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Abstract: Based on a case study concerning mussel products suspected to be mislabelled, this work wants to highlight the difficulties encountered in their molecular identification and propose new strategies for solving these issues. In November 2019, the FishLab (Department of Veterinary Sciences) was consulted by a wholesaler for identifying products labelled as "Chilean mussels" (*Mytilus chilensis*). The batch had been molecularly identified first as *M. chilensis* by an external private lab and, subsequently, as *Choromytilus chorus* following a second analysis entrusted to another external lab by the customer company. In this work, the samples could only be identified as *Mytilus* spp by sequencing the mtDNA COI gene. The amplification of the Polyphenolic Adhesive Protein (PAP) gene, a nuclear marker reported as more informative for mussel allowed to suppose the presence of *M. chilensis* and *M. galloprovincialis* based on the length of the obtained fragment. In fact, both the species, which are reported as inhabiting Chilean waters, present the same 123 bp amplicon. The low sequences quality obtained for this short fragment, however, did not allow a discrimination of the aforesaid species as this is based on a single mutation point. Results highlighted that the mtDNA COI gene does not allow the identification possibly due the presence in the genetic databases of erroneous sequences from misidentified specimens. In addition, the mtDNA in inheritance *Mytilus* spp. is unusual, and male and female mtDNA molecules are present in different tissue of male exemplars. The PAP discrimination power is reduced by the high similarity of the informative fragment between some species. In this case, improving the sequencing efficiency, such as applying protocols with oligonucleotide tails and high-fidelity Taq polymerase should be considered. In conclusion, issues in the approach one species-one name, currently adopted by the Italian legislator for mussel species were also underlined.

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Authentication of frozen Chilean blue mussel (*Mytilus chilensis*) commercialized in the town of Osorno, southern Chile, using PCR-RFLP analysis

Research Data Related to this Submission

There are no linked research data sets for this submission. The following reason is given:

Data will be made available on request

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27 **Abstract**

28 Based on a case study concerning mussel products suspected to be mislabelled, this work wants to
29 highlight the difficulties encountered in their molecular identification and propose new strategies
30 for solving these issues. In November 2019, the FishLab (Department of Veterinary Sciences) was
31 consulted by a wholesaler for identifying products labelled as “Chilean mussels” (*Mytilus*
32 *chilensis*). The batch had been molecularly identified first as *M. chilensis* by an external private lab
33 and, subsequently, as *Choromytilus chorus* following a second analysis entrusted to another
34 external lab by the customer company. In this work, the samples could only be identified as *Mytilus*
35 spp by sequencing the mtDNA *COI* gene. The amplification of the Polyphenolic Adhesive Protein
36 (PAP) gene, a nuclear marker reported as more informative for mussel allowed to suppose the
37 presence of *M. chilensis* and *M. galloprovincialis* based on the length of the obtained fragment. In
38 fact, both the species, which are reported as inhabiting Chilean waters, present the same 123 bp
39 amplicon. The low sequences quality obtained for this short fragment, however, did not allow a
40 discrimination of the aforesaid species as this is based on a single mutation point. Results
41 highlighted that the mtDNA *COI* gene does not allow the identification possibly due the presence in
42 the genetic databases of erroneous sequences from misidentified specimens. In addition, the
43 mtDNA inheritance *Mytilus* spp. is unusual, and male and female mtDNA molecules are present
44 in different tissue of male exemplars. The PAP discrimination power is reduced by the high
45 similarity of the informative fragment between some species. In this case, improving the sequencing
46 efficiency, such as applying protocols with oligonucleotide tails and high-fidelity Taq polymerase
47 should be considered. In conclusion, issues in the approach one species-one name, currently
48 adopted by the Italian legislator for mussel species were also underlined.

