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Use of the Mitochondrial Control Region as a Potential DNA Mini-Barcoding Target for the Identification of Canned Tuna Species

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1 **Use of the Mitochondrial Control Region as a Potential DNA Mini-Barcoding Target for the**
2 **Identification of Canned Tuna Species**

3

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 In this study, a DNA mini-barcoding methodology was developed for the differentiation of species
18 commonly found in canned tuna. Primers were designed to target a 236-base pair (bp) fragment of the
19 mitochondrial control region (CR) and a 179-bp fragment of the first internal transcribed spacer region
20 (ITS1). Phylogenetic analysis revealed the ability to differentiate 13 tuna species on the basis of the CR mini-
21 barcode, except in a few cases of species introgression. Supplementary use of ITS1 allowed for
22 differentiation of introgressed Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) and albacore tuna (*Thunnus alalunga*),
23 while differentiation of introgressed Atlantic bluefin tuna and Pacific bluefin tuna (*Thunnus orientalis*)
24 requires a longer stretch of the CR. After primer design, a market sample of 53 commercially canned tuna
25 products was collected for testing. This mini-barcoding system was able to successfully identify species in 23
26 of the products, including albacore tuna, yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*), and skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus*
27 *pelamis*). One instance of mislabeling was detected, in which striped bonito (*Sarda orientalis*) was identified
28 in a product labeled as tongol tuna (*Thunnus tonggol*). PCR amplification and sequencing was unsuccessful
29 in a number of products, likely due to factors such as the presence of PCR inhibitors and DNA fragmentation
30 during the canning process. Overall, CR and ITS1 show high potential for use in identification of canned tuna
31 products; however, further optimization of the assay may be necessary in order to improve amplification and
32 sequencing success rates.

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34 **Keywords:** DNA mini-barcoding; canned tuna; species identification; mitochondrial control region; first
35 internal transcribed spacer region

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44 **Introduction**

45 Fish species substitution is a type of misbranding that involves one fish species being substituted for
46 another and sold as a mislabeled product. Mislabeling of fish species has been known to occur on the
47 commercial market, with one U.S. market survey reporting that 33% of fish tested nationwide were
48 mislabeled (Warner et al. 2013) and another study finding that 25% of fish samples collected in North
49 America were potentially mislabeled (Wong and Hanner 2008). Mislabeling of fish products is carried out
50 for reasons such as economic gain or avoidance of trade restrictions (Rasmussen and Morrissey 2008). Fish
51 that are substituted or mislabeled are considered in violation of the Federal Food Drug and Cosmetic Act
52 Section 403: Misbranded Food (21 U.S.C. 343). The potential for seafood mislabeling on the commercial
53 market has become an increasing concern due to factors such as changes in the supply of particular fish
54 species, increasing international trade, and increased production of processed seafood (Rasmussen Hellberg
55 and Morrissey 2011). Whole, unprocessed fish can typically be identified by morphological characteristics.
56 However, species identification becomes more challenging after commercial processing, when distinguishing
57 external features of the fish have been removed.

58 Canned tuna is among the top-three consumed seafoods in the United States (NFI 2014), and has high
59 potential to be the target of intentional or unintentional mislabeling. There are fourteen species listed in the
60 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) that can legally be sold in the United States as canned tuna fish (21 CFR
61 161.190). Canned tuna labeled as “white” can only contain albacore (*Thunnus alalunga*) with a Munsell
62 value of 6.3 or higher while “light” tuna can contain any species listed in 21 CFR 161.190, as long as the
63 tuna has a Munsell value ≥ 5.3 . Different tuna species have varying quality, value, availability, and
64 restrictions, leading to the potential for fraudulent species substitution (Chuang et al. 2012; Jacquet and Pauly
65 2008). For example, the average 2014 ex-vessel price paid in the U.S. for commercial landings of skipjack
66 tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) was US\$1.50/kg while the average price paid for bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*)
67 was US\$6.78/kg (NMFS 2015). Besides economic deception, tuna species mislabeling can also present a risk
68 to human health. For example, sushi products labeled as “white tuna” have been reported to instead contain
69 escolar (*Lepidocybium flavorunneum*) (Lowenstein et al. 2009; Warner et al. 2013). Escolar contains high
70 levels of wax esters and is banned for sale in Japan and Italy because it can cause gastrointestinal distress
71 (EFSA 2004). Proper labeling of canned tuna is also needed to allow at-risk consumers to properly follow the

72 U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)/U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) guidelines for fish
73 consumption (FDA/EPA 2014). In order to limit mercury exposure, children and pregnant women are
74 advised to eat no more than six ounces per week of canned albacore, but are encouraged to eat eight to twelve
75 ounces of fish lower in mercury, such as light canned tuna.

