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The Human Y Chromosome: A 43-Interval Map Based on Naturally Occurring Deletions

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A deletion map of the human Y chromosome was constructed by testing 96 individuals with partial Y chromosomes for the presence or absence of many DNA loci. The individuals studied included XX males, XY females, and persons in whom chromosome banding had revealed translocated, deleted, isodicentric, or ring Y chromosomes. Most of the 132 Y chromosomal loci mapped were sequence-tagged sites, detected by means of the polymerase chain reaction. These studies resolved the euchromatic region (short arm, centromere, and proximal long arm) of the Y chromosome into 43 ordered intervals, all defined by naturally occurring chromosomal breakpoints and averaging less than 800 kilobases in length. This deletion map should be useful in identifying Y chromosomal genes, in exploring the origin of chromosomal disorders, and in tracing the evolution of the Y chromosome.

Among human chromosomes, the Y is unusual in that most of the chromosome does not participate in meiotic recombination. This precludes construction of a genetic linkage map for most of the chromosome. Instead, identification of Y-linked genes has depended on physical mapping based on naturally occurring deletions. Such deletion mapping of the Y chromosome is practical because individuals with deletions of portions of the chromosome are viable and occur at a reasonable frequency in the human population.

Initial attempts to map Y-chromosomal genes by deletion analysis were based on correlations of cytologically detectable Y anomalies with abnormal phenotypes. For example, cytogenetic studies of six sterile men with long arm (Yq) deletions led to the hypothesis that a gene associated with spermatogenesis was located on proximal Yq (1). Similar attempts were made to define the portion of the chromosome related to the determination of gonadal sex (2). These early cytogenetic efforts suffered from the limited resolution and accuracy of chromosome banding patterns visualized by light microscopy.

Later, Y-chromosomal deletion maps were constructed by hybridizing Y-specific probes to immobilized genomic DNA's (3, 4). Because the Y is a haploid chromosome, the ability to determine precisely and accurately the extent of Y-chromosomal DNA in individuals with informative phenotypes has been limited only by the number of probes used. If we assume that each deleted chromosome has suffered a single break,

with loss of all sequences on one side and retention of all sequences on the other, DNA loci can be ordered according to their presence or absence in the genome of a given individual. Analysis of a collection of such individuals, each harboring a different deletion, can yield a self-consistent map comprising a series of ordered intervals. The boundaries of the intervals are defined by Y-chromosomal breakpoints in the individuals used to construct the map. Correlation of the phenotypes of these individuals with their content of Y-chromosomal DNA can localize genes. Such deletion mapping has resulted in (i) identification of the sex determining gene (5) *SRY*, as well as a candidate gene for Turner syndrome (6), *RPS4Y*, and (ii) localization of other genes, including one responsible for the expression of the minor histocompatibility antigen, H-Y (7, 8).

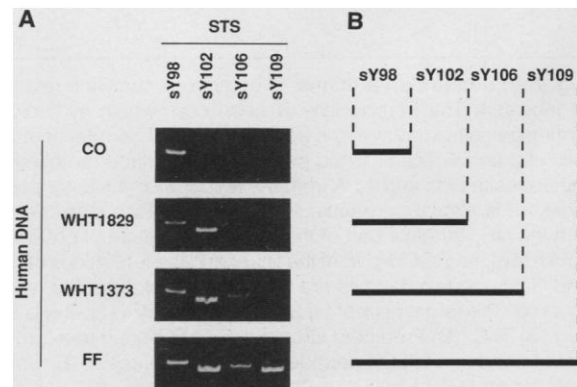
Creation of a deletion map results in the ordering of DNA loci along the chromosome. The ordered loci constitute a physical map with other virtues, apart from its utility in locating genes. A physical map

can be used to compare the structure of the Y chromosome to that of the X chromosome and to study structural diversity of the Y within the human population and among primates, thereby gaining information on both the evolution of chromosome structure and the evolution of the human species through paternal lineages. A physical map can also be used to elucidate the mechanisms by which abnormal Y chromosomes are generated.

