Electronic Journal of Biotechnology 55 (2022) 65-77



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Electronic Journal of Biotechnology

journal homepage:



Research Article

Food adulteration with genetically modified soybeans and maize, meat of animal species and ractopamine residues in different food products



Amr A. Mostafa^a, Abd El-Hay G. Abu-Hassiba^b, Mariam T. ElRouby^{b,c}, Fatma Abou-Hashim^d, Hanaa S. Omar^{b,e,*}

^a Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Agriculture, Cairo University, Giza, Egypt

^b GMO Laboratory, Cairo University Research Park, Giza, Egypt

^c Faculty of Biotechnology, Modern Sciences and Arts University, Giza, Egypt

^d Department of Animal Production, Faculty of Agriculture, Cairo University, Giza, Egypt

^e Department of Genetics, Faculty of Agriculture, Cairo University, Giza, Egypt

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 1 May 2021 Accepted 15 November 2021 Available online 22 November 2021

Keywords: CaMV35s ELISA Food adulteration Food safety FTIR Gmos Maize Meat Ractopamine Real time PCR Recombinant DNA Soybean

ABSTRACT

Background: Governments around the world have developed a variety of strategies to address the longstanding food crisis. Food contaminated by genetically modified organisms (GMOs) and meat residues from hormonally treated animals, has recently received increased attention, posing serious health risks to consumers. The aims of this study are to detect recombinant DNA in genetically modified maize, soybeans, and fruits. Furthermore, meat adulteration by mixing meat from different animal species and ractopamine residues (RAC) in imported and local food products were detected using qualitative and quantitative methods.

Results: Sixty local and imported food samples were collected from different supermarkets, local markets, street vendors, and slum areas in Egypt. The results revealed that the recombinant DNA targeted sequences were detected in 25 samples, with the common regulatory genes (CaMV35s) found in 16 of them. The Bt-11 and RRS genes were both detected in maize and soybean samples. However, 35 were used for a screening of meat adulteration with meat from different animal species using qualitative real-time PCR and RAC residue detection using ELISA. The results revealed that 11 samples of pork were positively adulterated, and six samples of meat were positively adulterated (dog, donkey, pork, horse, sheep, chicken, and soybean). Finally, lard was detected in three positively adulterated porcine meats.

Peer review under responsibility of Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: Hanaa8324@yahoo.com (H.S. Omar).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejbt.2021.11.005

0717-3458/© 2021 Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso. Production and hosting by Elsevier B.V.

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

Conclusions: It is concluded that, as per the international regulations, in order to protect consumers from the harm caused by food adulteration, countries must recognize and implement highly restricted labelling systems, as well as qualitative and/or quantitative methods in routine analyses in internationally accredited laboratories.

How to cite: Mostafa AA, Abu-Hussein AE-HG, ElRouby MT, et al. Food adulteration with genetically modified soybeans and maize, meat of animal species and ractopamine residues in different food products. Electron J Biotechnol 2022;55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejbt.2021.11.005

© 2021 Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso. Production and hosting by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

1. Introduction

Food control and safety must be evaluated on a regular basis through risk assessments as it is a universal concern that affects human health. When the food is free of any contaminants, meets all the nutritional requirements, and has reliable labeling, then it is considered safe. Some issues related to food safety include food adulteration, toxicity, illegal food additives, pesticides, and hormone residues that encourage almost all countries to tighten food quality regulations [1]. Consequently, every government pays attention to the instructions stated by the World Health Organization (WHO) in order to prevent possible health problems that might be caused by a lack of food safety regulations [2]. Food adulteration entails the use of different animal species (dog, donkey, pork, horse, sheep, chicken and cat) mixed with bovine meat, as well as the use of some feed additives promoting growth such as RAC residue to increase quantity and reduce production costs [3]. The examination of adulteration should be performed frequently due to the religious affairs, fraud and malicious marketing practices, health risks such as specific food allergies and mutations besides the economic and legal concerns [4].

GMOs are considered one of the main food adulteration technologies and illegal additives that involves inserting foreign genes from animals, bacteria, viruses, or other plant species into crops [5]. Modern agricultural technologies are used to maximize production (quantity and quality) through better control of breeding against pests and insects. Apart from the public debates concerning GM technology, several GM crops have been permitted worldwide since the 1990s under certain regulations, and many transgenes, such as soybeans and maize, are accepted globally for cultivation and consumption [6]. Some researchers have stated that the consumption of GM food has a high potential risk of inducing allergies, toxicity, and contributing to the development of cancer via increasing DNA mutations [7]. Despite all of these human health risks, few countries, including Brazil, Argentina, USA, Canada and China, authorize the use of GMO with specified procedures in the regulatory status of the applications in their own biosafety legislation [8,9,10]. There are several cantons that have presented laws prohibiting the use of GMOs in agriculture [11]. More than 101 communes and rules have certified that they are free of GMOs. According to United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organization, Egypt has an obligatory negative labeling regulation on food products, which requires them to be labeled GMO-free in order to be imported.[12].

Meat products have several nutritional values and are suggested for daily use although the nutrients and minerals in meat vary according to meat ingredients, composition, and processing/manufacturing conditions [13]. As a result, a high quality of meat should be available with all the nutritional values and without any contaminants or unknown animal species [14]. Due to the high consumption and over price of meat, producers tend to use unauthorized species in the production of processed and unprocessed meat products. Meat adulteration, which involves mixing bovine meat with meat from other animals like donkey, dog, pork, chicken, sheep and horse, is becoming a common practice in many countries [15,16].