76 Due to the processed nature of canned tuna, DNA-based testing is typically required for species
77 identification (Espíñeira et al. 2009; Quinteiro et al. 1998). DNA barcoding is one of the major DNA-based
78 tests used to identify fish species, and it has been adopted by the FDA for testing of regulatory samples
79 (Handy et al. 2011a; Handy et al. 2011b). This method is a sequencing-based test that differentiates between
80 animal species based on a standardized gene fragment (Hebert et al. 2003). In fish, the standard fragment
81 used for DNA barcoding is 655 base pairs (bp) in length and is located near the 5' end of the cytochrome *c*
82 oxidase subunit 1 (COI) mitochondrial gene (Handy et al. 2011a). DNA barcoding has proven to be a highly
83 successful method for differentiating most fish species, but the COI gene fragment cannot always
84 successfully differentiate between closely-related tuna species due to low genetic divergences (Cawthorn et
85 al. 2011; Ward et al. 2009). Furthermore, the high-heat treatment that occurs during the canning process
86 degrades DNA to fragments roughly 100 to 360 bp in length (Rasmussen and Morrissey 2009), often
87 preventing species identification with the full-length COI barcode.

88 DNA mini-barcoding, which targets shorter regions within the full-length barcode, can be employed to
89 differentiate fish species even after heavy processing (Rasmussen Hellberg and Morrissey 2011; Shokralla et
90 al. 2015). A COI mini-barcoding system has been developed for the identification of fish species; however,
91 canned tuna products could not consistently be differentiated at the species level with this method and the use
92 of alternative genetic markers was suggested (Shokralla et al. 2015). Previous studies have reported some
93 success in differentiating canned tuna using short fragments of the mitochondrial gene coding for cytochrome
94 *b* (Espíñeira et al. 2009; Unseld et al. 1995); however, these studies did not consider the possibility of
95 introgression, which has been reported to occur in a small percentage of cases and results in identical or
96 extremely similar mitochondrial DNA sequences across multiple species (Viñas and Tudela 2009). The
97 mitochondrial DNA control region (CR), which is a non-coding stretch of DNA that shows high levels of
98 genetic variation, is a promising option for differentiating tuna species using DNA mini-barcoding. Previous
99 studies have reported the ability to reliably identify tuna species based on sequence variation in a fragment of

100 the CR approximately 450 bp in length (Cawthorn et al. 2011; Viñas and Tudela 2009). This region has also
101 been studied with introgressed tuna sequences and a secondary nuclear fragment targeting the first internal
102 transcribed spacer region (ITS1; ~600-650 bp) has been identified for supplemental species differentiation
103 (Chow et al. 2006; Viñas and Tudela 2009). Despite the success of these genetic markers in differentiating
104 tuna species, the fragments targeted by previous studies are too long to be reliably recovered from canned
105 tuna products. Therefore, the objective of this study was to develop a DNA mini-barcoding system for tuna
106 species identification based on the CR and ITS1 and to test this system against a variety of canned tuna
107 products.

108 **Materials and Methods**

109 *Primer design and optimization*

110 Primers were designed to target a short (< 250 bp) fragment of the CR in tuna fish species listed in the
111 CFR for canned tuna (21 CFR 161.190). A total of 1,580 CR sequences were downloaded from GenBank for
112 the following species: Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*), albacore tuna (*Thunnus alalunga*), bigeye
113 tuna (*Thunnus obesus*), yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*), Southern bluefin tuna (*Thunnus maccoyii*),
114 longtail tuna (*Thunnus tonggol*), blackfin tuna (*Thunnus atlanticus*), skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*),
115 slender tuna (*Allothunnus fallai*), bullet tuna (*Auxis rochei*), frigate tuna (*Auxis thazard*), kawakawa
116 (*Euthynnus affinis*), and Pacific bluefin tuna (*Thunnus orientalis*). Although *T. orientalis* is not listed in the
117 CFR for canned tuna, it is now considered to be a separate species from *T. thynnus* (Collete 1999; ITIS 2015).
118 The downloaded CR sequences included introgressed individuals of *T. thynnus* and *T. orientalis*, as identified
119 in previous studies (Alvarado Bremer et al. 2005; Carlsson et al. 2007; Carlsson et al. 2004; Viñas and
120 Tudela 2009). CR sequences were not available in GenBank for two of the species listed in the CFR for
121 canned tuna: spotted tunny (*Euthynnus alletteratus*) and black skipjack tuna (*Euthynnus lineatus*). All
122 sequences were aligned with ClustalW using the default settings in MEGA 5.2 (Tamura et al. 2011). The
123 sequences were then manually examined in BioEdit Sequence Alignment Editor, v.7.1.3.0 (Hall 1999) and
124 potential primer-binding sites were identified by searching for conserved regions flanking highly variable
125 regions. Parameters such as primer-dimer potential, %GC, and annealing temperatures were assessed using
126 the Thermo Scientific Multiple Primer Analyzer online tool
127 (<http://www.thermoscientificbio.com/webtools/multipleprimer/>). Based on the results of *in silico* analyses, a

