Chapman University

Chapman University Digital Commons

Food Science Faculty Articles and Research

Science and Technology Faculty Articles and Research

1-24-2020

Labeling Compliance and Species Authentication of Fish Fillets Sold at Grocery Stores in Southern California

Priscila Liou Chapman University, priscila.liou@gmail.com

Angela Banda Chapman University

Rachel B. Isaacs Chapman University

Rosalee S. Hellberg Chapman University, hellberg@chapman.edu

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.chapman.edu/food_science_articles

Part of the Aquaculture and Fisheries Commons, Food Biotechnology Commons, Food Microbiology Commons, Food Processing Commons, and the Other Food Science Commons

Recommended Citation

Liou, P., Banda, A., Isaacs, R.B., Hellberg, R.S., 2020. Labeling compliance and species authentication of fish fillets sold at grocery stores in Southern California. *Food Control* 112, 107137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2020.107137

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Science and Technology Faculty Articles and Research at Chapman University Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Food Science Faculty Articles and Research by an authorized administrator of Chapman University Digital Commons. For more information, please contact laughtin@chapman.edu.

Labeling Compliance and Species Authentication of Fish Fillets Sold at Grocery Stores in Southern California

Comments

NOTICE: this is the author's version of a work that was accepted for publication in *Food Control*. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document. Changes may have been made to this work since it was submitted for publication. A definitive version was subsequently published in *Food Control*, volume 112, in 2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2020.107137

The Creative Commons license below applies only to this version of the article.

A thesis with this title is also available here.

/

Creative Commons License



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 4.0 License.

Copyright Elsevier **Title:** Labeling compliance and species authentication of fish fillets sold at grocery stores in Southern California

Authors: Priscila Liou^a, Angela Banda^a, Rachel B. Isaacs^a, and Rosalee S. Hellberg^a*

^aChapman University, Schmid College of Science and Technology, Food Science Program, One University Drive, Orange, CA 92866

*Corresponding Author

Rosalee S. Hellberg, Ph.D. Chapman University One University Drive Orange, CA 92866 Phone: (714) 628-2811 E-mail: hellberg@chapman.edu

1 Abstract

2 Seafood mislabeling has numerous consequences, including economic deception and 3 food safety risks. The focus of this study was to investigate fish species labeling, use of 4 acceptable market names, and Country of Origin Labeling (COOL) compliance for fresh fish 5 fillets sold at grocery store seafood counters in Southern California. A total of 120 fillets 6 representing 16 different categories of fish were collected from 30 Perishable Agricultural 7 Commodities Act (PACA)-listed grocery stores. Each sample underwent DNA barcoding to 8 identify the species. Acceptable market names were confirmed using the FDA Seafood List. 9 Samples were determined to be compliant with COOL if both the country of origin and the 10 production method were declared in accordance with regulatory requirements. Species 11 substitution was detected in 16 of the 120 samples (13.3%) and unacceptable market names were 12 observed for an additional 11 samples (9.2%). The highest rates of species substitution were 13 recorded for snapper (3/3), yellowtail (2/4), halibut (4/10), cod (3/10), and bass (2/7). COOL 14 noncompliance was observed for 28 samples (23.3%): the country of origin was missing for 15 15 samples, production method was missing for 9 samples, and 4 samples were missing both. When 16 all forms of mislabeling were considered, 47 of the 120 samples (39.2%) had at least one 17 labeling error. The majority of grocery stores (25/30) had one or more samples with a 18 mislabeling error. This study revealed species mislabeling as a continuous concern in the seafood 19 industry, especially with higher-valued species. Furthermore, the lack of COOL compliance 20 among retailers is concerning and suggests a need for increased focus on these regulations. 21

Keywords: acceptable market name, country-of-origin labeling, mislabeling, seafood fraud,
 species identification

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Seafood is a valuable protein source worldwide, with global per capita seafood 26 consumption at over 20 kg per year (FAO, 2018). In the U.S., an estimated 7.3 kg of fish and 27 shellfish were consumed per person in 2017, an increase of 0.5 kg from the previous year 28 (NOAA, 2015). The top commercial fish consumed in the U.S. are salmon, tuna, tilapia, pollock, 29 Pangasius, cod, and catfish (Delaware SeaGrant, 2018). Many fish fillets are similar in 30 appearance yet have different market values, leading to the potential for species to be substituted 31 for the purpose of economic gain (Hellberg & Morrissey, 2011). In addition to economic 32 deception, species mislabeling can lead to health hazards, such as exposure to toxins like 33 gempylotoxin and tetrodotoxin (Unicomb, Kirk, Yohannes, Dalton, & Halliday, 2002; Yancy et 34 al., 2008). Mislabeling can also interfere with religious practices when kosher fish are substituted 35 with non-kosher fish, and undermine the effectiveness of certification programs focused on 36 reducing consumer demand for unsustainable fisheries (Willette et al. 2017). 37 In the U.S., intentional mislabeling of food is prohibited under 21 U.S.C. 343: 38 Misbranded food. In order to avoid misleading consumers, the U.S. Food and Drug 39 Administration (FDA) recommends that fish should be labeled using an acceptable market name 40 provided in *The Seafood List*; however, numerous studies have reported seafood species 41 substitution and mislabeling on the U.S. marketplace (Bosko, Foley, & Hellberg, 2018; Cline, 42 2012; FDA, 2018a; Khaksar et al., 2015; Mitchell & Hellberg, 2016; Shokralla, Hellberg, Handy, 43 King, & Hajibabaei, 2015; Wang & Hsieh, 2016; Warner, Timme, Lowell, & Hirshfield, 2013; Willette et al., 2017; Wong & Hanner, 2008). A series of market surveys conducted across the 44 45 U.S. revealed 18% species mislabeling from 731 fish collected from grocery stores, with snapper 46 and grouper having the highest rates of mislabeling (Warner et al., 2013). Within California,

47 studies have reported mislabeling rates of 2.2% (San Francisco) to 42% (Los Angeles) for fish 48 samples collected at grocery stores (Bosko et al., 2018; Khaksar et al., 2015; Warner, Timme, 49 Lowell, & Hirshfield, 2012; Willette et al., 2017). Some of the most commonly mislabeled fish 50 detected in these studies were advertised as red snapper, yellowtail, yellowfin tuna, and salmon. 51 DNA-based methods are widely used for fish species authentication due to their accuracy 52 and increased accessibility (Naaum & Hanner, 2016). DNA barcoding is a sequencing-based 53 method that is commonly used for fish species identification (Naaum & Hanner, 2016). This 54 method is based on genetic variation within a standardized region, which in animals is typically a 55 ~650 base-pair (bp) fragment of the gene coding for cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) 56 (Hebert, Ratnasingham, & deWaard, 2003). COI generally exhibits high variability between 57 species and conservation within species (Stern, Castro Nallar, Rathod, & Crandall, 2017). DNA 58 barcoding has been adopted by the U.S. FDA for regulatory identification of fish species (Handy 59 et al., 2011), and been successfully used to identify fish species in numerous studies (reviewed in 60 Hellberg, Pollack, & Hanner, 2016). DNA barcode data for fish species is available through 61 Fish-Barcode of Life (Fish-BOL), a global initiative to assemble a standardized reference 62 sequence library for all fish species, and FDA's Regulatory Fish Encyclopedia (BOLDSystems, 63 2019; FDA, 2018b).

