

Food Control

DNA Barcoding for the Identification of shark lips (鱼唇): a nationwide survey for analyzing a never investigated product in the Chinese market

--Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Shark food products are extremely popular in China. Fins are especially considered a delicacy, but also other part of the carcass, such as the skin sold as “shark lips”, are consumed. The high fishing pressure has contributed to shark population decreasing, and many species are currently endangered and/or with a strictly regulated commerce. A nationwide survey aimed at authenticating species in shark lips products (鱼唇) (n=252) by full DNA COI barcoding (FDB; 652 bp) is presented. In addition, the efficiency of the FDB and of the mini DNA barcode (MDB; 127 bp) proposed by Fields et al. (2015) (PloS one, 10, e0114844.) in identifying the shark species detected in this study was compared. Despite the manufacturing process, the total DNA of the samples presented a medium low fragmentation degree, and the FDB was obtained from all the samples, which were allocated to species level in 96.4% of the cases. This confirms the importance to perform a preventive evaluation of the level of DNA degradation before selecting cost and time-consuming procedures. Of the 7 identified species, <i>Prionace glauca</i> was the most recovered (65.5%). The other six detected species were <i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (11.5%), <i>Sphyrna lewini</i> (6.7%), <i>S. zygaena</i> (3.6%), <i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> (3.6%), <i>C. longimanus</i> (3.2%) and <i>C. sorrah</i> (2.4%), 5 of which are threatened and 4 are subject to global commerce regulation. Overall, issues in discriminating among some <i>Carcharhinus</i> spp. were highlighted both using the FDB and the MDB. Outcomes of this study confirms the need to improve the Chinese traceability system. In fact, even though a legislation for seafood labelling supported by an official system for name attribution not always ensure the sector safeguarding from frauds, absent or weak traceability system certainly facilitate illegal practices.</p>

Dear Editor,

please find enclosed the manuscript entitled “*DNA Barcoding for the Identification of shark lips (鱼唇): a nationwide survey for analyzing a never investigated product in the Chinese market*” to be considered for publication in Food Control.

Shark food products are extremely popular in China and the growing demand has contributed to shark population decreasing. Shark fins are especially considered a delicacy in Asia, but also other part of the carcass, such as the skin sold as shark lips, are consumed.

DNA barcoding technique facilitates accurate species identification in seafood, and the standard target for DNA barcoding of animal species is generally a ~650 bp region (full DNA barcode – FDB) of the mitochondrial gene coding for cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI). However, mini DNA barcodes (MDB) can be used in processed products with highly degraded DNA.

We present a nationwide survey aimed at authenticating species in 252 shark lips products labelled as *yu chun* (鱼唇) marketed in 31 cities across China by DNA barcoding approach targeting the FDB. In addition, the discriminatory ability of the FDB and MDB proposed by Fields et al. (2015) in identifying the detected shark species, was compared.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first surveys investigating shark products in mainland China and the first analysing shark lips at global level.

The total DNA of the samples presented a medium low fragmentation degree, and the FDB was obtained from all the samples, which were allocated to species level in 96.4% of the cases. *Prionace glauca* was the most recovered (65.5%). The other six detected species were *Carcharhinus falciformis* (11.5%), *Sphyrna lewini* (6.7%), *S. zygaena* (3.6%), *Isurus oxyrinchus* (3.6%), *C. longimanus* (3.2%) and *C. sorrah* (2.4%), 5 of which are threatened and 4 are subject to global commerce regulation. Both FDB and MDB were proved efficient in discriminating the detected shark species, with some limits related to some *Carcharhinus* spp.

Other than shed a light on a never investigated shark food product, outcomes from this study can contribute to improve the selection of a suitable analytical method for monitoring the illegal traffic of sharks. Moreover, the need to improve the Chinese traceability system was highlighted.

Best Regards,

Jing Wen

Dear Editor, we are sending you back the revised version of the manuscript entitled "***DNA Barcoding for the Identification of shark lips (鱼唇): a nationwide survey for analyzing a never investigated product in the Chinese market***". The manuscript has been improved according to the reviewers' suggestions.

We thank the reviewers for their useful comments.

Reviewers' comments:

Reviewer #1: The manuscript deals with a nationwide survey for authenticating species in shark lips products by DNA barcoding targeting COI gene. The objective and design of this study is clear and was satisfactorily carried out. The introduction and methods are written nicely with precise language and format.

Minor comments:

The abstract is too long. Please shorten it.

The abstract was shortened (250 words)

Methods:

Add the cat number of all used reagents.

Done

It is unnecessary to mention some references in the methods part such as "Barbuto et al., 2010" in line 159.

In our opinion these references are necessary to support the identity thresholds used in the study.

Line 130, 168 & 335: Subtitles are so long. Shorten them without upsetting the meaning.

Line 130: the subtitle has been modified. A dedicated subsection to the COI amplification and sequencing has been produced.

Line 168: the subtitle has been shortened as requested.

Line 335: the subtitle has been shortened as requested.

Results and discussion: Some ideas are not clear. Please separate results from the discussion part.

Dear Editor, we have gone throughout the entire manuscript trying to solve eventual issues due to lack of clarity. However, also considering the comments of the other 2 reviewers, we prefer to maintain the original version in which Results and Discussion are presented together. We hope you understand our choice.

Also shorten the Caption of figure and tables. You can add symbols for each province instead of its full name (i.e. the first 1 or 2 letters of its name). You can also write these symbols (with

mentioning in the text) on the figure itself instead of numbers. OR remove the name of the province from the caption. Adding it in the text only.

We think that the figure 2 caption should be maintained in the current form as all the reported information are informative. We also think that changing the full province name with symbols may result less intuitive for the reader. The Tables caption were shortened as suggested by the reviewer.

Legend of table 1: Change it to: Shark species included in the Appendix II of the CITES with their IUCN relative conservation status. "Critically endangered; endangered & vulnerable": These can be added in the specified place in the table itself.

Done

Table 4: The same.

Table 4 was not amended as requested because it was impossible according to the lay-out and organization of the Table.

Reviewer #2: This manuscript describes DNA barcoding used to identify shark lips sold on the Chinese market. The manuscript is novel, well-organized and clear. The material and method section is clear and detailed, a large number of samples from 31 cities were collected. The authors did a good job of nationwide survey and comparison on efficiency of FDB and MDB. I am recommending only minor revisions prior to publication.

Line 60: "The trend of globally trading of shark meat reached 42% from 2000 to 2011", increased from?% to 42% from 2000 to 2011?

As highlighted by the reviewer, the term "reached" was not appropriate. The sentence was modified.

Line 231: "For the remain MDB (sample JN16), the nearest match was with *Sphyrna lewini*, .but the homology score was too low (97.62%) to allow species identification." Table 4, JN16 identified as *S. lewini* or *S. zygaena* by BLAST and identified as *S. lewini* by BOLD, add the Identity (%).

Done

Reviewer #3: In the MS, the authors performed molecular identification of the species used in 252 shark lips products sampled from 31 cities across China. Since shark lips are heavily processed products, the authors, first, evaluated quality and fragmentation of the DNA extracted. Then, standard DNA barcoding region of the mitochondrial COI gene (~650 bp region full DNA barcode - FDB) was generated and, in case of amplification failure, a shorter length COI barcode (~127 bp mini-DNA barcode - MDB) was generated using the internal reverse primer Shark COI-MINIR described by Fields et al. (2015). The discriminatory ability at species level of the FDB and MDB was compared. Results showed that, even if shark lips are heavily processed products, the full barcode was successfully generated from almost all the samples (99.2%) and only in two cases the minibarcode was instead needed. Moreover, the identification at species level was possible in the 96.4% of the cases. Problems of

discrimination at species level were reported for *Carcharhinus* spp. and *Prionace glauca* was the most recovered species. Moreover, most of the detected species were threatened.

The manuscript is generally clearly written. The experimental design and data analyses are adequate and the results are well discussed in comparison to the literature available. Overall, the MS deserves to be published after some minor revisions.

Minibarcodes were generated only from two samples (failing the sequencing of the full barcode FDB) (lines 190-192). However, the abstract (lines 35-36) reported different information FDB was obtained from all the samples. Please verify.

The abstract has been modified accordingly.

