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10 **Advanced halal authentication methods and technology for addressing non-compliance**
11 **concerns in halal meat and meat products supply chain: A review**

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Religious beliefs have a significant impact on consumer preferences, particularly in relation
15 to food choices. Islam, like other religions, imposes specific dietary guidelines, notably
16 regarding meat and meat products. However, ensuring compliance with halal standards across
17 the entire meat and meat products supply chain presents considerable challenges. Instances of
18 non-compliance, including improper slaughtering techniques, mislabeling, adulteration, and
19 contamination, have caused concerns about the authenticity of halal status. To address these
20 concerns, this review explores recent advancements in halal authentication methods and
21 technology, focusing on practical objectives aimed at addressing non-compliance issues. It
22 categorizes methods into four main areas of non-compliance concerns, providing a unique
23 perspective compared to earlier reviews that primarily examined the progression of analytical
24 methods. This classification offers a comprehensive analysis of the field's current status,
25 facilitating the identification of research gaps and strategic recommendations for enhancing
26 future halal authentication methods. Through the implementation of this novel approach, the
27 review seeks to promote the development of a more robust framework for evaluating halal
28 meat and meat products, safeguarding consumer trust and ensuring adherence to religious
29 dietary guidelines in the future.

30

31 **Keywords**

32 Halal, Meat, Meat products, Non-compliance concerns, Halal authentication methods

33

34 **Introduction**

35 Religious perception and consumer behavior are closely intertwined, particularly in
36 the context of food selection (Essoo and Dibb, 2004). Each religion has its own unique set of
37 regulations and dietary guidelines. Within the context of Islam, there are certain foods that
38 are permitted to be consumed, known as halal, and others that are prohibited, known as haram
39 (AHF Halal Standards, 2023). These days, owing to the exponential growth in the Muslim
40 population worldwide, there has been a noticeable increase in the demand for halal food.
41 Global market research predicts this increase will reach a compound annual growth rate
42 (CAGR) of 6.1% by 2027 (Shafaki, 2023). This is particularly important for halal meat and
43 meat products, as they serve as a valuable protein source and account for 30% of the total
44 demand when combined with poultry and seafood (Imarc, 2023).

45 Nevertheless, meeting the high demand for halal meat and meat products is not as
46 simple as it may seem. Within the halal food categories, the process of preparing halal meat
47 and meat products adheres to the most strict guidelines, as specified in the holy Quran and
48 Hadith (Quran, 6:118–119; 16:115; Hadith No.17 of Imam Nawawi by Sahih Muslim).
49 Despite the strict requirements, halal meat and meat products are easily accessible to Muslim
50 consumers. They can be readily found in butcher markets, supermarkets, grocery stores, and
51 online stores, all with clearly visible halal labels (Nakyinsige et al., 2012). Over many years,
52 this halal label has been sufficient to instill Muslim consumers' confidence in the adherence
53 to halal standards in meat or meat products (Nakyinsige et al., 2012). However, there has
54 been a recent and noticeable increase in cases of "illegal meat." This includes meat that does
55 not comply with halal standards or has been obtained through illegal means (McElwee et al.,
56 2017).

57 Instances of non-compliance mainly pertain to improper halal slaughtering
58 techniques, mislabeling, or the presence of prohibited materials due to adulteration and

59 contamination (Fuseini et al., 2017). Here are several alarming cases reported in the halal
60 meat and meat products sector. One case that stands out is the 2013 Irish "beef" scandal,
61 wherein beef burgers were found to contain horse DNA and pork (O'Mahony, 2013). A
62 different case is the 2017 halal certification fraud in Brazil, where some large meatpacking
63 companies engaged in unlawful conduct, resulting in the exportation of expired or
64 contaminated halal meat (Silvestre et al., 2018). In addition, in 2018, a well-known halal food
65 brand in the UK encountered controversy when it was revealed that certain products
66 contained non-halal ingredients (Lever, 2020). These varied illegal meat cases ignited a
67 heightened awareness among Muslim consumers or halal enthusiasts regarding the
68 significance of halal authenticity (Fuseini et al., 2017). Serious measures must be taken to
69 protect consumers and restore trust in halal certification.

70 On the other hand, the concept of halal encompasses more than just the meat or meat
71 product itself. It covers every step of the supply chain, from slaughtering to meat and meat
72 product processing, packaging, labeling, storage, distribution, and retailing. Every step has its
73 own potential areas of non-compliance (Figure 1). Vulnerabilities in the assessment of halal
74 standards at any stage of the supply chain could be exploited by individuals seeking personal
75 gain (Fuseini et al., 2017). Thus, it becomes imperative for halal bodies to conduct more
76 systematic and comprehensive analyses of halal evaluations and monitoring procedures to
77 ensure the integrity of halal products throughout the supply chain. Relying solely on physical
78 examinations, documentation, and sharia expertise may not provide a comprehensive
79 assessment (Ng et al., 2022).

80 Recent advancements in food science and technology have greatly influenced the
81 progression of halal meat and meat product authentication methods. Researchers have
82 actively developed analytical instruments to address non-compliance concerns in various
83 meats and meat products. Despite previous reviews that have tracked methodological

84 advancements, there remains a gap in connecting these advancements with practical
85 perspectives. Existing reviews primarily focused on advances in various approaches and the
86 categorization of methods based on the use of biological samples. These reviews often divide
87 the discussion into three main categories: DNA-based, protein-based, or spectroscopic-based
88 approaches (Hossain, 2021; Ng et al., 2022). While these types of reviews are valuable for
89 understanding method development and tracking analytical progress, they may overlook the
90 overall objectives and concerns regarding non-compliance that each study aims to address.
91 As a result, there is a risk of redundancy and overlap among many studies. Therefore, this
92 review seeks to fill this gap by categorizing analytical methods based on their practical
93 objectives, with a specific focus on research that tackles issues of non-compliance related to
94 the authenticity of halal meat and meat products. These issues encompass improper
95 slaughtering, mislabeling, adulteration, and contamination. In this perspective, our aim is not
96 only to identify existing research gaps and emphasize areas requiring further development but
97 also to provide viable suggestions for enhancing future halal authentication research
98 strategically.