In addition to accurate species labeling, certain fresh and frozen seafood products (described below) must also follow Country of Origin labeling (COOL) regulations (Country of Origin Labeling for Fish and Shellfish, 7 C.F.R. § 60, 2009). COOL is a labeling law that requires retailers under the Perishable Agriculture Commodities Act (PACA) to provide consumers with information on the geographic origin and production method for fresh and frozen fish fillets, steaks, and nuggets that have not undergone transformation or further processing (USDA, 2017a,

2017b). The information must be legible and displayed in a conspicuous location, such as on a
placard sign, label, sticker, band, or twist tie. Abbreviations for countries are not acceptable
unless the codes cannot be mistaken for any other country or are common (USDA, 2017b).
Furthermore, COOL regulations prohibit phrases such as "or," "may contain," and "and/or" to
prevent confusion to consumers (USDA, 2017b). In addition to these regulations, foreign articles
imported into the United States must be labeled with the correct country of origin according to
19 C.F.R. § 134.11, unless exempt by law.

77 About 90% of the seafood consumed in the U.S. is imported (NOAA, 2017); however, 78 only a couple of peer-reviewed studies have investigated COOL compliance among retailers. 79 One study conducted in Baltimore, MD, reported that 3.8% of the 628 fresh/frozen seafood 80 products examined from 14 stores were not COOL compliant (Lagasse, Love, & Smith, 2014). 81 Among the products, 1.1% did not state a country of origin and 2.7% did not state a procurement 82 method (Lagasse et al., 2014). Another study surveyed catfish samples in Southern California 83 and reported that 59% of the 32 catfish products collected from 31 grocery stores were not 84 compliant with COOL regulations (Bosko et al., 2018). Among the 32 samples, 50% had 85 incomplete or absent production method information and 31% were non-compliant for country-86 of-origin information. The higher levels of non-compliance observed by Bosko et al. (2018) may 87 have been due to a number of factors, including differences in the number of retail locations 88 visited, the fish types targeted, and the geographic locations for each study. 89 While numerous studies have been carried out on fish species substitution in the

90 commercial marketplace, there is a lack of research that considers additional types of fish
91 mislabeling. Therefore, the objective of this study was to examine fish fillets sold in Southern

92 California grocery stores for species authentication, use of acceptable market names, and COOL93 compliance.

94 2. Materials and Methods

95 2.1 Sample collection

96 A total of 120 fresh or thawed (previously frozen) fish fillets were collected from 30 97 grocery stores in Orange County, CA. Sixteen categories of fish were targeted based on their 98 availability at grocery stores: bass, catfish, cod, halibut, mahi-mahi, Pangasius, rockfish, 99 rockfish/snapper, salmon, snapper, sole, swordfish, tilapia, trout, tuna and yellowtail. The "rockfish/snapper" category included samples that were advertised as both snapper and rockfish. 100 101 A maximum of 10 fish fillets were purchased per category with no more than two fish fillets 102 from the same category purchased from the same retailer. All fish purchased for the study were 103 from grocery stores licensed under PACA according to USDA's PACA Search Engine 104 (https://apps.ams.usda.gov/pacasearch/). COOL information, species labeling, and price were 105 photographed at the time of purchase (e.g., on placards, stickers, signs, labels, etc.) with the 106 exact wording recorded. Figure 1 displays examples of COOL compliant labels collected in the 107 study. Pictures were taken of the sign of the fish being sold, location of the COOL information, 108 front/back of the packaged fish, receipts, and the unpackaged fish fillet. COOL compliance was 109 assessed by examining the packaging of each product as well as any relevant information 110 provided at the point of sale. In cases where the COOL information provided was questionable 111 or unclear, an email was sent to COOL@ams.usda.gov per the USDA website 112 (https://www.ams.usda.gov/rules-regulations/cool/questions-answers-consumers) to determine 113 whether the product was considered compliant. Following collection, fish samples were 114 transported to the laboratory in a cooler with ice packs and stored at 4°C. All fish were processed

- 115 within 24 h of arrival to the laboratory. A subsample of the interior of the fish (~10 mg) was
- aseptically removed and placed in a sterile 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube for immediate DNA
- 117 extraction. The remaining sample was preserved at -80°C.
- 118 2.2 DNA extraction and quantification

119 DNA extraction was performed on each sample using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit 120 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), Spin-Column protocol with modifications described in Handy et al. 121 (2011). Lysis was carried out at 56°C with shaking at 300 rpm in an Eppendorf ThermoMixer C 122 (Hamburg, Germany) for 2 h. DNA was eluted in 100 µL of preheated AE buffer (37°C). The 123 concentration of each DNA extract was measured using a Biophotometer Plus (Eppendorf). Any sample with a concentration >30 ng/ μ L was diluted with AE buffer to achieve a concentration 124 125 \leq 30 ng/µL, as described in Moore et al. (2012). Extracted DNA was stored at 4°C until use in 126 PCR. Each set of DNA extractions also included a negative control in the form of a reagent blank 127 without fish tissue.

128 2.3 PCR and DNA sequencing

129 All samples underwent full barcoding (655 bp) of the COI gene as described in Moore et 130 al. (2012), except that the reaction volumes were doubled in order to improve workflow. Each 131 reaction tube contained 12.5 µL 10% trehalose, 8.0 µL molecular grade H₂O, 0.5 OmniMix® HS 132 Lyophilized PCR Master Mix bead (Cepheid, Sunnyvale, CA), 0.25 µL of each 10 µM COI full 133 barcode primer (Table 1), and 2.0 μ L of DNA template (\leq 30 ng/ μ L). Cycling conditions for full barcoding were 94°C for 2 min; followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 40 s, and 72 °C 134 135 for 1 min; with a final extension of 72 °C for 10 min. All thermal cycling reactions were carried 136 out using an Eppendorf Mastercycler nexus gradient.

137	Samples that could not be identified after the first round of DNA barcoding underwent
138	repeat PCR using the full barcoding conditions described above, as well as mini barcoding using
139	the Mini_SH-E primer set described in Shokralla et al. (2015). For mini-barcoding, each reaction
140	tube contained 22.0 μ L molecular grade H ₂ O, 0.5 OmniMix® HS Lyophilized PCR Master Mix
141	bead, 0.50 μL of each 10 μM COI mini-barcode SH-E primer (Table 1), and 2.0 μL of DNA
142	template. Cycling conditions were 95°C for 5 min; followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 40 s, 46 °C
143	for 1 min, and 72 °C for 30 s; with a final extension of 72 °C for 5 min. In order to differentiate
144	closely related tuna species, all tuna samples were also tested using a mini-barcode primer set
145	targeting the control region (CR), as described in Mitchell and Hellberg (2016). Each reaction
146	tube contained 20.5 μ L molecular grade H ₂ O, 0.5 OmniMix® HS Lyophilized PCR Master Mix
147	bead, 0.50 μ L of each 10 μ M CR mini-barcode primer (Table 1), and 3.0 μ L of DNA template.
148	Cycling conditions were 94°C for 2 min; followed by 35 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 49 °C for 40 s,
149	and 72 °C for 1 min; with a final extension of 72 °C for 10 min.
150	PCR products were confirmed using pre-cast 2% agarose E-Gels (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,
151	CA) run for 15 min on an E-Gel iBase (Invitrogen). Each well was loaded with 4 μ L PCR
152	product and 16 μ L sterile deionized water. Image results were captured using FOTO/Analyst
153	Express (Fotodyne, Hartland, WI) and Transilluminator FBDLT-88 (Fisher Scientific, Waltham,
154	MA) and visualized with FOTO/Analyst PCImage (version 5.0.0.0, FOTODYNE). PCR
155	products were purified using ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA) according to the
156	manufacturer's instructions. Next, the samples were sequenced bidirectionally with M13 primers
157	at the GenScript facility (Piscataway, NJ). Sequencing was carried out using the BigDye
158	Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and a 3730xl
159	Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems).