We set out to produce a deletion map of the Y chromosome based largely on detection of sequence-tagged sites (STS's). An STS is a short stretch of genomic sequence that can be detected by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (9) and mapped to a particular point in the genome, where the STS then serves as a landmark (10). The speed, sensitivity, and flexibility of PCR make it the method of choice for both construction and application of such a deletion map. In addition, STS's and their corresponding PCR assays can be readily disseminated through electronic databases. This provides a common pool of loci for map construction and allows comparison of maps made by different investigators. Moreover, the ability to order Y-chromosomal STS's suggested a strategy for constructing an overlapping set of yeast artificial chromosome (YAC) clones encompassing the euchromatic Y chromosome, as described by Foote *et al.* (11). The same PCR assays used to construct the deletion map also provided a facile means of identifying Y-chromosomal YACs within a total genomic library (12). A correspondence between ordered STS's and YAC clones was immediately created, simplifying the problem of ordering YAC's based on their STS content.

Y-chromosomal STS's. To generate a collection of STS's providing a near-random sampling of the chromosome, sequence was obtained from several hundred previously uncharacterized Y-chromosomal DNA fragments. The fragments were derived from two recombinant lambda phage libraries constructed with Y chromosomes

Fig. 1. Ordering of Y-chromosomal breakpoints and STS's by deletion mapping. (A) Results of testing genomic DNA's from four individuals with partial Y chromosomes for the presence or absence of four Y-specific STS's. PCR products were separated by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and visualized by staining with ethidium bromide. (B) Inferred order of breakpoints and STS's, that is, the simplest interpretation of the results in (A).



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that had been purified by flow sorting. The first library consisted of complete-digest Hind III fragments averaging 4 to 5 kb in length (13). The second library, constructed with Y chromosomes flow-sorted from a human-hamster hybrid cell line, consisted of partial-digest Mbo I fragments averaging 20 kb in length. To counter possible biases, two different strategies were used to select clones for sequencing. For the first library, clones deficient in common interspersed repeats were identified by probing with total human DNA; clones showing minimal hybridization were selected. For the second library, clones showing strong hybridization with repetitive human DNA were selected; these should be enriched in interspersed repeats. In all, 296 distinct sequences were obtained, comprising 120 kb, or nearly 2 percent of the Y chromosome (14).

Computer matching algorithms were used to identify sequences that contained common, interspersed repeats (15). Such sequences are not suitable for creating STS's because they are unlikely to tag a specific site in the genome. As expected, the percentage of sequences judged free of repeats was significantly higher in the first library than in the second (Table 1). Still, 41 percent of clones from the first library contained a repetitive element. This observation is consistent with the hypothesis that repeats should accumulate on the Y chromosome as a result of its restricted meiotic exchange and postulated low gene content (16). Similar data from other human chromosomes would provide a useful comparison. In any case, the presence of repeats rendered nearly half the Y sequences unsuitable for STS generation.

A computer algorithm (17) was used to select PCR primer pairs from 155 sequences judged free of repeats as well as from the sequences of 40 previously characterized Y-chromosomal DNA probes. Nine additional primer pairs were selected from known Y sequences (Table 2). Primer pairs

were initially tested on normal male and female genomic DNA's under a single set of buffer and thermal cycling conditions. More than 95 percent of primer pairs yielded a product of expected size with these standardized conditions, facilitating subsequent STS mapping and YAC library screening (18).

For most primer pairs, one of two results was obtained. Either the STS was Y-specific as demonstrated by a product of expected size from male DNA and its absence in female DNA, or the STS was classified as "male-female common" because DNA from both sexes yielded the expected product. A male-female common STS could derive from portions of the Y that share sequence similarity with the X chromosome (19-21), from regions of the Y that share similarity with autosomes (22), from contamination of the flow-sorted libraries with X or autosomal DNA, or from failure of the matching algorithms to detect an interspersed repeat. As a means of distinguishing among these possibilities, the chromosomal location of male-female common STS's was determined by scoring DNA's from the following hybrid cell lines: (i) a line containing the Y as its sole human chromosome (23), (ii) two lines together containing 11 different human autosomes (half the human genome) (24), and, as necessary, (iii) a line containing the X as its sole human chromosome (25). The results revealed that, of 155 STS's from anonymous phage inserts, 88 were Y-specific, 30 were common to the X and Y, 25 were common to both the Y and at least one autosome, 10 were autosomal, and 2 were X-specific. The 30 X-Y common STS's were regionally localized on the X by means of four hybrid cell lines containing partial X chromosomes (26). Because of the highly specific nature of PCR assays, some of the Y-specific STS's may actually derive from regions of X homology. Thus, the 21 percent of Y-derived STS's that are X-Y common may be an underestimate of

the fraction of the euchromatic Y that is homologous to the X. The 182 STS's ultimately used in deletion mapping or YAC contig construction are listed in Table 2.