The percentages of success of discrimination at species or genus level need to be checked. Based on the abstract lines 35-36, the FDB were generated for all samples (252) with 96.4% assigned at species level. However, in lines 202-203 the percentage 96.4 (same of the abstract) was calculated including all the molecular data generated (250 FDB + 2MDB). The percentage of FDB was instead reported in line 204 '97.2% (243 out of 250 sequenced FDB) species identification rate'. Moreover, seems that the 2 sequences generated by MDB aren't counted in the percentage of success reported in line 246 (94%). However, in terms of power of discrimination of MDB you should include all the sequences (250 FDB trimmed + 2 MDB generated). So, please check the percentage and organize the results based on three different points of view: i) the samples (252), ii) the FDB (250) iii) the MDB (250 FDB trimmed + 2 MDB generated).

The percentage of identification success now reported in line 262 has been modified accordingly.

Lines 153-157: The sentence isn't clear. What do you mean? Please try to be more precise.

The sentence was modified.

The MDB in-silico analysis it is very interesting but it wasn't described in the M&M.

A specific section as regard the in-silico analysis have been now added in the M&M.

Please, include this part. Results from MDB in-silico analysis could be easily compared to FDB including a new column in Table 4.

We reported in the manuscript that 94% of the samples were identified at species level and in these cases the ID percentage was similar or identical to that of the FDB. We therefore think that this additional info may be omitted.

One useful information for the readers is absent in MDB in-silico analysis: Are the internal reverse primer Shark COI-MINIR fully conserved in your data? Are mismatches present in this region in the multialignment?

Done. The primer matching was assessed and discussed (lines 255-260).

Lines 234-235 and 244-246: Move the sentences in M&M. In results & discussions clarify that this is an in-silico analysis.

Done

Lines 247-248: What is the meaning of 'similar homologies'? 'in particular, *P. glauca*, *C. falciformis*, *S. lewini*, *S. zygaena*, *I. oxyrinchus* and *C. sorrah* were detected with similar homologies observed for FDB'

This is linked with the fact that the authors used in MS the term homology as synonymous of similarity/identity. This is absolutely wrong. Homology is qualitative concept and you cannot report the results from a blast search in terms of '% of homology'. Similarity and identity are synonymous and quantitative measures. The homology is another concept. In other fields of research, value of similarity is used to infer homology among genes but homologous genes can also have low level of similarity. I saw that some papers you cited made the same mistake using homology instead of similarity. However, even if this erroneous use of terms doesn't affect the experiment, it isn't a good idea to continue to widespread errors. Please, change the term homology with similarity/identity in the MS.

Thank you for this useful comment. The term homology has been replaced with identity all over the manuscript.

Lines 180-181: Please explain better the concept of complementary of FDB and MDB.

The term means that both methods must be used together to fully resolve the identification at species level. However, the sentence has been modified.

Lines 220-222: Can you better explain the meaning of the sentence?

The sentence has been modified.

Line 286: please check the number reported in %

The sentence has been verified according to Fields et al., 2018.

1 **DNA Barcoding for the Identification of shark lips (鱼唇): a nationwide survey for**
2 **analyzing a never investigated product in the Chinese market.**

3

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 ~~Shark food products are extremely popular in China. Fins are especially considered a delicacy,~~
28 ~~but also other part of the carcass, such as the skin sold as “shark lips”, are consumed. The high~~
29 ~~fishing pressure has contributed to shark population decreasing, and many species are currently~~
30 ~~endangered and/or with a strictly regulated commerce.~~ A nationwide survey conducted in China
31 aimed at authenticating species in shark lips products (鱼唇) (n=252) by full DNA *COI* barcoding
32 (FDB; 652 bp) is presented. In addition, the efficiency of the FDB and of the mini DNA barcode
33 (MDB; 127 bp) proposed by Fields et al. (2015) (PloS one, 10, e0114844.) in identifying the shark
34 species detected in this study was compared. Despite the manufacturing process, the total DNA of
35 the samples presented a medium low fragmentation degree, and the FDB was obtained from almost
36 all the samples except for two (99.2%) from which the MDB was instead successfully obtained.
37 ~~from all the s~~ Samples, ~~which~~ were allocated to species level in 96.4% of the cases. This confirms
38 the importance to perform a preventive evaluation of the level of DNA degradation before selecting
39 cost and time-consuming procedures. Of the 7 identified species, *Prionace glauca* was the most
40 recovered (65.5%). The other six detected species were *Carcharhinus falciformis* (11.5%), *Sphyrna*
41 *lewini* (6.7%), *S. zygaena* (3.6%), *Isurus oxyrinchus* (3.6%), *C. longimanus* (3.2%) and *C. sorrah*
42 (2.4%), 5 of which are threatened and 4 are subject to global commerce regulation. Overall, issues
43 in discriminating among some *Carcharhinus* spp. were highlighted both using the FDB and the
44 MDB. Outcomes of this study confirms the need to improve the Chinese traceability system. In fact,
45 even though a legislation for seafood labelling supported by an official system for name attribution
46 not always ensure the sector safeguarding from frauds, absent or weak traceability system certainly
47 facilitate illegal practices.

48
49 **Keywords:** Shark food products, DNA barcoding, *Prionace glauca*, *Carcharhinus* spp., *Sphyrna*
50 spp., labelling system, fraudulent substitution
51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 In the last decades, mainly due to the large-scale growth in Asian economies and with increased
54 standards of living in China, the shark fisheries expanded considerably (Erikson & Clarke, 2015)
55 and China accounts for over 80% of the world's shark trade (Chuang, Hung, Chang, Huang, &
56 Shiao, 2016). The Chinese growing demand has been a driving force for the global fishing pressure
57 increasing, which has contributed to shark population decreasing and collapsing world-wide
58 (Erikson & Clarke, 2015). The trend of global~~ly~~ trading of shark meat ~~reached~~increased 42% from
59 2000 to 2011 (FAO, 2015; Almerón -Souza et al., 2018). Characterized by a life history of slow
60 growth, late maturity, low fecundity, and low population resilience to overfishing, sharks are in fact
61 extremely vulnerable to overexploitation, that is probably the dominant driver of population declines
62 (Graham, Spalding, & Sheppard, 2010; Dulvy et al., 2014). Consequently, many populations of
63 sharks are considered threatened or endangered by both targeted and incidental catches (Erikson &
64 Clarke, 2015). According to the most recent systematic analysis performed by the International
65 Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Shark Specialist Group (SSG), 74 of the 465 (15.9%)
66 shark species included in the IUCN Red List are threatened (Dulvy et al., 2014).

67 For partially facing this issue, parties to the Convention on International Trade in Endangered
68 Species (CITES) included in the Appendix II of the Convention several shark species (Table 1) that,
69 although not necessarily endangered, factually could be threatened without a strictly regulated
70 commerce. Basically, the international trade may be authorized by the granting of an export permit
71 or re-export certificate and they should only be granted if the relevant authorities are satisfied that
72 certain conditions are met, above all that trade will not be detrimental to the survival of the species
73 in the wild (<https://www.cites.org/>). Moreover, a network of Regional Fishery Management
74 Organizations (RFMOs) handles with varying degrees of legal competence for setting limits on
75 fishing for sharks (<https://www.iucnssg.org/rfmos.html>). Nevertheless, these actions' regulatory

76 effects have been minimal, partly due to the difficulty in identifying a species and its origin (Chuang
77 et al., 2016).

78 To overcome these challenges, several DNA-based analyses have been developed for the
79 identification of shark species (Dudgeon et al., 2012; But, Wu, Shao, & Shaw, 2020). Among the
80 other, the DNA barcoding technique facilitates a rapid and accurate species identification, which is
81 essential for enforcing regulations (Chuang et al., 2016). The standard target for DNA barcoding of
82 animal species is generally a ~650 bp region (full DNA barcode – FDB) of the mitochondrial gene
83 coding for cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (*COI*) (Hebert, Ratnasingham, & De Waard, 2003). Even
84 though this method can be successfully used for the identification of fresh products, it has shown
85 some weaknesses in the case of processed seafood products; the DNA degradation that occurs during
86 processing can in fact hamper the amplification of FDB from processed shark products (Fields,
87 Abercrombie, Eng, Feldheim, & Chapman, 2015). Therefore, also shorter length *COI* barcodes
88 (mini-DNA barcode – MDB) of variable lengths were used (Table 2). Scientific studies dealing with
89 identification of shark species in food products by DNA-barcoding (Table 2) often highlighted the
90 illegal presence of species listed in the CITES appendices or considered near-threatened, vulnerable
91 or endangered according to the IUCN Red List. Moreover, the presence of mislabelled or potentially
92 mislabelled shark products is reported, and especially refers to illegal practices of using cheaper
93 species to replace more popular ones, or even selling threatened species (Marchetti et al., 2020).