160 2.4 DNA sequence analysis

161 Raw sequence data was assembled using Geneious R7 (Biomatters, Ltd., Auckland, New 162 Zealand) and trimmed to the target regions for the 655 bp full-length COI barcode, 226 bp COI 163 mini-barcode, or 236 bp CR mini-barcode. Full-length COI barcodes were considered successful 164 if they passed the QC parameters described by Handy et al. (2011): bidirectional sequences with 165 \geq 500 bp and < 2% ambiguities or single reads with \geq 500 bp and \geq 98% high quality bases. COI 166 and CR mini barcodes were considered successful if they passed the QC parameters utilized by 167 Pollack et al. (2018): bidirectional sequences with $\geq 76\%$ of the target length and < 2%168 ambiguities or single reads with $\geq 76\%$ of the target length and $\geq 98\%$ high quality bases. The 169 full and mini-barcode COI sequences were queried against the Species Level Barcode Records in 170 the Barcode of Life Database (BOLD) and CR mini-barcodes were queried against GenBank 171 using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST). Common names and acceptable market 172 names for each identified species were determined using The Seafood List (FDA, 2018a). For 173 species not listed in *The Seafood List*, FishBase was used to determine the common names 174 (FishBase, 2018).

175 **3. Results and Discussion**

176 *3.1 DNA barcoding results*

All of the 120 fish fillets collected were sequenced with at least one of the COI barcoding methods described above and all samples had at least one top species match in BOLD with >99% genetic similarity (Table 2). The majority of samples (n = 116) were sequenced using the COI full barcode primer set and the remaining four samples were sequenced with the COI minibarcode primer set. The four samples that were only successful with mini-barcoding were identified as Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*; n = 2), Patagonian toothfish (*Dissostichus* *eleginoides*; n = 1), and Antarctic toothfish (*Dissostichus mawsoni*; n = 1). Among the 120 fillets
tested, 82 were identified to the species level (i.e., showed a top match to a single species in
BOLD) using COI full or mini-barcoding. This included all samples labeled as bass, catfish,
salmon, snapper, sole, swordfish, trout, yellowtail and most samples labeled as cod, halibut,
mahi-mahi, rockfish (Table 2).

188 Among the 38 samples that were not identified to the species level with COI full or mini-189 barcoding, 23 were identified to the genus level (i.e., showed a top match to multiple species from the same genus). These included the majority of the tilapia and tuna samples and a few 190 191 samples of halibut, mahi-mahi, and rockfish (Table 2). Most of the tilapia samples had top 192 matches to *Oreochromis* hybrids and therefore could not be identified at the species level. Many 193 species of tuna are closely related and previous studies have also reported an inability to 194 differentiate species based on COI DNA barcoding (Pollack et al., 2018; Shokralla et al., 2015). 195 These samples underwent further analysis with the CR mini-barcodes to verify species. All 10 196 tuna samples were successfully sequenced using the CR mini-barcode primer set and identified 197 as yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*; n = 5), Pacific bluefin tuna (*Thunnus orientalis*; n = 2), 198 albacore tuna (*Thunnus alalunga*; n = 1), southern bluefin tuna (*Thunnus maccoyii*; n = 1), and 199 Thunnus spp. (n = 1). The CR mini-barcodes showed 100% query coverage and 95-100% 200 genetic similarity to the top species matches in GenBank, consistent with the results of Mitchell 201 and Hellberg (2016).

Samples with top matches from multiple genera were primarily from the Pangasius $(n = 203 \quad 9)$ and cod (n = 5) categories (Table 2). The Pangasius samples showed top matches to records from the genera *Pangasianodon* and *Pangasius*, which are both within the Pangasiidae family, while the cod samples showed equivalent matches to records from the genera *Gadus* and *Boreogadus*, which are both within the Gadidae family.

207 *3.2 Species substitution*

208 Species substitution was detected in 16 of the 120 fish fillets (13.3%) examined in this 209 study (Table 3). Among the 16 fish categories tested, 7 had at least one sample with species 210 substitution. The highest rate of substitution was observed for the snapper fillets (3/3), followed 211 by yellowtail (2/4), halibut (4/10), cod (3/10), and bass (2/7). The Pangasius and tuna categories 212 each had one sample with species substitution. Categories with no species substitution detected 213 included: catfish, mahi-mahi, rockfish, rockfish/snapper, salmon, sole, swordfish, tilapia, and 214 trout. Similar to the results of the current study, previous market surveys in the U.S. also found 215 relatively high rates of mislabeling among snapper, halibut, and cod, and yellowtail products 216 (Hu, Huang, Hanner, Levin, & Lu, 2018; Khaksar et al., 2015; Shehata, Naaum, Garduno, & 217 Hanner, 2018; Warner et al., 2013; Willette et al., 2017). Of the 30 stores sampled in the current 218 study, 13 had at least one incidence of species substitution. The three most expensive categories 219 of fish had relatively high rates of species substitution: snapper, bass, and halibut were on 220 average the highest-priced fish categories at US \$99.93/kg, \$88.18/kg, and \$49.01/kg, 221 respectively.

According to *The Seafood List*, the name "red snapper" is only acceptable for *Lutjanus campechanus* (FDA, 2018a). However, none of the fillets advertised as "red snapper" in this study were identified as *L. campechanus* (Tables 2-3). As shown in Table 3, the three substituted "red snapper" fillets were identified as blackspotted rockfish [(*Sebastes melanostictus*) (n = 1)] and madai [(*Pagrus major*) (n = 2)]. According to the California Code of Regulations (14 CCR \$103), "Pacific red snapper" can be used as a common name for certain species of rockfish

228 including widow rockfish (Sebastes entomelas) and vermilion rockfish (Sebastes miniatus). 229 However, none of the samples collected in this study were specifically labeled as "Pacific red 230 snapper." The two "red snapper" samples identified as madai were sold as "fresh red snapper" 231 farmed in Japan (\$132.28/kg) and "premium red snapper" wild caught in Japan (\$154.32/kg) 232 (Fig. 1a). Madai is a type of sea bream that is recognized as genuine snapper in sushi culture and 233 this may have led to confusion over the acceptable market name (Hu et al., 2018). Consistent 234 with the results of the current study, Khaksar et al. (2015) also reported 100% of "red snapper" 235 samples to be mislabeled, with 8 of the 16 samples identified as madai and the other 8 identified 236 as tilapia. Similarly, Warner et al. (2013) reported a high rate of red snapper mislabeling (113 of 237 120 samples), with samples identified as various species, including madai (n=5) and numerous 238 types of rockfish (n=30). These results, along with those of other studies (Hsieh, Woodward, & 239 Blanco, 1995; Hu et al., 2018; Marko et al., 2004; Shehata et al., 2018; Willette et al., 2017), 240 indicate that red snapper substitution continues to be a major problem. 241 According to 21 CFR §102.57, the term "halibut" can only be associated with Atlantic 242 halibut (Hippoglossus hippoglossus) or Pacific halibut (Hippoglossus stenolepis). However, four 243 of the ten fillets in this study advertised as "halibut" or "Pacific halibut" were identified as 244 California flounder (Paralichthys californicus) (Table 3). Interestingly, "California halibut" is 245 listed as a vernacular name for California flounder on The Seafood List and it is the name used to 246 refer to P. californicus in the California Fish and Game Code (e.g., §8391). However, as stated 247 by the FDA, vernacular names are generally not acceptable market names and use of these names 248 may lead to misbranding. Consistent with these results, Warner et al. (2013) also detected 249 California flounder labeled as "Pacific halibut" in four samples purchased in Northern

California. Willette et al. (2017) found that 89% of marketed halibut was actually flounder
(*Paralichthys* spp.), although none were identified as California flounder.