128 cocktail of three primers was designed for amplification of a 236-bp region of the CR (Table 1). Two reverse
129 primers were designed to account for differences in the primer-binding region among the target species.
130 Phylogenetic analysis of this genetic region was carried out in MEGA 5.2 (Tamura et al. 2011) using a subset
131 of sequences representing each target species. Genetic divergence was calculated using the Kimura 2-
132 parameter distance method (Kimura 1980) with pairwise deletion for missing data, and a neighbor-joining
133 (NJ) tree was compiled (Saitou and Nei 1987). The robustness of the tree was evaluated using nonparametric
134 bootstrap analysis with 1,000 iterations. In order to allow for differentiation of albacore-like *T. thynnus* and *T.*
135 *alalunga*, an additional primer set was designed to target a short (<250 bp) region of ITS1 in both species
136 (Table 1). Primers were designed based on ITS1 sequences for *T. alalunga*, *T. thynnus*, and albacore-like *T.*
137 *thynnus* published previously (Chow et al. 2006; Viñas and Tudela 2009). Primer design and optimization, as
138 well as phylogenetic analysis, were carried out using the same methodology described above for the CR.

139 Following phylogenetic analyses, all newly designed primers were synthesized with M13 tails to facilitate
140 DNA sequencing (Handy et al. 2011a). Primers were optimized using gradient polymerase chain reaction
141 (PCR) with annealing temperatures of 45°-65°C (temperature increasing in 2°C increments) using a
142 Mastercycler nexus gradient thermal cycler (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). Additional PCR parameters
143 are described in the “PCR and sequencing” section. Optimal reaction conditions were determined based on
144 amplification success with canned *K. pelamis* (CR primers only), canned *T. alalunga*, and fresh/frozen *T.*
145 *alalunga*. Following optimization, primers were tested against commercially canned tuna samples as
146 described below.

147 *Sample collection*

148 A total of 53 canned tuna fish products representing a variety of commonly sold species were collected
149 for use in testing the DNA mini-barcoding system developed here (Table 2). Products were purchased from 6
150 online retail sources and 8 retail outlets in Orange County, CA. Fish tissue (~10 mg) was collected from each
151 canned tuna sample using sterile forceps and placed into a sterile 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube for DNA
152 extraction. The remaining portion of each sample was stored at -80°C.

153 *DNA extraction*

154 DNA extraction was carried out for all fish samples using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit, Spin-
155 Column protocol (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) with modifications described previously (Handy et al. 2011a;

156 Handy et al. 2011b). Buffer ATL (50 μ l) and Proteinase K (5.56 μ l) were added to each sample tube
157 described above and tissues were lysed at 56°C for 1-3 h, with vortexing approximately every 30 min. After
158 lysis, Buffer AL (55.6 μ l) and 95% ethanol (55.6 μ l) were added and each sample was vortexed. Samples
159 were then transferred to silica spin columns, centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 1 min, and transferred to fresh
160 collection tubes. Wash buffer AW1 (140 μ l) was then aliquoted into each spin column and samples were
161 again centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 1 min before being placed in a fresh collection tube. Wash buffer AW2
162 (140 μ l) was then added to each spin column followed by a centrifugation step of 14,000 rpm for 3 min.
163 Finally, the silica columns were placed in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes and 50 μ l of pre-heated Buffer AE
164 (37°C) were added to each column. Samples were incubated at room temperature for 1 min, followed by
165 centrifugation at 8,000 rpm for 1 min to allow elution of the DNA. The extracted DNA was stored at -80°C
166 until PCR and sequencing. Reagent blanks with no fish tissue added were included as negative controls for
167 each set of samples extracted.

168 Samples that failed sequencing underwent a repeat DNA extraction that incorporated the use of the MP
169 FastPrep-24 Tissue and Cell Homogenizer (MP Biochemicals, Solon, Ohio). One sample of fish tissue (20-25
170 mg) was collected from each sample and placed into an MP Lysing Matrix A tube (MP Biochemicals).
171 Buffer ATL (180 μ l) from the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit was added to each Lysing Matrix A tube and the
172 tubes were homogenized in the FastPrep-24 instrument at 6.0 m/s for 40 s. Samples were then spun down
173 briefly and Proteinase K (20 μ l) was added to each sample. The tissues were lysed for 2 h with vortexing
174 approximately every 30 min. After lysis, DNA extraction was carried out using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue
175 Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was eluted in 50 μ l of preheated (37°C) Buffer AE.
176 Reagent blanks with no fish tissue added were included as negative controls for each set of samples extracted.