94 The most valuable part of the shark carcass are fins, that are one of the most expensive seafood
95 items in the world (<https://theseanpost.com/article/malaysias-appetite-shark-fin>), especially
96 considered a delicacy in different parts of Asia (Lehr, 2015; Iloulian, 2016; Thomas, 2019).
97 However, other part as meat, cartilage, liver oil, and skin are used for human consumption. Even
98 though the most part of the shark skin is used as leather, those from frozen or chilled shark carcasses
99 intended for human consumption is usually so damaged that it is unsuitable for leather factoring.
100 Therefore, skin is used as food product after a process that involves the removing of the denticles

101 from the dried skin followed by bleaching with hydrogen peroxide and re-drying before marketing.
102 Cooked skin (rehydrated before cooking) is soft, smooth, and juicy and it is sold in Singapore and
103 Malaysia under the name fish lips (Vannuccini, 1999). In East and South-East Asia, they are
104 traditionally known as “shark lips” (Vannuccini, 1999; Lehr, 2015). Shark skin, as other fish parts
105 rich in gelatine, is also processed into gelatinous food products. In a small mountainous part of
106 Northern Japan there seems to be a tradition to eat shark aspic (“Nikogori”) for new year celebration
107 (Lehr, 2015). In China, shark lips are labelled as *yu chun* (鱼唇) and they are among the top sea
108 treasures used to prepare valuable dishes at superior banquets (Vannuccini, 1999). Surprisingly,
109 despite the popularity that shark food products have in China, only one study was conducted to
110 investigate species composition in gill plates in the Chinese mainland (Steinke et al., 2017 in Table
111 2). Moreover, to the best of our knowledge, no surveys aimed at identifying species in shark lips
112 have been performed yet (Table 2). We therefore present a nationwide survey aimed at
113 authenticating species in shark lips products labelled as *yu chun* (鱼唇) marketed in 31 cities across
114 China by DNA barcoding approach targeting the FDB. In addition, the discriminatory ability of the
115 FDB and MDB proposed by Fields et al. (2015) in identifying the detected shark species, was
116 compared. Other than shed a light on a never investigated shark food product, outcomes from this
117 study can contribute to improve the selection of a suitable analytical method for monitoring the
118 illegal traffic of sharks.

119 **2. Materials and Methods**

120 **2.1. Sampling**

121 A total of 252 dried shark lip products (Table 3; Figure 1) were purchased from seafood shops in
122 31 cities belonging to 22 provinces, 5 autonomous regions and 4 municipalities (Figure 2). At least
123 6 products per city were collected. The samples were collected when reporting the Chinese terms
124 鱼唇-*yuchun* (shark’s lip in English) on the label or on an information sign next to the product. The

125 sampling was conducted to include a proportional number of products per price, according to the
126 market availability.

127 **2.2. Total DNA extraction, evaluation of DNA quality and fragmentation, *COI*-gene** 128 **~~amplification and sequencing~~**

129 Total DNA extraction was performed from 30 mg of tissue using the TIANamp Marine Animals
130 DNA Kit (TIANGEN, China, [Cat. no. DP324](#)) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA
131 concentration and quality were evaluated using a U-1800 spectrophotometer (Hitachi, Japan). One
132 thousand ng of the total DNA extracted from each sample were run on 1% agarose gel previously
133 and visualized under UV light. The degree of DNA fragmentation was assessed by comparison the
134 DL2000 DNA marker (TaKaRa, Japan, [Cat no. 3452](#)).

135 **2.3. *COI* gene amplification and sequencing**

136 The primer pairs FishF1 and FishR1, FishF2 and FishR2 (Ward et al., 2005) were used
137 alternatively for the amplification of the FDB (652 bp without primers). PCR amplification was
138 performed using 100 ng of template DNA and 50 μ L master mix containing 2 μ L each primer (10
139 μ mol/L), 5 μ L of 10 \times Ex Taq buffer (20 mmol/L Mg²⁺ plus), 4 μ L dNTP mixture (2.5 mmol/L each,
140 TaKaRa, Japan, [Cat no. 4030](#)), and 0.25 μ L Ex Taq DNA polymerase (2 U/ μ L) (TaKaRa, Japan,
141 [Cat no. RR001](#)). PCR was carried out in a C1000 touch thermal cycler (Bio-Rad, USA).
142 Amplification conditions included a denaturing step at 94 °C for 2 min, 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C
143 for denaturation, 30 s at 52 °C for annealing, 1 min at 72 °C for extension, and a final extension at
144 72 °C for 10 min. In case of amplification failure, the forward primer FishF2 by Ward et al. (2005)
145 was used with the reverse primer Shark COI-MINIR (5'-AAGATTACAAAAGCGTGGGC-3')
146 projected by Fields et al. (2015) for the amplification of the MDB region (127 bp). Amplification
147 conditions included a denaturing step at 95 °C for 15 min, 35 cycles of 1 min at 94 °C for
148 denaturation, 30 s at 52 °C for annealing, 2 min at 72 °C for extension, and a final extension at 72
149 °C for 5 min. The presence of the expected amplicon and the final concentration were verified by

150 comparison with the DL2000 DNA marker (TaKaRa, Japan, [Cat no. 3452](#)). PCR products
151 purification, sequencing and sequence editing were performed according to Zeng et al. (2019).

152 **2.4.3. Sequences comparison with genetic databases and species identification**

153 The sequences were queried [against the reference sequences available on GenBank](#)
154 [\(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) and Barcode of Life Data system (BOLD) using the algorithms by
155 Basic Local Analysis Search Tool (BLAST) and ~~by the~~ BOLD Identification System (ID's)
156 (Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2007) ~~against the reference sequences available on GenBank~~
157 ~~(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) and Barcode of Life Data system (BOLD)~~
158 [\(http://www.boldsystems.org/\)](http://www.boldsystems.org/), respectively. In both the databases, the similarity scores of the top
159 100 matches were considered. For the FDB, a match with a sequence similarity of at least 98 was
160 used to designate potential species identification (Barbuto et al., 2010). The sample identification
161 was considered achieved only when both databases produced specie-specific identity value higher
162 than the proposed threshold value. Given the short length of the MDB (127 bp), a species level
163 identification was only achieved when the highest match on BLAST and BOLD ID's was the same,
164 exclusive to a single species and with >99% ~~homology identity~~ score (query coverage 99-100%),
165 according to Hobbs et al. (2019). The shark products identified through databases comparison were
166 analysed based on their average price and sampling site, and the IUCN and CITES status of the
167 recovered species was evaluated.

168 **2.5. In-silico analysis for assessing the MDB species discrimination ability**

169 An in-silico analysis aimed at evaluating the MDB species discrimination ability for all the
170 samples analysed in this study was performed. The analysis was performed on the MDB proposed
171 by Fields et al. (2015), All the obtained FDB (n=250) were trimmed to obtain the 127 bp MDB
172 (Fields et al., 2015), which was then compared with both GenBank and BOLD databases as reported
173 in section 2.4.

174 **3. Results and discussion**

175 **3.1 Total DNA extraction, ~~evaluation of DNA quality and fragmentation~~, assessment and**
176 ***COI* gene amplification and sequencing**

177 Chemical-physical treatments used to produce shark food products such as dried fins, soups,
178 cartilage pills, often results in a high DNA fragmentation (fragments <500 bp) (Fields et al., 2015;
179 Hellberg et al., 2019; Hobbs et al., 2019; Muttaqin et al., 2019). Therefore, alternative primers for
180 the amplification of shorter barcodes were used (Wainwright et al., 2018; Muttaqin et al., 2019;
181 Abdullah et al., 2020). Fields et al. (2015) developed a mini-barcode *COI* assay that yielded a truly
182 short (~110–130 bp) sequence specifically from degraded shark products. To date, this MDB
183 approach was applied by Hellberg et al. (2019) and Hobbs et al. (2019) for species identification in
184 processed shark products sold in USA and UK, while Zahn, Silva, & Hellberg (2020) recently used
185 the MDB region to develop a MDB protocol for the identification of elasmobranch species in shark
186 cartilage pills, which was tested and validated on samples from another previous study (Hellberg et
187 al., 2019). Hellberg et al. (2019) proved that FDB and MDB are complementary can be used in
188 association ... in their ability to identify ~~of~~ processed shark products so that a combination of these
189 approaches was suggested. Considering that shark lips undergo a process involving a chemical
190 “bleaching” (Vannuccini, 1999), we decided to assess the level of degradation of the total DNA
191 before selecting the best molecular marker (FDB or MDB). In fact, MDB was already reported as
192 not able to discriminate some shark species in previous work (see section 3.2). This simple
193 preliminary evaluation step could allow to speed up and reduce the cost of the analysis by optimizing
194 the amplification procedure (Armani et al., 2015). The total DNA electrophoresis showed that all
195 the DNA samples presented a medium-low fragmentation degree (500-700 bp). In addition, the
196 spectrophotometric analysis, showed medium-high DNA yield and quality (A260/A280 and
197 A260/A230 ratio >2.0) (data not shown). In fact, the target FDB that was selected as elective genetic
198 marker, was successfully amplified, and sequenced from almost all the samples except for two
199 (99.2%) from which the MDB was instead successfully amplified and sequenced. In this respect,

