Manuscript Click here to download Manuscript Manuscript_Electrostatic_Sampling_Zieger_revised.docx

Click here to view linked References

# Electrostatic sampling of trace DNA from clothing

Author Information

Martin Zieger[1] (corresponding author)

Martin.Zieger@irm.unibe.ch

Tel.: +41 31 631 31 59

Priscille Merciani Defaux[2]

pmep@police.be.ch

Silvia Utz[1]

Silvia.Utz@irm.unibe.ch

[1]Institute of Forensic Medicine, Forensic Molecular Biology Dpt., University of Bern, Sulgenauweg 40, 3007 Bern, Switzerland

[2]Bern Cantonal Police, Nordring 30, 3001 Bern, Switzerland

source: https://doi.org/10.7892/boris.76401 | downloaded: 12.10.2024

Abstract

During acts of physical aggression, offenders frequently come into contact with clothes of the victim, thereby leaving traces of DNA-bearing biological material on the garments. Since tape-lifting and swabbing, the currently established methods for non-destructive trace DNA sampling from clothing, both have their shortcomings in collection efficiency and handling, we thought about a new collection method for these challenging samples.

Testing two readily available electrostatic devices for their potential to sample biological material from garments made of different fabrics, we found one of them, the electrostatic dust print lifter (DPL), to perform comparable to well-established sampling with wet cotton swabs. In simulated aggression scenarios, we had the same success rate for the establishment of single aggressor profiles, suitable for database submission, with both the DPL and wet swabbing. However, we lost a substantial amount of information with electrostatic sampling, since almost no mixed aggressor-victim profiles suitable for database entry could be established, compared to conventional swabbing.

This study serves as a proof of principle for electrostatic DNA sampling from items of clothing. The technique still requires optimization before it might be used in real casework. But we are confident that in the future it could be an efficient and convenient contribution to the toolbox of forensic practitioners.

Keywords:

Trace DNA, Electrostatic, Clothing, Sampling

38 1. Introduction

39 Many criminal offenses, especially against physical or sexual integrity, involve a physical contact of
40 the offender with clothing items of the victim. Sampling of the tiny amount of touch DNA that might
41 be left by the offender in such a case is challenging for different reasons: The biological material
42 deposited might enter the cavities of the tissue and might therefore be less readily retrieved than
43 from smooth surfaces such as glass or plastic [1-3]. Fingerprints that would allow specific focusing on
44 a small distinct area for sampling are hard to visualize on clothes. To complicate things even further,
45 the garment has usually been worn by the victim for a certain period of time, thus carrying a lot of
46 biological material not originating from the offender [4]. In routine casework, trace DNA from larger
47 areas on clothing is usually sampled either by swabbing or by the application of adhesive tapes.
48 Higher efficiency of DNA retrieval from most tested fabrics has been demonstrated by some studies
49 for tape-lifting compared to swabbing [5,6]. However, sampling of larger areas by tape-lifting is
50 tedious, especially since an optimal retrieval of trace material is achieved only after applying the tape
51 several times consecutively in the same spot [6]. Swabbing is faster than tape-lifting and swab heads
52 are very convenient for down-stream processing in the lab, but as previously mentioned, the
53 literature states that DNA collection from textiles by swabs is less efficient. Also, thorough swabbing
54 of clothing often results in frayed swab heads. If we presume that offenders are only in short contact
55 with the item of clothing of a victim, we might expect them to leave only a relatively small amount of
56 DNA on the garment. Thereby the exact origin and composition of the DNA-bearing biological
57 material remains still unclear [7,8]. However, in most cases we would expect more biological material
58 on the garment and absorbed by it as originating from the wearer [4]. A lot of this unwanted wearer
59 DNA is usually co-sampled with wet swabs. Therefore a method by which one could minimize co-
60 sampling of aggressor DNA and victim DNA would be desirable. One approach could be to sample
61 only material adhering loosely to the surface of the garment. This condition is partly fulfilled by the
62 tape-lifting approach, though with the above mentioned inconvenience and a certain limitation for
63 the size of the area that might be sampled by one tape. Here we tested two different electrostatic

