loci. Determining which loci are protected could allow them to be incorporated into future forensic identification kits, resulting in a higher discrimination power for certain degraded sample types (saliva, bone, and decomposed remains) than with current profiling methods.

## **Materials and methods:**

### ***Selecting markers and obtaining base sequences***

Fifty-eight STR markers and amelogenin X and Y, totalling 60 markers (Table 1), were selected based on their past use and current recommendations by the forensic community. Sequences were obtained from the NCBI Human Genome Map (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/guide/human/>). These sequences were center-aligned at the tandem repeat units and truncated for 200 bp at both the 5' and 3' end, yielding a sequence of 400 bases.

### ***NXSensor mechanisms and parameters***

The algorithm of Nucleosome eXclusion Sensor (NXSensor version 1.3.1) (<http://www.sfu.ca/~ibajic/NXSensor/>) reads an input sequence for three known nucleosome-free sequences: 10 bases of poly-A, 10 bases of poly-T, and a combination of Gs and Cs ( $A_{\geq 10}$ ,  $T_{\geq 10}$ , or  $[(G/C)_3N_2]_{\geq 3}$ ). If any of these sequences are found, the program outputs the sequence in FASTA format and highlights the nucleosome-free region.

All 60 markers were evaluated and accessibility scores were given as a measure of how accessible the input sequence was to DNA-binding proteins.

The score was calculated using the following formula:

$$A = \frac{L_o \geq OS_{\min}}{L_i - L_a} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

where  $A$  the accessibility score;  $L_o$  the total length of open contiguous segment;  $OS_{\min}$  the minimum length of open segment;  $L_i$  the length of input sequence; and  $L_a$  the total length of ambiguous segments. An accessibility score of 0 indicated the whole input sequence contains no sequence that inhibits nucleosome formation while a score of 1 indicated the whole sequence is open for access by proteins and is not bound as a nucleosome.

The default settings used were: 147 bp window size; minimum number of exclusion sequences considered significant = 1; and the minimum length of open segments = 10.

A marker was deemed to have a high NFP if the accessibility score was close to zero and a low NFP close to one.

### ***NuScore mechanisms and parameters***

NuScore (<http://compbio.med.harvard.edu/nuScore/>) was used to evaluate the DNA deformation energy based on dinucleotide stacking properties – tilt, shift, roll, slide, twist, and rise. Randomized sequences were generated 100 times with the same dinucleotide content as the input sequence. The program options selected were: template 2cv5 (human); best of two orientations; and

164 bp window size. Two output values - DNA deformation energy and nucleosome positioning score (NPScore) - were used in this study.

The DNA deformation energy measures the amount of energy required to impose the structure of the nucleosome bend onto the input sequence; whilst the NPScore shows the significance in deviation of the deformation energy at one point from its neighbouring positions. Supplementary materials from [22] used an NPScore threshold of less than or equal to -2 to indicate a possible nucleosome dyad location, and the same threshold was applied in this study. A more stringent threshold of -3 was evaluated in this study as well.

### **Comparisons of original base sequences with random arrangements**

All 60 markers were compared with random sequences of the same dinucleotide content to determine if the positioning of the nucleosome dyad is dependent upon the specific arrangements of dinucleotides and their interactions. The number of locations with an NPScore more negative than two thresholds (-2 and -3) were counted and compared statistically.

A marker was deemed to have a high NFP when the locations of NPScore crossing the threshold ( $\text{NPScore} \leq -2$ ) were high and vice versa.

## **Results:**

### ***NXSensor***

An overall median of 0 (fully accessible) and a standard deviation of 0.019 indicated that the majority (81.7%) of markers tested had high NFP and hence were more probable to associate with histones to form nucleosomes. Ten out

of the 60 markers (18.3%) contained short nucleotide sequences that were deemed “stiff” and were less probable to exist as nucleosomes. Their accessibility scores ranged from 0.028 to 0.098 (Figure 1).