49

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52 species identification, DNA-based methods

53 1. Introduction

54 Seafood traceability, sustainability and consumers' right to an informed purchase represent three
55 of the main inspiring principles of the European Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) (Tinacci, Giusti,
56 Guardone, Luisi, & Armani, 2019). The Common Organization of the Markets in Fishery and
57 Aquaculture Products, an integral part of the CFP, is based on the Regulation (EU) No 1379/2013.
58 The Article 35, in particular, fixes the mandatory information to be declared on seafood at retail or
59 at the mass caterer, which include the commercial designation of the species and the associated
60 scientific name, as reported on official lists of seafood trade names drawn up and updated by each
61 Member State (Regulation EU No 1379/2013). In the same Regulation DNA-based methods are
62 proposed as valid tools to support the traceability of seafood products in order to deter operators
63 from falsely labelling practices. Intentional and involuntary mislabelling and species substitution
64 are in fact reported as by far the most frequent fraud incidents in seafood products at international
65 level, mainly favoured by the complexity of the seafood supply chain, involving many food-
66 business operators and an extremely wide range of species which are often not sold as whole but
67 prepared and processed (Tinacci et al., 2018; Donlan & Luque, 2019). In addition, difficulties in the
68 correct implementation of Regulation (EU) No 1379/2013 at Italian level have been reported
69 (D'Amico, Armani, Gianfaldoni, & Guidi, 2016; Esposito & Meloni, 2017).

70 To date, numerous diagnostic techniques relying on DNA-based methods have been developed
71 for the identification of seafood species in a variety of product types. Even though the DNA
72 barcoding of a ~655 bp region of the mitochondrial cytochrome c-oxidase I (*COI*) gene (Hebert,
73 Cywinska, Ball, & deWaard, 2003) is among the most applied method for seafood species
74 identification, other mitochondrial molecular markers as well as methods not based on sequencing
75 are used. A recent survey within several EU accredited laboratories, highlighted in fact a significant
76 diversity of approaches and a substantial need of standardization of molecular analysis (Griffiths et
77 al., 2014). In addition, while mitochondrial markers have been proved as efficient for the
78 identification of almost all the fish taxa, their utilization for recognizing other seafood is debated. In

79 this scenario it is of utmost importance that the analytical process is based on a preliminary
80 systematic decision-making approach, aimed at evaluating the most appropriate lab pathways in the
81 light of the features of the samples to be analysed (Tinacci et al., 2018).

82 Difficulties in unambiguously differentiating mussel species of the genus *Mytilus* (Mytilidae
83 family, Bivalvia order), were already highlighted in the 1990s (Toro, Ojeda, Vergara, Castro, &
84 Alcapan, 2005). *Mytilus* spp. exhibits a typical anti-tropical distribution with five species occurring
85 in the Northern Hemisphere (*M. trossulus*, *M. edulis*, *M. galloprovincialis*, *M. californianus* and *M.*
86 *coruscus*) and three in the Southern Hemisphere (*M. chilensis*, *M. galloprovincialis* and *M.*
87 *platensis*) (Gaitán-Espitia, Quintero-Galvis, Mesas, & D'Elía, 2016). Species within this taxon are
88 morphologically similar and difficult to distinguish, replacement of native species by an invasive
89 taxon often occurs and individuals from different *Mytilus* spp. can hybridize in areas where their
90 populations coexist (Zbawicka, Trucco, & Wenne, 2018).

91 Mussel consumption is traditional in Italy, which, together with Spain and France, contributed to
92 78% of the EU total consumption in 2016 (EUMOFA, 2018). More than 90% of the national
93 production takes place in Emilia-Romagna, Veneto, Apulia, Friuli-Venezia-Giulia, Sardinia and
94 Liguria and it is mainly addressed to the Mediterranean mussel (*M. galloprovincialis*). This species,
95 which are mainly sold as fresh to the Italian territory, are however not enough to meet the national
96 consumption demand, imposing imports from other countries. Italy imports of mussels, mainly from
97 Spain and Chile, reached 73.066 tonnes in 2017. In fact, mussels cover about 3/4 of the Spanish
98 aquaculture and Spain is by far the main EU producer and exporter of *M. galloprovincialis*
99 (EUMOFA, 2018). At the international level, Chile has recently become the world's second largest
100 producer and exporter of farmed mussels after China (Avendaño, Cantilláñez, & González, 2017;
101 FAO, 2018). Its production is mainly based on the native blue mussel (*M. chilensis*) (Larraín,
102 Zbawicka, Araneda, Gardner, & Wenne, 2018), although other species are also farmed, such as *M.*
103 *edulis*, *Aulacomya ater* and *Choromytilus chorus* (Avendaño et al., 2017).