99

100 **Literature review**

101 The present review article provides an in-depth exploration of the research conducted
102 on halal authentication methods for meat and meat products using the citation-based literature
103 mapping tool: Research Rabbit (Cole and Boutet, 2023). Three keywords were entered: halal,
104 meat, and authentication. A total of 50 papers, including various original articles, reviews,
105 and proceedings, were selected. These papers were illustrated with dots on the left side and
106 served as the basis for researching other interconnected papers, identified by dots on the right
107 side. It is important to remember that the connection between the articles is based on citation,
108 meaning that some articles on the right side may not have a direct correlation to the

109 authenticity of halal meat. Consequently, we further employed a meticulous selection process
110 to include only papers directly relevant to the topic.

111 Through the careful organization of the papers in chronological order, it became
112 apparent that the pioneering research on authenticating halal meat was carried out by Aida et
113 al. (2005) (Figure 2). We next limited our literature search from Aida's study (2005) to the
114 most recently published articles (2023) to ensure that advances in methodologies and
115 technology remained relevant. Simultaneously, the research was divided into four groups
116 depending on their objectives or potential to address noncompliance issues: improper
117 slaughtering, mislabeling, adulteration, and contamination. In the sections that follow, we
118 carefully review each category separately.

119

120 **Main issue**

121 **Analytical methods for halal meat slaughtering authenticity**

122 Halal and non-halal slaughter methods differ significantly in their procedures and
123 underlying principles. Halal slaughter adheres to Islamic dietary guidelines, including the
124 invocation of Allah's name, a specific method of cutting the animal's throat, and strict animal
125 welfare standards (AHF Halal Standards, 2023). In contrast, non-halal slaughter lacks these
126 religious and ethical standards. The rigorous halal standards have unfortunately led some
127 deceitful individuals to bypass these standards, resulting in an increase in the sale of meat that
128 does not comply with halal slaughtering requirements but is falsely labeled halal (Fuseini et
129 al., 2017). This highlights the importance of reliable halal authentication methods to maintain
130 consumer trust and uphold religious dietary guidelines.

131 The halal checking process in slaughterhouses is usually conducted by well-trained
132 experts who meticulously assess halal compliance. They thoroughly evaluate various aspects,
133 such as the pre-slaughtering process, the knife used, the person in charge, the invocation

134 made, and the method of slaughtering (AHF Halal Standards, 2023). Although relying on
135 trained experts for halal evaluation has proven effective, this approach comes with inherent
136 limitations, including the potential for inaccuracies and the subjective nature of the process
137 (Bonne and Verbeke, 2008). To address these challenges, the incorporation of analytical
138 instruments is deemed necessary (Ng et al., 2022).

139 We explored relevant articles with a specific emphasis on the procedure of halal
140 slaughtering. Our review indicated that there is still a lack of studies on identifying halal
141 slaughtered and non-halal slaughtered meat (Table 1). The most recent study, conducted in
142 2023 by Bouzraa and colleagues, evaluated the quality of beef meat produced using halal,
143 halal with stunning, and non-halal slaughter techniques. The quality was evaluated by
144 measuring the amount of microorganisms (aerobic mesophilic bacteria, enterobacteria, and
145 coliforms) and biomarkers related to animal welfare (glucose, cortisol, lactate dehydrogenase,
146 and creatine kinase) (Table 1). The study's results showed that these two parameters can
147 effectively differentiate the quality profile of each type of meat based on the technique of
148 slaughter. Specifically, the halal with stunning technique produced meat with minimal
149 microbial counts and high animal welfare biomarkers, while the non-halal slaughter
150 technique produced contrasting results (Bouzraa et al., 2023)

151 Additionally, there is another study that aimed to evaluate the quality of halal lamb by
152 comparing two halal slaughter techniques: stunning and non-stunning, using instrumental and
153 sensory analysis (Danso et al., 2017) (Table 1). Instrumental analysis revealed that lamb
154 muscles slaughtered using the halal stunning technique had a faster discoloration rate than
155 those slaughtered using the halal non-stunning technique. Whereas, the sensory score for both
156 halal slaughtered techniques was found to be comparable. These results demonstrated that
157 instrumental analysis had the potential to identify differences in halal lamb meat quality
158 across different slaughtering techniques. However, further research is necessary to determine

159 the actual effectiveness of this analysis in comparing halal and non-halal slaughtering
160 techniques.

161 The two studies discussed above have shown promising results in improving halal
162 evaluation in slaughter processes. However, more research is needed to continue advancing
163 this field. The available literature on halal slaughtering of poultry products may provide
164 valuable insights that can assist in the development of methods to evaluate halal meat
165 slaughtering. Researchers have measured the levels of hemoglobin in the muscles from halal
166 and non-halal slaughtered rabbits (Nakyinsige et al., 2014), analyzed the levels of biogenic
167 amines in halal and non-halal slaughtered chickens (Yusoff et al., 2020), and examined the
168 chicken's esophagus using image processing and artificial intelligence (AI) (Yusof et al.,
169 2020). ille these research strategies may help in the acceleration of research efforts and hence
170 enhance the reliability of the halal slaughtering evaluation process.

171

172 **Analytical methods to address mislabeling concern**

173 Furthermore, halal authentication involves not only verifying that the process of
174 production complies with regulations. It also ensures that the label information accurately
175 matches the description of the materials or components used (Chuah et al., 2016). This is
176 critical; even halal authorities have suggested that the labels on the packaging should provide
177 all the necessary information for consumers. This includes the factory name, meat type,
178 product weight, ingredients list, production date, expiry date, handling instructions, and a
179 guarantee from the factory that the product meets quality standards and is correctly labeled
180 according to consumer standards and importing country requirements (AHF Halal Standards,
181 2023).