177 *PCR and sequencing*

178 The DNA samples extracted from each product underwent PCR along with reagent blanks and non-
179 template controls. Each reaction included the following components: 0.5 OmniMix HS PCR bead (Cepheid,
180 Sunnyvale, CA), 0.5 μ l of each 10 μ M primer or primer cocktail (Table 1), 2-3 μ l DNA template, and
181 molecular grade water for a total volume of 25 μ l. The CR mini-barcode region was amplified using one 10
182 μ M forward primer (CR_F) and two reverse primers mixed together (CR_R1 and CR_R2, each at a
183 concentration of 10 μ M in the mixture), while the ITS1 target was amplified with one 10 μ M forward primer

184 (ITS1_F) and one 10 μ M reverse primer (ITS1_R). A subset of samples was initially tested with both 2 and 3
185 μ l of DNA. Increased sequencing success was achieved with 3 μ l DNA and this volume was used in
186 subsequent testing. PCR for the CR mini-barcode region was carried out under the following conditions:
187 94°C for 2 min; 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 49°C for 40 s, and 72°C for 1 min; and a final extension of 72°C
188 for 10 min. Thermocycling for ITS1 included the same parameters except that the annealing temperature was
189 adjusted to 61°C. Thermocycling was carried out using a Mastercycler nexus gradient thermal cycler
190 (Eppendorf). PCR products (10 μ l) were loaded onto pre-cast 2.0% E-Gel agarose gels (Life Technologies,
191 Carlsbad, CA) and the gels were run for 10 min with an E-Gel Powerbase (Life Technologies). The results
192 were photographed with a Transilluminator FBDLT-88 (Fisher Scientific, Hampton, New Jersey) and a
193 FOTO/Analyst Express (Fotodyne, Hartland, WI) and visualized with PCIMAGE (version 5.0.0.0 Fotodyne).
194 PCR products then underwent cleanup using ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA) according to the
195 manufacturer's instructions. All samples and negative controls were then sent to GenScript (Piscataway, NJ)
196 for bi-directional sequencing using M13 primers (Table 1) with BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing
197 Kit (Life Technologies) and a 3730xl Genetic Analyzer (Life Technologies).

198 *Sequence analysis*

199 Sequences were assembled and edited using Geneious R7 (Biomatters, Ltd., Auckland, New Zealand)
200 (<http://www.geneious.com>, Kearse et al. 2012). Consensus sequences were aligned using ClustalW with the
201 default settings in Geneious R7 and trimmed to the target CR or ITS1 fragments. The consensus sequence
202 lengths, number of ambiguities, and percent high quality bases (HQ%) were recorded for each sample.
203 Sequences were queried in GenBank using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) and the top
204 species matches were recorded. Samples that could not be identified at the species level with BLAST were
205 subjected to phylogenetic analysis using MEGA 5.2, as described above. Any sample found to be potentially
206 mislabeled was subjected to a second round of DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing to confirm the initial
207 result.

208 **Results and Discussion**

209 *Phylogenetic analysis*

210 Phylogenetic analysis of the CR mini-barcode targeted by the primers developed in this study revealed
211 clear differentiation for ten of the thirteen tuna species for which sequences were available, with strong

212 bootstrap support (Fig. 1). While non-introgressed sequences showed clear differentiation across all thirteen
213 species, inclusion of the introgressed sequences resulted in an inability to separate *T. thynnus* from *T.*
214 *orientalis* and an inability to differentiate albacore-like *T. thynnus* from *T. alalunga*. Although the inability
215 to differentiate introgressed individuals of *T. thynnus* and *T. orientalis* is a limitation of this methodology,
216 bluefin tuna are highly-valued and are almost exclusively prepared as a delicacy in sashimi and sushi dishes
217 (SeafoodHealthFacts 2015). Since neither of these species is typically found in canned tuna products, a
218 longer CR fragment (~450 bp) previously found to differentiate these two species could be used for
219 identification of bluefin tuna in raw or lightly processed tuna products (Viñas and Tudela 2009). On the
220 other hand, *T. alalunga* is commonly found in canned tuna and, although most reference sequences of this
221 species grouped in a species-specific cluster (Fig. 1), one sequence grouped more closely to an albacore-like
222 *T. thynnus* sequence. The inability to differentiate *T. alalunga* and albacore-like *T. thynnus* has been reported
223 previously for the ~450 bp region of CR targeted by Viñas and Tudela (2009). Although introgression of
224 these two species is known to occur, it is an uncommon event, with only 2-3% of *T. thynnus* showing an
225 identical sequence to *T. alalunga* (Viñas and Tudela 2009). However, this could be problematic if a tuna
226 product labeled as containing *T. alalunga* showed a top sequence match to *T. thynnus*. In order to verify
227 species in this case, additional analysis would be recommended using a nuclear DNA target. In this study,
228 ITS1 was chosen as the supplemental nuclear DNA target, due to a previous study reporting the ability to
229 differentiate *T. alalunga* and albacore-like *T. thynnus* using a ~650 bp region of the ITS1 region (Viñas and
230 Tudela 2009). In order to allow for identification in a canned tuna product, primers targeting a 179-bp region
231 within ITS1 were designed in the current study. As shown in Figure 2, phylogenetic analysis of *T. alalunga*
232 and *T. thynnus* reference sequences for this region resulted in clear separation between the two species, with
233 all albacore-like *T. thynnus* sequences grouping within the *T. thynnus* cluster (100% bootstrap support).