200 literature reports contrasting findings. Hellberg et al. (2019), which analysed highly processed shark
201 products, reported that the amplification rate of FDB (8.6%) was considerably lower respect to MDB
202 (54.3%). Issues in FDB amplification from highly processed shark products were also highlighted
203 by Muttaqin et al. (2019) and the amplification of this molecular marker even totally failed in the
204 study by Abdullah et al. (2020), where the analysed products were cooked, smoked and salted.
205 Contrariwise, other authors highlighted a high FDB amplification rate even in processed shark
206 products (Holmes et al., 2009; Sembiring et al., 2015). This confirms the importance to perform a
207 preventive evaluation of the level of DNA degradation before selecting cost and time-consuming
208 procedures.

209 **3.2 Sequence comparison with genetic databases and species identification**

210 The sequence comparison with databases (GenBank and BOLD) allowed to solidly allocate 243
211 out of the 252 analysed samples (96.4%) to species level. All of them belonged to FDB region
212 (Table 4), that showed a 97.2% (243 out of 250 sequenced FDB) species identification rate. Seven
213 species were detected: *Prionace glauca* (165 samples, 65.5%), *Carcharhinus falciformis* (29
214 samples, 11.5%), *Sphyrna lewini* (17 samples, 6.7%), *S. zygaena* (9 samples, 3.6%), *Isurus*
215 *oxyrinchus* (9 samples, 3.6%), *Carcharhinus longimanus* (8 samples; 3.2%) and *Carcharhinus*
216 *sorrah* (6 samples, 2.4%) (Table 4). For the remaining 9 samples (3.6%), 7 FDB and 2 MDB, a
217 species level match could not be achieved by sequences comparison with databases. The 7 FDB
218 samples were allocated to *Carcharhinus* sp. (Table 4). In both the databases, these samples showed
219 99-100% ~~homology—identity~~ with different species of this high populated genus
220 (<http://www.marinespecies.org/aphia.php?p=taxdetails&id=105719>), especially with *C. limbatus*,
221 *C. brevipinna*, *C. leiodon*, *C. amblyrhynchoides* and *C. tilstoni*. *Carcharhinus* sp. was also identified
222 in 1 MDB (sample HH5), that simultaneously matched with *C. altimus*, *C. plumbeus* and *C.*
223 *amblyrhynchos* with solid ~~homologies—identities~~ in both the databases. The difficulty in
224 discriminating within this genus was also highlighted in other studies (Holmes et al., 2009; Liu et

225 al., 2013) and it might be because, while the mean sequence divergence between congeneric species
226 of sharks is 7.48%, some congeners are known to have very low sequence divergence (Ward,
227 Holmes, White, & Last, 2008). For example, the interspecies sequence divergence between *C.*
228 *limbatus*, *C. amblyrhynchoides* and *C. tilstoni* averages only 0.45% (Ward et al., 2008). ~~In situations~~
229 ~~W where taxa share sequences with species divergence is~~ less than 1% ~~divergence~~, the databases
230 show all possible species assignments (Holmes et al., 2009). It should be also underlined that several
231 closely related species of the genus *Carcharhinus* are morphologically similar to each other and
232 difficult to identify (Ward et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013), such in the case of *C. limbatus*/*C. tilstoni*
233 that are indistinguishable except for precaudal vertebral counts that separate them (Last & Stevens,
234 2009), and *C. amblyrhynchoides* is also very similar to them (Ward et al., 2008). *C. limbatus*, *C.*
235 *tilstoni*, *C. leiodon*, and *C. amblyrhynchoides* were also defined as the “blacktip species complex”
236 (Cardeñosa et al., 2018). This high species similarity could sometimes lead to the presence of
237 wrongly deposited sequences on official databases due to specimen misidentification. Several errors
238 among the shark sequences in GenBank were for instance detected (Fields et al., 2015; Fields et al.,
239 2018). For the remain MDB (sample JN16), the nearest match was with *Sphyrna lewini*, but the
240 ~~homology identity~~ score was too low (97.62%) to allow species identification in both the databases
241 (Table 4). Since Hellberg et al. (2019) proved that the MDB was more effective than FDB for
242 detecting species within highly processed samples containing degraded DNA, we therefore
243 performed an *in-silico* analysis aimed at evaluating the MDB species discrimination ability for all
244 the samples analysed in this study. In fact, the possibility that highly degraded DNA in shark food
245 products occur should not be excluded, considering their manufacturing. We decided to focus this
246 analysis on the MDB proposed by Fields et al. (2015), which is the shorter among those reported in
247 literature (Table 2). In fact, considering the abovementioned difficulties in discriminating among
248 some *Carcharhinus* spp. even with FDB, we deemed unnecessary evaluating the species
249 discrimination power of other MDBs and we considered more appropriate to deepen the

250 identification performance of a MDB whose use is essential in presence of highly degraded DNA
251 samples. Moreover, MDB by Fields et al. (2015) is the only amplified by a primer (Shark COI-
252 MINIR) especially projected for shark species, while “generic” universal primers were used for the
253 amplification of the other MDBs (Table 2). Therefore, all the obtained FDB (n=250) were trimmed
254 to obtain the 127 bp MDB (Fields et al., 2015), which was then compared with both GenBank and
255 BOLD databases. The Shark COI-MINIR primer matching with the sequences of the species
256 identified in this study by using the FDB was assessed. Given the fact that mismatches found (from
257 2 to 4) –did not prevent the amplification of the samples HH5 (*Carcharhinus* spp.) and JN16
258 (*Sphyrna* spp.), and considering the high number of species successfully amplified by Fields et al.,
259 (2015) (included those considered in this study), we think it is highly possible that all the species
260 can be amplified using this primer.

261 ~~Overall, Therefore, considering the 250 obtained FDB and the 2 MDB amplified in this study,~~
262 235 (93.24%) were identified at species level; in particular, *P. glauca*, *C. falciformis*, *S. lewini*, *S.*
263 *zygaena*, *I. oxyrinchus* and *C. sorrah* were detected with similar ~~homologies-identities~~ observed for
264 FDB. MDB region was instead proved as not enough informative to go beyond the genus level in
265 the 8 samples identified as *C. longimanus* with FDB. Likewise, Hobbs et al. (2019) reported that,
266 although most of the analysed samples were successfully assigned to a single species, cases of
267 samples assigned back to a range of closely related sharks of *Carcharhinus* sp., where the
268 identification could not be made beyond genus level, occurred. Factually, Fields et al. (2015)
269 partially anticipated these outcomes, by observing that the MDB sequences of *C. logimanus*, *C.*
270 *obscurus* and *C. galapagensis* were identical or nearly identical. Therefore, in presence of highly
271 degraded DNA samples, alternative methods for amplifying the FDB should be considered. For
272 instance, Cardeñosa et al. (2017) developed a multiplex PCR mini-barcode assay to identify
273 processed shark products using the MDB described in Fields et al. (2015) as starting point and
274 projecting a second mini-barcoding primer that could be additionally used. They predicted that a

275 multiplex of these primers would potentially yield up to three amplicons allowing the sequencing
276 of the entire FDB (Cardeñosa et al., 2017).