### ***NuScore***

An example graphical output of an NPScore profile of D18S51 is shown in Figure 2a. The alternating high-low score seen in the figure was typical of every sequence. The minima signified locations where there was potential for a nucleosome dyad to exist. In this profile, a reference line is shown at -2, as suggested by [22]. Values below -2 and -3 were counted for each STR locus. All loci displayed at least one possible location for a nucleosome dyad (threshold of -2) in the 400 bases input (Table 2). The medians of possible nucleosome dyad locations were 7 and 1 for the threshold of -2 and -3 respectively, with standard deviations at 2.380 and 0.851. The markers with the highest potential dyad locations of 12 were D21S11 and D10S1435, meaning that these two loci were the most likely to be bound to nucleosomes.

Within the central 100 bp, the markers were divided into three groups based on their scores. Group A comprised 27 markers with scores from 0 to 2, i.e. there were two or less positions in the central 100 bp that crossed the threshold of -2. Group B comprised 28 markers with scores between 3 and 5, inclusive, and group C comprised 5 markers whose scores were above 6 (Table 3).

### ***Comparisons of original base sequences with random arrangements***

A set of 100 random sequences with the same dinucleotide composition was generated by the nuScore program for each marker. The number of possible dyad locations for both arrangements (original and random) and both thresholds (-2 and -3) are listed in Table 2. For example, using D18S51 as an input sequence, a random sequence profile was generated and displayed for direct comparison with the original profile (Figure 2b).

Statistical comparison of original and random configurations containing dyad locations with a threshold of -2 gave a p-value of 0.004, indicating a significant difference in the scores obtained from the two different configurations. When the threshold was set to -3, no significant difference was observed between the two configurations ( $p = 0.466$ ). Due to the low number of positions crossing the threshold at -3 (Table 2), threshold -2 was chosen for further experiments.

Comparison of accessibility scores from NXSensor to threshold -2 and -3 scores for each STR locus yielded correlation coefficients of 0.024 and -0.13, respectively. This observation revealed that there was no linear correlation of accessibility scores to NPScores.

### **Discussion:**

Two hundred base pairs to both the 5'- and 3'-end from the center of the repeat units were used for the sequence analysis described in this study. This total of four hundred base pairs was chosen because the four hundred base pairs unit wholly encompasses the repeat motifs of the markers as well as the possible primer binding sites flanking the motifs. Moreover, the largest

loci of the widely-used commercial kits do not generally go beyond this size, albeit with a few exceptions, such as Penta E of PowerPlex® 16 (size range 379 to 474 bp) [24]. In addition, most STRs in current use do not have repeat units (without the flanking regions) that exceed 147 bp, which is equivalent to 36-37 repeat units for a tetranucleotide STR. The reason that amplicon lengths of commercial kits such as SGM Plus™ extend much greater than the repeat unit size is because of the flanking regions for convenient primer design and multiplexing. Hence, using mini-STR primers as shown in [25] as an example, the actual amplicon length of the markers can be reduced to less than the nucleosomal protection size of 147 bp.

Given that STRs have varying number of repeats depending on each individual and that our methods center-aligned the sequence, the flanking regions will change accordingly with each allele. This could have an effect on the NFPs. However, center-aligning the sequences was deemed important because, in theory, the closer the nucleosome dyad is to the center of the repeat units, the higher the chance that the primer binding sites and the repeat units would remain intact after DNA degradation (due to nucleosome protection) and that successful PCR amplification could occur.

Based on the NXSensor results, the markers were divided into two groups – ones with exclusion sequences and ones without. The validity of nucleosome protection conferred upon the markers could be empirically determined by designing primers for these ten loci, particularly D9S1122, with the highest accessibility scores (Figure 1), and then compare their performance on artificially degraded DNA and casework samples with a marker that had no exclusion sequence, e.g. vWA. If the hypothesis proposed in this study is

correct, the ten loci with accessibility scores of more than 0 should exhibit properties associated with degraded DNA and/or low-template DNA amplification [2] while these effects should be dampened with the other 49 loci.