Creation of a deletion map. Deletion mapping of the STS's was achieved by scoring their presence or absence in individuals with partial Y chromosomes. Three hundred individuals suspected of having Y deletions

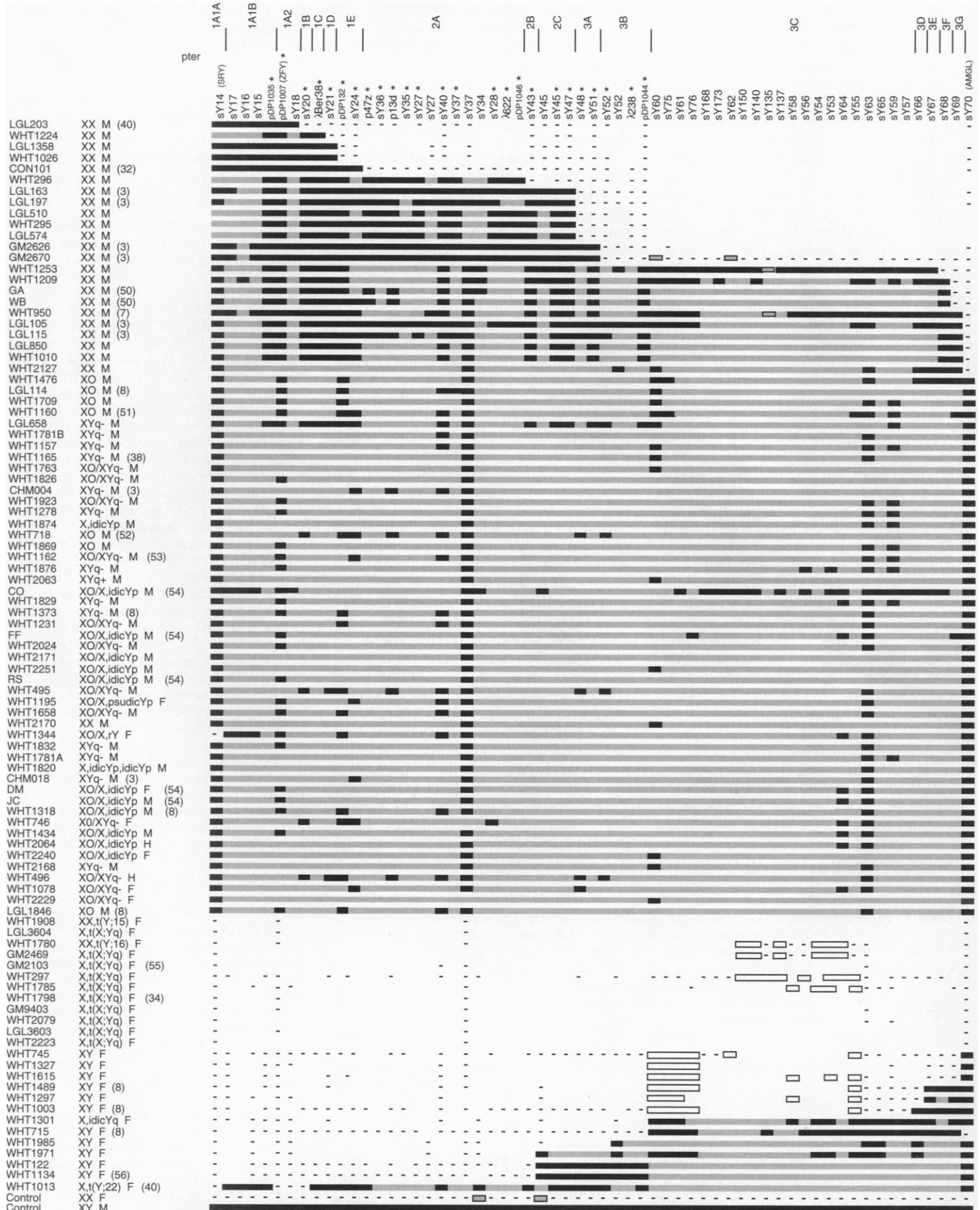
Fig. 2 (next page). A 43-interval deletion map of the human Y chromosome. Along the left border are listed 96 individuals who carry part but not all of the Y chromosome [abbreviated karyotypes are given; the precise nature of some abnormal Y's is not known, having been originally identified as "markers" of unknown origin; M, male; F, female; H, hemaphrodite (an individual with both testicular and ovarian tissue)]. Samples WHT 1781A and WHT 1781B are cloned cell lines from the same individual. References are provided in the case of individuals for whom some Y-chromosomal DNA findings were described previously. Along the top border are listed deletion intervals 1A1A through 7. The short arm telomere (Ypter) is to the left and the long arm telomere (Yqter) is to the right. Interval 4B, the only segment present on all independently segregating Y chromosomes, contains the centromere (cen). Listed immediately below the intervals are 132 Y-chromosomal DNA loci comprising 122 STS's and ten unsequenced plasmid or phage clones. Locus names for genes, unprocessed pseudogenes, and heterochromatic repeats are given in parentheses. The presence or absence of most loci was detected by PCR; loci scored by hybridization are indicated by an asterisk; and five loci were scored by both methods. The body of the figure represents both experimental data and inferences. The experimentally demonstrated presence of a locus in an individual is indicated by a black segment; the inferred presence (by interpolation) of a locus in an individual is indicated by a gray segment; experimentally demonstrated absence is indicated by a minus, and inferred absence is indicated by the absence of any symbol. White boxes represent positive PCR results, and these must be interpreted in the context of the Y-specific-repeat nature of the sequences being considered. It is very likely that these positive results reflect the existence of closely related, cross-amplifying sequences in other portions of the Y chromosome. Gray boxes represent a few PCR results for repeated or X-Y homologous loci that are positive but of reduced strength relative to results obtained with normal males. Such reduced signals could result from contamination of genomic DNA's, from chromosomal breakage within a repeat array, or from closely related, cross-amplifying sequences elsewhere in the genome. Within an interval, the order of loci is not known. Deletion interval nomenclature was based on the seven-interval map of Vergnaud *et al.* (3) and subsequent refinements (40, 42). Inclusion of many individuals studied by Vergnaud *et al.* ensured correspondence between the original seven intervals and the 43 intervals shown here.