182 However, in recent times, there has been a rise in reported cases of halal meat and
183 meat products mislabeling, which can be intentional or unintentional (Fuseini et al., 2017).

184 The intentional cases were mostly driven by monetary benefits. Often involving adulteration
185 practices where permissible components were mixed with more affordable forbidden (haram)
186 ones (Chuah et al., 2016). On the other hand, unintentional cases were frequently caused by
187 contamination from instruments, equipment, or careless handling along the supply chain
188 (Supian, 2018). Regardless of the underlying motivation, it is important to develop methods
189 for checking the correctness of labels in relation to their contents. The primary focus of this
190 section would be on research aimed at developing methods for label verification. Meanwhile,
191 in the following section, we will delve deeper into studies relating specifically to issues of
192 adulteration and contamination.

193 According to our review of the literature, there was a limited amount of research on
194 the development of label verification for halal meat and meat products. Current available
195 methods covered the use of DNA-based methods and computational technology (Table 2).
196 Multiplex polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was used in a study to validate halal labeling in
197 pre-packaged beef and poultry meat products (Chuah et al., 2016). The result of this study
198 found that only 21.7% of processed meat products had accurate labeling, with the vast
199 majority of the products being mislabeled. This suggests that the developed analytical
200 technique represents a promising strategy for verifying halal labeling.

201 Furthermore, researchers have also created applications to detect mislabeling. One
202 such application, Latext (Halal Text), utilized the integration of optical character recognition
203 (OCR) with internet of things (IoT) technologies (Yuniarti et al., 2017) (Table 2). The
204 application captured the text shown on the package, specifically the E-number, which
205 represents codes for food additives, and validated its correctness with a web service-
206 connected backend system. The trial of this smartphone Latext application resulted in the
207 ability to properly check label data by integrating information from a web-based service.
208 Another separate study used Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) models to identify non-

209 halal content on halal food product packaging labels (Fadhilah et al., 2018). CNN was
210 commonly utilized for the recognition of handwritten numeric images. The image of the label
211 was segmented into individual characters and classified using CNN. The characters were
212 subsequently converted into text format and compared with an identification list of non-halal
213 raw materials. The system achieved a character recognition accuracy of 98.08% but only 50%
214 accuracy for character verification against the existing list.

215 The aforementioned analytical method and computational technologies had the
216 potential to effectively address concerns related to mislabeling in the halal meat and meat
217 products industry, which was quite appealing. In addition, there are other DNA-based
218 methods, like DNA barcoding and random amplification of polymorphic DNA fingerprints
219 (RAPD) (Arslan et al., 2005), that could be used as alternative analytical methods to confirm
220 halal meat labeling. Thus, the examination of these approaches for use in halal meat and meat
221 products, along with the possibility of incorporating computational technology, offers a novel
222 strategy that deserves more consideration and experimentation.

223

224 **Analytical methods to uncover concerns of adulteration**

225 The occurrence of mislabeling issues was frequently linked to adulteration, which
226 refers to the deliberate mixing or substitution of permitted materials with prohibited ones
227 (Mortas et al., 2022). This issue is particularly concerning in the context of halal meat and
228 meat products. Numerous studies have explored different methods and instruments to identify
229 adulteration (Mortas et al., 2022), with PCR- and chromatography-based methods emerging
230 as the most popular and extensively studied (Table 3). Table 3 lists a range of methods
231 employed in identifying adulteration, along with a summary of the findings.

232 A substantial portion of research has focused on the identification and quantification
233 of pork in halal meat or meat products using various PCR assays. Ranging from the most

234 basic assay, singleplex PCR, to more sophisticated assays like multiplex PCR, real-time PCR,
235 PCR-RFLP (restriction fragment length polymorphisms), PCR-QIAxcel capillary
236 electrophoresis, SYBR green I-real-time PCR, species-specific PCR, qPCR, and ddPCR
237 (Table 3). This comprehensive array of PCR assays indeed showcased the versatility of PCR
238 in offering diverse tools for discerning and quantifying the presence of pork. However, to
239 enhance the development of PCR-based methods, future research efforts should move beyond
240 assay diversity.

241 One notable limitation of DNA-based analysis lies in the potential for cross-reactivity
242 with closely related species or conserved regions in non-target organisms. This inherent
243 limitation significantly elevates the risk of false positive results, particularly when discerning
244 between halal and non-halal meat from the same permissible animal species. Addressing this
245 limitation requires comprehensive exploration, delving into intricate samples, and optimizing
246 assays to enhance specificity. In addition, research on identifying prohibited animals beyond
247 pork remains limited. While successful detection methods have been established for wild
248 boar, rats, and dogs (Ali et al., 2013; Aina et al., 2019; Cahyadi et al., 2020), more
249 comprehensive studies are needed. Such comprehensive analysis would contribute to the
250 development of robust PCR methods for authenticating halal meat and meat products, leading
251 to more reliable results.

252 Furthermore, we also explored the trend in the chromatography-based method
253 category, encompassing methods such as high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC),
254 gas chromatography (GC), and liquid chromatography (LC) coupled with mass spectrometry
255 (MS) (Table 3). Chromatography-based methods focus on analyzing metabolites extracted
256 from the sample matrix, specifically meat and meat products in this context. Each
257 chromatographic instrument possesses a specific range of metabolite coverage. For example,
258 GC analysis is commonly used to identify markers within volatile compounds. One study

259 successfully identified specific volatile compounds that can be used to differentiate between
260 beef, rat, wild boar, and their mixtures. These compounds, such as dimethylfulvene and
261 benzyl alcohol, serve as unique chemical fingerprints for each meat type (Lia Amalia et al.,
262 2022). Conversely, HPLC and LC are frequently used to explore metabolite markers within
263 peptides, lipids, and larger molecular weight groups. For instance, HPLC has demonstrated
264 the ability to identify specific peptides that can be used as markers to detect very low levels
265 of pork or horse meat in beef products, as low as 0.24% (von Bargaen et al., 2014).
266 Additionally, LC-HRMS has identified specific lipid molecules, such as PC(o-
267 18:0/18:2(9Z,12Z)) and DMPC, as potential markers for differentiating meat types
268 (Windarsih et al., 2022).