The nuScore results showing at least one potential nucleosome dyad location (NPScore  $\leq$  -2) within the 400 bp of each marker were expected. Nucleosomes serve to facilitate compacting of the chromatin for higher order structure [14] and, as a nucleosome binds approximately 147 bp of DNA, at least one dyad should be seen in a sequence as long as 400 bp. The core 100 bp was more important as discussed above and was used to categorize the STR loci. The markers in group A and group C could be targeted for further empirical comparisons for evidence that may validate the protective capabilities of nucleosomes on STR loci.

The numbers of possible dyad location of the 60 markers in their original arrangements were compared to those of the random arrangements in order to determine if these locations are influenced by the specific arrangement of dinucleotides and their interactions. The change in the locations of the minima (Figure 2) and the statistical differences between the two suggest that both the numbers of possible dyad locations and the positions they might take up depend on the arrangement of the bases and not the nucleotide content.

The lack of correlation between the two programs may be due to their basic designs. The NXSensor program searches for sequences that are inhibitory to nucleosome binding based on known strong inhibitory signals [20] while the nuScore program evaluates the dinucleotide stacking properties of the input

sequence. Nucleosome binding and attraction is a multifactorial event, with commonly known variables being dinucleotide periodicity and stacking, GC content and chromatin remodelers [9, 11-13, 15, 20, 26]. Since this attraction depends on more than one single factor, a significant difference might not be observed when only one or two factors are considered as in our study. Furthermore, these signals only indicate the probability of finding a nucleosome at a given location and not experimentally mapped nucleosome positions. Therefore further experiments using artificial degradation of saliva samples are being carried out to validate our *in silico* findings.

Also, all the STR loci evaluated in these studies, with the exception of amelogenin, were located within an intron or intergenic region. Our findings agree with Vinogradov [27], who showed that these regions are enriched with NFPs because they do not have to be regulated, transcribed (for intergenic STRs), or translated (for intron STRs). Therefore they are less likely to be accessed by proteins.

Other nucleosome prediction programs are also available online for research use. The most recent program released in December 2009 is “FineStr” (<http://www.cs.bgu.ac.il/~nucleom/>) [28], which is based on *Caenorhabditis elegans* universal nucleosome positioning pattern [29, 30]. Another noteworthy program based on discriminant analysis of dinucleotide frequency is called “Recon” (<http://wwwmgs.bionet.nsc.ru/mgs/programs/recon/>) [31] and it has been available since 2001. Given the relatively fast nature of the field, we decided to use NXSensor and nuScore, which are the two programs that are freely available and based on most up-to-date data when the study was carried out.

## Conclusion:

Assessment of NFPs of forensically important STRs could be beneficial as nucleosome-bound DNA is less likely to degrade due to being in the 'bound configuration'. Our findings show that most STR loci in use nowadays are already somewhat protected from degradation by nucleosomes. Selecting the loci with stronger attraction to nucleosomes for a multiplex could increase the chance of obtaining a better balanced profile with fewer allelic drop-outs. Further work using time-series degraded saliva samples will be employed to empirically determine the differences between bound and unbound STRs under *in vitro* conditions.

## References:

1. D. Anna-Maria, E. Hanna and A. Marie, Forensic analysis of autosomal STR markers using Pyrosequencing. *Forensic Sci. Int. Genet.* 4 (2010) 122-129.
2. P. Gill, J. Whitaker, C. Flaxman, N. Brown and J. Buckleton, An investigation of the rigor of interpretation rules for STRs derived from less than 100 pg of DNA. *Forensic Sci. Int.* 112 (2000) 17-40.
3. P. J. Smith and J. Ballantyne, Simplified low-copy-number DNA analysis by post-PCR purification. *J. Forensic Sci.* 52 (2007) 820-829.
4. J. M. Butler, Y. Shen and B. R. Mccord, The development of reduced size STR amplicons as tools for analysis of degraded DNA. *J. Forensic Sci.* 48 (2003) 1054-1064.
5. S. Ercan and J. D. Lieb, New evidence that DNA encodes its packaging. *Nat. Genet.* 38 (2006) 1104-1105.
6. I. Ioshikhes, A. Bolshoy, K. Derenshteyn, M. Borodovsky and E. N. Trifonov, Nucleosome DNA sequence pattern revealed by multiple alignment of experimentally mapped sequences. *J. Mol. Biol.* 262 (1996) 129-139.
7. I. P. Ioshikhes, I. Albert, S. J. Zanton and B. F. Pugh, Nucleosome positions predicted through comparative genomics. *Nat. Genet.* 38 (2006) 1210-1215.
8. R. Kiyama and E. N. Trifonov, What positions nucleosomes?--A model. *FEBS Lett.* 523 (2002) 7-11.
9. S. B. Kogan, M. Kato, R. Kiyama and E. N. Trifonov, Sequence structure of human nucleosome DNA. *J. Biomol. Struct. Dyn.* 24 (2006) 43-48.