RAC residue is a synthetic feed additive with pharmacological and structural characteristics that are very similar to catecholamine. It acts an energy repartitioning agent by diverting nutrients through increasing protein synthesis ratio and/or through decreasing protein degradation, which promotes muscle growth by inducing muscle hypertrophy, decreasing fat deposition, improving feed conversion, and therefore increasing average daily weight gain to improve carcass yield and meat quality, thereby increasing financial profit [17,18,19,20]. In numerous countries, RAC is permitted to be used in animal production. The Codex Alimentarius Commission (Codex) has recognized RAC maximum residue limits of 90, 40, 10, and 10 μ g/kg for kidney, liver, fat, and meat, respectively [21].

Various countries have rejected its use and recognized strict traceability programs due to the toxicological and pharmacological side effects of RAC residues in meat products [20]. It can cause poisoning effects and therefore the consumption of meat products containing RAC residues may induce tachycardia, headache, spasm, high vital sign, muscle tremor, restlessness, apprehension, and anxiety, according to European Food Safety Authority [22]. Cooking methods can reduce the RAC residues by up to 47.52%, according to Hassan et al. [19]. Therefore, detecting meat from unknown sources or from growth-promoted animals is critical in order to apply food safety and protect consumers from illegal adulteration regarding health, economic, and religious issues [23,24]. This detection allows for an upgrade of risk assessments related to meat manufacturing and meat products if bovine meat is mixed with meat from other animal species, which can have harmful effects on human and animal health [22].

Nowadays, the most commonly used analysis techniques for qualifying the detection of GMOs and meat animal species are qualitative Real time-PCR analysis using SYBR GREEN and TaqMan probe [25], while the determination of RAC residues using ELISA technique [20]. To the best of our knowledge, the presence of the GM food, detection of commercial fraud with meat from different animal species, and RAC residue have not been studied on a variety of processed food gathered from various markets. The aim of this study was to investigate the presence of GM soybeans and maize in imported and local food products in order to detect meat adulteration and RAC residues.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Certified reference material

FAPAS Certified reference material (CRM) (GM accredited by the United Kingdom Accreditation Service (UKAS) as complying with the requirements of ISO/IEC 17025) was used for standard curve generation in real-time PCR analysis. CRMs from GM lines were used as a positive control for the evaluation of soybean and maize samples. The indicated CRMs must cover the CaMV35S promoter

and NOS terminator lines to be able to screen for GMOs while enhancing specific genes for detection of the endogenous targets (soybean, maize, and fruits). In this investigation, the same protocol was used in this investigation to determine the transgenic content in food samples with soybean or maize for the specific events *Roundup (RRS)* and *Bt11* genes, respectively. For each sample, appropriate CRMs and sterile ultra-pure water were used as controls to reduce the risk of false negative/positive contamination during the DNA extraction method and qualitative PCR analysis.

2.2. Sample collection

Sixty local and imported food samples were collected from different supermarkets, local markets, street vendors and slum areas in Egypt. However, 25 samples were prepared for the detection of GM sequences, 35 were prepared for screening of meat adulteration with animal species, RAC residues, and lard detection. In 2020, 25 commercially processed soybeans and maize samples from various brands (13 soybean, 9 maize and 3 fruits) were randomly purchased from the Egyptian markets. The 13 soybean samples include cake mix (n = 1), biscuits (n = 7), powder drink (n = 2), spices (n = 1), chips (n = 1), and soybean protein (n = 1), while the 9 maize samples include cake mix (n = 1), powder drink (n = 1), corn flakes (n = 1), canned corn (n = 1), popcorn (n = 1), chips (n = 1), powder drink (n = 2), and baking powder (n = 1). The origins of the collected samples, which came from different countries with varying GMO legislations are presented in Table 1.

The 35 meat samples were divided into two categories: processed and unprocessed meat products. Out of them, 16 meat samples were processed meat products that include hot dog (n = 3), canned beef (n = 2), pastrami (n = 2), salami (n = 1), sausages (n = 2), luncheon (n = 3) and, burger (n = 3), while the other 17 samples were unprocessed meat products that include frozen meat (n = 6), kofta (n = 3), raw steak (n = 2), shawarma (n = 1), liver (n = 1), minced meat (n = 4), and veal (n = 2), as shown in Table 2. As a positive control, one fresh sample each of donkey (Equus asinus), dog (Canis familiaris), chicken (Gallus gallus), pig (Sus scrofa), cat (Felis catus), and sheep (Ovis aries) was used. The samples were homogenized and stored frozen at -20°C until the DNA extraction process began. Following the detection of DNA by real-time PCR, the food samples were considered for analysis in order to detect the presence of GMOs, animal species, hormone residues, and lard. After the collection of samples, they were delivered directly to the laboratory and each package was labeled with an external code. For the prevention of enzymatic degradation, all the samples were homogenized and stored at -20°C until the DNA extraction process. This work was performed in accredited ISO21571 GMO laboratories at Research Park, Faculty of Agriculture, Cairo University and the Ministry of Higher education.