252 Among the cod samples, two were advertised as Pacific cod (Gadus microcephalus) but 253 identified as Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua) and one was advertised as rock cod (Lotella rhacina 254 or *Pseudophycis barbata*) but identified as redbanded rockfish (*Sebastes babcocki*) (Table 3). 255 Mislabeling Atlantic cod as Pacific cod could undermine conservation efforts at the retail level, 256 as Atlantic cod is considered vulnerable by the International Union for Conservation of Nature 257 (IUCN) Red List (IUCN, 2019). According to NOAA Fisheries, Atlantic cod populations are 258 below target levels; however, U.S. wild-caught Atlantic cod is being sustainably managed with 259 limited harvesting and rebuilding plans in place (NOAA, 2019). Of note, one of the Atlantic cod 260 samples (P031) listed the U.S. as the country of origin, while the other sample (P001) listed 261 Iceland. Similar to the results of this study, Warner et al. (2013) reported a mislabeling rate of 262 28% for cod species, including Atlantic cod mislabeled as Pacific cod and redbanded rockfish 263 mislabeled as rock cod, while Shehata et al. (2018) also found Atlantic cod mislabeled as Pacific 264 cod.

265 The bass category included one fillet labeled as "seabass (Patagonian toothfish)" and six 266 fillets labeled as "Chilean seabass." As shown in Table 3, the sample labeled as "seabass 267 (Patagonian toothfish)" was determined to be substituted because Patagonian toothfish 268 (Dissostichus eleginoides) is a different species than Antarctic toothfish (Dissostichus mawsoni). 269 Within the "Chilean seabass" samples, one was identified as swordfish (Xiphias gladius). The substitution of Chilean seabass with swordfish could have been intentionally carried out for 270 271 economic gain, as the average price of swordfish in this study was US \$28.55/kg compared to 272 US \$69.31/kg for samples labeled as Chilean seabass. The substitution is also a health concern as

swordfish is not recommended for certain populations (i.e. pregnant women, young children) due
to mercury levels, while Chilean sea bass is listed as a "good choice" (FDA, 2019).

275 The Pangasius, tuna, and yellowtail categories each had one sample found to be 276 substituted (Table 3). Interestingly, a sample labeled as "swai" was identified as blue-spotted 277 stingray (*Neotrygon kuhlii*). Economically motivated adulteration in this case seems unlikely, as 278 the average price of the Pangasius samples in this study was relatively low (US \$9.91/kg, range 279 \$8.79-13.21/kg). The substituted tuna sample was labeled as "yellowfin tuna" but identified as 280 southern bluefin tuna. Southern bluefin tuna is considered critically endangered according to the 281 IUCN Red List (Collette, Chang, et al., 2011), while yellowfin tuna is considered near threatened 282 (Collette, Acero, et al., 2011). The country-of-origin information for this tuna sample was 283 conflicting, with "Indonesia" listed on the placard and "Fiji" on the label. Economically 284 motivated adulteration seems unlikely, as this sample was marketed at US \$22.05/kg as 285 compared to US \$59.52 for the other yellowfin tuna sample in this study. Lastly, two samples 286 (P035 and P104) advertised as "yellowtail" were identified as buri (Seriola quinqueradiata). 287 Although buri shares the same genus as yellowtail (Seriola lalandi), they are two distinct species. 288 In addition, the country of origin and production method were both missing for P035 (Fig. 2d). 289 Buri is a common substitute for yellowtail, as Warner et al. (2013) previously identified 24 out of 290 26 "yellowtail" samples as buri. The authors indicated that the deception was likely 291 unintentional, as buri is often called "yellowtail" at sushi restaurants. Interestingly, the average 292 cost of actual yellowtail samples in the current study was US \$7.67/kg, while the average cost of 293 the "yellowtail" samples identified as buri was much higher, at US \$42.99/kg.

294 3.3 Acceptable market name

295 The use of an acceptable market name to identify seafood sold in interstate commerce is 296 important in order to ensure proper labeling and avoid misleading consumers (FDA, 2018a). 297 Among the 120 samples, 11 samples from 10 stores were mislabeled due to the use of an 298 unacceptable market name (Table 4). When samples with species substitution and unacceptable 299 market names were combined, the overall rate of mislabeling was 22.5% (27/120). The category 300 with the greatest number of unacceptable market names was salmon (5/10), followed by 301 rockfish/snapper (2/2), cod (2/10), and Pangasius (2/10). The two samples of rockfish/snapper 302 were found to have unacceptable market names because of conflicting labeling information: one 303 sample was labeled as "Fresh Pacific Snapper Filet" on the placard and "Pacific Rockfish Fillet 304 Wild-Fresh" on the label, while the other was labeled as "Fresh Rockfish Red Snapper" on the 305 placard and "Rock Fish Fillets" on the label. However, "Pacific snapper" is only acceptable for 306 Lutjanus peru and, as previously mentioned, "red snapper" is only acceptable for Lutjanus 307 campechanus. In the state of California, certain rockfish species may be labeled as "Pacific Red 308 Snapper" according to the California Code of Regulations §103. However, this name was not 309 used for any of the rockfish samples collected.

310 The five mislabeled salmon samples were labeled as "salmon" and identified as "Atlantic 311 salmon." Although these fillets were labeled with the correct category of fish, none of them used 312 the complete name of "Atlantic salmon" as specified by The Seafood List. Another mislabeling 313 trend was the use of multiple names on the same product that refer to different species. For 314 example, one of the mislabeled Pangasius samples was marketed as both "swai" and "basa" and 315 another was marketed as "red fish basa." "Swai" and "basa" refer to two different species as do 316 "red fish" and "basa." "Redfish" appears as a vernacular name for a number of species in The 317 Seafood List, including sea bass, ocean perch, and sockeye salmon. In another case, a fillet

identified as sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*) was labeled with the vernacular name of "black
cod." The other mislabeled cod sample was advertised as "lind cod." Lind cod is not listed in *The Seafood List* and it may be a possible misspelling of ling cod (*Molva movla*). However, the
sample had equivalent species matches to Pacific cod (*Gadus macrocephalus*)/Arctic cod
(*Boreogadus saida*)/Greenland cod (*Gadus ogac*), none of which are associated with an
acceptable market name of "ling cod."