64 devices, frequently employed for other forensic purposes, for their potential for superficial trace
65 removal from clothes. Both methods employ a film that is applied to the sample area and then
66 charged electrically. Loose particles will adhere to the electrostatic film and can be swabbed from it
67 subsequently. One device, the electrostatic detection apparatus (ESDA®), usually used to reveal
68 indented writing on documents, has just very recently been demonstrated suitable for DNA retrieval
69 from paper [9]. The second device that we tested, the electrostatic dust print lifter (DPL), is normally
70 used to visualize foot prints on dusty floors. Therefore the footprints are covered by a metalized foil.
71 The foil is then charged by applying high voltage with low amperage. Dust particles stick to the
72 charged foil through electrostatic adhesion.

73 In the first part of this study we compared the DNA collection efficiency of the ESDA® and the DPL to
74 conventional wet swabbing. The DPL, that turned out to be more efficient for DNA sampling, was
75 then tested for its potential to limit co-sampling of wearer DNA in an aggressor-victim scenario.

76

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1 Sampling unworn clothes for comparison of swab, DPL and ESDA®

We chose three different fabrics for sampling (Fig.1a): a pair of jeans (PJ), a cotton sweater (CS) and a wide-meshed jersey made of 85% acrylic fiber / 15% cotton (WM). Swabs were taken as negative controls from 9x13cm areas on washed and untouched clothes. The clothes were touched by three different persons at three different areas by pressing both hands on the item of clothing followed by an outward movement of the hands (Fig.1b). Donors were told not to wash hands prior to sampling. Between two different garments to touch, there was a minimum time interval of 30 minutes for the donors. Every garment has been touched three times by the same person at three different days. The clothes were washed between sampling days. Every area was subdivided in three areas with the dimensions 9x13cm. Every one of these 9x13 cm areas was sampled with a different technique (Fig.1c): a wet cotton swab (Cardboard evidence collection Kit, Prionics, Switzerland), the dust print lifter (DPL) ESP900 (SIRCHIE, North Carolina, USA) or the electrostatic detection apparatus ESDA® (Foster & Freeman, UK). Every time the sampling order was altered, to equilibrate for potential uneven deposit. We therefore sampled every garment for every donor once in every position (A, B or C) with every technique, resulting in a total of 27 samples per sampling technique. For sampling with the ESDA®, the garment was put on the ESDA® table and covered with the Mylar film made of boPET (biaxially-oriented polyethylene terephthalate). The touched area was marked on the backside of the film and then the corona wand was passed over it to induce electrostatic charging of the film. After charging, the film was removed carefully to avoid folding. For sampling with the DPL, the metalized lifting foil was cut to 9x13 cm pieces. The touched area was covered with the metal foil and the foil was charged with the maximum voltage for 15s. The electrostatic ESDA® and DPL films were swabbed with wet cotton swabs directly after the electrostatic sampling. Negative controls for unused ESDA® and DPL films were analyzed in triplicate.

102 2.2 Sampling worn clothes for simulated aggression

103 Three persons (victims) were wearing a pair of jeans (different colors) and a cotton sweater for at
104 least one day. They were vigorously touched by three different persons (aggressors) at the forearms
105 and ankles (Fig.2a and b) for about 5 seconds, simulating one person who holds another one trying to
106 free itself, therefore including friction. The areas for sampling were subsequently limited to 10x15
107 cm. One side (e.g. left arm / left leg) was then sampled with a wet cotton swab (Fig.2c) and the other
108 one (right arm /right leg) with the DPL as described above (Fig.2d). DPL foils were wet swabbed
109 directly after the electrostatic sampling. The sampling was repeated two days later with the same
110 victim-aggressor combination, changing the sampling side (e.g. now DPL left, swab right). The two
111 following weeks the combinations of aggressor and victim were altered. In the end every aggressor
112 touched every one of the victims two times, at trousers and sweater, resulting in a total of 36
113 samples taken by swab and 36 taken by DPL.