2.3. DNA extraction from different food samples and meat

The DNA extraction method for the food and meat products was performed according to the joint Research Center of the European commission and ISO21571/2013(26) with some modification. The maize, soybean, fruits and meat samples were ground with liquid nitrogen, and approximately 50 mg were weighted for each sample before being moved into a sterilized 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube comprising 500 µl of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) extraction buffer and vortexed for 15 s. The mixture was placed in a dry block thermostat TDB-120 (BIOSAN_16003) for 30 min at 65°C and then 7 µl of proteinase K was added and incubated overnight at room temperature. The mixture was treated with 10 µl of RNase A (100 mg/ml) and centrifuged at $12,000 \times g$ for 45 min before adding 700 µl of phenol-chloroform isoamyl alcohol and was again centrifuged at 12,000 \times g for 20 min. Then, 350 μ l of the extracted DNA was transferred into a sterile microtube containing 600 µl of CTAB precipitate and incubated for 75 min at room temperature. After removing the supernatant and allowing the precipitate to dry, 350 µl of NaCl followed by 350 µl of phenol-chloroform isoamyl alcohol were added. After that, 200 µl of ethanol absolute alcohol was added to the mixture and left overnight. The mixtures were then centrifuged at 12,000 \times g for 20 min, the supernatant was discarded, and 700 μ l of 70% ethanol was added. The samples were centrifuged again at $12,000 \times g$ for 15 min and the supernatant was discarded. The DNA pellet was left to dry in ethanol before being dissolved in 100 µl Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer. The DNA was cooled and stored at -20° C for further use [27]. DNA extraction from reference materials were performed with CTAB method in ISO21571. The DNA purity and concentration was measured by (Nanodrop[™] 2000, Thermo Scientific[™]) and dissolved in a final concentration of 20 ng/µl.

2.4. Determination of the concentration and purity of the extracted DNA

The measurements were taken using Nanodrop 2000 c spectrophotometer. The concentration of the extracted DNA was determined by comparing it to a blank solution at 260 nm. The ratio 260/280 was used to estimate the purity of the extracted DNA. The ratio of 260/280 nm for all extracted DNA ranged between 1.7 and 2. Atypical working concentration of 100 ng/ μ l was prepared for each sample for further analysis.

2.5. PCR primers

To qualify GMOs, specific primer sequences for soybean (*lectin* gene), maize (*starch synthase IIb* gene, *SSIIb*), and the construct-specific GM sequences, *RRS* and *Bt11*, were performed using the real-time PCR, while common regulatory sequences (35S promoter,

Table 1	[
The 25	unlabeled	maize,	soybean	and	fruit	samples	analyzed

Product's name	Number of sample	Types of species	Domestic/Imported	GM label
Corn flakes	(2)	Maize	Imported	Absent
Popcorn	(1)	Maize	Imported	Absent
Canned corn	(1)	Maize	Imported	Absent
Chips	(2)	Maize soybean	Imported	Absent
Biscuits	(7)	Soybean	Imported	Absent
Soybean protein	(1)	Soybean	Imported	Absent
Cake mix	(2)	Maize soybean	Imported	Absent
Spices	(2)	Maize soybean	Imported	Absent
Baking powder	(1)	Maize	Domestic	Absent
Powder drink	(3)	2 Maize, 1soybean	2 imported, 1 domestic	Absent
Fruits	(3)	Fruits	Imported	Absent

Table 2

The 35 animal meat species analyzed.

Types of products	Product's name	Sample NO.	Local/Imported	Label
Processed Meat	Hot Dog	(3)	Imported	Absent
	Canned beef	(2)	Imported	Absent
	Salami	(1)	Imported	Absent
	Burger	(3)	Imported	Absent
	Luncheon	(3)	2 Imported	Absent
			1 local	
	Pastrami	(2)	Imported	Absent
	Sausages	(2)	Imported	Absent
Unprocessed Meat	Frozen meat	(6)	3 Imported	Absent
-			3 local	
	Kofta	(3)	Local	Absent
	Shawarma	(1)	Local	Absent
	Liver	(1)	Imported	Absent
	Raw steak	(2)	Local	Absent
	Veal	(2)	Local	Absent
	Minced meat	(4)	2 Imported	Absent
			2 Local	

NOS terminatorgenes) according to DS/EN ISO 21569/A1 2013 and ISO/TS 21098 [28,29] were used. Besides, specific primers for different animal meat species were used, that is, *12 S RNA-tRNA val* for pork, 12S RNA for Poultry, Cytochrome b for dog, horse, and sheep, NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 2 (ND2) for donkey, and ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain4 (ND4) for cat, as clearly listed in Table 3.

2.6. Qualitative Real-Time PCR assay

Real-time PCR amplification was performed using BRO8301 (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan) for a total volume of 20 μ l samples. The PCR mixtures were 20 μ l in total volume, with10 μ l SYBER GreenReal-Time PCR master mix (KAPA Kit), 0.5 μ l of forward and reverse primer, 2 μ l of extracted DNA (10 ng) from each sample, and 7 μ l of distilled water. Thermal cycler conditions were performed using the following conditions: preincubation at 95°C for

5 min, 45 cycles comprising of dsDNA denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, primer annealing for 1 min at 65°C, and fluorescence signal collection at the end of each cycle. Real-time PCR of all genes were performed as triplicate, where the temperature was increased by 0.5°C and ranged from 65°C to 94°C. Each PCR amplification was performed in triplicate, and a negative control of deionized water, which comprised a no-template control (NTC) with all sets of responses was used, as well as positive controls, were used during the PCR reactions. For each set of primers, data were collected and processed using the real-time detection system software version. The PCR products were evaluated using agarose gel electrophoresis, with the gel dissolved in 1.5% agarose with $1 \times$ Tris Buffer EDTA (TBE) running buffer. The run was performed at 80 V for 180 min, after which the gel was stained with 0.1% ethidium bromide (EtBr). A 100 bp DNA ladder was used as molecular size standards. The DNA bands were visualized under ultraviolet light, and the gels were analyzed with a gel imager (Bio-Rad – Gel Doc[™] EQ).