10. P. T. Lowary and J. Widom, New DNA sequence rules for high affinity binding to histone octamer and sequence-directed nucleosome positioning. *J. Mol. Biol.* 276 (1998) 19-42.
11. H. E. Peckham, R. E. Thurman, Y. Fu, J. A. Stamatoyannopoulos, W. S. Noble, K. Struhl and Z. Weng, Nucleosome positioning signals in genomic DNA. *Genome Res.* 17 (2007) 1170-1177.
12. O. J. Rando and K. Ahmad, Rules and regulation in the primary structure of chromatin. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.* 19 (2007) 250-256.
13. E. Segal, Y. Fondufe-Mittendorf, L. Chen, A. Thastrom, Y. Field, I. K. Moore, J. P. Wang and J. Widom, A genomic code for nucleosome positioning. *Nature* 442 (2006) 772-778.
14. R. D. Kornberg and Y. Lorch, Twenty-five years of the nucleosome, fundamental particle of the eukaryote chromosome. *Cell* 98 (1999) 285-294.
15. G. C. Yuan, Y. J. Liu, M. F. Dion, M. D. Slack, L. F. Wu, S. J. Altschuler and O. J. Rando, Genome-scale identification of nucleosome positions in *S. cerevisiae*. *Science* 309 (2005) 626-630.
16. T. Bettecken and E. N. Trifonov, Repertoires of the nucleosome-positioning dinucleotides. *PLoS ONE* 4 (2009) e7654.
17. A. A. Travers, The structural basis of DNA flexibility. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* 362 (2004) 1423-1438.
18. L. A. Dixon, C. M. Murray, E. J. Archer, A. E. Dobbins, P. Koumi and P. Gill, Validation of a 21-locus autosomal SNP multiplex for forensic identification purposes. *Forensic Sci. Int.* 154 (2005) 62-77.
19. L. A. Dixon, A. E. Dobbins, H. K. Pulker, J. M. Butler, P. M. Vallone, M. D. Coble, W. Parson, B. Berger, P. Grubwieser, H. S. Mogensen, N. Morling, K. Nielsen, J. J. Sanchez, E. Petkovski, A. Carracedo, P. Sanchez-Diz, E. Ramos-Luis, M. Brion, J. A. Irwin, R. S. Just, O. Loreille, T. J. Parsons, D. Syndercombe-Court, H. Schmitter, B. Stradmann-Bellinghausen, K. Bender and P. Gill, Analysis of artificially degraded DNA using STRs and SNPs--results of a collaborative European (EDNAP) exercise. *Forensic Sci. Int.* 164 (2006) 33-44.
20. A. Radwan, A. Younis, P. Luykx and S. Khuri, Prediction and analysis of nucleosome exclusion regions in the human genome. *BMC Genomics* 9 (2008) 186-186.
21. P. Luykx, I. V. Bajic and S. Khuri, NXSensor web tool for evaluating DNA for nucleosome exclusion sequences and accessibility to binding factors. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 34 (2006) W560-565.
22. M. Y. Tolstorukov, V. Choudhary, W. K. Olson, V. B. Zhurkin and P. J. Park, nuScore: a web-interface for nucleosome positioning predictions. *Bioinformatics* 24 (2008) 1456-1458.
23. R. E. Dickerson, Definitions and nomenclature of nucleic acid structure parameters. *J. Biomol. Struct. Dyn.* 6 (1989) 627-634.
24. Technical Manual: PowerPlex® 16 System #TMD012, Promega Corporation, 2008.
25. C. R. Hill, M. C. Kline, M. D. Coble and J. M. Butler, Characterization of 26 miniSTR loci for improved analysis of degraded DNA samples. *J. Forensic Sci.* 53 (2008) 73-80.