114

115 2.3 Sample analysis

116 Cotton swabs were extracted using the AutoMateExpress™ Extraction with the PrepFiler Express™
117 protocol from Life Technologies, Massachusetts, USA. DNA quantification was done by Real-Time-
118 PCR (qPCR) using the Quantifiler® Human Kit from Life Technologies on a 7500 RT PCR System
119 (Applied Biosystems®, Massachusetts, USA). DNA profiles were established by multiplex-PCR using
120 the AmpFlSTR® NGM Select™ Kit from Life Technologies. We used the recommended standard
121 amplification protocol with 25 µl reaction volume. For samples with a DNA concentration lower than
122 50 pg/µl, we used the maximum volume of 10 µl sample for amplification. For higher concentrated
123 samples we used a volume corresponding to 0.5ng per reaction and filled to 25 µl with water. In
124 accordance with our internal guidelines for routine casework, negative controls and all samples with
125 a DNA concentration lower than 20 pg/µl were amplified with 32 cycles, all other samples with 30
126 cycles. Electrophoresis was performed on a 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems®,

127 Massachusetts, USA) with 3 kV injection voltage and 10 seconds injection time on POP4 polymer.
128 Results were analyzed with Genemapper® ID-X Version 1.4 (Applied Biosystems®, Massachusetts,
129 USA) with 50 rfu (relative fluorescent units) threshold.

130

131 2.4 Data analysis

132 For the comparison of Swab, DPL and ESDA® on fresh clothing we compared the quantities of DNA
133 that could be sampled with the different techniques. Because of the large differences in DNA
134 quantities retrieved, we preferred a classification of the samples in three different concentration
135 classes over less meaningful mean DNA quantities for the different techniques. We chose DNA
136 concentration classes for the retrieved extraction of < 10 pg/µl, 10-20 pg/µl and ≥20 pg/µl based on
137 our experience from daily case work. For the evaluation of DNA profiles we counted at how many loci
138 we could detect both alleles of the DNA donor and compared mean values of loci between sampling
139 techniques as well as how often we could detect all alleles of the donor on the sampled garment. For
140 the second comparison between swab and DPL on worn clothing we applied the entry criteria of the
141 Swiss DNA database for classification. A partial single person profile or main component can be
142 registered if a minimum of 6 loci has been characterized. For mixtures the minimum number of
143 determined loci is 8. Mixtures can be registered if the submitted alleles indicate not more than two
144 contributors. For single profiles, we only accepted unambiguous major components with good
145 heterozygote balance (>60 % peak height ratio). Mixtures were checked for continuous distribution
146 of signal intensity of victim and aggressor alleles.

147

148 3. Results

149 3.1 Sampling unworn clothes for comparison of swab, DPL and ESDA®

150 Figure 1 shows the experiment setup of the first part of the study. The efficiency of the different
151 sampling methods was checked by the quantity of DNA that could be retrieved (Table 1). Therefore
152 we set three different concentration classes for the DNA extractions. Whereas half of the samples
153 (13 out of 27) collected by the DPL gave concentrations of 10 pg/µl or more, the ESDA® collection
154 method only yielded two samples with a high DNA concentration (≥20 pg/µl). The DPL collection
155 method performed almost as good as conventional swabbing (17 out of 27 samples with a
156 concentration of more than 10 pg/µl). The wide-meshed jersey made of 85% acrylic fiber and 15%
157 cotton accounts for the major difference between the different garments tested. For this clothing
158 item collection efficiency is high for swabbing, whereas almost no DNA could be sampled with the
159 two electrostatic devices. The established donor DNA profiles fit the detected DNA concentrations.
160 Out of the 16 loci in the AmpFlSTR® NGM Select™ multiplex, an average of 15.5 loci over all 27
161 samples could be established with sampling by swabs. The DPL performed similarly well with an
162 average of 14.3 loci. Considerably fewer loci (6.7) could be characterized with the ESDA® collection
163 method. Only 19% of the samples collected with the ESDA® device yielded complete donor profiles,
164 compared to 70% for DPL and 85% for wet swabbing. The results are summarized in Table 1. Control
165 samples taken from untouched clothing and from the unused Mylar and metalized foils were all
166 negative for qPCR.