234 Among species groups for which more than one CR reference sequence was available, the average
235 intraspecies genetic variation for the CR mini-barcode ranged from $0.60 \pm 0.39\%$ for *T. obesus* to $12.54 \pm$
236 2.32% for *K. pelamis*, not including introgressed sequences. Similarly, Cawthorn et al. (2011) previously
237 reported *T. obesus* to show the lowest average intraspecies variation ($0.46 \pm 0.08\%$) among *Thunnus* species
238 for a 450-bp fragment of the CR. In order for a DNA target to be used for species differentiation with DNA
239 barcoding, the maximum intraspecies variation must be less than the minimum interspecies variation. This is

240 commonly referred to as a DNA barcode gap and can be represented graphically by plotting the maximum
241 intraspecies divergence on the x-axis and the minimum interspecies divergence on the y-axis (Rasmussen et
242 al. 2009). Species that have a DNA barcode gap will then be represented by data points that fall above the 1:1
243 ratio line between these axes, while species with data points falling below the line cannot be differentiated
244 with the gene target. As shown in Figure 3, a barcode gap was present for the CR mini-barcode region
245 targeted in this study for four of the seven species that could be analyzed in this manner. Due to the inclusion
246 of introgressed sequences, *T. orientalis*, *T. thynnus*, and *T. alalunga* did not have barcode gaps for the CR
247 mini-barcode region. However, when introgressed sequences were excluded, all seven species showed a CR
248 mini-barcode gap (results not shown). DNA barcode gaps could not be determined for species with only one
249 reference sequence available, as intraspecies variation could not be calculated in these cases. Use of the ITS1
250 supplementary marker to differentiate *T. alalunga* from albacore-like *T. thynnus* revealed the presence of a
251 barcode gap (Fig. 3). These results indicate that the ITS1 fragment targeted in this study could be used for
252 species confirmation in instances where a sample labeled as albacore tuna shows a top species match to *T.*
253 *thynnus* based on the CR mini-barcode.

254 *Sequencing results*

255 Of the 53 samples tested in this study with the CR mini-barcode, 26 showed successful PCR
256 amplification based on the results of gel electrophoresis and 24 were successfully bi-directionally sequenced
257 (Table 2). This includes 23 samples extracted initially and 1 sample labeled as “white albacore tuna” that
258 underwent a repeat DNA extraction with the MP FastPrep-24 instrument. The sequences had an average
259 consensus length of 232 ± 14 bp, average HQ% of $82.6 \pm 22.2\%$, and an average ambiguity percentage of
260 $0.20 \pm 0.49\%$. The quality of these sequences was slightly lower than previous species identification studies
261 involving the full-length COI barcode, which have reported averages of 87.5-93.6%HQ and 0.05-0.14%
262 ambiguous bases (Kane and Hellberg 2016; Quinto et al. 2016). The difference in quality is likely due to the
263 highly processed nature of the canned tuna products, as compared to uncooked meat products examined in
264 the previous studies. Among the 24 canned tuna products for which sequences were obtained, 21 could be
265 identified at the species level based on the results of BLAST, with a query coverage of $\geq 98\%$ and at least a
266 95% identity match (Table 2).

267 Two of the products that could not be identified at the species level with BLAST (T18 and T50) were
268 labeled as either albacore or white tuna and showed 99% sequence identity to multiple GenBank entries for
269 both *T. alalunga* and *T. thynnus*. As shown in Figure 1, the CR mini-barcode sequences for these two
270 products grouped within the *T. alalunga*/albacore-like *T. thynnus* clade. In order to verify species, these two
271 canned tuna samples were subsequently sequenced with the ITS1 primers designed in this study (Table 1). A
272 successful sequence was obtained for one (T50) of the two samples and this result allowed for a positive
273 identification of *T. alalunga*, with 100% sequence identity in GenBank. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 2,
274 the ITS1 sequence for this sample showed a clear phylogenetic grouping within the *T. alalunga* cluster.