277 Overall, the species detected in this study reflected in many cases the findings of other studies
278 (Table 1SM). *P. glauca* accounted alone for more than 30% of the samples collected by Chuang et
279 al. (2016) and Fields et al. (2018) in Taiwan and Hong Kong, followed by *C. falciformis*; *C.*
280 *falciformis*, *I. oxyrinchus*, and *P. glauca*, together with *A. pelagicus* represented 80% of shark meats
281 also collected in Taiwan a few years before (Liu et al., 2013); *P. glauca*, *C. falciformis* and *S. lewini*
282 were also among the most common species recovered in other studies investigating fins and/or other
283 shark products sampled in Indonesia (Sembiring et al., 2015), Hong Kong (Cardeñosa et al., 2018)
284 and Singapore (Wainwright et al., 2018). *P. glauca*, *I. oxyrinchus*, *S. lewini*, *S. zygaena*, *C.*
285 *falciformis* and *C. longimanus*, together with some other species belong to *Carcharhinus* and *Alopias*
286 genera, are in fact the dominant species of the Western Pacific Ocean and they are especially caught
287 in Taiwanese waters (Liu et al., 2013), so that their presence in products marketed in China and
288 South East Asia is easy to understand. Although most of these shark species have extensive ranges,
289 the shark products in Taiwanese market seem in fact more dominated by domestic supplies than by
290 international sources (Chuang et al., 2016), with exception of some species that are most likely a
291 result of international trade (Table 1SM). Moreover, *S. lewini*, *S. zygaena* and *C. longimanus* are by
292 far the species whose fins were traded in Hong Kong, that was reportedly the world's top legal
293 importer of fins from CITES listed sharks (Cardeñosa et al., 2018).

294 Because of its cosmopolitan distribution (Chuang et al., 2016; Almerón-Souza et al., 2018), *P.*
295 *glauca* was often recovered also in extra-Asian markets (Table 1SM) such as in products sold in
296 Canada (Steinke et al., 2017), Brazil (Almerón-Souza et al., 2018; da Silva Ferrette et al., 2019) and
297 Italy (Marchetti et al., 2020) (Table 1SM). However, when found in frozen filets, it was suggested
298 that these individuals were captured in Asia, especially in Taiwan, and subsequently imported
299 (Almerón-Souza et al., 2018). Overall, the observation of shark species trade (Table 1SM), jointly

300 with the results from this study, confirm the scenario described by Fields et al. (2018), in which,
301 despite high species diversity, the contemporary shark trade is dominated by only 8 species or
302 complexes, likely comprising more than 1%: *P. glauca*, *C. falciformis*, *S. lewini* and *S. zygaena*,
303 *Carcharhinus* spp., *C. brevipina*, *C. leucas*, and *Isurus* spp. Other Mediterranean species were also
304 found in Greece (Pazartzi et al., 2019) and Italy (Marchetti et al., 2020) (Table 1SM).

305 No differences were observed among the recovered species based on the product type, except for
306 the study of Hobbs et al. (2019), where most of the species detected in meat samples from UK were
307 different from those found in fins analysed in the same study and overall, poorly represented in
308 literature (Table 1SM).

309 **3.3. Species composition vs average price, collection site and IUCN and CITES status.**

310 The samples showed market prices ranging from 25 to 86 US \$/kg (60.3±15.2 US \$/kg) (Table
311 3). Since most of the global market is addressed to meat and fins, while some other shark products,
312 such as shark lips, are separately recorded in trade statistics (Hellberg et al., 2019), we cannot
313 perform a price comparison with global market trends. Overall, shark lips price appeared lower than
314 shark fins, reported as 168.8 US \$/kg, when excluding the highest and lowest observation (Lehr,
315 2015). Among our samples, highest prices (≥ 80 US \$/kg) were observed in samples collected in
316 Beijing (municipality) (site 13 in Figure 2), Chongqing (municipality) (site 10), Tianjin
317 (municipality) (site 24), Yinchuan (Ningxia Hui autonomous region) (site 4) and Zhengzhou (Henan
318 province) (site 16). Overall, 7 out of the 8 samples generally identified as *Carcharhinus* sp. showed
319 the higher average price (74.7 US \$/kg), together with all the 29 samples identified with *C.*
320 *falciformis* (73.8 US \$/kg) and the 8 samples identified as *C. longimanus* (72.5 US \$/kg) (Table 4).
321 These products were collected in Chengdu (Sichuan province) (site 6 in Figure 2) Chongqing
322 (municipality) (site 10), Harbin (Heilongjiang province) (site 21), Hangzhou (Zhejiang province)
323 (site 29), Ji'nan (Shandong province) (site 25), Nanning (Guangxi Zhuang autonomous region) (site
324 12), Tianjin (municipality) (site 24) and Yinchuan (Ningxia Hui autonomous region) (site 4). Since

325 the collection sites do not correspond to the sites with the highest average prices in 4 out of the 7
326 cases, the price is presumably related to the species, since overall shark prices are greatly related on
327 this aspect (Vannuccini, 1999).

328 Five out of the 7 detected species are included in the IUCN Red List as vulnerable, endangered,
329 or critically endangered and 4 of them (66.7%) were included in the CITES Appendix II (Table 4).
330 Similar findings were reported in all the studies on species identification in shark food products, as
331 most of the detected species currently cover a threatened IUCN conservation status and they are
332 proved as commonly exploited regardless or they are included in the CITES Appendix II (Table
333 1SM). Most cases of threatened or CITES-listed species recovering involved processed products
334 (such as fins), where the morphological features of the species lack. The high frequency of these
335 species strongly suggests that they are not the result of by-catch or small-scale artisanal fisheries,
336 but instead result from large-scale targeted shark fisheries (Sembiring et al., 2015). Despite the
337 public awareness for the shark conservation, are currently poorly applied by governments; in
338 Taiwan, for instance, *Rhincodon typus* it is the only species with a restricted ban on fishing and
339 trading (Liu et al., 2013). However, it should be noted that sustainable fisheries do exist for some
340 of these species in specific geographic regions. For example, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
341 Administration (NOAA) Fish Watch considers U.S. wild-caught *I. oxyrinchus* to be sustainably
342 managed and responsibly harvested (Hellberg et al., 2019). *P. glauca*, the dominant species in this
343 study and in many other (section 3.2; Table 1SM) is categorized as a near-threatened species in the
344 IUCN Red List. Since 1980s, a progressive population declines in this species might have resulted
345 from the rapid expansion of directed fisheries (Chuang et al., 2016). Therefore, efforts in reducing
346 fishing pressure in this species should be implemented. In Brazil, for instance, species assessed as
347 non-threatened should be prioritized for research and conservation measures according to a specific
348 ordinance (da Silva Ferrette et al., 2019). It should be therefore highlighted that shark species in the

349 non-threatened categories face fishing pressure, putting at risk of extinction data-deficient species
350 that could already be threatened (da Silva Ferrette et al., 2019).

351 ~~3.4 Shortcomings in seafood labelling enforcement in Asian countries hamper~~
352 ~~m~~**Mislabelling assessment in shark products. in Asian countries**

353 As it can be observed, the mislabelling evaluation of shark products was not performed in this
354 study, as well as in all the studies which analysed Asian products (Table 1SM), because a legislation
355 framework to regulate seafood naming, labelling and traceability do not exist. All the collected
356 samples were in fact sold without reference to any species on the label. Most of seafood products
357 sold in Asian commercial markets do not display label information regarding species authentication
358 such as scientific name and origin (Abdullah et al., 2020). The lack of a mandatory legislation on
359 seafood traceability and official naming system is especially alarming in China, as often highlighted
360 in literature (Xiong et al., 2016a; Xiong et al., 2016b; Zeng et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021). In this
361 respect, the comparison between the species identified by DNA barcoding and the declared name
362 of the shark was therefore not feasible.