269 While these methods show promise, identifying the precise origins of these markers
270 remains a challenge. Considering that the measurement was conducted on the final products
271 that have completed the entire supply chain process, it is plausible that these markers may
272 originate from the meat production process rather than the animal's metabolism or distinctive
273 meat traits (Trivedi et al., 2016). This could introduce inconsistencies and inaccuracies. As
274 such, we suggested that future research efforts should approach this complexity cautiously,
275 perform further validation, and acknowledge the possibility of confounding factors.
276 Additionally, researchers are encouraged to include detailed information about the limitations
277 of the study, which can serve as valuable guidance for future investigations.

278 Although PCR and chromatography-based methods are frequently employed, they
279 may not be the most convenient alternatives. The need for faster and more practical detection
280 methods has led to the development of biosensors and electronic noses (e-noses) (Raja et al.,
281 2023) (Table 3). While biosensors and e-noses share a common goal of detecting and
282 analyzing specific compounds, they differ fundamentally in their technologies. Biosensors
283 use biological components like enzymes, antibodies, or nucleic acids to convert signals into

284 measurable outputs. For instance, one notable study was conducted by Cheubong et al.
285 (2023). In this study, molecularly imprinted polymer nanogels (MIP-NGs) were used as
286 detectors, complemented by antibody detection methods. The MIP-NGs biosensor
287 technologies exhibited a remarkable sensitivity and delivered rapid analysis results. It was
288 able to detect pork adulteration in halal beef and lamb meat, with a detection limit of 0.01
289 wt%, within a timeframe of less than 30 min (Cheubong et al., 2023). On the other hand, e-
290 noses, designed to emulate the human olfactory system, utilize sensor arrays to identify
291 volatile compounds present in the air. In a recent study by Sarno et al. (2020), the Optimized
292 Electronic Nose System (OENS) was introduced. This system achieved an impressive
293 accuracy rate of 98.10% within 15 min, demonstrating the potential of e-nose technology for
294 rapid and accurate differentiation of meat types and products.

295 Although biosensors and e-noses show promise in detecting meat adulteration,
296 significant advancements are required to improve their sensitivity and accuracy. The complex
297 nature of meat samples, combined with various processing techniques and storage conditions,
298 complicates the differentiation of closely related samples. To address these challenges, a
299 comprehensive approach integrating multiple analytical methods is required. By combining
300 highly sensitive techniques like PCR and chromatography with biosensors and e-noses, a
301 robust reference database can be created. Furthermore, leveraging artificial intelligence (AI)
302 in this system can significantly enhance the accuracy and practicality of detecting
303 adulteration in halal meat and meat products.

304

305 **Analytical methods for detecting contamination**

306 Furthermore, our review revealed a notable intersection in the research on detecting
307 both adulteration and contamination. Both areas of study shared a common objective:
308 detecting the presence of prohibited materials, such as blood, pork, and pork derivatives

309 (Supian, 2018). The key distinction only lies in the intent behind these occurrences—
310 adulteration tends to be intentional, while contamination is typically unintentional (Fuseini et
311 al., 2017). In light of this, we argued that the research outlined in the adulteration section
312 (Table 3) could effectively contribute to detecting contamination as well. Despite this
313 alignment, we recognized the importance of further exploring literature that specifically
314 aimed to address the problem of contamination. This would offer additional insights into the
315 nuanced landscape of contamination detection. In this pursuit, we identified several studies
316 that met above-specified criteria. Table 4 summarizes these studies, which involve the
317 utilization of various methods such as densitometry analysis, high-resolution melting analysis
318 (HRMA) (Denyinghot et al., 2021), monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) (Raja et al., 2015),
319 molecularly imprinted polymer nanogel (MIP-NG)-based sensors (Cheubong et al., 2021),
320 and interdigitated electrodes (IDE) (Nordin et al., 2016).

321 Upon a thorough examination of these studies (Table 4), certain discernible patterns
322 emerged. First, there was a common focus in all the studies, which revolved around the
323 development of methods to detect the presence of pork, whether in samples of halal meat or
324 meat products. With the exception of the study employing HRMA, a method was developed
325 not only to detect pork but also to identify other prohibited animals, including donkeys, cats,
326 rats, dogs, and monkeys. Second, the variability across all studies is notable in the choice of
327 biological materials employed for analysis. Densitometry studies utilized protein extracts,
328 while HRMA and IDE procedures were reliant on DNA. On the other hand, monoclonal
329 antibodies (MAbs) utilized plasma material, contrasting with MIP-NG-based sensors that
330 utilized serum material. Collectively, these studies have shown encouraging findings and
331 added to our knowledge of the various methods used to detect pork contamination in halal
332 meat and meat products. This diverse range of detection options enables halal certification

333 bodies and other stakeholders to select methods that best suit their specific requirements and
334 analytical capabilities.

335 However, despite the progress in analytical methods, it is still quite difficult to ensure
336 the complete absence of contamination throughout the supply chain. The challenge lies in the
337 need to trace and identify contamination sources, requiring testing at all crucial points along
338 the supply chain. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to have a resilient method that can
339 adapt to a variety of settings and environments. Therefore, we suggest focusing future
340 research efforts on enhancing the durability of current methods. This strategic approach has
341 the potential to strengthen the reliability of halal evaluation in meat and meat products,
342 ultimately contributing to the mitigation of contamination occurrences.