26. E. N. Trifonov, Curved DNA. *CRC Crit. Rev. Biochem.* 19 (1985) 89-106.
27. A. E. Vinogradov, Noncoding DNA, isochores and gene expression: nucleosome formation potential. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 33 (2005) 559-563.
28. I. Gabdank, D. Barash and E. N. Trifonov, FineStr : a web server for single-base-resolution nucleosome positioning. *Bioinformatics* (2010) btq030.
29. E. N. Trifonov, Nucleosome positioning by sequence, state of the art and apparent finale. *J. Biomol. Struct. Dyn.* 27 (2010) 741-746.
30. E. N. Trifonov, Base pair stacking in nucleosome DNA and bendability sequence pattern. *J. Theor. Biol.* 263 (2010) 337-339.
31. V. G. Levitsky, RECON: a program for prediction of nucleosome formation potential. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 32 (2004) W346-349.

**Figures:**

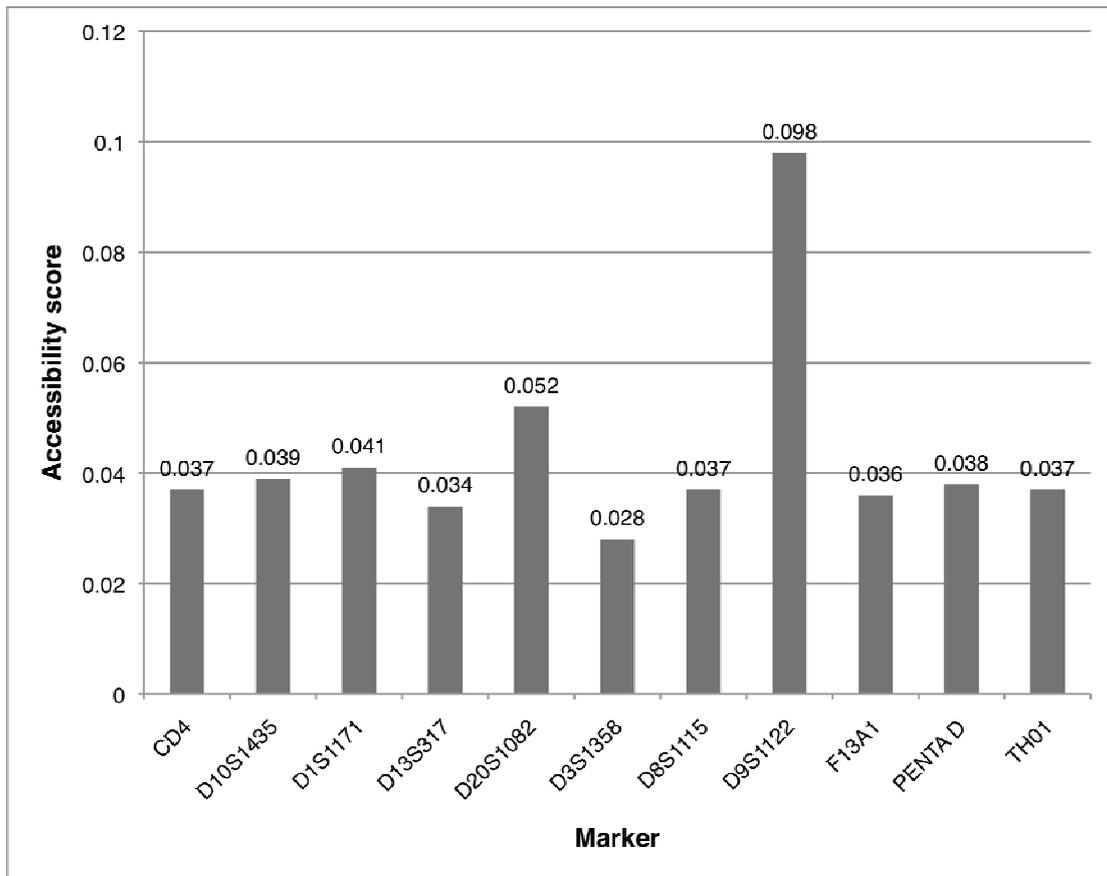


Figure 1.

Accessibility scores (calculated using equation 1) of 11 STR loci with nucleosome exclusion sequences.

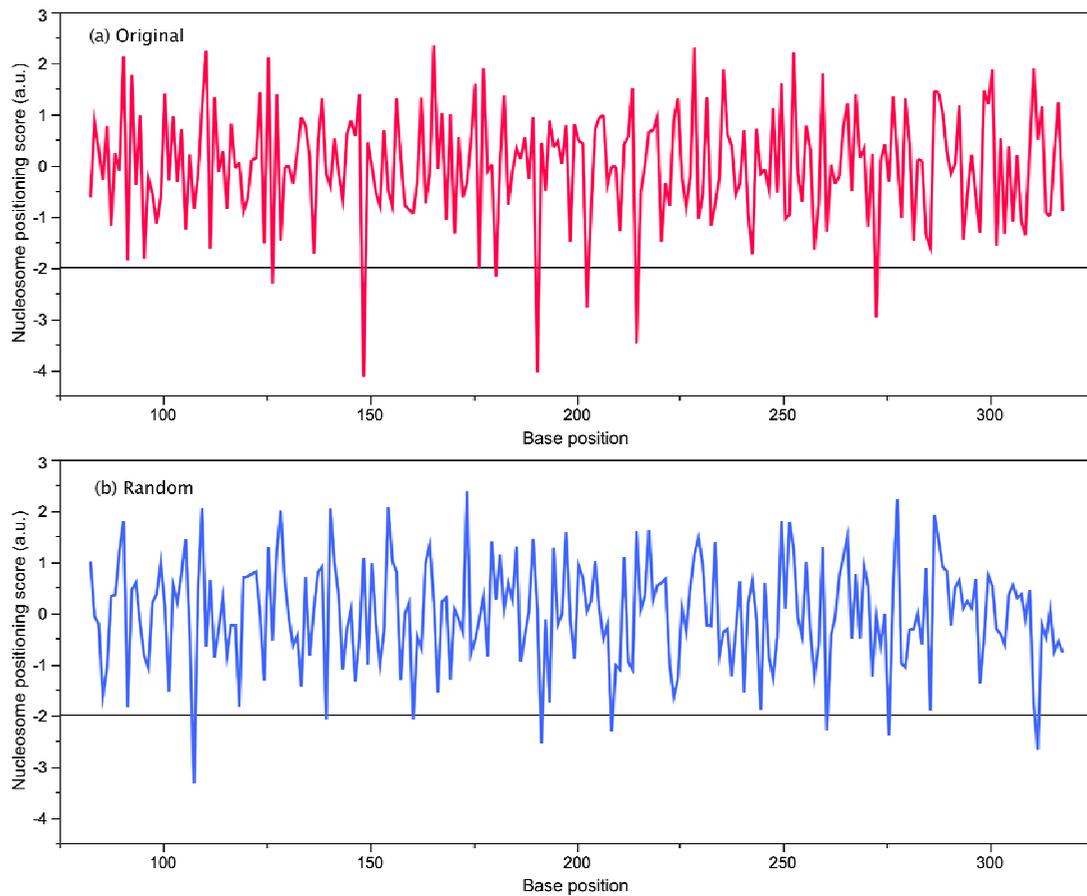


Figure 2.