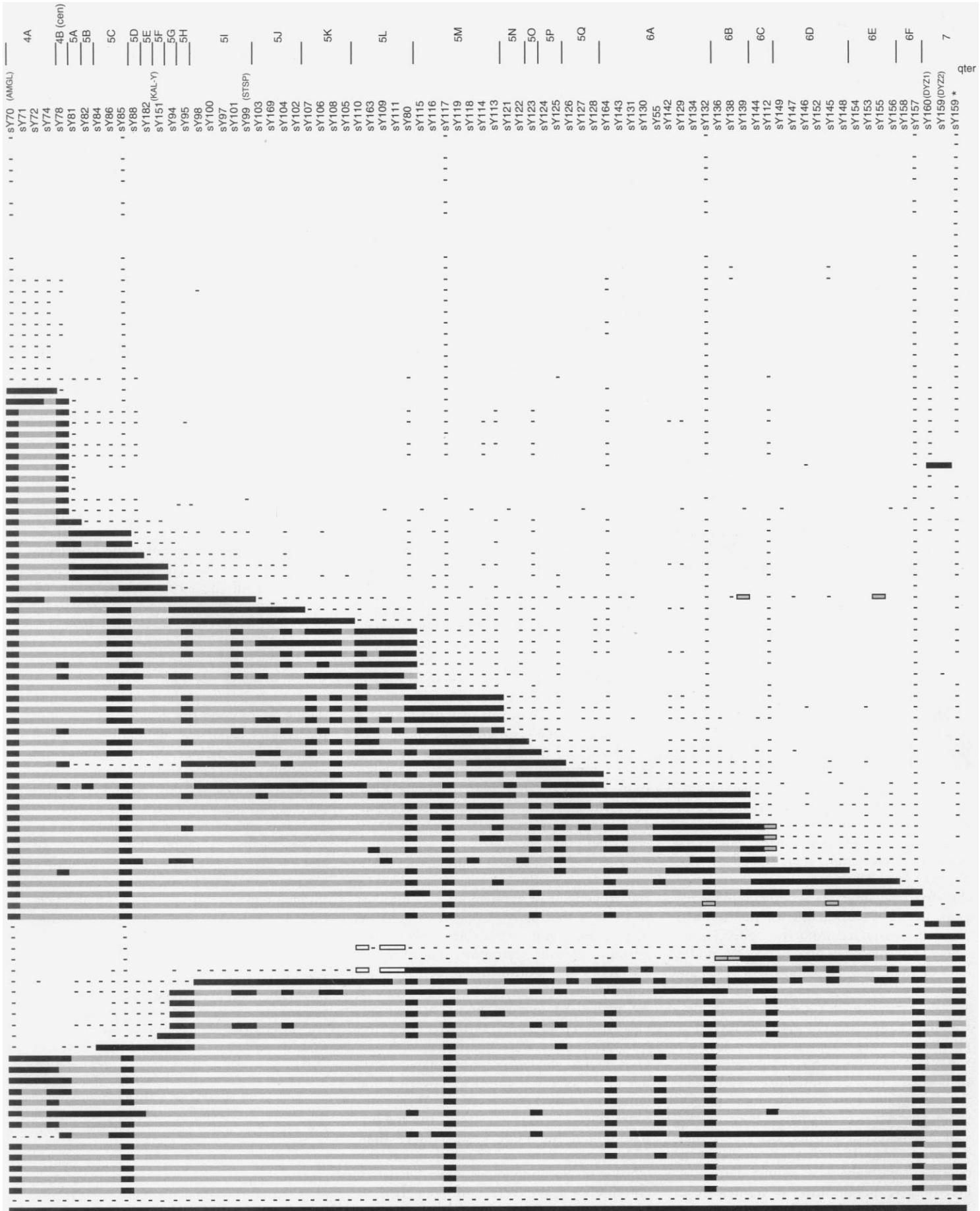
Table 1. Common interspersed repeats identified by sequencing 296 anonymous segments of Y-chromosomal DNA. Segments were obtained from two Y-DNA libraries as described. Some of the sequences were derived from opposite ends of the same clone but did not overlap.