Table 3

The primer sequences used to identify transgenic DNA and species- specific sequences in food product.

Species	Primer	Product length (bp)	Target genes
Common regulatory gene	F:GCATGACGTTATTTATGAGATGGG R:GACACCGCGCGCGATAATTTATCC F:GCTCCTACAAATGCCATCA	118	T-NOS
	R:GATAGTGGGATTGTGCGTCA	195	CaMV35s
Genetic-modified Maize Housekeeping gene for maize	F:TGTGTGGCCATTTATCATCGA R:CGCTCAGTGGAACGAAAACTC	68	Bt-11
	F:CTCCCAATCCTTTGACATCTGC R:TCGATTTCTCTCTTGGTGACAGG	151	SSIIb gene
Genetic-modified Soybean Housekeeping gene for soybean	F:TGATGTGATATCTCCACTGACG R:TGTATCCCTTGAGCCATGTTGT	172	Ready Roundup Soybean
	F:GACGCTATTGTGACCTCCTC R:TGTCAGGGGCATAGAAGGTG	87	Lectin gene
Pork	F:CTACATAAGAATATCCACCACA R:ACATTGTGGGATCTTCTAGGT	290	12 S RNA-tRNA valgene
Dog	F:AAACCCTTCTTCCCTCCCT R:TGCATTCGGTTACTGCTGACA	143	Cytochrome b
Horse	F:CTATCCGACACACCCAGAAGTAAAG R:GATGCTGGGAAATATGATGATCAGA	153	Cytochrome b
Donkey	F:CATCCTACTAACTATAGCCGTGCTA R:CAGTGTTGGGTTGTACACTAAGATG	145	ND2
Sheep	F: TTAAAGACTGAGAGCATGATA R: R:ATGAAAGAGGCAAATAGATTTTCG	225	Cytochrome b
Poultry	F: TGAGAACTACGAGCACAAAC R: GGGCTATTGAGCTCACTGTT	183	12S RNA
Cat	F:CATGCCTATCGAAACCTAACATAA R: AAAGAAGCTGCAGGAGAGTGAGT	274	ND4

2.7. Ractopamine determination and ELISA analysis

A competitive colorimetric assay was used to determine RAC residue using My BioSource supplies Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) kits (ELx8081U No. 20397). The Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) kits are used for the detection of a wide range of antigens, proteins, and peptides in a variety of species reactivity. Sinogenclon Co., Ltd (China) coated the plate well with RAC antigen. Two grams (±0.05 g) of homogeneous tissue samples were oscillated in 8 ml of acetonitrile solution for 2 min before being centrifuged at room temperature at 4000 r/min for 10 min to remove fat. 5 ml of the supernatant was dried at 50–60°C. A volume of 50 μ l was used for the assay, according to the procedure described by the manufacturer.

2.8. FTIR spectroscopy analysis

Fourier-transform infrared spectrophotometer (FT-IR) (Thermo Scientific Nicolet 380) was used to determine the presence of lard in meat samples. The functional group generated was observed using spectrophotometer in the mid infrared region (500–4000 cmG1). This instrument is outfitted with a deuterated trigly-cine sulphate (DTGS) detector and a KBR beam splitter with an 8 cm G1 resolution and 32 scanning. After every image, a new reference air background spectrum was reserved. The KBr plates must be exhaustively washed after this procedure to avoid contamination of future samples. The windows were wiped down with a tissue and then washed several times with diethyl ether and ethanol. The polishing kit was used in the lab to polish the window surface and dried with a soft tissue before being filled into the next sample.

3. Results

3.1. DNA concentration

The screening of GMO in food products and undeclared animal species were carried out using DS/EN ISO 21569/A1:2013, ISO/TS 21098 [28,29], and qualitative real-time PCR methods. Regarding

Table 4

Foods analyzed f	for adulteration	with genetical	ly modified	d maize, :	soybean, and	fruits.
------------------	------------------	----------------	-------------	------------	--------------	---------

CRM testing, the sensitivity of the qualitative analyzing method for GMO detection of soybean and maize, as well as undeclared animal species in meat product, was extracted with the appropriate amount of DNA and adequate quality for more accurate GMO and animal meat species testing in qualitative real-time PCR reaction. The absorbance ratios of extracted DNA at 260 nm ranged from 1.7 to 2.0 ng/µl, and the concentration of DNA was ranging from 30 to100 ng/µl for soybean, maize, and fruit product, while it ranged from 20 to 100 ng/µl for processed and unprocessed meat products. Furthermore, the results also proved that the extraction procedure was accurate, reliable, and integrated, and that the extracted DNA from raw or processed food samples was of high quality.