104 All the above-mentioned species can therefore be found in products of Chilean origin and cases
105 of species substitution have been reported. Colihueque, Espinoza, & Parraguez (2020) recently
106 highlighted a 50% mislabelling rate in products labelled as *M. chilensis* in which the cholga mussel
107 (*A. ater*) was instead found. Harris, Rosado, & Xavier (2016) detected one clear mislabelling case
108 in a product sold on the Portuguese market as *M. chilensis* and identified as *C. chorus*. However,
109 mislabelling data could be underestimated probably due to the issues in molecular identification of
110 this taxon. In general, for all the invertebrate categories, there are insufficient data to produce useful
111 estimates on mislabelling rate (Donlan & Luque, 2019). In this respect, proper approaches should
112 be implemented in the analysis of this kind of seafood.

113 In November 2019, the FishLab (Department of Veterinary Sciences) was consulted by a local
114 wholesaler for identifying the mussel species in batches/a batch of pre-cooked products labelled as
115 “Chilean mussels” (*M. chilensis*). The batch had been molecularly identified first as *M. chilensis* by
116 an external private lab and, subsequently, as *C. chorus* following a second analysis entrusted to
117 another external lab during the self-monitoring procedure of the customer company. According to
118 the Italian official list of seafood (Ministerial Decree n. 19105 of September the 22nd, 2017) that
119 only includes *M. galloprovincialis*, *M. edulis*, *M. chilensis*, *C. chorus* does not possess an official
120 trade name.

121 Starting from the aforesaid case study, this work wants to highlight the difficulties encountered
122 in species identification in mussels’ products. In addition, the limitations still present in the DNA-
123 based methods and molecular marker until now proposed were also discussed. Finally, issues in the
124 approach one species-one name, currently adopted by the Italian legislator for species closely
125 related by a phylogenetic point and in which the hybridization process could occur, such as mussels,
126 were also underlined.

127 **2. Materials and Methods**

128 ***2.1 Samples acceptance and documents analysis***

129 One plastic bag made of some shelled mussels randomly sampled from the batch of pre-cooked
130 products under examination (RI-19) (Fig. 1a) was received by the FishLab, together with five
131 identical pre-packaged products (PC-1; PC-2; PC-3; PC-4; PC-5) (1 kg each) made of pre-cooked
132 in-shell mussels equally labelled as Chilean mussels – *M. chilensis* (Fig. 1b). All the samples were
133 photographed and registered with an internal code. The reports of the analysis previously conducted
134 on the same batch of samples in private laboratories were also received and analysed. It was found
135 that two different molecular markers (both mitochondrial) had been used by the two laboratories
136 involved: the species *M. chilensis* had been detected by using the *16S ribosomal RNA (16S rRNA)*
137 gene and the species *C. chorus* by using the *COI* gene.

138 **2.2. Molecular identification of the samples**

139 Ten specimens from the batch RI-19 were randomly selected and codified with a progressive
140 number (from RI-19.1 to RI-19.10). For each of the five pre-packaged products 5 specimens were
141 randomly selected and codified with a progressive number (e.g. from PC-1.1 to PC-1.5). Total DNA
142 was extracted with the lab standard method (Armani, Catigliero, Tinacci, Gianfaldoni, & Guidi,
143 2011). The standard *COI* gene barcode fragment was amplified using the primer pair LCO1490 and
144 HCO2198 (Folmer, Black, Hoeh, Lutz, & Vrijenhoek, 1994). In addition, also the polyphenolic
145 adhesive protein gene (PAP) was amplified with the primer pair Me15m-F and Me16m-R (Satto,
146 Gastaldelli, Tosi, Zentilin, Turolla & Arcangeli, 2017). All the samples from which an amplicon of
147 the expected length was obtained were purified with the kit EUROSAP® (Euroclone SPA, Milano)
148 and sent to an external lab for standard Sanger sequencing. The obtained sequences were edited
149 with the software Geneious R7 (Kearse et al., 2012) and analysed using the Basic Local Alignment
150 Search Tool (BLAST) on GenBank (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). For the *COI*
151 sequences, also the Identification System (IDS) on BOLD (Species Level Barcode Records)
152 (http://www.boldsystems.org/index.php/IDS_OpenIdEngine) was used. A top match with a
153 sequence similarity of at least 98% was used to designate potential species identification when
154 using the *COI* gene. For the PAP gene, an identity value of 100% was instead required, since the