	Number of sequences			Total†
	Containing repeats		Free of obvious repeats	
Alu	L1	Other*		
First				
21 (12%)	32 (18%)	22 (12%)	108 (59%)	182
Second				
29 (25%)	27 (24%)	10 (9%)	50 (44%)	114
Combined				
50 (17%)	59 (20%)	32 (11%)	158 (53%)	296

*Includes matches to human transposable elements, retroviruses, simple sequence repeats, alpha and beta satellites, mitochondrial DNA, and unidentified repeats. †One sequence from the first library and two from the second contained portions of both Alu and L1 repeats. These were counted only once in the total.

Fig. 2





were studied in our laboratory over 10 years. These individuals were ascertained either by microscopic detection of an aberrant chromosome or by discordance between sex chromosome constitution and sex phenotype. At the time of DNA collection, a coarse map of the sex-linked portion of the chromosome (3) was used to localize grossly the breakpoint in each individual by screening with a small number of probes. A Y-chromosomal breakpoint was detected in about 150 of the individuals tested (27). More detailed information on the chromosomal breakpoints in some of these individuals and on about 80 of the clones from which STS's were derived was available because of efforts to refine the deletion map by Southern blot hybridization prior to initiation of the PCR-based strategy. This information served as the starting point for construction of the PCR-based deletion map.

We mapped 104 Y-specific STS's by scoring the presence or absence of a band of expected size after resolution of PCR products by gel electrophoresis (Fig. 1). Frequently, an STS was localized to a single interval with as few as ten reactions, by successively scoring small numbers of chromosomes selected to provide maximum information. Most STS's were initially localized to one of two regions, corresponding roughly to Yp (the short arm) and Yq (the long arm), and then further localized by scoring deleted chromosomes known from hybridization results to subdivide Yp or Yq. When STS's originated from probes present on the hybridization map, the process was abbreviated. As mapped STS's accumulated, additional chromosomes were recruited from among the 150 to enhance the resolution of the map. Selected STS's mapping to the same region were scored against chromosomes with possible breaks in that region. New intervals were created when some of these STS's were present on a partial chromosome and others were absent. All STS's from the region were then scored on the chromosome and thereby assigned to one of the two new intervals subdividing the region. In this way, ordering information was efficiently extracted from the collection of deleted chromosomes and 104 STS's, and a map of increasing resolution was gradually constructed (Fig. 2).