3.2. Detection of recombinant DNA target sequences from genetically modified soybean, maize, and fruits in food products using Qualitative Real-time PCR

The GM sequences from genetically modified soybean, maize, and fruits were screened in food products. To detect CaMV35s, T-NOS, Bt-11 and RRS genes using qualitative PCR, a total of 25 non-labeled samples were collected, including 13, 9 maize and 3 fruits. Our results suggested that the intrinsic SSIIB and specific lectin should be available for further investigation of GM sequences for sovbean and maize, respectively. The results of the present study revealed that 16 out of 35 (12 soybean, 2 maize, and 2 fruits) samples were positive for screening targets (CaMV 35S), as presented in (Table 4 and Table 5). The positive signals or |PCR amplification products were detected at position 192 of CaMV 35S sequence and displayed in samples [5,9,10,11,13,14,15,16,17,19,20,21,22,23,24,25], as presented in Fig. 1. According to the results of qualitative real-time PCR, 16 samples yielded positive results with *CaMV35s* sequence, indicating the presence of GM sequences in their genome, as shown in Fig. 2, Table 4, and Table 5. It is worth mentioning that the other common regulatory gene (T-NOS) was also detected at 118 bp in only sample 13, as presented in Fig. 3. Further evaluation revealed that all 12 soybean and 9 maize samples out of the 16 GM positive samples

Code	Product's name	Types of species	Domestic/Imported	Common regi CaMV35s TN	ulator genes OS	GM Specific BT-11 (Maize)	events RRS (Soybean)
1	Corn flakes	Maize	I	-	-	-	-
2	Cake mix	Maize	I	-	-	-	-
3	Cake mix	Soybean	I	-	-	-	-
4	Corn flakes	Maize	I	-	-	-	-
5	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
6	Canned corn	Maize	I	-	-	-	-
7	Popcorn	Maize	I	-	-	-	-
8	Fruit	Fruit	I	-	-	-	-
9	Fruit	Fruit	I	Detected	-	-	-
10	Powder drink	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
11	Spices	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
12	Chips	Maize	I	-	-	-	-
13	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	Detected	-	-
14	Chips	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
15	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
16	Powder drink	Maize	D	Detected	-	Detected	-
17	Spices	Maize	I	Detected	-	-	-
18	Baking powder	Maize	D	-	-	-	-
19	Powder drink	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
20	Soybean powder	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	Detected
21	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
22	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
23	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
24	Biscuits	Soybean	I	Detected	-	-	-
25	Fruit	Fruit	I	Detected	-	-	-

I: Imported, D: domestic - : Not detected for GM sequence (Negative results); Detected: for GM sequence (positive results).

М	+	-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
=															
-															
М	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	NTC	
~															
Ĩ															
Rooter a															

Fig. 1. PCR amplification of GMO-specific regions using CaMV35S primers. Lanes 1–25 extracted from food products containing maize, soybean, and fruits samples. M: Molecular weight marker (100 bp ladder) + ve: positive sample (Certified reference material) and – : negative sample (sterile ultra-pure water), NTC non-template control.



Fig. 2. GM food as standard of real-time amplification at 195 bp bands in 25 samples (+GM) and negative control of amplification (-GM).

Table 5The Detection of endogenous genes and transgenic DNA sequences of soybean and maize product samples in 2020 using qualitative Real-time PCR method.

Food products	NO. of samples	SSIIb	Lectin	Commor regulator CaMV35s	ı ry sNOS	GM Spe events Bt-11 R	ecific RRS	GMO% percentage
Soybean product	13	-	13	12	1	-	1	92%
Maize product	9	9	-	2	-	1	-	22%
Fruits	3	-	-	2	-	-	-	66%
Total	25	9	13	16	1	1	1	-



Fig. 3. PCR amplification of GMO-specific regions using primer pairs: TNOS for/TNOS rev. Lanes 1–25 extracted from food products containing maize, soybean, and fruits samples. M: Molecular weight marker (100 bp ladder) +ve positive sample, i.e., certified reference material, –ve negative control. NTC non-template control.

were detected using the RRS gene (soybean) and Bt-11 gene (maize), respectively. Our results revealed that the RRS sequence was present in the genome of soybean powder sample (NO. 20) (Fig. 4A), while *Bt-11* sequence was present in the genome of powder drink sample (NO. 16) (Fig. 4B). The results confirmed the presence of GM sequences in soybean and maize genomes, as presented in Fig. 4. The qualitative real-time PCR results of the 12 food samples containing soybean, which included chips, biscuits, soybean powder protein, spices and powder drink were positive for screening targets (CaMV35s, NOS, RRS). CaMV35s, NOS and Bt 11 were also identified in two maize samples, that is, powder drink and spices. However, as presented in Table 4, two fruit samples tested positive for*CaMV*35s. The results of the present study (Table 5) indicated that 92%, 22%, and 66% of soybean, maize and fruit samples, respectively, tested positive for screening targets GM sequences. Egypt has imported different types of transgenic crops, such as sovbean and maize, but the cultivation of these plants is still prohibited.

3.3. Determination of commercial adulteration with different animal meat species using the real-time PCR

The animal species declared on the product label was detected in all thirty five products revealed that the PCR amplifiable DNA was successfully extracted from all processed and unprocessed meat products according to DS/EN ISO 21569/A1:2013. The mitochondrial DNA of 35 meat samples representing different animal species were successfully amplified using specific primers. In this study, we propose a qualitative real-time PCR analysis for accurate quantification of pork, soybean, chicken, dog, cat, donkey, sheep, and horse using specific primer sequences targeting the *lectin* gene of soybean, 12SRNA- tRNA val of pork, cytochrome b of dog horse and sheep, ND2 of donkey, and ND4 of cat. Through real-time PCR, the primers generated specific fragments, that is, 290, 143, 153, 145, 225, 183, and 274 bps for pork, dog, horse, donkey, sheep, chicken and cat, respectively. The quantitative real-time PCR results are recommenced and compared with the labeled data regarding the addition of pork, sovbean, chicken, dog, cat, donkey, sheep, and horse to the 35 samples of processed and unprocessed meat products presented in Table 6. The results revealed that clear and positive data findings for the porcine virulent gene (12SRNAtRNA val) were scored in 11 meat samples [12,14,19,21,22,23,16,25,17,26,28], as presented Table 6 and Fig. 5. Moreover, the virulent genes in different animal meat species were amplified in five samples, that is, for the dog [29], horse [31], donkey [28], sheep [30], and chicken [33], while cat virulent

genes were not detected in any of the meat samples, as shown in Fig. 5. The results revealed that pork is the most common undeclared species in burgers, luncheons, hog dogs, veal, liver, burgers, and frozen meat. Furthermore, the results showed that the imported minced meat was contaminated and adulated with dog, horse, and sheep (Table 6).