155 estimates of inter-species divergence between the sequences available on the online databases were
156 very low (0.029 ± 0.04) (data not shown).

157 **3. Results and discussion**

158 ***3.1 Samples molecular identification***

159 *3.1.1 COI gene.* All the DNA samples from the batch RI-19, except for RI-19.2, and four out of
160 the five DNA samples extracted from each PC product were successfully amplified. Even though,
161 according to the literature, the mitochondrial genes are not suitable for the identification of the
162 species belonging to *Mytilus* spp. (Larraín et al., 2018), the *COI* gene was selected in order to
163 compare the results obtained from our analysis with those previously achieved by the second
164 external laboratory. Contrariwise, the *16SrRNA* (targeted by the first laboratory) was not considered
165 given its even lower inter-species variability degree already observed for these and other species
166 (authors' note). For the *COI* gene, twenty-four PCR products were successfully sequenced. Identity
167 values higher than 98% were obtained with sequences deposited as *M. chilensis*, *M. edulis* and *M.*
168 *galloprovincialis* for almost all the samples, except for 4, where the identification was not achieved
169 even at genus level (identity values lower than 98%) (Table 1). No significant similarity with *C.*
170 *chorus* was found proving that samples from the batch RI-19 were not attributable to this species.
171 However, an identification to species level was not achievable for any sample. This occurrence
172 supported the outcomes by Harris et al. (2016), in which *COI* was equally proved as insufficient to
173 distinguish among various European mussel species, and especially *M. edulis* and *M.*
174 *galloprovincialis* because of mitochondrial introgression occurring between them. In the same
175 study, *C. chorus* was instead identified (Harris et al., 2016), recognizing the *COI* efficiency in
176 mussel inter-genera discrimination, as also reported by Khaksar et al. (2015), in which *M. trossulus*
177 and *C. meridionalis* were successfully discriminated by this marker. The *COI* limit in
178 discriminating among *Mytilus* species may be attributed to several factors. Firstly, it should be
179 noted that the taxonomic uncertainty could be due to the eventual presence of wrongly deposited
180 sequences that affects the reliability of the identification process. In the work of Abbadi et al.,

181 (2015), for example, one fresh specimen morphologically characterized as *M. galloprovincialis*,
182 was then molecularly attributed to *M. chilensis*.

183 Therefore, a preventive screening of the sequences available on public database, that is very
184 time-consuming and was therefore not performed in this study due to time restraints, is therefore
185 recommended (Giusti et al., 2019). In addition, mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) in *Mytilus* spp. is
186 unusual in that it displays doubly uniparental inheritance (DUI), contrary to common uniparental
187 mtDNA inheritance in animals. Distinctly different male and female mtDNA molecules are
188 inherited with females having exclusively female mtDNA and males having both types with the
189 male mtDNA concentrated in the gonadal tissue (Breton, Beaupre, Stewart, Hoeh, & Blier, 2007).
190 The complexity of mtDNA inheritance means that mtDNA markers have not generally been
191 developed for the purposes of species identification (Śmietanka, Zbawicka, Wołowicz, & Wenne,
192 2004). *Mytilus* spp. hybrid zones exist in many places in the world and can extend over hundreds of
193 kilometres (Braby & Somero, 2006). Especially the three species of the Northern hemisphere (*M.*
194 *edulis*, *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. trossulus*) show varying levels of hybridisation wherever they
195 occur sympatrically, and their distribution patterns and hybridisation have been intensively
196 investigated (Michalek, Ventura, & Sanders, 2016). However, cases of hybridizations have been
197 observed worldwide (Gaitán-Espitia et al., 2016) including in Chile, where hybrids of *M. chilensis* x
198 *M. trossulus* and *M. chilensis* x *M. galloprovincialis* were detected (Toro et al., 2005; Larráin, Díaz,
199 Lamas, Vargas, & Araneda, 2012).