275 The third sample that could not be identified at the species level based on the results of BLAST was
276 labeled as yellowfin tuna (T14). The CR mini-barcode for this sample showed a 99% identity match to
277 thirteen GenBank entries for *T. albacares* and to one entry for *T. thynnus* (Accession ID DQ087565). While
278 it is possible that this represents an instance of introgression, previous studies reporting introgression
279 between these two species could not be found. The *T. thynnus* entry was published as part of a study that
280 sequenced *T. thynnus* larvae collected in the Gulf of Mexico (Carlsson et al. 2007). *T. albacares* is also
281 known to inhabit the Gulf of Mexico (Collette and Nauen 1983) and it is possible that this sample was
282 morphologically misidentified in its larval form. Furthermore, when the CR mini-barcode for T14 was
283 analyzed alongside the reference sequences used in this study, it showed a clear grouping within the *T.*
284 *albacares* clade (Fig. 1). Therefore, based on the combination of BLAST and phylogenetic results, the
285 sample was determined to be *T. albacares*.

286 Among the two successfully sequenced samples labeled as “tuna” or “light tuna”, one was identified as *K.*
287 *pelamis* and the other was identified as *T. alalunga*, respectively. Both of these species are listed in the CFR
288 for canned tuna, so these two products are considered to be properly labeled (21 CFR 161.190). However, the
289 use of *T. alalunga* in a product labeled as “light tuna” could be misleading to consumers that are intentionally
290 limiting their consumption of *T. alalunga* due to mercury concerns, as products containing *T. alalunga* are
291 typically associated with the designation of “white tuna” (Burger and Gochfeld 2004).

292 One instance of mislabeling was discovered in this study, with a sample labeled as tongol tuna identified
293 as striped bonito (*Sarda orientalis*) with 98% sequence identity. This result was confirmed upon re-
294 sequencing and the sample was determined to be mislabeled, as striped bonito is not listed in the CFR for

295 canned tuna. In this case, it is possible that *S. orientalis* was accidentally harvested alongside tongol tuna and
296 processed into cans labeled as tongol tuna, considering that striped bonito often school with small tunas in
297 the Indian and Pacific Oceans (Collette et al. 2011). Although this specific substitution was not reported
298 previously, *S. orientalis* has been known to be processed as canned tuna (Lin and Hwang 2007). The rate of
299 mislabeling found in this study (4.5%) is similar to a previous study on canned salmon, which tested 80
300 products and found 5% to be mislabeled (Rasmussen Hellberg et al. 2011). Another study investigating
301 canned tuna products in European countries reported a higher mislabeling rate of 15%, with mislabeling
302 found in products labeled as *T. albacares*, *A. rochei*, and *A. thazard* (Espíñeira et al. 2009).

303 In this study, the sequencing success rate was highest among products labeled as albacore or white tuna
304 (64.3%), followed by products labeled as yellowfin tuna (50%) and tongol tuna (50%). During primer
305 optimization, amplification success was obtained with albacore tuna (canned and fresh/frozen) as well as
306 skipjack tuna (canned). However, only one of ten commercial samples labeled as skipjack tuna was
307 successfully sequenced and only one of the five products labeled as light tuna was successfully sequenced.
308 Additional optimization based on sequencing success in both fresh/frozen and canned samples may help to
309 improve the performance of the assay. Interestingly, sequencing success in the current study was observed
310 more frequently in samples containing oil (57.9% success), including olive, canola, and soybean oil,
311 compared to samples canned in water with no oil (42.9% success) or samples canned in water and vegetable
312 broth with no oil (18.2% success). Similarly, Chapela et al. (2007) reported that higher quantities of DNA
313 were obtained from tuna samples canned in oil than from samples canned in vinegar, brine, or tomato sauce,
314 suggesting a protective effect of oil. Because most samples with sequencing failure also showed a negative
315 result following gel electrophoresis, there appears to have been a problem with PCR amplification of the
316 target region. Possible explanations for this include the presence of PCR inhibitors, lack of primer-binding
317 and DNA fragmentation from the canning process. Most samples that failed sequencing had short sequence
318 reads (~ 100 bp) that were poor quality and did not pass assembly. These reads showed a similar pattern of
319 chromatogram peaks as the first ~100 bp for the sequence reads which were successfully assembled,
320 suggesting that the primers were binding but that the target fragment was not completely elongated. Similarly,
321 previous studies have reported limited success in amplifying 200-400 bp fragments of DNA from canned
322 tuna (Lin and Hwang 2007; Quinteiro et al. 1998; Unseld et al. 1995). However, when these studies targeted

323 shorter regions of DNA ranging from 123 to 176 bp in length, amplification was successful, indicating that
324 DNA may be fragmented to less than 200 bp during the canning process. In the few cases where no sequence
325 reads were recovered, a possible explanation for sequencing failure could be the presence of a non-tuna
326 species that could not be amplified by the CR primers.