3.4. Determination of RAC residues using ELISA technique

The results of RAC revealed that all the tested samples contained RAC, but none of them exceeded the maximum limit specified by Codex [21]. Therefore, the RAC limit ratio was found in 19 out of 35 collected processed and unprocessed meat samples. The results showed that the RAC residues in liver tissues were the highest among samples. Furthermore, the highest detected RAC concentrations were associated with samples contaminated with pork. The data in Table 7 show that the unprocessed samples exhibited a higher RAC value than heat processed samples. In this connection, Pastrami had a RAC concentration of $6.3 \mu g/kg$ when prepared by dehydration at room temperature, compared to luncheon, which had RAC concentration of $3.44-4.63 \mu g/kg$ when prepared by boiling or steaming. These results prove that heat treatment can decrease the RAC concentration in processed meat samples.

3.5. Determination of lard in meat samples using FTIR spectroscopy

Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy "FTIR" peaks highlight the presence of specific hydroxide groups, thereby identifying fatty acids. However, the FTIR spectrophotometry analysis was used to determine the presence of a fatty acid called nervonic acid that indicates the contamination of meat with lard. The results revealed that only 3 out of 35 meat samples showed positive results, which were shawarma, liver, and Hawawshi [14,22,24], respectively. According to the results, the peaks of the carboxylic group are flat, and the wave numbers for these three samples are 3441, 3431, 3471 cm, respectively. Furthermore, the ketone peaks are sharp and the wave numbers are 1742 cm^{-1} for all of these samples (Fig. 6). Moreover, the concentration value of nervonic acid in samples 14, 22, and 24 were 89.95, 73.38, and 74.88, respectively, indicating the presence of lard contamination. The remaining processed and unprocessed meat samples that showed negative results, indicating a lack of broadband at the hydroxide group and the absence of nervonic acid. The results proved the presence of lard contamination in three processed and unprocessed meat products.



Fig. 4. GM food as standard of real-time amplification for both genes Ready Roundup Soybean (A) at 172 bp in sample 20 and Bt-11 (B) at 68 bp bands in sample 16, Negative control of amplification.

Table 6

Meat products analyzed for adulteration with other species. D 1/

Code	Product's	Processed/	Undeclared animal meat species detected								
	name	Unprocessed	Domestic/ Imported	(Pork) 12 S RNA- tRNAval	(Poultry) 12S RNA	(Dog) Cytochrome b	(Sheep) Cytochrome b	(Horse) Cytochrome b	(Donkey) ND2	(Cat) ND4	Soybean Lectin
1	Hot Dog	Р	Ι	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Canned	Р	Ι	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Pastrami	Р	Ι	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Salami	Р	Ι	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Frozen	U	I	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	meat										
6	Hot Dog	Р	Ι	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	Canned	Р	Ι	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	Sausages	Р	I	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	Kofta	U	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Kofta	U	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	Raw steak	U	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	Burger	Р	I	Detected	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	Luncheon	Р	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	Shawarma	U	L	Detected	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	Frozen	U	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	meat										
16	Frozen	U	L	Detected	-	-	-	-	_	_	-
	meat	0	2	Detetted							
17	Luncheon	р	I	Detected	-	-	-	-	_	_	-
18	Sausages	р	I	-	-	-	-	-	_	_	-
19	Hot Dog	P	I	Detected	-	-	-	-	-	_	-
20	Frozen	U	I	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	-
20	meat	0	•								
21	Veal	П	I	Detected	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
22	Liver	U U	Ĩ	Detected	-	-	-	-	-	_	-
23	Burger	р	I	Detected	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
23	Raw steak	II.	I	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
25	Frozen	U	L	Detected	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
25	meat	0	1	Dettetteu							
26	Luncheon	D	I	Detected							
20	Pastrami	P	I	-	_	_	-	_		-	-
27	Frozen	II II	I	Detected		_	_		Detected	_	_
20	meat	0	1	Dettetteu					Dettetteu		
20	Minced	П	I			Detected					
25	ment	0	1			Dettettu					
20	Mincod	П	I				Detected				
30	most	0	I	-	-	-	Delected	-	-	-	-
21	Mincod	П	I					Dotoctod			
21	most	U	1	-	-	-	-	Deletteu	-	-	-
22	Mincod	П	т								
52	most	U	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22	Weal	П	T		Dotocto -						
24	Vedi	U D	I T	-	Detected	-	-	-	-	-	- Dotoctod
34 25	Burger	r	I	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Detected
30	NUILd	U	L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

P: processed; U: unprocessed; I: imported; L: Local.