The existence of Y-specific repeats distributed about the chromosome posed a problem for this mapping strategy (3). Of the 104 Y-specific STS's, 18 derived from such repeats (Fig. 2, white boxes) and could not be localized to a single interval. Of these 18 STS's, 5 originated from probes that had detected distinct loci on Yp and Yq in previous hybridization studies (3), consistent with the PCR results. For some PCR assays, amplification of normal male DNA produced a complex pattern of het-

eroduplexes, indicative of repeated sequences, and in one case (sY55), the pattern was used to map both a Yp and a Yq locus. Of the 18 Y-specific repetitive STS's, 15 were conclusively localized to interval 3C, on Yp, with evidence for at least three other Y-specific repeat blocks, one near the centromere (intervals 4A to 5H), and two on Yq (intervals 5I to 6A and 6B to 7). Three Y-specific repetitive STS's were not present on Yp but mapped to two regions of Yq (intervals 5L and 6B to 7). An additional two assays (not among the 18) were obviously derived from Y-specific repeats because each generated two products of different sizes that mapped to separate intervals, defining a total of four STS's (sY63, sY164, sY80, and sY112).

Certain other regions of the Y chromosome were not amenable to PCR-based mapping because they share a high degree of sequence similarity with the X chromosome. Many of the PCR assays from these regions produced indistinguishable products from the X and Y chromosomes and, because the X chromosome is present in all individuals, could not be mapped with the panel of Y deletions. Instead, regional localization of the 30 X-Y common STS's on the X chromosome (see above) made it possible to deduce their likely location on the Y on the basis of prior knowledge of X-Y homologies. Of these STS's, 23 mapped to proximal Xq, suggesting that they originate from a portion of Yp with more than 98 percent sequence identity to Xq21 (19). Seven other STS's mapped to distal Xp and probably derive from the pseudoautosomal region or two sex-linked regions of Xp22.3 and Y homology (21). One STS mapped to distal Xq and may derive from a region of Xq-Yq homology (22). Of the 30 X-Y common STS's, 29 were placed on the YAC contig map of the Y described by Foote *et al.* (11), and their locations were consistent with these inferences.

The Yp-Xq21 homologous region constitutes a large portion of Yp, as suggested by the 16 percent of anonymous Y-chromosomal STS's that derive from it. A deletion map of this region was constructed by identifying Y-specific restriction fragments for 25 probes and scoring the presence or absence of these fragments in the genomes of XX males, XY females, and other individuals with Yp breakpoints (28). These hybridization data were combined with the PCR data to yield a composite map consisting of 43 deletion intervals covering the entire sex-linked portion of the Y chromosome (Fig. 2) (29). Together, the hybridization and the PCR yielded more than 2900 data points for 132 Y loci on the DNA's of 96 individuals with partial Y chromosomes, an average of more than 30 loci scored per chromosome.

The 97 well-characterized Y chromosomes (Fig. 2) derive from human individuals, many with abnormal phenotypes. They represent a valuable resource for localizing phenotypes to portions of the Y chromosome by phenotype-karyotype correlations. The Y-chromosomal phenotypes that have been identified but for which candidate genes have yet to be discovered include a gene necessary for the expression of H-Y antigen; a spermatogenesis factor; a gene contributing to gonadoblastoma, a rare neoplasia; and stature determinants (1, 7, 8, 30). Because 37 of the 43 intervals can be scored by PCR alone, the extent of Y-chromosomal DNA present in any individual can be assessed in a matter of hours with minimal consumption of DNA. The ability to automate PCR should allow the scoring of a large number of chromosomes for many loci, facilitating detection of small rearrangements, the type most useful in localizing genes.

The nature of Y-chromosomal rearrangements. The mechanisms that created the aberrant chromosomes shown in Fig. 2 are not clear. Of 95 breakpoints falling in the euchromatic region (intervals 1A1A to 6F), 54 are the result of translocations between the Y and other chromosomes. In all but 10 of these 54 cases, the translocation partner is the X chromosome. These results are all the more striking when we consider that the X chromosome makes up only 2.5 percent of the normal male genome (31).