327 **Conclusions**

328 In the current study, a DNA mini-barcoding system was developed for the identification of fish species
329 commonly found in canned tuna. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that a 236-bp CR mini-barcode could
330 differentiate all 13 tuna species examined, except in rare cases of introgression involving *T. thynnus*/*T.*
331 *alalunga* and *T. thynnus*/*T. orientalis*. Use of a supplemental ITSI marker allowed for the differentiation of
332 introgressed individuals of *T. alalunga* and *T. thynnus*. Although the methodology developed in this study
333 does not allow for the differentiation of introgressed individuals of *T. thynnus* and *T. orientalis*, these species
334 are not typically found in canned tuna, and can be identified with a previously identified stretch of the CR.
335 Laboratory testing of the CR primers developed in this study demonstrated successful identification for *T.*
336 *alalunga*, *K. pelamis*, *T. tonggol*, and *T. albacares* in canned tuna, as well as *S. orientalis*, which is not listed
337 on the CFR for canned tuna and was detected in a mislabeled product. However, DNA sequencing was
338 unsuccessful in a number of products, likely due to factors such as DNA fragmentation and PCR inhibitors
339 present in canned tuna. Use of a shorter genetic region within the CR and/or further optimization of the assay
340 may help to improve PCR amplification and sequencing success.

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345 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

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351 Informed consent: Not applicable.

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466 **Table 1.** Primers used in this study. All primers include M13 tails described previously (Handy et al. 2011a).

Primer set	Primer name	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Described	Ta	Target fragment length ^a
CR	Tuna CR_F	CAC GAC GTT GTA AAA CGA CGC AYG TAC ATA TAT GTA AYT ACA CC	In this work	49°C	236 bp
	Tuna CR_R1	GGA TAA CAA TTT CAC ACA GGC TGG TTG GTR GKC TCT TAC TRC A	In this work		
	Tuna CR_R2	GGA TAA CAA TTT CAC ACA GGC TGG ATG GTA GGY TCT TAC TGC G	In this work		
ITS1	ITS1_F	CAC GAC GTT GTA AAA CGA CTC TCC TGG TCA GGA CCT CGT	In this work	61°C	179 bp
	ITS1_R	GGA TAA CAA TTT CAC ACA GGA AGC CTC CGC TKC CGC GCT T	In this work		
M13	M13F (-29)	CAC GAC GTT GTA AAA CGA C	Handy et al. (2011a)	N/A	N/A
	M13R	GGA TAA CAA TTT CAC ACA GG	Handy et al. (2011a)	N/A	N/A

467 ^aNot including primers

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470 **Table 2.** Summary of the 53 canned tuna products analyzed in this study with the CR mini-barcode. Top species matches were determined using BLAST.

Product label	n	Expected species	Top species match in GenBank	% Sequence identity
Albacore/white tuna	7	<i>T. alalunga</i>	<i>T. alalunga</i>	97-99%
Albacore/white tuna	2	<i>T. alalunga</i>	<i>T. alalunga/T. thynnus</i>	99%
Albacore/white tuna	5	<i>T. alalunga</i>	Failed sequencing	N/A
Light tuna	1	Variety of potential species	<i>T. alalunga</i>	95%
Light tuna	4	Variety of potential species	Failed sequencing	N/A
Skipjack tuna	1	<i>K. pelamis</i>	<i>K. pelamis</i>	97%
Skipjack tuna	9	<i>K. pelamis</i>	Failed sequencing	N/A
Tongol tuna	2	<i>T. tonggol</i>	<i>T. tonggol</i>	97-98%
Tongol tuna ^a	1	<i>T. tonggol</i>	<i>S. orientalis</i>	98%
Tongol tuna	3	<i>T. tonggol</i>	Failed sequencing	N/A
Tuna	1	Variety of potential species	<i>K. pelamis</i>	97%
Tuna	3	Variety of potential species	Failed sequencing	N/A
Yellowfin tuna	8	<i>T. albacares</i>	<i>T. albacares</i>	99-100%
Yellowfin tuna	1	<i>T. albacares</i>	<i>T. albacares/T. thynnus</i>	99%
Yellowfin tuna	5	<i>T. albacares</i>	Failed sequencing	N/A

471 ^a Mislabeled sample.