343

344 **Future potential of research on halal authentication and halal evaluation**

345 According to our review results, it is evident that most of the studies of halal meat and
346 meat product authentication were centered around methods for detecting adulteration and
347 contamination. Meanwhile, there have been limited studies conducted on the evaluation of
348 slaughtering techniques and labeling accuracy. In light of this research trend, we suggest that
349 future developments in methods for detecting adulteration and contamination should shift
350 towards refining the practicality of existing analytical methods. Recent developments in
351 biosensors and e-noses have demonstrated encouraging progress in the field of practical
352 methods, providing valuable insights for further exploration.

353 Prioritizing practicality, in our perspective, can result in the creation of tools that are
354 more efficient and accessible. This, in turn, may lead to higher adoption rates among halal
355 bodies, potentially reducing certification costs and thereby lessening the financial burden for
356 producers. As acceptance grows, iterative development may begin to take place, enabling the
357 opportunity to learn from previous versions, identify weaknesses, and make necessary

358 improvements. This dynamic approach has the potential to further enhance the effectiveness
359 of detecting adulteration and contamination, particularly in more intricate samples or
360 challenging conditions.

361 On the other hand, when it comes to less-explored areas of research like detecting
362 improper slaughtering techniques and mislabeling, diversifying analytical instruments and
363 improving accuracy and sensitivity are more essential. This will ensure that halal bodies and
364 producers have a broader range of alternatives for assessing these non-compliance concerns.
365 It is also important to note that being able to detect prohibited materials in final halal meat
366 and meat products may not reveal information about processing practices or ingredient
367 sources. Therefore, ensuring the accuracy of the slaughtering process and labeling is of
368 utmost importance.

369 Moreover, variations in halal regulations regarding both aspects have heightened the
370 importance of advancement in this area. Though a global halal standard is available, certain
371 regions have made adjustments to align with local customs and traditions (Akbar et al.,
372 2023). For instance, Australia and New Zealand permit stunning prior to slaughter and
373 mechanical slaughter (Nakyinsige et al., 2014), whereas other countries advocate for
374 traditional hand slaughtering without stunning (Akbar et al., 2023; Nakyinsige et al., 2014).
375 Aside from that, there are also variations regarding the permissibility of certain ingredients
376 (Akbar et al., 2023). Unfortunately, these varied viewpoints and details are often not
377 explicitly disclosed on packaging labels. Consequently, the varying regulations, coupled with
378 the lack of clear information, present a significant challenge for consumers seeking to make
379 informed halal choices.

380 Given these complicated facts, we argue that not only detection methods must be
381 strengthened to address supply chain concerns but also transparency. Currently, labels
382 provide essential information such as halal signs, product details, and quality standards

383 declarations. However, a gap exists in providing results of halal evaluation and monitoring
384 (Bonne and Verbeke, 2008). To ensure halal integrity and promote transparency, it is
385 imperative to integrate advanced analytical methods and technology into halal evaluation
386 while making the resulting data easily accessible. Blockchain technology can be used to
387 achieve this transparency by providing a secure and open way for participants to store and
388 share data (Zainal and Fanny, 2020). The decentralized nature of blockchain assures that
389 information is irreversible and dependable. Moreover, network participants must verify the
390 accuracy of information when adding new blocks, ensuring that all members can access the
391 same data (Zainal and Fanny, 2020). This holistic solution strengthens halal evaluation,
392 bridges the information gap, and reinforces trust among stakeholders in the halal meat supply
393 chain. Most importantly, openly sharing detailed halal information with consumers empowers
394 them to make well-informed choices, instilling confidence in the safety of the halal meat
395 products they purchase.

396

397 **Summary**

398 The concerns surrounding the halal meat and meat product supply chain, including improper
399 slaughtering techniques, mislabeling, adulteration, and contamination, pose a threat to the
400 authenticity of halal certification. Consequently, we assessed the gap in halal authentication
401 research to propose suggestions for enhancing halal evaluation and assisting consumers in
402 verifying halal claims. Based on our review, significant progress has been made in
403 identifying adulterants and contaminants; however, a gap persists in developing accessible
404 and user-friendly analytical tools. Simultaneously, advancing research on slaughterhouse
405 practices and label integrity is crucial for maintaining comprehensive halal standards.
406 Furthermore, the integration of cutting-edge technologies such as biosensors, e-noses, and
407 blockchain offers groundbreaking potential for supply chain oversight and assessment. By

408 prioritizing practicality, precision, and transparency, we can build a resilient and reliable
409 halal meat supply chain that meets the growing demands of the global Muslim consumer
410 base.