324 *3.4 COOL compliance*

325 To comply with COOL regulations, the country of origin and production method must be 326 stated legibly in a conspicuous location at the point of sale. Examples of COOL-compliant 327 samples collected in this study are shown in Figure 1. COOL noncompliance was observed for 328 28 of the 120 samples (23.3%) in this study (Table 5). A greater number of samples were not 329 compliant in their country-of-origin statement (n = 15) compared to samples that were 330 noncompliant for production method (n = 9). Four additional samples were noncompliant for 331 both country of origin and production method information. Only four of the fish categories (i.e., 332 cod, rockfish, rockfish/snapper, and trout) had samples that were 100% COOL compliant. Each 333 of the remaining categories had at least one incidence of COOL noncompliance, with tuna 334 having the highest number of non-compliant samples (n = 5). At least one sample from 15 of the 335 30 stores (50.0%) sampled had an incidence of COOL noncompliance.

Samples were considered not compliant in their country-of-origin statement for several reasons: ten samples were missing a country of origin or stated "Other" as the country of origin; six listed multiple countries; and three did not use a valid country name. The samples with multiple countries had contradictory information on the label as compared to the placard. For example, one sample was a "red snapper" fillet (P019) that listed Canada on the placard and

341 Brazil on the label. Of note, this sample was substituted with blackspotted rockfish and also 342 contained contradictory production method information, declaring "Farm Raised" on the placard and "Wild" on the label. Another sample with contradictory information was a catfish fillet 343 344 (P018) that declared "Product of China" on the placard and "Product of Ecuador" on the label. 345 Interestingly, the label for this sample appeared have been intended for use with a shrimp 346 product, as it read "26-30 Raw Headless Shri Previously Frozen Farmed." One of the samples 347 (P032) with an invalid country name stated "Product of Tahiti" instead of the country name of 348 French Polynesia. The other two samples with invalid country names were bass fillets that listed 349 "Korea" (P029) or "Korean" (P105) (Fig. 2a) as the country of origin. Because South Korea and 350 North Korea are two separate countries, simply stating "Korea" is considered insufficient (K. 351 Becker, personal communication, October 10, 2018). Of note, the sample that listed "Korea" as 352 the country of origin was also found to be mislabeled on the basis of species: it was advertised as 353 "seabass (Patagonian toothfish)" but identified as Antarctic toothfish.

354 Among the 13 samples that were noncompliant with regards to declaring the production 355 method, ten samples did not state the production method, two had unclear wording, and one had 356 contradictory information. The two samples with unclear wording were a mahi-mahi fillet with 357 the declaration "Born, Raised, Harvested China" (Fig. 2b) and a tilapia fillet with the declaration "BRN,RAISD&HARVST CHINA." These statements reflect the legal designations required for 358 359 muscle cuts of meat from animals slaughtered in the U.S. (7 CFR §65.300 d) and they are not 360 acceptable for conveying production method for fish and shellfish (K. Becker, personal 361 communication, April 9, 2019).

Interestingly, two samples with COOL information listed a country of origin or
 production method that was not consistent with the labeled species. In one case, a sample labeled

as "Wild Caught Pacific Cod" (P001) listed Iceland as the country of origin. While Pacific cod
can be found in the waters off of western Greenland, its geographic range does not extend to
Iceland (Luna & Capuli, 2019). The sample was identified to be Atlantic cod, which is a major
fishery in Iceland (FAO, 2010). Another sample was labeled as farmed mahi-mahi (no country of
origin stated); however, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)
does not have production statistics for farmed mahi-mahi (FAO, 2018).

370 The rate of COOL noncompliance in this study (23.3%) was mid-range compared to 371 previous studies. Lagasse et al. (2014) found only 3.8% COOL noncompliance from the 628 372 seafood products examined in their study. However, their samples were collected from only eight 373 retail outlets compared to 30 grocery stores in this study and included both fresh and frozen 374 products. COOL compliance surveillance conducted by the Agricultural Marketing Service 375 (AMS) in 2016 revealed 10% COOL noncompliance among 79,928 fish and shellfish products 376 from over 3,000 retail store facilities across the United States (K. Becker, personal 377 communication, June 21, 2017). On the other hand, Bosko et al. (2018) reported 59% COOL 378 noncompliance among 32 fresh/frozen catfish samples collected from grocery stores. In 379 comparison, the current study found a lower rate of noncompliance (33.3%) among the 10 catfish 380 products analyzed. While relatively high rates of COOL noncompliance have been observed in 381 studies specific to Southern California, these differences may be due to variation in sampling 382 design rather than regional differences in COOL compliance. A more extensive study focused on 383 comparing COOL compliance in multiple geographic regions should be carried out in order to 384 investigate these differences further.

385 *3.5 Overall mislabeling*

386 When considering all forms of mislabeling investigated in this study (i.e., species 387 substitution, unacceptable market name, and/or COOL noncompliance), 47 of the 120 samples 388 (39.2%) had at least one labeling error. Eight samples exhibited COOL noncompliance combined 389 with species mislabeling (i.e., species substitution or unacceptable market name). Among these 390 samples, there were seven instances of species substitution and one use of an unacceptable 391 market name. These samples were from a range of categories, including bass, halibut, Pangasius, 392 salmon, snapper, tuna, and yellowtail. Among the 30 stores sampled, 24 stores (80.0%) had at 393 least one incidence of species mislabeling or COOL noncompliance.

394 4. Conclusions

395 This study revealed species mislabeling and COOL noncompliance across various fish 396 categories in grocery stores in Southern California. The results of the current study combined 397 with previous research indicate that mislabeling of fish species continues to be a problem. 398 Several instances of higher-value species substituted with species of lesser value were detected 399 in this study, such as halibut substituted with California flounder. However, many instances of 400 species mislabeling appeared to be a result of confusion in naming fish associated with sushi 401 culture (e.g., use of the term "madai" for red snapper) or a misunderstanding of California state 402 and federal labeling laws (e.g. use of "Pacific halibut" for California flounder), rather than 403 carried out for economic gain. Numerous errors associated with COOL compliance were also 404 observed, including lack of a country-of-origin statement, lack of production method, and 405 confusing or contradictory wording. Non-compliant samples may be due to a lack of consistency 406 at certain grocery stores, as some samples displayed contradictory information between the 407 placard and the label and others used wording meant for cuts of meat instead of fish (e.g. "born, 408 raised, & harvested"). Accurate and compliant labeling is an important aspect in determining

appropriate food safety measures, promoting seafood conservation, and allowing consumers to
make informed choices associated with seafood consumption. As a labeling law, COOL provides
transparency in the supply chain to consumers. The high number of stores (80.0%) and fish
products (39.2%) that had at least one mislabeling error indicates an area of concern and a need
for further monitoring as well as greater enforcement of regulations.

414 Acknowledgements

415 This work was supported in part by a grant from the National Science Foundation,

416 Division of Earth Sciences, NSF-EAR #1757991. Additional funding support was received from

417 Chapman University, Schmid College of Science and Technology. We would like to thank Dr.

418 Kenneth Becker from U.S. Department of Agriculture and Spring Randolph from U.S. Food and

419 Drug Administration for their help in providing resources and clarification related to regulatory420 questions.

421 References

422 Bosko, S., Foley, D., & Hellberg, R. (2018). Species substitution and country of origin

423 labeling of catfish products on the U.S. commercial market. *Aquaculture*, 495, 715-720.