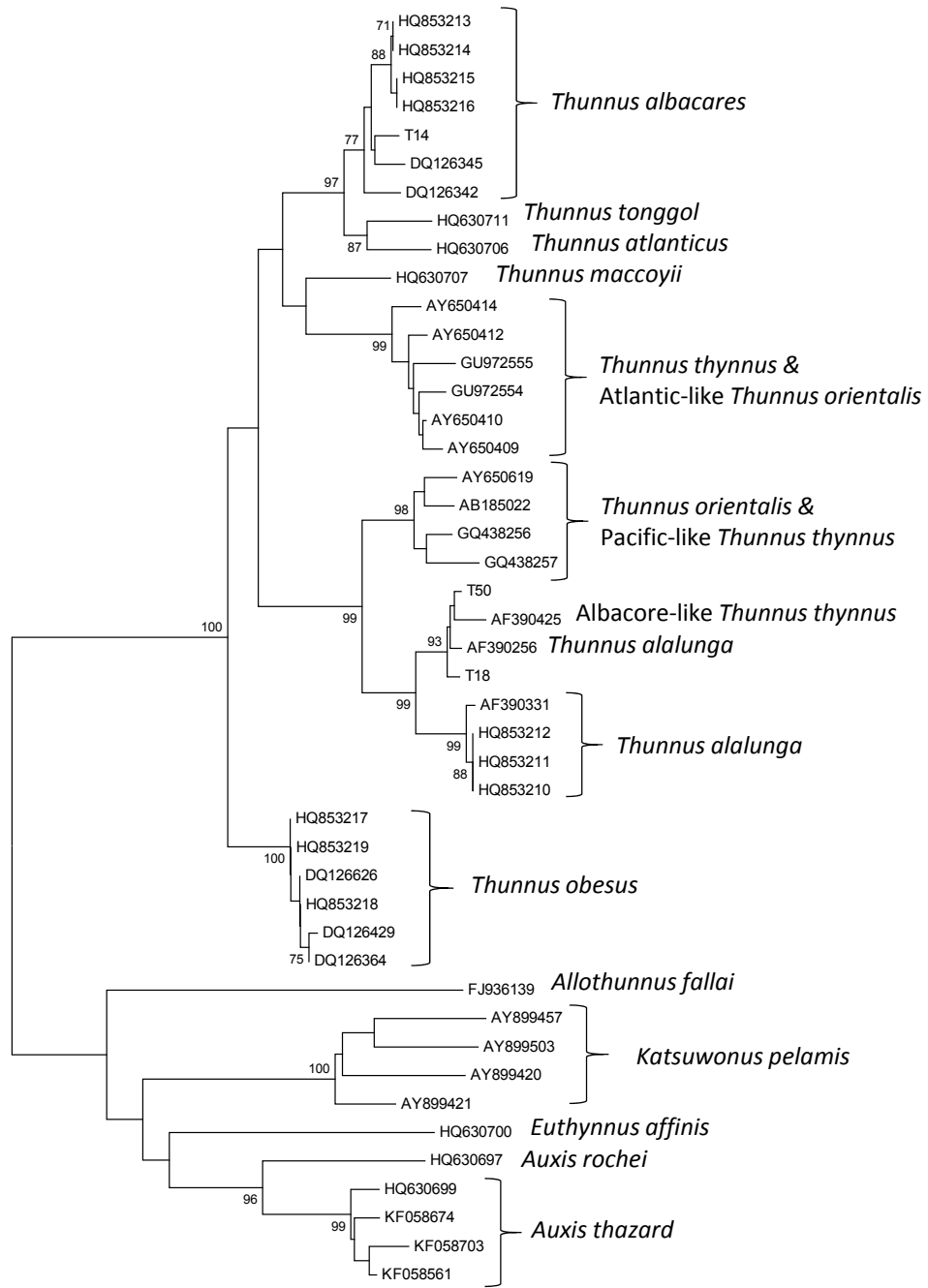
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473 **Figure Captions**

474 **Figure. 1** Neighbor-joining tree of the 236-bp CR mini-barcode targeted in this study. GenBank accession
475 numbers are shown for all reference sequences. The Kimura 2-parameter method was used to calculate
476 genetic distances and bootstrap values greater than 70% are shown. The tree includes three of the canned
477 commercial samples tested in the current study (T14, T18, T50)

478 **Figure. 2.** Neighbor-joining tree of the 179-bp ITS1 fragment targeted in this study. GenBank accession
479 numbers are shown for all reference sequences and *Katsuwonus pelamis* was used as an outgroup. The
480 Kimura 2-parameter method was used to calculate genetic distances and bootstrap values greater than 70%
481 are shown. The tree includes one of the canned commercial samples tested in the current study (T50)

482 **Figure. 3** Mini-barcode gaps for the tuna species targeted in this study, including introgressed sequences.
483 Data points are representative of the CR mini-barcode unless otherwise noted. Genetic distance was
484 calculated using the Kimura 2-parameter method. Species with only one reference sequence are not shown



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0.02