411

412

ACCEPTED

413 **Conflict of interest**

414 The authors declare no potential conflict of interest.

415

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420 **Ethics approval**

421 This article does not require IRB/IACUC approval because there are no human or animal
422 participants.

423

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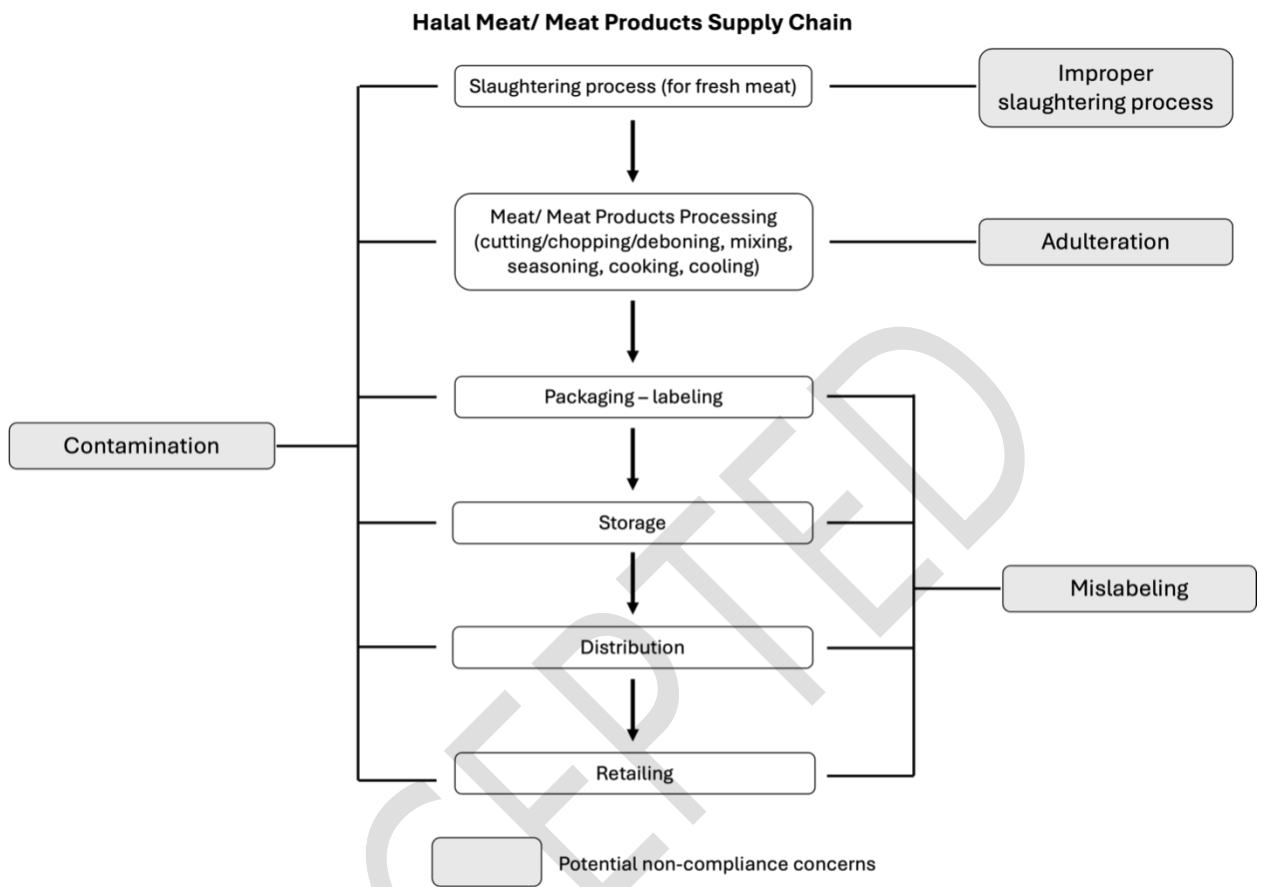
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594 **Figures**

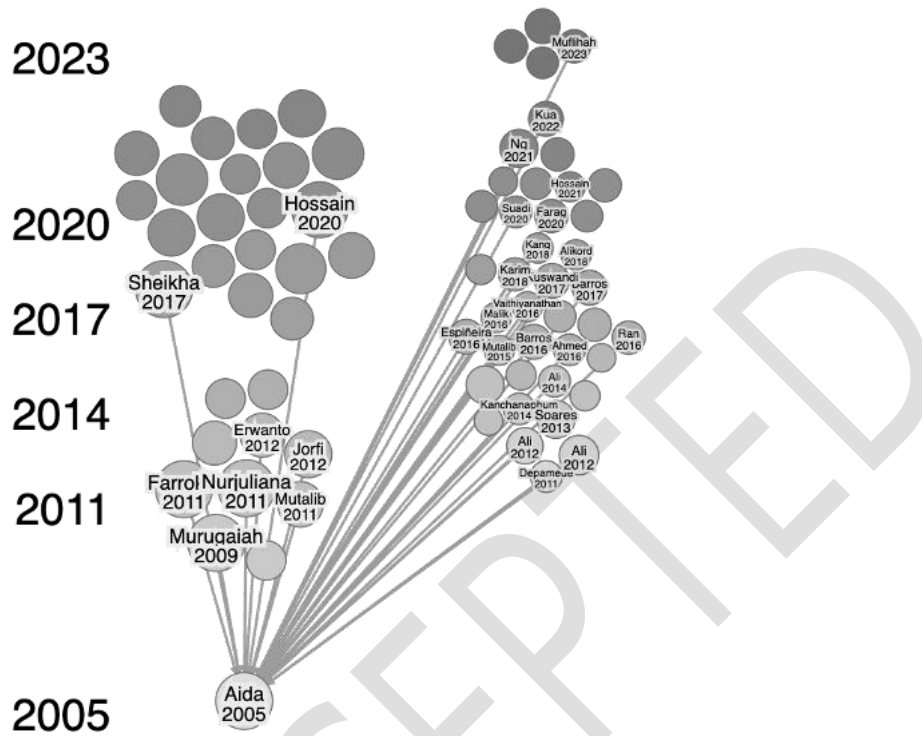
595 **Figure 1**



596

597 **Fig. 1** Illustration depicting the halal meat/meat product supply chain and potential areas of
598 non-compliance concerns.

599



601

602 **Fig. 2** Connection map illustrating papers obtained through keyword searches. Green dots
603 represent the main studies that laid the foundation for exploring interconnected papers, which
604 are blue dots (cited). The chronological order of papers is visually organized, and connections
605 are depicted through lines linking the dots.