424 Cline, E. (2012). Marketplace substitution of Atlantic salmon for Pacific salmon in

425 Washington State detected by DNA barcoding. *Food Research International*, 45, 388426 393.

427 Cohen, N. J., Deeds, J. R., Wong, E. S., Hanner, R. H., Yancy, H. F., White, K. D., ... Gerber,

- S. I. (2009). Public health response to puffer fish (Tetrodotoxin) poisoning from
 mislabeled product. *Journal of Food Protection*, 72(4), 810-817.
- 430 Collette, B., Acero, A., Amorim, A. F., Boustany, A., Canales Ramirez, C., Cardenas, G.,

431	Yanez, E. (2011). <i>Thunnus albacares</i> . The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species.
432	http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2011-2.RLTS.T21857A9327139.en Accessed 2
433	April 2019.
434	Collette, B., Chang, SK., Di Natale, A., Fox, W., Juan Jorda, M., Miyabe, N., Wang,
435	S. (2011). Thunnus maccoyii. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species.
436	http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2011-2.RLTS.T21858A9328286.en Accessed 2
437	April 2019.
438	Delaware Sea Grant. (2018). Seafood Health Facts. www.seafoodhealthfacts.org
439	Accessed 3 July 2019.
440	FAO. (2010). Fishery and Aquaculture Country Profiles: The Republic of Iceland.
441	http://www.fao.org/fishery/facp/ISL/en#CountrySector-ProductionSector
442	Accessed 3 July 2019.
443	FAO. (2018). The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture.
444	http://www.fao.org/3/I9540EN/i9540en.pdf Accessed 4 April 2019.
445	FDA. (2019). Advice about Eating Fish.
446	https://www.fda.gov/food/consumers/advice-about-eating-fish
447	Accessed 17 July 2019.
448	FDA. (2018a). The Seafood List.
449	https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/fdcc/index.cfm?set=seafoodlist Accessed 3 July
450	2019.
451	FDA. (2018b). Regulatory Fish Encyclopedia.
452	https://www.fda.gov/food/foodscienceresearch/rfe/ Accessed 3 July 2019.
453	FishBase. (2018). http://www.fishbase.org/search.php Accessed 3 July 2019.

454	Handy, S. M., Deeds, J. R., Ivanova, N. V., Hebert, P. D. N., Hanner, R. H., Ormos, A., .
455	Yancy, H. F. (2011). A single-laboratory validated method for the generation of DNA
456	barcodes for the identification of fish for regulatory compliance. Journal of AOAC
457	International, 94(1), 201-210.
458	Hebert, P. D. N., Ratnasingham, S., & deWaard, J. R. (2003). Barcoding animal life:
459	cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 divergences among closely related species. Proceedings:
460	Biological Sciences, 270, S96-S99.
461	Hebert, P. D. N., & Ratnasingham, S. (2007). Barcoding BOLD: The Barcode of Life
462	Data system (<u>www.barcodinglife.org</u>). Molecular Ecology Notes, 7(3), 355-364.
463	Hellberg, R., & Morrissey, M. (2011). Advances in DNA-based techniques for the
464	detection of seafood species substitution on the commercial market. Journal of
465	Laboratory Automation, 16(4), 308-321.
466	Hellberg, R., Pollack, S., & Hanner, R. (2016). Seafood species identification using DNA
467	sequencing. In A. Naaum & R. Hanner (Eds.), Seafood authenticity and traceability: A
468	DNA-based perspective (pp. 113-127). San Diego: Elsevier.
469	Hsieh, Y-H. P., Woodward, B. B., & Blanco, A. W. (1995). Species substitution of retail
470	snapper fillets. Journal of Food Quality, 18, 131-140.
471	Hu, Y., Huang, S. Y., Hanner, R., Levin, J., & Lu, X. (2018). Study of fish products in
472	Metro Vancouver using DNA barcoding methods reveals fraudulent labeling. Food
473	Control, 94, 38-47.
474	IUCN. (2019). The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species.
475	https://www.iucn.org/resources/conservation-tools/iucn-red-list-threatened-species
476	Accessed 3 July 2019.

477	Khaksar, R., Carlson, T., Schaffner, D. W., Ghorashi, M., Best, D., Jandhyala, S.,
478	Amini, S. (2015). Unmasking seafood mislabeling in US markets: DNA barcoding as a
479	unique technology for food authentication and quality control. Food Control, 56, 71-76.
480	Lagasse, L. P., Love, D. C., & Smith, K. C. (2014). Country-of-Origin labeling prior to
481	and at the point of purchase: an exploration of the information environment in Baltimore
482	City grocery stores. Ecology of Food and Nutrition, 53(1), 58-80.
483	Luna, S. M., & Capuli, E. E. (2019). Gadus macrocephalus.
484	https://www.fishbase.se/summary/Gadus-macrocephalus.html Accessed 4 April 2019.
485	Marko, P. B., Lee, S. C., Rice, A. M., Gramling, J. M., Fitzhenry, T. M., McAlister, J. S.,
486	Moran, A. L. (2004). Mislabeling of a depleted reef fish. Nature, 430, 309-310.
487	Mitchell, J. K., & Hellberg, R. S. (2016). Use of the mitochondrial control region as a
488	potential DNA mini-barcoding target for the identification of canned tuna species. Food
489	Analytical Methods, 9(10), 2711-2720.
490	Moore, M. M., Handy, S. M., Haney, C. J., Pires, G. S., Perry, L. L., Deeds, J. R., &
491	Yancy, H. F. (2012). Updates to the FDA single laboratory validated method for DNA
492	barcoding for the species identification of fish. FDA Laboratory Information Bulletin
493	4528.
494	Naaum, A., & Hanner, R. (2016). An introduction to DNA-based tools for seafood
495	identification. In A. Naaum & R. Hanner (Eds.), Seafood authenticity and traceability: a
496	DNA-based perspective (pp. 100-110). San Diego: Elsevier.
497	NOAA. (2017). Fisheries of the United States.
498	https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/resource/document/fisheries-united-states-2017-report
499	Accessed 30 July 2019.

500 NOAA. (2017). U.S. Aquaculture.

- 501 <u>https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/aquaculture/us-aquaculture</u> Accessed 3 July
 502 2019.
- 503 NOAA. (2019). Atlantic Cod. <u>https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/species/atlantic-cod</u>
 504 Accessed 3 July 2019.
- 505 Pollack, S. J., Kawalek, M. D., Williams-Hill, D. M., & Hellberg, R. S. (2018).
- 506 Evaluation of DNA barcoding methodologies for the identification of fish species in
 507 cooked products. *Food Control*, *84*, 297-304.
- 508 Shehata, H. R., Naaum, A. M., Garduno, R. A., & Hanner, R. (2018). DNA barcoding as
- 509 a regulatory tool for seafood authentication in Canada. *Food Control*, 92, 147-153.
- 510 Shokralla, S., Hellberg, R. S., Handy, S. M., King, I., & Hajibabaei, M. (2015). A DNA
- 511 mini-barcoding system for authentication of processed fish products. *Scientific Reports*,
 512 5, Article number: 15894.
- 513 Stern, D. B., Castro Nallar, E., Rathod, J., & Crandall, K. A. (2017). DNA barcoding
- analysis of seafood accuracy in Washington, D.C. restaurants. *PeerJ*, e3234.
- 515 Unicomb, L. E., Kirk, M., Yohannes, K., Dalton, C. B., & Halliday, L. (2002). An outbreak of
- 516 gastrointestinal illness associated with the consumption of escolar fish. *Communicable*
- 517 *Diseases Intelligence Quarterly Report*, 26(3), 441-445.
- 518 USDA. (2017a). Country of Origin Labeling (COOL).
- 519 <u>https://www.ams.usda.gov/rules-regulations/cool</u> Accessed 3 July 2019.
- 520 USDA. (2017b). Country of Origin Labeling (COOL) Frequently Asked Questions.
- 521 https://www.ams.usda.gov/rules-regulations/cool/questions-answers-consumers Accessed
- 522 3 July 2019.