Nucleosome positioning score profile of D18S51 (a.u. = arbitrary units) with reference line at -2: (a) original base sequences and (b) random dinucleotide profile of the same composition.

Table 1. The 58 STR markers plus amelogenin X and Y, their GenBank accession number and chromosomal position in the latest human GRCh37 assembly.

Locus name	Genbank	Chromosomal position	Locus name	Genbank	Chromosomal position
CD4	M86525	Chr 12: 6.897 Mb	D2S441	AC079112	Chr 2: 68.239 Mb
CSF1PO	X14720	Chr 5: 149.455 Mb	D3S1358	AC099539	Chr 3: 45.582 Mb
D10S1248	AL391869	Chr 10: 131.093 Mb	D3S1545	L16413	Chr 3: 161.673 Mb
D10S1435	AL354747	Chr 10: 2.243 Mb	D3S3053	AC069259	Chr 3: 171.751 Mb
D11S4463	AP002806	Chr 11: 130.872 Mb	D3S4529	AC117452	Chr 3: 85.852 Mb
D12ATA63	AC009771	Chr 12: 108.322 Mb	D4S2364	AC022317	Chr 4: 93.517 Mb
D12S391	G08921	Chr 12: 12.450 Mb	D4S2366	G08339	Chr 4: 6.485 Mb
D13S317	AL353628.7	Chr 13: 82.692 Mb	D4S2408	AC110763	Chr 4: 31.304 Mb
D14S1434	AL121612	Chr 14: 95.308 Mb	D5S2500	AC008791	Chr 5: 58.699 Mb
D16S539	AC024591	Chr 16: 86.386 Mb	D5S818	AC008512	Chr 5: 123.111 Mb
D17S1301	AC016888	Chr 17: 72.681 Mb	D6S1017	AL035588	Chr 6: 41.677 Mb
D17S974	AC034303	Chr 17: 10.519 Mb	D6S474	AL357514	Chr 6: 112.879 Mb
D18S51	AP001534	Chr 18: 60.949 Mb	D7S820	AC004848	Chr 7: 83.789 Mb
D18S853	AP005130	Chr 18: 3.990 Mb	D8S1115	AC090739	Chr 8: 42.536 Mb
D19S433	AC008507	Chr 19: 30.416 Mb	D8S1179	AF216671	Chr 8: 125.907 Mb
D1GATA113	Z97987	Chr 1: 7.443 Mb	D9S1122	AL161789	Chr 9: 79.689 Mb
D1S1171	AF017307	Chr 1: 201.917 Mb	D9S2157	AL162417	Chr 9: 136.035 Mb
D1S1627	AC093119	Chr 1: 106.964 Mb	F13A1	M21986	Chr 6: 6.321 Mb
D1S1656	G07802	Chr 1: 230.905 Mb	FES	X06292	Chr 15: 91.432 Mb
D1S1677	AL513307	Chr 1: 163.560 Mb	FGA	M64982	Chr 4: 155.509 Mb
D20S1082	AL158015	Chr 20: 53.866 Mb	HPRTB	M26434	Chr X: 133.615 Mb
D20S161	L16405	Chr 20: 16.621 Mb	LPL	D83550	Chr 8: 19.815 Mb
D20S438	L29933	Chr 20: 38.051 Mb	Penta D	AP001752	Chr 21: 45.056 Mb
D20S482	AL121781	Chr 20: 4.506 Mb	Penta E	AC027004	Chr 15: 97.374 Mb
D21S11	AP000433	Chr 21: 20.554 Mb	SE33	V00481	Chr 6: 88.987 Mb
D21S1437	G08082	Chr 21: 21.646 Mb	TH01	D00269	Chr 11: 2.192 Mb
D221045	AL022314	Chr 22: 37.536 Mb	TPOX	M68651	Chr 2: 1.493 Mb
D2S1242	L17825	Chr 2: 221.217 Mb	vWA	M25858	Chr 12: 6.093 Mb
D2S1338	G08202	Chr 2: 218.879 Mb	Amelogenin X	M55418	Chr X: 11.311 Mb
D2S1776	AC009475	Chr 2: 169.145 Mb	Amelogenin Y	M55419	Chr Y: 6.736 Mb

Table 2. Number of possible locations for a nucleosome dyad with the threshold of -2 and -3 for the 60 markers tested. Original (Ori) and random (Ran) indicate the arrangement of the base sequences. Original arrangement is found in a human genome and random is the same dinucleotides arbitrarily rearranged. The table is arranged in descending order of possible locations for Ori in threshold -2.