606 **Table 1. Overview of analytical methods and technologies for evaluating the slaughtering process.**

| Non-compliance concern | Meat/ meat product | Method/ technology | Summary of findings | Reference |
|------------------------|--------------------|---|--|------------------------|
| Improper slaughtering | Beef | Microbial analysis and physiological parameters | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Microbiological counts vary ($p < 0.05$) based on the type of slaughter (regular, halal, halal with stunning), indicating differences in meat hygiene. – The type of slaughter affects ($p < 0.05$) physiological parameters in blood samples, including glucose, lactate dehydrogenase, creatine kinase, and cortisol. | (Bouzraa et al., 2023) |
| | Lamb | Instrumental and sensory analyses | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Meat quality assessments were conducted on two muscles: <i>M. longissimus thoracis et lumborum</i> and <i>M. triceps brachii</i>. – Slaughter following electric head-only stunning (EHOS) and post-cut electric head-only stun (PCEHOS) techniques resulted in quicker muscle discoloration compared to traditional halal slaughter without stunning (TNS) – No significant differences in sensory attributes between the three methods | (Danso et al., 2017) |

607

608 **Table 2. Overview of analytical methods and technologies for detecting the mislabelling issue.**

| Non-compliance concern | Meat/ meat product | Method/ technology | Summary of findings | Reference |
|------------------------|--|--|---|-------------------------|
| Mislabelling | Prepacked meat products (beef and poultry) include sausages, cold-cut meats, cooked whole muscle meats, breaded products, meatballs, and ground meats. | Multiplex PCR | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Utilized species-specific primers for meat species identification – Identified a high mislabeling rate of 78.3% in the samples | (Chuah et al., 2016) |
| | Packaged food | Optical Character Recognition (OCR) technology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – OCR technology employed for character recognition on Halal product packaging – Front-end system utilized mobile device camera – Communication with back-end system facilitated through web service technology – Application successfully identified Halal products based on label information | (Yuniarti et al., 2017) |
| | Packaged food | Deep learning technology: convolutional neural networks (CNNs) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – CNNs employed for non-halal composition detection in packaged foods via image processing. – Identification of non-halal compositions involved combining characters into words and comparing with a list. – Segmentation process significantly influenced accuracy, resulting in 50% overall word accuracy. – Main error linked to incorrect segmentation | (Fadhilah et al., 2018) |

609

610 **Table 3. Overview of analytical methods and technologies for detecting the adulteration.**

| Non-compliance concern | Meat/ meat products | Analytical method/ technology | | Summary of findings | Reference |
|------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|--|--|---------------------------|
| Adulteration | Detection of rat meat in beef meatball | Molecular spectroscopy-based methods | Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Spectral data from 3100-800 cm⁻¹ used for analysis. – Beef and rat meatballs differentiated using linear discriminant analysis. – Lipid composition differences revealed by FTIR spectra. | (Lestari et al., 2022) |
| | Identification of chicken, chevon, beef and donkey meat | | Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Identified 37 metabolites in cow, goat, donkey, and chicken muscle using 1H-NMR. – Lactate, creatine, and 10 other metabolites distinguished white (chicken) from red meat (chevon, beef, donkey). – Inosine, uracil, carnosine, and 3 others differentiated chevon, beef, and donkey | (Akhtar et al., 2021) |
| | Detection of Pork in beef sausages | | Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIR) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Three methods for multivariate analysis were established: laboratory, fiber optic probe, and on-site – Laboratory and fiber optic setups detected meat and fat adulteration down to 10% – On-site setup detected meat adulteration effectively and fat adulteration up to 20% (quartz cuvettes) or 40% (polymer packaging) | (Schmutzler et al., 2015) |
| | Identification of pork fat with other fats | | Fluorecents light spectroscopy | The developed method could effectively distinguish between pure pork, a mixture of pork, and samples without any pork based on the analyzed spectrum patterns | (Islam et al., 2021) |

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|--------------|--|------------------------------|---|--|----------------------------|
| Adulteration | Detection of rat and wild boar meat in beef meat | Chormatography-based methods | Gas Chromatography (GC) | Annotated potential metabolites marker: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Beef class: dimethylfulvene – Rat class: benzyl alcohol – Wild boar class: 1,3,5-cycloheptatriene – Mixture of beef and rat class: benzaldehyde, 3-ethyl – Mixture of beef and wild boar class: 2,6-dimethyldecane | (Lia Amalia et al., 2022) |
| | Detection of horse and pork in highly processed food | | High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Identified stable marker peptides for thermal processing of meat products – Enabled to detecti of pork or horse at low concentrations (0.24% concentration) in beef matrix – Developed a rapid 2-minute extraction protocol for protein extraction from processed food | (von Bargaen et al., 2014) |
| | Detection of pork in <i>Pangasius hypophthalmus</i> meat (PHM) | | Liquid chromatography (LC) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Authentic and adulterated PHM were reliably distinguished ($R > 0.95$ and $Q > 0.5$) – Identified PC(o-18:0/18:2(9Z,12Z)) as a potential metabolite marker and dimyristoylphosphatidylcholine as a potential marker for PHM – Myoglobin and β-hemoglobin peptides were identified as pork indicators. | (Windarsih et al., 2022) |
| | Identification of pork, beef, and chicken | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – A chemometrics-assisted shotgun proteomics approach using PCA and OPLS-DA was employed to identify peptide markers. – Glu-C endoproteinase was used for peptide identification. – Peptide specificity was validated through in vitro analysis. | (Yuswan et al., 2018) |