167

168 3.2 Sampling worn clothes for simulated aggression

169 Figure 2 depicts the procedure for the second part of the study. Again we measured DNA
170 concentrations in the samples by qPCR (Table 2). As for the first part of the study, the wet cotton
171 swab was more efficient in overall DNA retrieval. We checked at how many of the AmpFlSTR® NGM
172 Select™ loci we could detect the alleles of the aggressor. The numbers for both methods are

173 comparable to each other. With the DPL collection method we were able to detect in average 75% of
174 the aggressor profile, with swabbing 89%. We then checked how many of the samples would yield a
175 single aggressor profile suitable for entry into the Swiss DNA database. Most of the cases we treat
176 during our daily work do not involve a known suspect. Therefore a good quality profile, fulfilling the
177 entry criteria for the database is crucial in most cases if the established profile shall serve as an
178 investigative lead. With both collection methods 5 out of 36 traces (14%) yielded a database suitable
179 single donor profile. We expected wet swabbing to retrieve more of the wearer DNA. Consistent with
180 this presumption we obtain considerably more aggressor-donor mixtures suitable for database entry,
181 but numbers for single victim profiles were comparable between the two methods. Contamination
182 with DNA from unknown individuals was an issue with both sampling techniques, since almost all
183 profiles showed additional signals that could be assigned neither to the aggressor nor to the victim.

184

185 Discussion

186 Within less than 20 years, trace DNA analysis has become a standard procedure in forensics [10-12].
187 In our lab about 80% of all samples are so called “contact traces”, traces that do presumably not
188 involve any body fluids. Those traces mostly contain very small amounts of DNA and can usually not
189 be visualized prior to sampling. Despite the obvious importance of this type of samples for forensics,
190 established methods for sample collection are scarce. For smooth, solid surfaces such as glass, wood
191 or plastic, swabs are still the method of choice because sampling is quick and relatively cheap and
192 down-stream processing of swab heads is convenient. For items of clothing, tape-lifting has gained in
193 importance, but down-stream processing of tapes is less handy. Although a variety of other collection
194 methods for trace DNA have been presented by researchers, including single particle analysis to
195 avoid mixtures or collection by vacuum [13-15], swabs and lifting tapes remain the two widely
196 established methods in forensic labs. However, published data on comparison between tapes and
197 swabs is still scarce. Most of the available publications on the topic are either case studies or include
198 very few samples [5,16-18]. To our knowledge there is only one bigger systematic study publically
199 available [6]. Verdon et al. demonstrate Scenesafe FAST™ tapes to be more efficient than swabbing
200 on cotton and on a polyester/cotton mixture. For cotton, their paper also demonstrates that the tape
201 has to be applied in the exact same spot more than once to be more efficient than swabbing. Verdon
202 and colleagues demonstrate that in their setup, the highest sampling efficiency is achieved if the tape
203 is applied 16 times in the same spot [6]. For an area of 100x150mm (or 15.000mm$^2$) as we use it
204 here, we need to apply one Scenesafe FAST™ tape (19x25mm or 475mm$^2$) 32 times to cover the
205 whole surface once. So, to achieve the best sampling according to Verdon et al., we would need to
206 apply the tape 512 times on that 10x15cm area. Since the above mentioned study showed as well
207 that sampling efficiency starts decreasing after around 32 applications of the same tape we would
208 need 16 tapes to cover a 10x15cm region under ideal sampling conditions. So even though in theory
209 one might get most DNA sampled with this setup, it is far from being convenient for real case
210 scenarios, with larger sampling areas involved. For sampling of trace DNA from garments that have

211 been touched through physical aggression, the sampled areas are usually rather large, since mostly
212 no fingerprints can be visualized to focus sample collection to smaller contact zones. Even if we
213 assume that applying the tape only 3 times in the same spot would be sufficient for performing
214 consistently better than swabbing, we would still need 96 contacts between tape and tissue and 3
215 tapes per sample for a 10x15cm area. Since the tapes need to be pooled to finally obtain the
216 maximum DNA amount concentrated in one sample, every additional tape that has to be handled
217 bears also an additional risk of contamination. To summarize, we acknowledge the better
218 performance of adhesive tapes on smaller tissue areas, but from the existing literature, it is not yet
219 clear which one is the best method for larger sampling areas, also in terms of usability. For this
220 reason and because of the proof of principle character of the present study, we considered it at this
221 stage neither necessary nor very informative to include an additional comparison of electrostatic
222 sampling to tape-lifting.