363 Potential mislabelling or fraudulent substitution cases were evaluated in 6 studies (Table 1SM)
364 Barbuto et al. (2010) found 77.8% species substitutions cases in shark slices sold in Italy under the
365 vernacular name of “*palombo*” (that is referred to *Mustelus mustelus* and *M. asterias* for the Italian
366 regulation) with low-value species. Still in Italy, the results of a more recent investigations revealed
367 a high occurrence of incorrect species declaration in 45.4% shark meat products, also in this case
368 especially involving “*palombo*” (Marchetti et al., 2020). In Greece, UK and USA, 55.81%, 34.1%
369 and 19%, non-compliances, respectively, were detected between the name reported on the label and
370 the shark species identified (Pazartzi et al., 2019; Hobbs et al., 2019; Hellberg et al., 2019). In the
371 study of Pazartzi et al. (2019), which analysed shark meat products collected in Greek retailers, over
372 half of products originated from species that are listed as threatened by the IUCN Red List, and of
373 the mislabelled products, 23% originated from species with prohibitions on landings or CITES

374 listings. Equally, threatened and/or CITES listed species were found in products sold in countries
375 having specific legislation on seafood labelling (Table 1SM). Hellberg et al. (2019) also found one
376 sample of shark fin soup to be potentially mislabelled due to the detection of teleost fish instead of
377 shark. One explanation for this finding is that the restaurant intentionally did not include shark in
378 the product because it is illegal to sell shark fin in California. The assessing of the mislabelling rate
379 in these studies was possible due to the existence of a specific legislation in the countries where the
380 samples were collected: the EU has a legislation on seafood labelling requiring indication of
381 commercial designation, scientific name, method of production, geographical origin and fishing-
382 gear category (Regulation EU No 1379/2013). In the USA, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration
383 has produced and maintains a list of Acceptable Market Names which are allowed for seafood
384 species (Food Integrity Project, 2018). Likewise, the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, and Food
385 Supply (MAPA – Ministério da Agricultura, Pecuária e Abastecimento), responsible for ensuring
386 accurate labelling of foodstuff at federal level in Brazil, produced an official list of legal commercial
387 names and Latin scientific names to facilitate market regulation (Carvalho et al., 2017). Therefore,
388 also in the study of Calegari et al. (2019) conducted in Brazil the mislabelling rate was calculated:
389 100% of products sold as shark filets were instead Striped catfish (*Pangasianodon hypophthalmus*).

390 **4. Conclusion**

391 Sharks include many species of conservation concern. If the fins, the most valuable product
392 obtained from the shark carcass, have been rather highly investigated, literature dealing with species
393 identification in other shark products is scarce and no surveys have been especially provided for the
394 Chinese market. In this study, performed in China, where shark lips were investigated for the first
395 time, DNA barcoding targeting the standard *COI* 650 bp region (FDB) was proved as an effective
396 tool for detecting species in this kind of products, with some limitation in presence of low intra-
397 species sequence divergences among some *Carcharhinus* spp. Alternatively, short length barcodes
398 (MDBs) can be successfully used in cases of highly degraded DNA, despite the even lower

399 discrimination power among *Carcharhinus* spp. Most of the detected species are included in the
400 IUCN Red List as threatened and/or whose commerce is strictly regulated. The lack of information
401 on the products label, related to a well-known seafood weak labelling system in China, did not allow
402 to evaluate the overall mislabelling rate. In this respect, even though the presence of a specific
403 legislation for seafood labelling supported by an official system for name attribution not always
404 ensure the sector safeguarding from illegal practices, absent or weak traceability system and
405 consumer information policies inevitably facilitate the implementation of fraudulent market
406 channels (e. g. commercial frauds and IUU fishing).

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566 **Figure 1.** Some dried shark's lip products (鱼唇-Yu chun) collected in this study. Bar= 5 cm.



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- 569 **Figure 2.** Origin (cities and provinces) of collected samples. 1: Urumqi (Xinjiang Uygur
 570 autonomous region); 2: Lhasa (Tibet autonomous region); 3: Xining (Qinghai province); 4:
 571 Yinchuan (Ningxia Hui autonomous region); 5: Lanzhou (Gansu province); 6: Chengdu (Sichuan
 572 province); 7: Kunming (Yunnan province); 8: Hohhot (Inner Mongolia autonomous region); 9:
 573 Xi'an (Shaanxi province); 10: Chongqing (municipality); 11: Guiyang (Guizhou province); 12:
 574 Nanning (Guangxi Zhuang autonomous region); 13: Beijing (municipality); 14: Shijiazhuang
 575 (Hebei province); 15: Taiyuan (Shanxi province); 16: Zhengzhou (Henan province); 17: Wuhan
 576 (Hubei province); 18: Changsha (Hunan province); 19: Guangzhou (Guangdong province); 20:
 577 Haikou (Hainan province); 21: Harbin (Heilongjiang province); 22: Changchun (Jilin province);
 578 23: Shenyang (Liaoning province); 24: Tianjin (municipality); 25: Ji'nan (Shandong province);
 579 26: Nanjing (Jiangsu province); 27: Hefei (Anhui province); 28: Shanghai (municipality); 29:
 580 Hangzhou (Zhejiang province); 30: Nanchang (Jiangxi province); 31: Fuzhou (Fujian province).



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Highlights

1. A survey for authenticating species in shark lips products sold in China is presented.
2. Full and mini DNA barcoding were applied and their discrimination power was compared.
3. The molecular targets were able in discriminating species, except for *Carcharhinus* spp.
4. 7 species were detected, of which 5 threatened and 4 subject to commerce regulation
5. *Prionace glauca* was the most recovered species (65.5%)

Declarations of interest: none

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Table 1SM. Species detected in studies on species identification in shark food products by DNA-barcoding with current IUCN status, presence in the CITES Appendix II and products mislabelling rate. Given the high number of detected species, only shark species found in percentages $\geq 1\%$ were reported, while the other species can be checked in the original papers. Species are listed in descending order based on their occurrence, except for references with (*) where the percentage occurrence is not indicated in the original paper. ^aonly percentages of the most found species were reported (when available). CR: Critically Endangered; EN: Endangered; VU: Vulnerable; NT: Near Threatened; LC: Least Concern; DD: Data Deficient; nr: not reported in IUCN list

Reference	Country	products	Detected species (%) ^a	IUCN	CITES	mislabelling rate
Holmes et al. (2009)	Australia	fins	<i>Carcharhinus dussumieri</i> (21.8%)	EN	-	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus tilstoni</i> (14.0%)	LC	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i> (9.3%)	NT	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i> (6.7%)	CR	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus amboinensis</i> (6.2%)	DD	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus macroti</i> (5.7%)	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus brevipinna</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus limbatus</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Eusphyrna blochii</i>	EN	-	
			<i>Sphyrna mokarran</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Triaenodon obesus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus obscurus</i>	EN	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus amblyrhynchos</i>	EN	-	
Barbuto et al. (2010)	Italy	Slices or filet	<i>Squalus acanthias</i> (67.6%)	VU	-	77.8%
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> (17.6%)	EN	✓	
			<i>Mustelus mustelus</i> (8.3%)	VU	-	
			<i>Prionace glauca</i> (8.3%)	NT	-	
			<i>Alopias superciliosus</i> (2.9%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Galeorhinus galeus</i> (2.9%)	CR	-	
Liu et al. (2013)	Taiwan	Filets and fins	<i>Alopias pelagicus</i> (22.8%)	EN	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (22.8%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Prionace glauca</i> (17.9%)	NT	-	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> (16.8%)	EN	✓	

			<i>Alopias superciliosus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus albimarginatus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	NT	-	
Sembiring et al. (2015)	Indonesia	fins	<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (19.1%)	VU	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i> (10.5%)	CR	✓	
			<i>Prionace glauca</i> (8.2%)	NT	-	
			<i>Alopias superciliosus</i> (7.6%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Alopias pelagicus</i> (7.2%)	EN	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus limbatus</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon acutus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Squalus hemipinnis</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Isurus paucus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Centrophorus granulosus</i>	EN	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus melanopterus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus sealei</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus brevipinna</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Hemipristis elongata</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Nebrius ferrugineus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus amblyrhynchos</i>	EN	-	
			<i>Hemitriakis falcata</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Mustelus lenticulatus</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Hemigaleus microstoma</i>	VU	-	
<i>Loxodon macrorhinus</i>	LC	-				
<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	VU	✓				
Chuang et al. (2016)	Taiwan	Fresh tissue	<i>Prionace glauca</i> (47.2%)	NT	-	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (7.8%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Alopias superciliosus</i> (7.4%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Alopias pelagicus</i> (6.9%)	EN	✓	
			<i>Etmopterus pusillus</i> (6.9%)	LC	-	
<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> (5.6%)	EN	✓				

			<i>Centrophorus granulosus</i>	EN	-	
			<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Galeus sauteri</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
		fins	<i>Prionace glauca</i> (34.3%)	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (12.1%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus coatesi</i> (8.6%)	LC	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus macroti</i> (7.5%)	NT	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i> (4.7%)	CR	✓	
			<i>Hemigaleus australiensis</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Callorhynchus callorhynchus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	EN	✓	
Steinke et al. (2017)	Canada	fins	<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	EN	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Alopias superciliosus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Prionace glauca</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Lamna nasus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Rhincodon typus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Isurus paucus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Lamna ditropis</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon acutus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Sphyrna mokarran</i>	CR	✓	
	<i>Carcharhinus leiodon</i>	EN	-			
	Hong Kong, mainland China and Sri Lanka	gill plates	All ray (Mobulidae) species	-	-	
Almerón-Souza et al. (2018)	Brazil	filets	<i>Prionace glauca</i> (23.8%)	NT	-	Not evaluated
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i> (22.2%)	CR	✓	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon lalandii</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus brachyurus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	VU	✓	