| | | | | | |
|--------------|--|---|--|---|---|
| Adulteration | Identification of chicken, beef, and pork sausages | Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based methods | Simplex and multiplex-PCR | Cytochrome Oxidase SubUnit I primers were effective in identifying bovine, porcine, and chicken DNA in sausages with a high sensitivity of 0.001 ng/ μ L | (Boyrusbianto et al., 2023) |
| | Detection of dog, pork, and rat meat in beef meatball | | Simplex-, duplex-, and multiplex-PCR | Multiplex-PCR with 12S rRNA gene primers could detect bovine, dog, pig, and rat species in beef meatballs in one reaction | (Cahyadi et al., 2020) |
| | Identification of pig meat and fat from other animals | | PCR-RFLP (restriction fragment length polymorphisms) | The cyt b PCR-RFLP species identification assay exhibited excellent results for detecting pig meat and fat | (Aida et al., 2005) |
| | Detection of pork in processed meat products | | | | The assay was able to detect 0.0001 ng of swine DNA in pure formats and 0.01% (w/w) spiked pork in extensively processed ternary mixtures of pork, beef, and wheat flour. |
| | Pork adulterated in raw and cooked sausages | | PCR-QIAxcel capillary electrophoresis | PCR-QIA procedure efficiently differentiated targeted DNA fragments, even at low levels (0.01% pork/meat: w/w) | (Barakat et al., 2014) |
| | Detection of dog meat in beef meatball | | Real Time-PCR | Real-time PCR using Cyt b-55 primer detected dog meat DNA at concentrations as low as 0.25 ng/mL, equivalent to 1% of dog meat in beef meatballs | (Manalu et al., 2019) |
| | Identification of pork DNA in meat (beef and chicken) extracts | | SYBR green I-real-time PCR | The assay was able to achieve a low detection limit of 0.1 ng of porcine DNA | (Farrokhi and Jafari, 2011) |
| | Detection of wild boar meat in beef meatball | | Species-specific PCR | The q-PCR assay with CYTBWB2-wb primers successfully detected wild boar meat DNA at low concentrations of 5 pg/ μ l | (Aina et al., 2019) |
| | Identification of cat, dog, pork, monkey, and rat meat | | | The assay detected 0.01–0.02 ng of DNA from raw dog, pig, monkey, and rat meats and 1% of probable meatball constituents | (Ali et al., 2015) |
| | Detection of pork meat in beef, mutton, and chicken | | qPCR (Quantitative PCR) | The assay showed high sensitivity and a low detection limit of 2.7 ng/ μ L for total DNA from pork meat | (Wu et al., 2021) |
| | Identification of porcine in meat products | | qPCR and doplelet digital PCR (ddPCR) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – QPCR and ddPCR exhibited comparable linearity ($R^2 = 0.9971$ and 0.9998, respectively). – While detection limits were similar, ddPCR demonstrated superior sensitivity at low DNA concentrations. | (Nuraeni et al., 2023) |

| | | | | | |
|--------------|---|--|--|--|------------------------------|
| Adulteration | Identification of pork in raw beef, and chicken meat, and a mixture of processed meat | Nanotechnology | Gold nanoparticles (GNPs) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Developed an electrochemical DNA biosensor using GNP-DNA probe bioconjugates on SPCE-Gold. – Optimized biosensor using 40 μL of 153 μg/mL bioconjugates, 20-minute immobilization, and 60-minute hybridization. | (Hartati et al., 2019) |
| | Identification of beef, pork, rabbit, and chicken meat profile and meat powder | Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)- | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – DSC was used to verify the halal status of beef and its byproducts. – The results showed an endothermic peak for each | (Nugrahani and Aditya, 2023) |
| | Detection of pork in beef floss | Immunoassays-based methods | Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – ELISA was more effective than conventional PCR for intensely heated product samples. – Processed meat products might contain inhibitory chemicals that can affect species identification | (Aprilia et al., 2022) |
| | Detection of pork in meat extract | | Molecularly Imprinted Polymer nanogels (MIP-NGs) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Developed a rapid PSA detection system using nanogels and antibodies. – Analysis time under 30 minutes. – Effective in detecting 0.01 wt% pork adulteration in halal meat. | (Cheubong et al., 2023) |
| | Identification of pork meat and pork sausages from beef, mutton, and chicken meats and sausages | Electronic nose | | Combining electronic nose technology, GCMS-HS analysis, and PCA for halal verification purposes gave the samples a good separation with 67% of the total variance | (Nurjuliana et al., 2011) |
| | Identification of beef and pork meat | | | The classification results showed a high accuracy of 98.10% in detecting beef and pork using the optimized support vector machine | (Sarno et al., 2020) |

614 **Table 4. Overview of analytical methods and technologies for detecting contamination.**

| Non-compliance concern | Meat/ meat product | Method/ technology | Summary of findings | Reference |
|------------------------|--|---|---|---------------------------|
| Contamination | Pork contamination in halal beef and goat sausages | Densitometry analysis | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Actin fraction (<50 kDa) identified as a potential biomarker for detecting pork in processed meat products - Precision and accuracy tests (KV <5%, percent recovery >95%) confirmed the method's effectiveness in testing halalness, particularly for pork-contaminated sausages | (Hermanto et al., 2022) |
| | Six prohibited meats (donkey, cat, pig, rat, dog, and monkey) contamination in halal beef meatballs and other commercial food products | High resolution melting analysis (HRMA) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prohibited animal DNA limit of detection: 0.01 ng (except pig DNA, which is 0.001 ng) - Method achieved 100% accuracy in identifying intentionally adulterated non-halal meats in beef meatballs - Method validation with 260 Thai food products identified two samples contaminated with pig DNA | (Denyinghot et al., 2021) |
| | Porcine blood contamination | Monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Qualitative ELISA characterized MAbs against blood, non-blood, and plasma from different species - Twelve MAbs exhibited specificity to porcine plasma - MAbs recognizing 60 kDa heat-treated soluble proteins in porcine blood and plasma were selected as a novel approach for detecting porcine plasma in processed food | (Raja et al., 2023) |
| | Pork contamination in beef extract | Molecularly imprinted polymer nanogel (MIP-NG)-based sensor | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fluorescent molecularly imprinted polymer nanogel (F-MIP-NG) sensor exhibited excellent analytical performance to detect porcine serum albumin - Rapid detection, less than 5 minutes per sample - Low detection limit of 0.1 wt% for pork contamination | (Cheubong et al., 2021) |
| | Porcine contamination | Interdigitated electrode (IDE) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Titanium Dioxide (TiO₂) deposition on IDEs for optimization - IDE could detect porcine presence at 1.0 μM - Gold replacement may enhance device sensitivity | (Nordin et al., 2016) |