223 For textiles, we can expect a transfer of DNA in both directions: from the item of clothing to the
224 collection tool and also vice versa. As already mentioned above, it has been demonstrated for tape-
225 lifting that the tape reaches equilibrium for transfer of DNA-bearing biological material between the
226 sampled garment and the tape [6]. We can expect a similar effect for the transfer of trace DNA
227 between the garment and a swab. The rationale behind the experiments presented here was the
228 following: if the loose biological material from textiles could be transferred to a plastic or metal film -
229 being neither sticky nor absorbent - then a large area can be sampled with a single swab,
230 concentrating almost all the available DNA bearing material on that one swab and thereby also
231 minimizing transfer of sampled DNA from the swab back to the clothing item. We expected such a
232 collection method also to co-sample less biological material from the wearer of the clothing item,
233 because the superficial electrostatic charge application would probably preferentially sample
234 particles of skin abrasions and less wearer components such as sweat absorbed by the tissue.

235 We demonstrate here the potential of electrostatic methods for the collection of biological material
236 for DNA profiling from clothing. Our observations are in line with the recent work from Plaza et al.

237 [9]. However, we conclude that for electrostatic sampling from textiles, the electrostatic dust print
238 lifter (DPL) seems to be the better choice compared to the ESDA® device. The DPL did not only
239 outperform the ESDA® in terms of DNA collection, we also found it more convenient to use. It is a
240 portable device that can easily be brought to the crime scene and might therefore also be used for
241 sampling from fixed surfaces such as carpeted floors. Also the electrostatic foil used for the DPL was
242 easier to handle for swabbing following electrostatic collection than the Mylar film used on the
243 ESDA®.

244 Comparing different types of fabric, it was striking that the electrostatic sampling did not work well
245 on the wide-meshed acrylic fiber jersey. One explanation for this observation could be that synthetic
246 fibers better retain electrostatic charges [19] and might therefore compete with the applied
247 electrostatic film. The swab worked best on the acrylic fibers, what is in line with a study
248 demonstrating greater DNA transfer efficiency of biological material from synthetic fibers [3].

249 To further evaluate the collection efficiency of the DPL on cotton, we simulated physical aggression
250 with three aggressors and three victims. Every one of the aggressors was touching the clothes of
251 every one of the victims at two different days, resulting in a total of 72 samples, half of them
252 sampled by wet swabbing, the other half by DPL. Almost all samples showed additional alleles from
253 persons not participating in the experiments, as expected from the literature [20]. Since we could not
254 detect any profile from the negative controls, we consider a contamination from the films unlikely,
255 even though they are not manufactured for DNA collection purpose.

256 It was our intention to find a convenient sampling method for larger areas on items of clothing that
257 yields the maximum of aggressor DNA while co-sampling a minimum of wearer DNA from the victim.
258 We can conclude that the DPL is efficient for the collection of biological material originating from the
259 aggressor, since we were able to establish the same number of single aggressor profiles by DPL as by
260 conventional sampling. Unfortunately, our results did not show a specific enrichment of aggressor
261 DNA, since we were able to establish a comparable number of victim profiles with swabs and with

262 the electrostatic DPL. Also, the overall collection efficiency of the DPL appears to be somewhat lower
263 than swabbing, as can already be concluded from the results in Table 1. Due to this lower collection
264 efficiency, we lose a substantial amount of information in the form of mixed aggressor-victim profiles
265 suitable for database searching. So, even though the DPL showed its potential for sampling aggressor
266 DNA from larger areas, it appears not yet efficient enough to replace conventional sampling methods
267 because of the substantial loss in valuable mixed profile information. The mentioned limitations
268 might be overcome by more research on the method. Sampling efficiency might possibly be
269 improved by longer application of the electrostatic charge or by higher charges. The efficiency of
270 electrostatic charging might also depend on the size of the sampled surface. We could also imagine
271 electrostatic sampling as useful for larger surfaces that should not be swabbed directly due to PCR
272 inhibitor uptake through swabbing.