			<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Squalus mitsukurii</i>	EN	-	
			<i>Galeorhinus galeus</i>	CR	-	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon porosus</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Squalus cubensis</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Squatina occulta</i>	CR	-	
			<i>Squatina guggenheim</i>	EN	-	
Cardeñosa et al. (2018)	Hong Kong	fin trimmings	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	NT	-	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>C. limbatus</i> , <i>C. tilstoni</i> , <i>C. leiodon</i> , <i>C. amblyrhynchoides</i>	-	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
Fields et al. (2018)	Hong Kong	fin trimmings	<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	VU	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Prionace glauca</i> (34.0%)	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (10.1%)	VU	✓	
			<i>C. limbatus</i> , <i>C. amblyrhynchoides</i> , <i>C. leiodon</i> , <i>C. tilstoni</i> .	-	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus</i> sp.	-	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon acutus</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus brevipinna</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus amboinensis</i>	DD	-	
			<i>Dalatias licha</i>	VU	-	
<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	NT	-				
<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	CR	✓				
Md-Zain et al. (2018)*	Malaysia	fins	<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	EN	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus brevipinna</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus limbatus</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Lamiopsis tephrodes</i>	nr	-	
			<i>Loxodon macrorhinus</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Sphyrna mokarran</i>	CR	-	
<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓				

			<i>Chiloscyllium griseum</i>	VU	-	
Wainwright et al. (2018)	Singapore	fins, meat	<i>Prionace glauca</i> (6.7%)	NT	-	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Scoliodon laticaudus</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon oligolinx</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Hemipristis elongata</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>	NT	-	
Calegari et al. (2019)	Brazil	filets	<i>Pangasianodon hypophthalmus</i> (non-shark species) (100%)	-	-	100%
da Silva Ferrette et al. (2019)	Brazil	fins	<i>Prionace glauca</i> (33.7%)	NT	-	Not evaluated
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i> (27.7%)	EN	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus porosus</i> (13.1%)	CR	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus acronotus</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Rhizoprionodon porosus</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Sphyrna tudes</i>	CR	-	
			<i>Isurus paucus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Sphyrna tiburo</i>	EN	-	
Hellberg et al. (2019)	USA	shark jerky, fin soup, cartilage pills, filets	<i>Carcharhinus perezii</i>	NT	-	19%
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i> (32%)	NT	-	
			<i>Galeorhinus galeus</i> (16%)	CR	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i> (12%)	VU	✓	
			<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Alopias vulpinus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus melanopterus</i>	VU	-	
Hobbs et al. (2019)	UK	Meat	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	NT	-	31.4%
			<i>Carcharhinus sealei</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Squalus acanthias</i>	VU	-	
			<i>Mustelus asterias</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Scyliorhinus stellaris</i>	NT	-	
		<i>Squalus suckleyi</i>	LC	-		
fins	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	NT	-			
			<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>	NT	-	

			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Sphyrna tudes</i>	CR	-	
			<i>Carcharhinus</i> sp.	-	-	
Mattaqin et al. (2019)	Indonesia	meat (fresh and smoked), skin, fins, cartilage	<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	VU	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i> ,	CR	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	NT	-	
Pazartzi et al. (2019)	Greece	filets	<i>Mustelus mustelus</i> (36%)	VU	-	55.81%
			<i>Scyliorhinus canicular</i> (23.2%)	nr	-	
			<i>Squalus blainville</i> (13.9%)	DD	-	
			<i>Mustelus asterias</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Prionace glauca</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Mustelus punctulatus</i>	DD	-	
			<i>Squatina squatina</i>	CR	-	
			<i>Alopias vulpinus</i>	VU	✓	
			<i>Heptranchias perlo</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Galeorhinus galeus</i>	CR	-	
<i>Hexanchus griseus</i>	NT	-				
Abdullah et al. (2020)	Indonesia	various fresh and processed shark products	<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	VU	✓	Not evaluated
			<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i> ,	NT	-	
			<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	EN	✓	
			<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	NT	-	
			<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	CR	✓	
			<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>	NT	-	
<i>Carcharhinus brevipinna</i>	VU	-				
Marchetti et al. (2020)	Italy	filets	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	NT	-	45.4%
			<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Mustelus asterias</i>	LC	-	
			<i>Mustelus punctulatus</i>	DD	-	
			<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	EN	✓	

Table 2. Studies on species identification in shark food products by DNA-barcoding.

*Amplification of various length MDBs to obtain FDB sequences.

Reference	Product	Sampling (n)	Country	Molecular target	Size (bp)	Primers
Holmes, Steinke, & Ward (2009)	dried fins	211	Australia	<i>COI</i>	652–655	FishF1, FishF2 (fwd); FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005); HCO2198 (rev) (Folmer, Black, Hoeh, Lutz, & Vrijenhoek (1994)
Barbuto et al. (2010)	Slices or fillets	45	Italy	<i>COI</i>	550	Shark int (fwd) (Barbuto et al., 2010); FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
Liu, Chan, Lin, Hu, & Chen (2013)	fillets and fins	548	Taiwan	<i>COI</i>	~655	LCO1490 (fwd); HCO2198 (rev) (Folmer et al., 1994)
					391	<i>In silico</i> analysis
Sembiring et al. (2015)	fins	582	Indonesia	<i>COI</i>	600–654	Fish-BCL (fwd); Fish-BCH (rev) (Baldwin, Mounts, Smith, & Weigt, 2009)
Chuang et al. (2016)	fresh tissue	231	Taiwan	<i>COI</i>	~655	FishF1, FishF2 (fwd); FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
	fins	429				
Steinke et al. (2017)	fins	71	Canada	<i>COI</i>	652	C_FishF1t1, C_VF1LFt1 (fwd); C_FishR1t1 or and C_VR1LRt1 (rev) (Ivanova, Zemlak, Hanner, & Hebert., 2007)
				<i>16SrRNA</i>	~500	16sarL-L (fwd) 16sbr-H49 (rev) (Palumbi et al., 1991)
	gill plates	58	Hong Kong, mainland China and Sri Lanka	<i>COI</i>	652	FishF1, FishF2 (fwd); FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
<i>16SrRNA</i>				~500	16sarL-L (fwd) 16sbr-H (rev) (Palumbi et al., 1991)	
Almerón-Souza et al. (2018)	fillets	63	Brazil	<i>COI</i>	~650	FishF2 (fwd); FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
Cardeñosa et al. (2018)	fin trimmings	9200	Hong Kong	<i>COI</i>	650*	Shark474F (fwd) (Cardeñosa et al., 2017); FishF2 (fwd) FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (tailed with M13) (Ward et al., 2005); Shark COI-MINIR (rev) (Fields et al., 2015)
Fields et al. (2018)	fin trimmings	4800	Hong Kong	<i>COI</i>	130	FishF2_t1 (fwd), VF2_t1 (fwd) (Ward et al., 2005; Ivanova et al., 2007); Shark COI-