200 *3.1.2 PAP gene.* Since nuclear DNA of hybrids and their backcrosses is carried from both
201 ancestral species, the use of nuclear marker has been encouraged by the scientific community for
202 detecting hybridization and introgression events (Michalczyk et al., 2014). Inoue, Waite, Matsuoka,
203 Odo, & Harayama (1995) identified the nuclear PAP gene as an alternative efficient marker to
204 discriminate among the species *M. edulis*, *M. galloprovincialis* and *M. trossulus* that are included in
205 the “*Mytilus edulis* species group”, also known as “*Mytilus edulis* complex” (Hilbish et al., 2000).
206 Inoue et al. (1995) observed that the length of the fragment amplified from the PAP non-repetitive

207 region was specific to each species, allowing to visually identify the species without recourse to
208 sequencing. Hybrids can also be detected by visualizing a double amplification band, each
209 corresponding to the species involved in the hybridization phenomenon. More recently by testing
210 other species belonging to the genus *Mytilus* (Santaclara et al., 2006; Fernández-Tajes et al., 2011;
211 Satto et al. 2017) it has been shown that not all the *Mytilus* species can be discriminated on the basis
212 of the PAP marker length. In fact, the fragments obtained from the species *M. coruscus* has the
213 same length of that obtained for *M. californianus* (~200 bp) and the same happens for *M.*
214 *galloprovincialis*/*M. chilensis* (~120 bp). While for *M. coruscus*/*M. californianus*, that do not share
215 the same distribution area (Sealifebase.org), a co-presence in a same commercial product is
216 improbable and the species identity can be therefore with some certainty deducted from the product
217 origin, the situation concerning *M. chilensis* and *M. galloprovincialis* is more complex, given both
218 the habitat sharing and the hybridization possibility. Despite the above-mentioned limits, the region
219 proposed by Inoue et al. (1995) was additionally analysed in this study due its simplicity and low
220 cost of execution. In fact, it only required the purchase of a couple of primers and the set-up of a
221 standard PCR program of amplification. For all the samples, the amplicon length matched with that
222 of *M. chilensis*/*M. galloprovincialis* (123 bp), with no observed double amplification band. The
223 samples were therefore sequenced in order to identify which of the two species was involved;
224 however, this approach was unsuccessful. In fact, based on the Phred quality score (Ewing et al.
225 1998) the sequences were not considered reliable. Even though repeated many times, the sequences
226 quality was always too low to allow the proper characterization of the species.

227 **3.2 Complexity of *Mytilus* spp. identification: limitations in analytical methods and final** 228 **considerations on mussels labelling**

229 *3.2.1. Limitations in the analytical methods for *Mytilus* spp. identification.* The presented case
230 report highlights that, although the *mtDNA* has been almost set aside since unsuitable for hybrids
231 identification, also the use of a nuclear DNA target is not exempt from troubles, due to its high
232 similarity among species phylogenetically closer. As regards the species *M. chilensis* and *M.*