273

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Monique Zimmermann, Christoph Schneider and Emma Stoisser for technical assistance, Britta Stoop and Mirco Hecht for critical reading of the manuscript and all volunteers for their willingness to participate in the simulated aggression experiments.

Literature

1. Goray M, Mitchell RJ, van Oorschot RAH (2010) Investigation of secondary DNA transfer of skin cells under controlled test conditions. Legal Med-Tokyo 12 (3):117-120. doi:10.1016/j.legalmed.2010.01.003

2. Goray M, Eken E, Mitchell RJ, van Oorschot RAH (2010) Secondary DNA transfer of biological substances under varying test conditions. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 4 (2):62-67. doi:DOI 10.1016/j.fsigen.2009.05.001

3. Verdon TJ, Mitchell RJ, van Oorschot RAH (2013) The influence of substrate on DNA transfer and extraction efficiency. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 7 (1):167-175. doi:10.1016/j.fsigen.2012.09.004

4. Stouder SL, Reubush KJ, Hobson DL, Smith JL (2001) Trace Evidence Scrapings: A Valuable Source of DNA? Forensic Science Communications 3 (4)

5. Hansson O, Finnebraaten M, Heitmann IK, Ramse M, Bouzga M (2009) Trace DNA collection—Performance of minitape and three different swabs. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 2 (1):189-190. doi:10.1016/j.fsigss.2009.08.098

6. Verdon TJ, Mitchell RJ, van Oorschot RA (2014) Evaluation of tapelifting as a collection method for touch DNA. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 8 (1):179-186. doi:10.1016/j.fsigen.2013.09.005

7. Quinones I, Daniel B (2012) Cell free DNA as a component of forensic evidence recovered from touched surfaces. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 6 (1):26-30. doi:10.1016/j.fsigen.2011.01.004

8. Meakin G, Jamieson A (2013) DNA transfer: Review and implications for casework. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 7 (4):434-443. doi:10.1016/j.fsigen.2013.03.013

9. Plaza DT, Mealy JL, Lane JN, Parsons MN, Bathrick AS, Slack DP (2015) ESDA(R)-Lite collection of DNA from latent fingerprints on documents. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 16:8-12. doi:10.1016/j.fsigen.2014.11.011

10. vanOorschot RAH, Jones MK (1997) DNA fingerprints from fingerprints. Nature 387 (6635):767-767. doi:10.1038/42838

11. van Oorschot RA, Ballantyne KN, Mitchell RJ (2010) Forensic trace DNA: a review. Investigative genetics 1 (1):14. doi:10.1186/2041-2223-1-14

12. Wickenheiser RA (2002) Trace DNA: A review, discussion of theory, and application of the transfer of trace quantities of DNA through skin contact. Journal of forensic sciences 47 (3):442-450

13. Shalhoub R, Quinones I, Ames C, Multaney B, Curtis S, Seeboruth H, Moore S, Daniel B (2008) The recovery of latent fingermarks and DNA using a silicone-based casting material. Forensic science international 178 (2-3):199-203. doi:10.1016/j.forsciint.2008.04.001

14. Jiang X (2009) One method of collecting fallen off epithelial cell. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 2 (1):193. doi:10.1016/j.fsigss.2009.09.027

15. Farash K, Hanson EK, Ballantyne J (2015) Enhanced genetic analysis of single human bioparticles recovered by simplified micromanipulation from forensic 'touch DNA' evidence. Journal of visualized experiments : JoVE (97). doi:10.3791/52612

16. Bright JA, Petricevic SF (2004) Recovery of trace DNA and its application to DNA profiling of shoe insoles. Forensic science international 145 (1):7-12. doi:10.1016/j.forsciint.2004.03.016

17. May R, Thomson J (2009) Optimisation of cellular DNA recovery from tape-lifts. Forensic Sci Int-Gen 2 (1):191-192. doi:10.1016/j.fsigss.2009.08.115