4. Discussion

Food safety is a major concern around the world, owing to the increased attention to the concept of food adulteration, which affects people of all genders and ages. The Imported and food markets have a high influence on public health as different strategies have been developed to increase food grains production using GM material, a mixture of meat animal species, and meat from hormonally exposed animals. Therefore, this comprehensive screening study was designed to demonstrate and detect economically encouraged food adulteration with GMOs, animal meat species, and RAC in 60 local and imported products. It is generally considered difficult to accurately determine the food adulteration with GMOs and meat animal species using the same qualitative specific methods. As a result, this study was performed according to DS/EN ISO 21569/A1:2013, ISO/TS 21098 and qualitative real-time PCR methods due to their reliability, cost effectiveness, and high sensitivity in the detection of any contaminates in meat and food products.

Food samples containing soybean and maize have been selected for GM sequence detection since soybean and maize are ranked as the two most widely cultivated GM crops in the world. Results of GM sequence detection revealed that using the common regulatory genes (CaMV35s, NOS terminator) and specific genes (Bt-11 and RRS) for soybean and maize, respectively, the recombinant DNA target sequences were detected in 16 out of 25 non-labeled samples using qualitative real-time PCR. The results revealed that the recombinant DNA target sequences were detected in some imported products, such as chips, biscuits, soybean protein, spices, powder drink, and fruits, but not in domestic food production. Results of the present study indicated that the majority of GM positive samples contained soybean (95%) while only two of the positive samples contained maize (22%). Our results agree with several studies (Sieradzki et al. [30] in Poland, Ujhelyi et al. [31] in Hungarian, Greiner and Konietzny [32] in Brazil and Arun et al. [33] in Turkey). In many countries, these studies found a high percentage of GM sequences in food and feed products, including soybean products. Our findings for the non-labeled food samples were consis-



Fig. 5. Real-time PCR amplification of 34 animal species: (A) chicken, (B) dog, (C) donkey, (D) horse, (E) sheep, (F) soybean, and (H) pork.

tent with the results of Rabiei et al. [34], who used qualitative real time-PCR toscreen25 food samples from Iranian markets using CaMV35s and Bt11 primers, but only 5 were positive for GM maize. Similarly, Kaur et al. [35] found CaMV 35 S promoter or NOS terminator and Bt-11 sequences in he genomes of 13 out of 20 screened non-labeled maize samples from the Malaysia market. CaMV 35 S promoter and NOS terminator are the two most important screening common regulatory genes for qualitative PCR analyzes in most of the commercialized transgenic crops [36]. Furthermore, Holden et al. [37] revealed that the CaMV 35 S exists in 95% of GM foods in Europe. Safaei et al. [38] used CaMV35Spromoter and NOS terminator for the identification of GM rice sequences by PCR in nonlabeled rice samples from the Iran market Furthermore, Oraby et al [39] used the CaMV35s promoter and NOS terminator genes for GM sequence detection in food products using the PCR technique in Egypt.

Our results in Egypt, which used specific events such as the Bt-11 and RRS genes for soybean and maize, respectively, suggest the need for further evaluation and confirmation of the GM sequence in food products. The results indicated that the Bt-11 and RR soy genes were present in both the GM positive soybean and maize samples, proving the presence of GM sequences in their genomes. Our results agree with Zdjelar et al. [40], who indicated that eight non-labeled soybean samples from the EU countries, Argentina, the USA, Thailand, and Brazil eventually yielded positive results for RRS sequence. RRS specific gene sequence is the only transgene plant variety permitted for consumption in the EU market, but it is not permitted to be cultivated. The gene RRS has been encoded to be glyphosate-resistant during the cultivation. Glyphosate is a nonselective chemical substance that is commonly used in RR herbicides although its accumulation in soil and plants may have unintended consequences for the environment and human

Table 7

	Product's name	Domestic/Imported	Adulteration	RAC (µg/kg)
Processed meat	Burger	Ι	Pork	2.74
	Canned beef	Ι	ND	0.89
	Salami	I	ND	3.44
	Luncheon	Ι	Pork	4.63
	Hot Dog	Ι	Pork	1.14
	Sausage	Ι	ND	2.44
	Pastrami	I	ND	6.30
Unprocessed meat	Veal	L	Pork	1.28
	Liver	Ι	Pork	2.02
	Raw steak	L	-	2.34
	Frozen meat	Ι	Pork	ND
	Minced meat	Ι	Dog	0.30
	Minced meat	I	Sheep	ND
	Minced meat	I	Horse	ND
	Veal	I	Poultry	ND
	Frozen meat	I	Donkey	1.48
	Kofta	L	ND	3.33
	Shawerma	L	Pork	2.75
	Frozen meat	L	Pork	ND

ND: Not detected; L: local; I: Imported.

health [41]. For instance, Mesnage et al. [42] revealed that glyphosate has adverse effects such as neurotoxicity, carcinogenicity, hepatic, and kidney toxicity when used within regulatory limits. The present study indicated the maize events *Bt-11* were detected in a single product like tortilla spice. However, the Maize event *Bt-11* is designed to provide resistance to an insect that has been approved for use in food and feed products by the EU. Hence, food safety concerns necessitate the detection of residue concentrations and GM materials in food products, especially in glyphosateresistant crops.

The results of the study in 2005 and that of the present study indicated the increasing rate of GM products' availability in Egypt. Therefore, the necessity of a monitoring system to provide a good reliable control of GM materials in food products, and subsequently, on their labeling is obvious. In spite of the Egyptian legislation requiring the labeling of food materials derived from GMOs, none of the collected samples in 2020 were appropriately labeled. Egypt has imported different types of transgenic crops, including soybean and maize, but the cultivation of these plants is prohibited till date. Additionally, in order to control these products and protect the consumers' concerns about their biosafety, adopting regulation and reliable monitoring program is recommended. However, the several risks that estimated from the use of GM food product, as stated in several studies around the world, has led to a mandatory labeling system indicating that food contains GM products to save consumer's right and protect public health [43,44,45]. According to the European Union (EU) legislation and several other countries' rules and restrictions, products containing GMO must be labeled with "GMO-free" to be legalized and accepted for entering the Egyptian markets [7]. Moreover, the consumption of food and fruit products in the developing countries has increased, necessitating heightened awareness of unlabeled food for the protection of public health. A restricted system should be developed to allow for the detection of the GMO products found in fruits, food, and feed.