						MINIR (rev) (Fields et al., 2015)
Md-Zain et al. (2018)	fins	24	Malaysia	<i>COI</i>	~750	VF2_t1 (fwd), FR1d_t1 (rev) Ward et al., 2005; Ivanova et al., 2007)
Wainwright et al. (2018)	fins, meat	207	Singapore	<i>COI</i>	313	mlCOIintF (fwd) (Leray et al. 2013); LoboR1 (Lobo et al., 2013)
Calegari, Reis, & Alho (2019)	filets	7	Brazil	<i>COI</i>	610	LCO1490 (fwd); HCO2198 (rev) (Folmer et al., 1994)
da Silva Ferrette et al. (2019)	fins	800	Brazil	<i>COI</i>	~650	FishF1 (fwd); FishR1 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
Hellberg Isaacs, & Hernandez (2019)	shark jerky, fin soup, cartilage pills, filets	35	USA	<i>COI</i>	652-658	FishF1t1, C_VF1LFt1 (fwd), C_FishR1t1, C_VR1LRt1 (rev) (Ivanova et al., 2007)
					127	C_FishF1t1 (fwd) (Ivanova et al., 2007), Shark COI-MINIR (rev) (Fields et al., 2015)
Hobbs, Potts, Walsh, Usher, & Griffiths (2019)	meat	117	UK	<i>COI</i>	~650	FishF2_t1 (fwd), VF2_t1 (fwd) (Ward et al., 2005; Ivanova et al., 2007)
	fins	40			~130	FishF2_t1 (fwd), VF2_t1 (fwd) (Ward et al., 2005; Ivanova et al., 2007); Shark COI-MINIR (rev) (Fields et al., 2015)
Muttaqin et al. (2019)	meat (fresh and smoked), skin, fins, cartilage	40	Indonesia	<i>COI</i>	655	FishF1, FishF2 (fwd); FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
					295	Primer by Sultana, Ali, Hossain, Naquiah, & Zaidul (2018)
Pazartzi et al. (2019)	filets	87	Greece	<i>COI</i>	670	FishF1, FishF2 (fwd); FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
				<i>16SrRNA</i>	600	16sar1-L (fwd) 16sbr-H (rev) (Palumbi et al., 1991)
Abdullah, Nurilmala, Muttaqin, & Yulianto (2020)	various fresh and processed shark products	36	Indonesia	<i>COI</i>	226	SHE-F (fwd), SHE-R (rev) (Shokralla, Hellberg, Handy, King, & Hajibabaei, 2015)
Marchetti, Mottola, Piredda, Ciccicarese, & Di Pinto (2020)	filets	130	Italy	<i>COI</i>	~655	FishF1, FishF2 (fwd); FishR1, FishR2 (rev) (Ward et al., 2005)
				<i>NADH2</i>	~1050	Primers by Naylor et al. (2012)

Table 3. Samples collected and analysed in this study with relative market price. *numbers refer to the origin (cities and provinces) in Figure 2.

Code	Number of samples	Origin*	Price (US \$/kg)
BJ1-BJ6	6	13	80
CC1-CC6	6	22	55
CD1-CD6	12	6	49
CD7-CD12			71
CQ1-CQ6	6	10	86
CS1-CS6	6	18	65
FZ1-FZ6	6	31	58
GY1-GY6	6	11	62
GZ1-GZ6	24	19	26
GZ7-GZ12			32
GZ13-GZ18			52
GZ19-GZ24			68
HB1-HB6	6	21	74
HF1-HF6	6	27	72
HH1-HH6	6	8	68
HK1-HK6	6	20	68
HZ1-HZ6	6	29	68
JN1-JN6	18	25	46
JN7-JN12			49
JN13-JN18			25
KM1-KM6	6	7	49
LS1-LS6	6	2	78
LZ1-LZ6	6	5	43
NC1-NC6	6	30	49
NJ1-NJ6	6	26	74
NN1-NN6	12	12	71
NN7-NN12			65
SH1-SH6	12	28	74
SH7-SH12			56
SJ1-SJ6	12	14	74
SJ7-SJ12			46
SY1-SY6	6	23	58
TJ1-TJ6	12	24	80
TJ7-TJ12			68
TY1-TY6	6	15	55
UQ1-UQ6	6	1	54
WH1-WH6	6	17	55
XA1-XA6	6	9	55
XN1-XN6	6	3	46
YC1-YC6	12	4	43
YC7-YC12			80
ZZ1-ZZ6	6	16	86
Total	252		

- 1 **Table 4.** Shark species identified in collected samples ~~by means of sequence comparison with databases~~ with relative average market price,
- 2 IUCN status and presence in the CITES Appendix II. *only one matching sequence; ~~**Identity values <98%~~; CR: Critically Endangered; EN:
- 3 Endangered; NT: Near Threatened; VU: Vulnerable.

Sample code	Number of samples (%)	Molecular target	BLAST	Identity (%)	BOLD ID's	Identity (%)	Sample ID	Average price	IUCN	CITES
BJ1-BJ6, CC1-CC6, CD1-CD6, CS1-CS6, FZ1-FZ6, GY1-GY6, GZ1-GZ12, GZ19-GZ24, HH1-HH4, HH6, HK1, HK2, HK5, HK6, JN7-JN12, KM1-KM6, LS1-LS6, LZ1-LZ6, NC1-NC6, NJ1-NJ6, SH7-SH12, SJ7-SJ12, SY1-SY6, TJ7-TJ12, TY1-TY6, UQ1-UQ6, WH1-WH6, XA1-XA6, XN1-XN6, YC1-YC6, ZZ1-ZZ6	165 (65.5%)	FDB	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	100	<i>P. glauca</i>	100	<i>P. glauca</i>	56.8 ± 13.7	NT	-
CD8, CD11, CQ2, HB2, HB4, HK3, HK4, HZ1-HZ6, NN7-NN10, TJ1-TJ6, YC7-YC12	29 (11.5%)	FDB	<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	100	<i>C. falciformis</i>	100	<i>C. falciformis</i>	73.8 ± 6.6	VU	✓

GZ15-GZ17, NN11, NN12, SH1-SH6, SJ1- SJ6	17 (6.7%)	FDB	<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	100	<i>S. lewini</i>	100	<i>S. lewini</i>	60.1 ± 8.7	CR	✓
HF1-HF6, JN14, JN17, JN18	9 (3.6%)	FDB	<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	100	<i>S. zygaena</i>	100	<i>S. zygaena</i>	56.3 ± 23.5	VU	✓
GZ13, GZ14, GZ18, NN1- NN6	9 (3.6%)	FDB	<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	100	<i>I. oxyrinchus</i>	100	<i>I. oxyrinchus</i>	64.7 ± 9.5	EN	✓
CD7, CD9, CD10, CD12, HB1, HB3, HB5, HB6	8 (3.2%)	FDB	<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	100	<i>C. longimanus</i>	100	<i>C. longimanus</i>	72.5 ± 1.6	CR	✓
CQ1, CQ3- CQ6, JN1, JN2	7 (2.8%)	FDB	<i>Carcharhinus limbatus</i>	100	<i>C. limbatus</i>	100	<i>Carcharhinus</i> sp.	74.7 ± 19.5	-	-
			<i>C. brevipinna</i>		<i>C. brevipinna</i>					
			<i>C. leiodon</i>	99.85	<i>C. leiodon</i>					
			<i>C. amblyrhynchoides</i>		<i>C. amblyrhynchoides</i>					
			<i>C. tilstoni</i>		<i>C. tilstoni</i>					
JN3-JN6, JN13, JN15	6 (2.4%)	FDB	<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	100	<i>C. sorrah</i>	100	<i>C. sorrah</i>	39 ± 10.8	NT	-
HH5	1 (0.4%)	MDB	<i>Carcharhinus altimus</i>	100	<i>Carcharhinus</i> sp.	100	<i>Carcharhinus</i> sp.	68	-	-
			<i>C. plumbeus</i>		<i>C. altimus</i>					
			<i>C. amblyrhynchos</i>	99.21	<i>C. plumbeus</i>					
JN16	1 (0.4%)	MDB	<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	<u>**97.62</u>	<i>S. lewini</i>	<u>**97.62</u>	-	25	-	-
			<i>S. zygaena</i>	<u>96.06</u>	-	-				

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Table 1. Shark species included in the Appendix II of the ~~Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)~~ with their IUCN relative conservation status ~~according to International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Threatened Species.~~ ~~CR: Critically Endangered; EN: Endangered VU: vulnerable.~~

			IUCN status
Carcharhiniformes	Carcharhinidae	<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	<u>Vulnerable</u> VU
		<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	<u>Critically Endangered</u> CR
	Sphyrnidae	<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	<u>Critically Endangered</u> CR
		<i>Sphyrna mokarran</i>	<u>Critically Endangered</u> CR
		<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	<u>Vulnerable</u> VU
	Alopiidae	<i>Alopias</i> spp.	<u>Endangered</u> EN (<i>A. pelagicus</i>) <u>Vulnerable</u> VU (<i>A. superciliosus</i> ; <i>A. vulpinus</i>)
Cetorhinidae	<i>Cetorhinus maximus</i>	<u>Endangered</u> EN	
Lamniformes	Lamnidae	<i>Carcharodon carcharias</i>	<u>Vulnerable</u> VU
		<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	<u>Endangered</u> EN
		<i>Isurus paucus</i>	<u>Endangered</u> EN
		<i>Lamna nasus</i>	<u>Vulnerable</u> VU
Orectolobiformes	Rhincodontidae	<i>Rhincodon typus</i>	<u>Endangered</u> EN