233 *galloprovincialis*, the ~120 bp PAP marker factually only differs by a single mutation point
234 (Santaclara et al., 2006; Fernández-Tajes et al., 2011; Westfall & Gardner, 2013). Given both this
235 scarce inter-species variability and the shortness of the target fragment, a method based on the
236 sequencing approach must achieve high-quality sequences. In this respect, the use of proper
237 measures for improving the Sanger sequencing efficiency, such as protocols with oligonucleotide
238 tails (Armani et al., 2016) and high-fidelity Taq polymerase can be considered. In fact, this
239 approach represents the gold standard for producing DNA barcodes (Abbati et al., 2017) and even
240 though next generation sequencing technologies, such as pyrosequencing, are available, these
241 cannot easily implement in all labs. Alternatively, a Polymerase Chain Reaction-Restriction
242 Fragment Length Polymorphism (PCR-RFLP) method that allowed the discrimination among the
243 above-mentioned species is available (Santaclara et al., 2006; Fernández-Tajes et al., 2011). The *M.*
244 *galloprovincialis* amplicon contains in fact a single restriction site (that correspond to the single
245 mutation point described above) resulting in fragments of 69 and 57 bp after digestion with the
246 specific restriction enzyme *AciI*, whereas *M. chilensis* has a point mutation that prevent the cut
247 (Santaclara et al., 2006; Fernández-Tajes et al., 2011). To date, this analytical approach seems to be
248 the most suitable for this purpose. However, the application of this method should be supported by
249 the production of a sufficient number of reference sequences from vouchered identified specimens
250 to confirm the efficiency of the method (authors' note). Therefore, in the present study, the PCR-
251 RFLP approach was not considered because of time and costs constrains.

252 3.2.2. *Uncertainties in the taxonomical status of the genus Mytilus and issues in the attribution*
253 *of specie-specific commercial designation.* Currently, the one-species one name approach is
254 internationally advocated as the goal system for ensuring a fair and transparent trade (Lowell,
255 Mustain, Ortenzi, & Warner, 2015; Tinacci et al., 2018). At European level, this approach has been
256 implemented by the Regulation EU No 1379/2013 stating that each EU Member State is delegated
257 to the drafting and updating of official lists reporting the trade names accepted throughout the
258 country for the product commercial designation and the scientific denominations referring to the

259 scientific names reported in the FishBase information system and in the ASFIS database and,
260 exclusively for crustaceans, molluscs, echinoderms and tunicates, Sealifebase and Worms
261 databases. Factually, different trade names are currently attributed to each *Mytilus sp.* whose status
262 is accepted; *M. galloprovincialis* is reported as Mediterranean mussel, *M. edulis* as blue mussel, *M.*
263 *trossulus* as foolish mussel, *M. coruscus* as Far eastern mussel, *M. chilensis* as Chilean mussel, etc.
264 (sealifebase.org) and the Member States, in most of cases, simply translated these trade designations
265 in the country language. In fact, the utilisation of qualifying adjectives referring to the geographical
266 origin, as in the Italian Official list, can improve the recognition of the product by the consumer
267 (Tinacci et al., 2019). Although in the last decades there has been a significant increase in the
268 taxonomic understanding of *Mytilus spp.*, mostly prompted by the analysis of molecular evidence,
269 the taxon distribution is still not completely resolved (Gaitán-Espitia et al., 2016). While this taxon
270 has been studied extensively in the Northern Hemisphere, disagreements remain regarding the
271 number and identity of the species that live in the Southern Hemisphere, especially in South
272 America (Larrain et al. 2017). Some authors have in fact suggested that mussels in the Pacific coast
273 of South America could correspond to a Southern Hemisphere lineage of *M. galloprovincialis*
274 (Hilbish et al., 2000; Gérard, Bierne, Borsa, Chenuil, & Féral, 2008; Westfall & Gardner, 2010;
275 Borsa, Rolland, & Daguin-Thiébaud, 2012; Westfall & Gardner, 2013; Oyarzún, Toro, Cañete, &
276 Gardner, 2016). In particular, it has been assumed that *M. chilensis* is a Southern hemisphere
277 divergent lineage of *M. galloprovincialis* from the Northern hemisphere which was accidentally
278 introduced or deliberately transported for aquaculture practices (Hilbish et al., 2000; Gérard et al.,
279 2008; Westfall & Gardner, 2010; Borsa et al., 2012; Westfall & Gardner, 2013; Oyarzún et al.,
280 2016). Despite of this, the term *M. chilensis* has long been employed on food product labels
281 (Oyarzún et al., 2016; Larraín et al., 2018) and the name is also used in aquaculture production
282 statistics (FAO, 2018).