Marker	Threshold -2		Threshold -3		Marker	Threshold -2		Threshold -3	
	Ori	Ran	Ori	Ran		Ori	Ran	Ori	Ran
D10S1435	12	4	0	2	D19S433	7	8	1	2
D21S11	12	5	1	0	D1S1677	7	6	1	1
CD4	11	8	1	1	D4S2408	7	12	0	2
D5S2500	11	8	1	2	D5S818	7	7	0	0
F13A1	11	4	1	0	D8S1115	7	5	0	1
D12ATA63	10	7	0	1	D12S391	6	7	1	1
D1S1627	10	7	2	1	D14S1434	6	5	2	1
D1S1656	10	5	2	1	D17S1301	6	6	2	0
D2S1338	10	4	0	0	D1S1171	6	6	1	1
D7S820	10	5	1	1	D21S1437	6	7	0	1
PENTA E	10	8	1	1	D2S441	6	4	0	1
CSF1PO	9	1	0	0	D3S3053	6	4	0	0
D3S1545	9	7	2	0	D6S474	6	1	1	0
D4S2364	9	4	2	0	D8S1179	6	2	0	0
FGA	9	4	2	1	PENTA D	6	8	0	1
VWA	9	5	0	2	TH01	6	6	2	0
AMEL_Y	8	9	2	0	D2S438	5	3	1	0
D18S51	8	8	3	1	D4S2366	5	8	0	1
D1GATA113	8	6	0	1	D9S1122	5	5	0	0
D20S1082	8	7	0	1	D9S2157	5	11	0	0
D20S482	8	7	0	0	HPRTB	5	2	0	1
D22S1045	8	6	3	0	TPOX	5	7	0	0
D3S1358	8	4	2	0	D17S974	4	5	1	0
D6S1017	8	6	1	1	D20S161	4	7	1	1
FES	8	3	1	0	D2S1776	4	7	0	1
LPL	8	4	1	1	D3S4529	4	8	0	1
AMEL_X	7	7	0	1	D13S317	3	3	0	1
D10S1248	7	9	0	1	D2S1424	3	8	1	1
D11S4463	7	6	1	1	D18S853	2	6	0	0
D16S539	7	5	1	0	SE33	2	7	0	0
<i>Median</i>	7	6	1	1	<i>StDev</i>	2.380	2.184	0.851	0.629

Table 3. 60 markers divided into three groups according to the number of positions crossing the threshold of -2 at the central 100 bases (sorted in alphabetical order).

Group A (0-2)		Group B (3-5)		Group C (6-8)
AMEL_X	D2S1776	AMEL_Y	D3S1545	D18S51
D10S1248	D2S438	CD4	D4S2364	D21S11
D11S4463	D2S441	CSF1PO	D4S2408	D22S1045
D12ATA63	D3S3053	D10S1435	D5S818	D5S2500
D12S391	D3S4529	D14S1434	D6S1017	F13A1
D13S317	D4S2366	D17S974	D7S820	
D16S539	D6S474	D19S433	D8S1115	
D17S1301	D9S1122	D1GATA113	D8S1179	
D18S853	D9S2157	D1S1627	FES	
D1S1171	HPRTB	D1S1656	FGA	
D20S1082	SE33	D1S1677	LPL	
D20S161	TH01	D20S482	PENTA D	
D21S1437	TPOX	D2S1338	PENTA E	
D2S1424		D3S1358	VWA	