- Wang, D., & Hsieh, Y.-H. P. (2016). The use of imported Pangasius fish in local
 restaurants. *Food Control*, 65, 136-142.
- 525 Warner, K., Timme, W., Lowell, B., & Hirshfield, M. (2012). Widespread Seafood Fraud
- Found in Los Angeles. <u>http://oceana.org/reports/widespread-seafood-fraud-found-los-</u>
 angeles Accessed 3 July 2019.
- 528 Warner, K., Timme, W., Lowell, B., & Hirshfield, M. (2013). Oceana Study Reveals
- 529 Seafood Fraud Nationwide. <u>http://oceana.org/reports/oceana-study-reveals-seafood-</u>
 530 fraud-nationwide Accessed 3 July 2019.
- 531 Willette, D., Simmonds, S., Cheng, S., Esteves, S., Kane, T., Nuetzel, H., ... Barber, P.
- 532 (2017). Using DNA barcoding to track seafood mislabeling in Los Angeles restaurants.
 533 *Conservation Biology*, *31*(5), 1076-1085.
- Wong, E. H. K., & Hanner, R. H. (2008). DNA barcoding detects market substitution in
 North American seafood. *Food Research International*, *41*(8), 828-837.
- 536 Yancy, H. F., Zemlak, T. S., Mason, J. A., Washington, J. D., Tenge, B. J., Nguyen, N. L. T., ...
- 537 Moore, M. M. (2008). Potential use of DNA barcodes in regulatory science: applications
- 538 of the Regulatory Fish Encyclopedia. *Journal of Food Protection*, 71(1), 210-217.

Primer set	Primer name	Primer direction	Primer sequence (3'-5') ^a	Barcode length	Reference
COI full barcode	FISHCOILB C_ts	forward	<u>CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC</u> TCAAC YAATCAYAAAGATATYGGCAC	655 bp	Handy et al. (2011); Moore
	FISHCOILB C_ts	reverse	<u>GGATAACAATTTCACACAGG</u> ACTTC YGGGTGRCCRAARAATCA		et al. (2012)
COI mini- barcode (SH-	Mini_SH-E	forward	<u>CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC</u> ACYAAI CAYAAAGAYATIGGCAC	226 bp	Shokralla et al. (2015)
E)	Mini_SH-E	reverse	<u>GGATAACAATTTCACACAGG</u> CTTAT RTTRTTTATICGIGGRAAIGC		
CR mini- barcode	Tuna CR_F	forward	<u>CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC</u> GCAYG TACATATATGTAAYTACACC	280 bp	Mitchell and Hellberg (2016)
	Tuna CR_R1	reverse	<u>GGATAACAATTTCACACAGG</u> CTGG TTGGTRGKCTCTTACTRCA		
	Tuna CR_R2	reverse	<u>GGATAACAATTTCACACAGG</u> CTGG ATGGTAGGYTCTTACTGCG		

 Table 1. Primer sets used in this study

^aunderlined segment indicates M13 tails

Category	Number of samples	Identified to species level	Identified to genus level	Identified to multi-genus level	Samples with species mislabeling ^a
Bass	7	7			2
Catfish	10	10			0
Cod	10	5		5 (<i>Gadus</i> and <i>Boreogadus</i>)	5
Halibut	10	8	2 (Hippoglossus)		4
Mahi-mahi	6	5	1 (Coryphaena)		0
Pangasius	10	1		9 (<i>Pangasianodon</i> and <i>Pangasius</i>)	3
Rockfish	6	5	1 (Sebastes)		0
Rockfish/snapper	2	1	1 (Sebastes)		2
Salmon	10	10			5
Snapper	3	3			3
Sole	10	10			0
Swordfish	10	10			0
Tilapia	10		9 (Oreochromis)	1 (Oreochromis and Pseudocrenilabrus)	0
Trout	2	2			0
Tuna	10	1	9 (Thunnus) ^b		1
Yellowtail	4	4			2
Total	120	82	23	15	27

Table 2. Combined results of full and mini-DNA barcoding for fish fillets tested in this study (n = 120). Values are displayed as the number count.

^aRefers to samples with species substitution or unacceptable market name

^bEight of these samples were identified to the species level with the CR mini-barcode

Sample IDCategoryP029Bass		Product name on Product placard ^a description on label ^a		Expected species	Price paid (US \$/kg)	Identified species	
		Seabass (Patagonian toothfish)	Seabass (Patagonian Tooth Fish)	Patagonian toothfish (Dissostichus eleginoides)	88.18	Antarctic toothfish (Dissostichus mawsoni)	
Porti		Seabass Chilean Portions Minimum 5 oz Previously Frozen Minimum 5 oz Previously Frozen		DeaseAntarctic toothfishions(Dissostichus mawsoni) orimum 5 ozPatagonian toothfish		Swordfish (<i>Xiphias</i> gladius)	
P001	Cod	Fresh Wild Caught Pacific Cod Fillets	True Cod Fillet Fresh	Pacific cod (Gadus microcephalus)	30.86	Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua)	
P031	Cod	Pacific Cod	Pacific Cod Fillet	Pacific cod (Gadus microcephalus)	33.07	Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua)	
P063	Cod	Rock Cod Fillet	Fillet of Rock Cod	Rock cod (Lotella rhacina or Pseudophycis barbata)	8.82	Redbanded rockfish (Sebastes babcocki)	
P061	Halibut	Fresh Halibut Steak	Halibut Steak	Atlantic halibut (<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>) or Pacific halibut	15.42	California flounder (<i>Paralichthys</i> californicus)	
P065	Halibut	Halibut Steak	Halibut Steak	(Hippoglossus stenolepis) Atlantic halibut (Hippoglossus hippoglossus) or Pacific halibut	15.43	California flounder (<i>Paralichthys</i> <i>californicus</i>)	
P069	Halibut	Halibut Steak	Halibut Steak	(Hippoglossus stenolepis) Atlantic halibut (Hippoglossus hippoglossus) or Pacific halibut (Hippoglossus stanolonis)	24.25	California flounder (<i>Paralichthys</i> californicus)	
P099	Halibut	Fresh Central Pacific Halibut Fillet	Fresh Central Pacific Halibut Fillet	(Hippoglossus stenolepis) Pacific halibut (Hippoglossus stenolepis)	61.73	California flounder (<i>Paralichthys</i> californicus)	
P047	Pangasius	Frozen Red Swai Fillet	Frozen Red Swai Fillet	Sutchi catfish (Pangasianodon hypophthalmus)	8.82	Blue-spotted stingray (Neotrygon kuhlii)	

Table 3. Instances of species substitution detected in this study (n = 16)