283 **4 Conclusion**

284 The proposed study confirmed the need of a continuous implementation of molecular methods
285 with a problem solving approach in order to overcome unavoidable limits of the standard analytical
286 procedures, such as the DNA barcoding technique currently used and validated to support official
287 and self-check activities to support an efficient traceability system of fishery products. The accurate
288 interpretation of the analytical results and the adequate choice of the methodological approach
289 assume a pivotal value for the issue of an adequate and objective technical opinion. The reliability
290 of the method is even more important if the results are to be used as acceptable evidence in a court
291 of law (Beltramo et al., 2017). In addition, the availability of a reliable analytical techniques able to
292 discriminate the different mussel species is also useful in the aquaculture sector. In fact, it would
293 avoid the introduction of exotic species in farms where these are absent (Council Regulation (EC)
294 No. 708/2007).

295 Outcomes of this study further support the need to re-considered the nomenclature of this taxon
296 also considering the possible increasing presence of hybrids specimens on both intra and extra
297 Community market. Harmonizing taxonomy in the context of aquaculture production, traceability,
298 labelling and trade of *Mytilus* products is more complex respect to other seafood products (Larraín
299 et al. 2017). Therefore, the approach one species one name should be less stringent for *Mytilus spp.*
300 taking for granted that the product origin is declared as imposed by the European Regulation No.
301 1379/2013.

302 **Figure captions**

303 **Figure 1.** Samples analysed in this study; A: samples from the batch of pre-cooked products
304 under examination; B: two of the samples within the five pre-packaged products made of pre-
305 cooked in-shell mussels.

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Highlights

A case-study involving mussel products sold as “Chilean mussels” is reported.

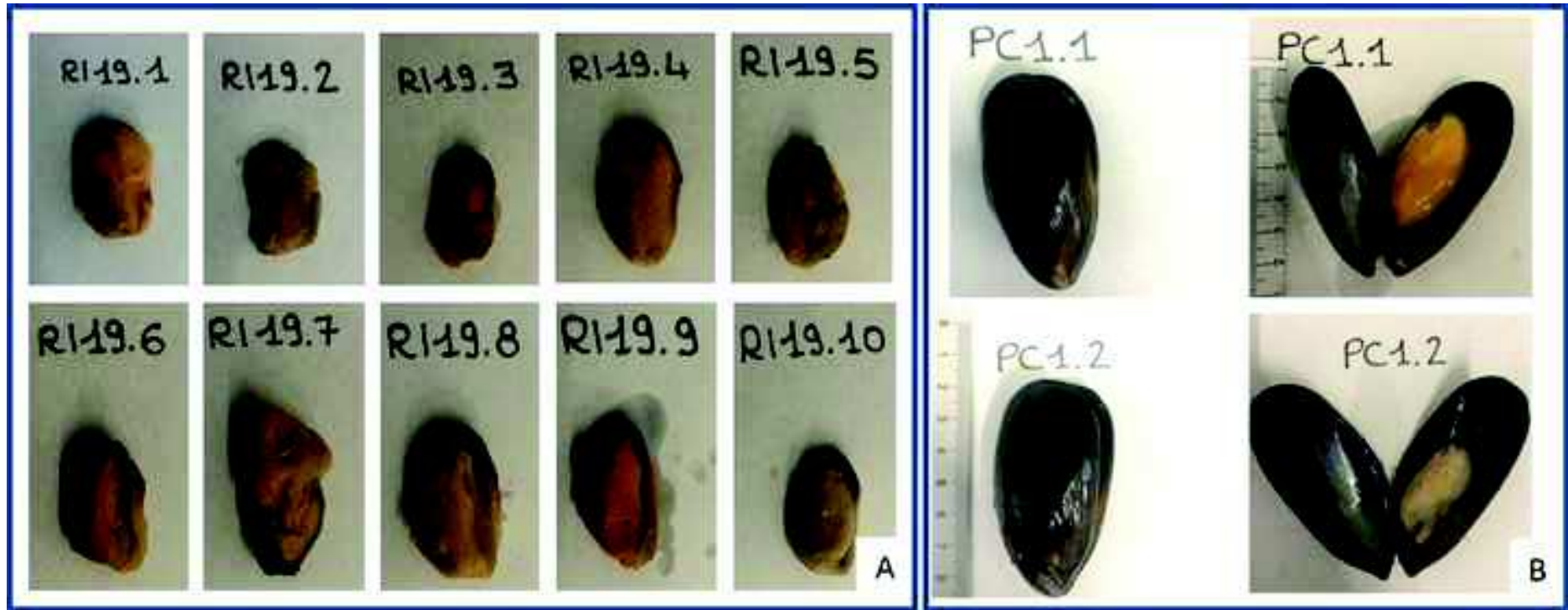
Two DNA targets, mitochondrial (mt) and nuclear, were investigated