The frequency with which two chromosomes undergo aberrant recombination is likely a function of both their proximity during meiosis and the degree and extent of nucleotide sequence similarity between them. In male meiosis, Xp and Yp pair and recombine at their distal extremes (the pseudoautosomal region). Mistakes in this process may account for the 34 X;Y translocations (in XX males and XY females) in Fig. 2 that involve recombination between Xp and Yp (32). As discussed earlier, extensive sequence similarity (outside of the pseudoautosomal region) exists between Xp and portions of Yp and Yq. Of 42 Xp;Y translocation

Table 2. Y-chromosomal STS's. In all, 182 STS's were generated from known sequences or by sequencing anonymous fragments and ends of YAC inserts (45). For each STS are listed the locus designation, PCR primer sequences, and PCR product size. The "left primer" was arbitrarily defined as corresponding to the sequenced (or published) strand. All sequences are listed 5' (left) to 3' (right). PCR products for several X-Y common and Y-specific repetitive STS's displayed heteroduplex bands when resolved by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis due to cross-amplifying sequences on the X or elsewhere on the Y. These bands were used to score the presence or absence of Y loci.

breakpoints, 19 bound Y intervals known to contain Xp-homologous sequences (33). In one instance, the translocation breakpoint has been sequenced and found to result from homologous recombination (34). Thus, a mix of X-Y sequence similarity and meiotic proximity may account for the observed preponderance of X;Y translocations in our data set (35).

Other types of recombination events may have generated deleted chromosomes elsewhere on the map. The numerous blocks of Y-specific repeats distributed about the chromosome could serve as substrates in intrachromosomal recombination events. For example, isodicentric chromosomes could be generated by sister chromatid exchange within a repeat array or between two separate arrays, provided that recombination occurred between inverted repeats on the same arm of the chromosome (36). Cytologically, the two halves of an isodicentric chromosome appear identical, as though a fragment of the chromosome containing an entire arm, the centromere, and a portion of the other arm duplicated and fused at the point of breakage. Of the 97 abnormal Y chromosomes, 14 are known to be isodicentric (Fig. 2). The breakpoints of 12 of these 14 cluster in three regions of Yq and one region of Yp—all regions rich in Y-specific repeats, which is consistent with this hypothesis (11, 37).

Interstitial deletions could result from recombination between direct repeats on the same arm of the chromosome. The abnormal Y in WHT1165 may have been produced by such a process. It has a breakpoint adjacent to the centromere and is missing all euchromatic sequences from Yq, but the chromosome retains heterochromatic repeats from distal Yq that, although reduced in copy number, are sufficiently abundant to be detected by *in situ* hybridization (38). A degenerate pentameric repeat array of sequences like that of satellite-3 lies adjacent to the centromeric breakpoint, and these sequences are similar to the *DYZ1* repeats found in the Yq heterochromatin (11). Homologous recombination between similar pericentric and distal Yq sequences may have created the interstitial deletion seen in WHT1165.

Two assumptions underlie the construction of the deletion map: (i) that the order of the 43 intervals is the same for each of the 97 chromosomes studied, and (ii) that each deleted chromosome has sustained a single break with loss of all DNA on one side and retention of all DNA on the other. To the extent that either of these assumptions is not valid, chromosomes with more than one breakpoint will appear on the map. Only 5 of the 97 chromosomes show evidence of more than one breakpoint, an indication that the assumptions, are, to a