18. Barash M, Reshef A, Brauner P (2010) The use of adhesive tape for recovery of DNA from crime scene items. Journal of forensic sciences 55 (4):1058-1064. doi:10.1111/j.1556-4029.2010.01416.x

19. Zilinskas PJ, Lozovski T, Jankauskas V, Jurksus J (2013) Electrostatic Properties and Characterization of Textile Materials Affected by Ion Flux. Mater Sci-Medzg 19 (1):61-66. doi:10.5755/j01.ms.19.1.3828

20. Goray M, van Oorschot RA (2015) The complexities of DNA transfer during a social setting. Legal Med-Tokyo 17 (2):82-91. doi:10.1016/j.legalmed.2014.10.003

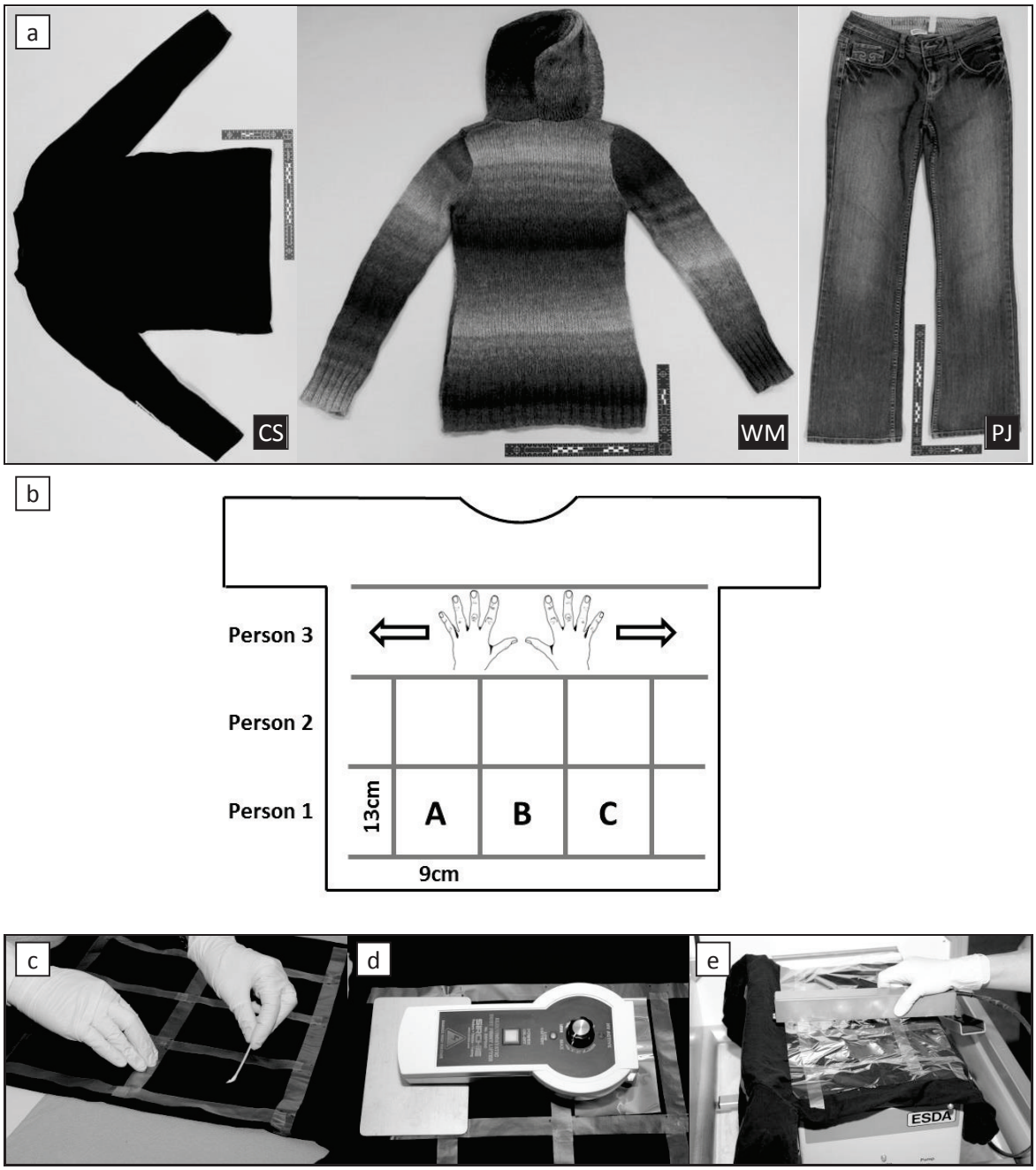


**Figure 1** Experiment setup for the comparison of ESDA® and DPL DNA collection efficiency with wet cotton swabs. **a)** Three different garments were used for sampling. CS = cotton sweater, WM = wide-meshed jersey made of 85% acrylic fiber and 15% cotton, PJ = pair of jeans. **b)** Schematic illustration of the sample preparation. In a series of three experiments, every sampling technique has been used once in position A, B and C. **c)** Sampling by wet cotton swab. **d)** Sampling with the electrostatic dust print lifter (DPL). The metal foil is swabbed after charging. **e)** Sampling with the ESDA® device. The Mylar film is swabbed after charging.

**Figure 2** Simulated aggression. Victims carrying a cotton sweater and a pair of jeans were thoroughly touched at their **a)** forearms and **b)** ankles. The areas were subsequently limited to 10x15cm and sampled either by **c)** wet cotton swab or **d)** electrostatic dust print lifter (DPL).

339 **Table 1** Evaluation of collection efficiency of the ESDA® and DPL compared to conventional wet swabbing. DNA extractions
340 were attributed to one of three concentration classes. Mean N° of loci is the mean number of loci for which the donor