Mytilus spp. identification at species level is hindered by biological and technical issues

The approach one species-one name for *Mytilus* spp. labelling needs to be re-assessed

Declarations of interest: none

Figure



Sample code	Identity values	Molecular identification
RI 19.1	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.55-98.67%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.24-99.09%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.22-98.48%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.95% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.87-92.71% <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 92.63%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.3	(1) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 100-98.78%; <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.69-98.78%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.36-97.85%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.07% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.17-99%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.4	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.69-98.65%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 98.79-98.22%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 98.75-98.02% <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.50% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.87-92.71% <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 92.63%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.5	(1) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 100-98.78%; <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.69-98.78%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.36-97.85%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.07% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 92.83-92.67% <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 93.11-92.95%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.6	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 98.43-97.96%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 98.12-97.96%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 98.27-98.11% (2) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 96.19-96.10%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.7	(1) <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 100-97.47%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 100-97.89%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.53-97.33%; <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.53% (2) <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.76-99.17%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.8	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.54-98.92%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.22-98.92%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.38-99.22%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.92% (2) <i>M. edulis</i> 98.92-98.81%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
RI 19.9	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.85-98.81%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.38-98.63 %; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.55-98.81%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.10% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 98.67-98.32% <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 98.35%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.

RI 19.10	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 98.73-97.94%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 98.21-97.46 %; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.18-97.94%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.57% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.07% <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.05%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 1.1	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.70-98.80% <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.38-97.46 % <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.39-98.80% <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.13% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.07% <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.05%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 1.2	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.69-98.65% <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.38-98.63%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.24-98.65%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.95% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.06%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 1.3	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.53-98.37%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.23-98.47%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.95% <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 98.94-98.37% (2) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 92.63-92.47%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 92.56-92.52%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 1.5	(1) <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 100-96.97%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.53-96.97%; <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 98.59% <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 98.18-97.11% (2) <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.24-98.78%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 98-79%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 2.1	(1) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <93.32% (2) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <89.30%	-
PC 2.2	(1) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <93.30% (2) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <89.35%	-
PC 3.1	(1) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <93.30% (2) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <89.35%	-
PC3.2	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.85-98.96%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.53-98.78%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.55-81.90%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.25% (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 92.86-93.70%; <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 92.62%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 3.3	(1)	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.

	<i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 100-99.11%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.69-98.93%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.70-99.11%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.40% (1 seq) (2) <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 93.33-93.18%; <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 93.11%	
PC 4.3	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 97.36-96.32%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 97.24-97.06%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 96.64-96.48%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 96.48% (1seq) (2) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 97.47%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 97.90-97.55%	-
PC 4.5	(1) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <92.36% (2) <i>Mytilus</i> sp. <85.78%	-
PC 5.1	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.85-82.61%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.38-98.63%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.39-98.81%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.10% (2) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 93.03-92.79%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 93.02-92.87%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 5.2	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 100-98.96%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.24-99.09%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.55-98.96%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.25% (2) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 93.11%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 93.18-93.02%	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.
PC 5.3	(1) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 100-99.11%; <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> 99.69-99.38%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.70-98.96%; <i>Mytilus trossulus</i> 99.40% (2) <i>Mytilus chilensis</i> 99.21%; <i>Mytilus edulis</i> 99.23% (2 seq)	<i>Mytilus</i> sp.

Table 1. Samples molecular identification using COI gene. The identity values was reported for the (1) Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) on GenBank (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) and for the (2) Identification System (IDs) on BOLD (Species Level Barcode Records) (http://www.boldsystems.org/index.php/IDS_OpenIdEngine)