large extent, valid (39). Several explanations are possible for the five exceptional chromosomes. First, a chromosome may have sustained multiple breaks during a complex rearrangement. The ring Y of WHT1344 and the well-characterized deletion of WHT1013 (40) may be of this type. Second, a paternal Y chromosome with a preexisting interstitial deletion may have sustained a terminal deletion. Third, Y chromosomes with inversions or which are otherwise structurally variant may be present in the data set. Structural polymorphism has been hypothesized for the Y as a consequence of its restricted meiotic exchange and postulated reduced content of genes (16, 41). Let us suppose that one of the 97 chromosomes is a structural variant in which the order of several intervals is inverted, and that a single breakpoint falls within the inverted region. To fit data from this chromosome to a map based on the other 96 chromosomes, it would be necessary to hypothesize an interstitial deletion as well as a terminal deletion, two more breakpoints than actually present. The exceptional chromosome of WHT715 may be of this type. It displays three breakpoints and was previously hypothesized to derive from a structural variant with a paracentric inversion of Yp (42). If the order of intervals 4A-3C was inverted in the Y chromosome of the father, then a single break near interval 4A could account for the observed data. Such an inversion would juxtapose Y-specific repeats present in interval 3C with very similar repeats near the alphoid array in 4B (11). The observation that this chromosome carries an infrequent allele for a restriction fragment polymorphism in interval 6 is further evidence that it may be a rare variant (43). The overall paucity of apparent interstitial deletions in Fig. 2 suggests that gross structural polymorphism of the euchromatic Y chromosome is quite limited, at least among the largely Caucasian population tested here, in contrast to the findings of some other investigators (41). With the deletion and YAC maps as guides, comparison of the structure of the Y within human populations and among primates should provide further insights into the degree of structural polymorphism, the mechanisms of chromosome rearrangement, and, possibly, the evolution of the human species.

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14. Fragments were isolated either by PCR with primers bracketing the cloning site of the Charon 21A phage vector or by conventional subcloning into plasmid vectors and preparation of double-stranded templates by alkaline lysis. The templates generated by PCR were resolved on low-melting-point agarose gels, and the bands were excised, melted at 65°C, cooled to 37°C, and digested with Agarase (Sigma) for 30 minutes; the digestion products were used for sequencing. From 400 to 500 bp of sequence were obtained from template ends with the Applied Biosystems dye-primer cycle-sequencing protocol and an ABI 373A machine.
15. Sequences were compared to a consensus Alu element and a collection of L1 and transposable human elements (THE) with FastN [W. R. Pearson and D. J. Lipman, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **85**, 2444 (1988)]. Sequences with initial match scores of 100 or more to any of these repeats were generally not pursued further. Sequences with scores below 100 were used to search Genbank by the BLASTN algorithm [S. F. Altschul, W. Gish, W. Miller, E. W. Myers, D. J. Lipman, *J. Mol. Biol.* **215**, 403 (1990)] to detect similarities to less abundant interspersed repeats. Duplication was avoided because each new sequence was matched against all previous sequences.
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18. Reactions were performed in a 10- or 20- μ l volume in 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 5.0 mM NH₄Cl, 10 mM tris (pH 8.2 at 25°C), 100 mM KCl, 100 μ M dNTP's, with 5 units of Taq DNA polymerase per 100 μ l of reaction volume, 50 to 100 ng of human genomic DNA per 10 μ l of reaction, and each primer at 1.0 μ M. The cycling protocol was 1 minute at 94°C, 1 minute at 61°C, and 1 minute at 72°C for 30 cycles, except where otherwise specified. Most products were resolved on 8 percent polyacrylamide gels in 0.5X tris-borate EDTA buffer [J. Sambrook, E. F. Fritsch, T. Maniatis, Eds., *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual* (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, 1989, p. 6.71)], but some were resolved on 4 percent agarose gels.
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 27. Because the DNA samples were collected over a long period, much of the initial characterization was done by DNA hybridization methods. Many of the 300 individuals tested appeared either to lack Y DNA or to carry an intact Y chromosome. Some of the remaining 150 individuals were not extensively studied because the breakpoints fell among Yq heterochromatic repeats or in the Yp-Xq21 region, which is difficult to map from data obtained with the PCR assays described.
 28. The correspondence between hybridization probes used to obtain data in Fig. 2 (and STS's generated from them): pDP307 (sY20), pDP522b (sY21), p47a (sY24), p41a (sY27), lambda Y215 (sY28), p17 (sY35), p7a (sY36), p16 (sY37), pDP61 (sY40), pDP1045 (sY43), lambda Y103 (sY45), pDP1057 (sY47), St25/2 (sY48), pDP1040 (sY51), p1 (sY52), and pY431-HinfA (sY159). Details of the restriction enzymes used and sizes of Y-specific restriction fragments scored are those described in (44) or in D. C. Page *et al.*, in preparation.
 29. Of the 27 loci, four (sY27, sY37, sY45, and sY52) were scored by hybridization and PCR on the DNA's of up to 15 individuals. The two methods yielded identical results on the samples tested.
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