341 alleles could be detected as major component with good heterozygote balance (>60%). Complete profiles are profiles for
342 which all 16 loci could be characterized with good heterozygote balance. PJ = pair of jeans, CS = cotton sweater, WM =
343 wide-meshed jersey made of 85% acrylic and 15% cotton. SD = standard deviation.

| | Wet Swab (n=27) | | | | Sirchie DPL (n=27) | | | | ESDA (n=27) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | PJ | CS | WM | total | PJ | CS | WM | total | PJ | CS | WM | total |
| < 10 pg/µl | 5 | 3 | 2 | 10 (37%) | 4 | 2 | 8 | 14 (52%) | 9 | 7 | 9 | 25 (93%) |
| 10-20 pg/µl | 2 | 2 | - | 4 (15%) | 3 | 5 | - | 8 (30%) | - | - | - | 0 (0%) |
| ≥ 20 pg/µl | 2 | 4 | 7 | 13 (48%) | 2 | 2 | 1 | 5 (19%) | - | 2 | - | 2 (7%) |
| Mean N° of Loci | 15.5 (SD ±1.4) | | | | 14.3 (SD ±3.6) | | | | 6.7 (SD ±6.3) | | | |
| Complete profiles | 23 (85%) | | | | 19 (70%) | | | | 5 (19%) | | | |

344

345

346 **Table 2** Results from simulated aggression experiments. DNA concentration from every sample has been attributed to one
347 of the three chosen concentration classes. Profiles have been evaluated for completely characterized loci. The entry criteria
348 for the Swiss DNA database were applied. "Major single victim profile" means a profile that is not a mixture suitable for
349 database (DB) submission but shows a clear major component originating from the victim. SD = standard deviation.

| | Wet Swab (n=36) | Sirchie DPL (n=36) |
|---|---|---|
| < 10 pg / µl | 6 % ( 2 ) | 58 % ( 21 ) |
| 10 – 20 pg / µl | 17 % ( 6 ) | 25 % ( 9 ) |
| > 20 pg / µl | 78 % ( 28 ) | 17 % ( 6 ) |
| N° Loci with aggressor alleles | 14.3 (SD ±3.0) | 12.0 (SD ±4.8) |
| DB suitable aggressor profiles (≥6 loci) | 14% | 14% |
| DB suitable mixtures (≥8 loci) | 36% | 6% |
| Major single victim profile (≥6 loci) | 25% | 22% |
| Profiles from more than 2 contributors | 100% | 92% |

350

351