P019	Snapper	Red Snapper Fillet	Whole Clean Red Snapper Fresh/Wild	Red snapper (<i>Lutjanus campechanus</i>)	13.19	Blackspotted rockfish (Sebastes melanostictus)
P117	Snapper	N/A (no placard)	Fresh Red Snapper Sashimi	Red snapper (<i>Lutjanus</i> campechanus)	132.28	Madai (Pagrus major)
P118	Snapper	N/A (no placard)	Premium Red Snapper	Red snapper (<i>Lutjanus campechanus</i>)	154.32	Madai (Pagrus major)
P074	Tuna	Yellowfin Ahi Tuna Steak Previously Frozen	Tuna Yellow Fin/Ahi Steak Skin-Off Previously Frozen - CO	Yellowfin tuna (<i>Thunnus albacares</i>)	22.05	Southern bluefin tuna (<i>Thunnus maccoyii</i>)
P035	Yellowtail	N/A (no placard)	Sushi Yellowtail	Yellowtail (Seriola lalandi)	55.12	Buri (Seriola quinqueradiata)
P104	Yellowtail	N/A (no placard)	Yellowtail Kirimi	Yellowtail (Seriola lalandi)	30.86	Buri (Seriola quinqueradiata)

^aCOOL information not included unless part of product name

Sample ID	Category	Product name on placard	Product description on label	Identified species (common name and scientific name)	Acceptable market name(s) other than the common name	Comments	
P085	Cod	N/A (no product name on placard)	Fresh Lind Cod	Pacific cod (Gadus macrocephalus)/ Arctic cod (Boreogadus saida)/ Greenland cod (Gadus ogac) ^a	Cod or Alaska cod (for Pacific cod)	Possible misspelling of "ling cod", a vernacular name for <i>Molva molva</i>	
P103	Cod	N/A (no placard)	Black Cod Kirimi	Sablefish (Anoplopoma fimbria)	Sablefish	Black cod is a vernacular name for sablefish	
P013	Pangasius N/A (no Swai Basa placard) Fillet			Sutchi catfish (Pangasianodon hypophthalmus) ^b / Pangasius bocourti ^e /Pangasius krempfi ^e /Pangasius djambal ^{ac}	Swai or Sutchi or Striped Pangasius or Tra/Basa	Swai and Basa refer to two separate species	
P039	Pangasius Basa Fish Red Fish Bas Fillet Fillet S/C		Red Fish Basa Fillet S/C	Sutchi catfish (Pangasianodon hypophthalmus) ^b / Pangasius bocourti ^e /Pangasius krempfi ^e /Pangasius djambal ^{ac}	Swai or Sutchi or Striped Pangasius or Tra/Basa	"Red fish" and basa refer to different species	
P092	Rockfish/Snapper	Fresh Pacific Snapper Filet	Pacific Rockfish Fillet Wild-Fresh	Widow rockfish (Sebastes entomelas)	Rockfish, Pacific Red Snapper ^d	"Rockfish" and "Pacific snapper" refer to different species	

Table 4. Samples found to have unacceptable market names (n = 11) according to the FDA *Seafood List*. Note: FDA recommends using the common name as the market name unless prohibited by regulation or law.

P107	Rockfish/Snapper	Fresh Rockfish Red Snapper	Rock Fish Fillets	Darkblotched rockfish (Sebastes crameri)/ Northern rockfish (Sebastes polyspinis)/ Yellowmouth rockfish (Sebastes reedi)/ Vermilion rockfish (Sebastes miniatus) ^a	Rockfish, Pacific Red Snapper ^d	"Rockfish" and "Red snapper" refer to different species
P020	Salmon	Salmon Fillet	Fresh Salmon Fillet	Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)	Salmon, Atlantic	"Atlantic" must be specified
P033	Salmon	N/A (no placard)	Salmon	Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)	Salmon, Atlantic	"Atlantic" must be specified
P040	Salmon	Salmon Fillet	Salmon Fish Fillet S/C	Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)	Salmon, Atlantic	"Atlantic" must be specified
P045	Salmon	Fresh Salmon Fish Fillet	Fresh Salmon Fish Fillet	Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)	Salmon, Atlantic	"Atlantic" must be specified
P050	Salmon	Salmon Fillet Skin On	Salmon Fillet Skin On	Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)	Salmon, Atlantic	"Atlantic" must be specified

^aBOLD showed equivalent top matches to all species listed. ^bAlthough the common name for *P. hypophthalmus* is Sutchi catfish, non-Ictaluridae members of the Siluriformes (catfish) order, cannot legally use the term "catfish" in their market name (section 403(t) of the FD&C Act (21 U.S.C. 343(t)).

"The FDA Seafood List does not have records for the following species: Pangasius bocourti, Pangasius krempfi, Pangasius djambal, and Pseudocrenilabrus multicolor.

^dPacific Red Snapper is considered a vernacular name when used in interstate commerce, but it is an acceptable market name in California (California Code of Regulations §103)

Category	Samples	COOL	Country o	f origin decl	aration	Product	ion method d	eclaration
	collected	non- compliant samples	Domestic (USA)	Imported	Not Stated or Unclear	Wild	Farmed	Not Stated or Unclear
Bass	7	3	0	4	Unspecified: "Korea" or "Korean" (2) Not stated (1)	6	0	Not stated (1)
Catfish	10	3	7	1	Contradictory information (1) Not stated (1)	1	8	Not stated (1)
Cod	10	0	6	4	0	10	0	0
Halibut	10	2	6	2	Contradictory information (2)	10	0	0
Mahi-mahi	6	3	0	4	Not stated (2)	3	1	Not stated (1) Unclear wording: "Born, Raised, Harvested China" (1)
Pangasius	10	2	1	7	Not stated (2)	1ª	10 ^a	0
Rockfish	6	0	2	4	0	6	0	0
Rockfish/ Snapper	2	0	1	1	0	2	0	0
Salmon	10	3	0	9	Not stated (1)	1	7	Not stated (2)

Table 5. Summary of COOL noncompliance for the fish samples collected in this study. Values are given as the number count.

Total	120	28	40	63	19	69	39	13
Yellowtail	4	1	0	3	Contradictory information (1) Not stated (1)	2	1	Not stated (1)
Trout Tuna	2 10	0 5	2 3 ^b	0 6 ^b	0 Not compliant: "Tahiti" (1)	0 7	2 0	0 Not stated (3)
Tilapia	10	2	0	9	Not stated (1)	0	9	Unclear wording: "BRN,RAISD&HAR VST CHINA" (1)
Sole Swordfish	10 10	1 2	9 3 ^b	0 7 ^b	Not stated (1) Contradictory information (1)	10 9	0 0	0 Not stated (1)
Snapper	3	1	0	2	Contradictory information (1)	1	1	Contradictory: "Farm Raised" on placard and "Wild" on label (1)

^aOne sample of Pangasius listed both farm raised and wild caught as the production method. This sample was considered to be COOL compliant due to the possibility of a commingled commodity (7 CFR §60). ^bOne sample of swordfish and one sample of tuna listed USA, Mexico, and Canada as the countries of origin. These samples were considered to be

COOL compliant due to the possibility of a commingled commodity (7 CFR §60).



Figure 1. Examples of COOL compliant sticker labels (a-b) and seafood counter placards (c-d) on individually packaged products. Store names have been redacted from labels.



Figure 2. Examples of (a) COOL non-compliant sticker (invalid country name) on an individually packaged product (b) COOL non-compliant placard (unclear wording regarding production method) at the seafood counter (c) COOL non-compliant placard (no country or production method) at the seafood counter (d) COOL non-compliant sticker (no country or production method) on an individually packaged product