The detection of animal species in processed and unprocessed meat products is causing widespread concern due to medical concerns and customer rights. Consequently, many analytical techniques such as RFLP and RAPD were used for the identification of meat species using DNA-based or PCR-based techniques [46]. Recently, real-time PCR has been recommended as the most accurate technique for screening of animal meat species in individual or in mixed samples to protect consumers from adulterated food and save public health. In the present study, real-time quantitative PCR method was used to detect animal meat species of pork, chicken, dog, cat, donkey, sheep, and horse in meat products according to DS/EN ISO 21569/A1:2013. Then, for the detection of each species, specific primers were designed for the gene encoding *12S RNA*, 12SRNA-*tRNA val*, *cytochrome* b, *ND2* and *ND4*.

The results indicated that the specific sequence of each species was detected in 17 out of 35 meat samples, including 11 that were adulterated with pork, and only one sample was found to be positive for each species (dog, donkey, horse, sheep, soybean, and poultry). The majority of the positive meat samples were unprocessed and imported, while only three samples were domestic from slum area. In parallel, it also agrees with the study of Rashid et al. [47] because they used similar primers for the detection of meat animal species. Another agreement, on the other hand, used the real time-PCR for the detection of the adulteration in animal meat species [48]. In Bangladesh, Farag et al. [46] reported the presence of dog, donkey, chicken, pork, sheep, and horse in 15 meat samples using DNA-based techniques, particularly the PCR-based techniques such as RFLP and RAPD.

The results revealed that the real-time PCR systems were established for the specific detection of each species, whether it was a GM maize/soybean or mixture of meat animal species. Meanwhile, it clearly proved to be an easy and accurate method for applying to various food and meat products, and it is globally used due to its high quality and reliability of results.

In the scanning study, the Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assays (ELISA) technique was used to quantify RAC residues in meat products. This method can detect RAC accurately without the need for complicated purification due to the specificity of the antibody used [49]. The results revealed that the RAC limit ratio was shown in 19 out of 35 collected processed and unprocessed meat samples. In this respect, Chai et al. [50] have established this technique as a screening method for RAC residues in imported and exported meat. Besides, Dong et al. [51] proved that the concentra-RAC in tissues is ascends as follows: tion of the stomach kidney large intestine > small > > intestine > liver > heart > muscle. This finding may be related to the high temperature exposure during preparation, as suggested by Hassan et al. [19]. In addition that may explain the decrease in RAC residues in heat-processed meat. Our results revealed that



Fig. 6. Showing the FT-IR curve of the positive lard samples.

untreated samples (kofta, shawarma) had a higher RAC value than heat-treated samples (pastrami, luncheon). However, the concentrations remain below the maximum safe limit specified by Codex, 2012 [21].

FTIR analysis was used to detect the presence of Lard in processed and unprocessed meat. Our results revealed that only three samples were identified as containing lard in processed and unprocessed meat products, while the remaining meat samples were not identified as containing lard. Our results agree with Ramli et al. [52], who reported that the FTIR analysis can provide a low-cost and rapid method with minimal usage of chemicals to identify the presence of lard in meat samples. However, the discriminant FTIR analysis performed was able to categorize the samples into their specific groups, permitting the detection of lard.

The detection of GMi soybeans, maize and fruits, undeclared animal species, RAC residue and lard presence revealed the need for comprehensive studies as well as studies of the physiological effects after long-term consumption by humans. Likewise, there are many previous studies that prove the existence of several risks to human health where the governments have the responsibility of developing and implementing regulations to protect consumers worldwide from the harm caused by food adulteration. Previous studies on genetically modified plants has raised severe safety concerns about their use as food or feed [53].

5. Conclusions

The current study was conducted to detect the economically adulterated food products containing GMOs, undeclared animal meat species, lard and RAC residue in several local and imported products to ensure the consumer protection and his/her right to choose. According to our results, it could be concluded that DS/EN ISO 21569/A1:2013, ISO/TS 21098, qualitative real-time PCR, FTIR spectroscopy, and ELISA methods have high sensitivity, accuracy and cost effectiveness for detecting and monitoring of adulteration in food and meat products. The results clearly presented the existence of transgenic sequences (GM) in soybean and maize food products. Besides, the presence of lard, high RAC concentrations and undeclared animal meat species in processed/unprocessed meat products has been documented. The obtained data clearly showed that all the detected positive samples were unlabeled, providing consumers with reliable information. The present study emphasizes the urgent need for a strict legislative and regulation system in the sector of local/imported food products to emphasize the labeling compliance, and hence, protecting the human public health.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

References

- Feng YZ, Sun, DW. Application of hyperspectral imaging in food safety inspection and control: A review. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 2012;52(11):1039– 58. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2011.651542.
- [2] World Health Organization (WHO). Estimating the burden of foodborne diseases. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2015. [Accessed 4 February 2020]. (https://www.who.int/foodsafety/areas_work/foodborne-diseases/ferg/ en/).
- [3] Ahmed MMM, Abdel-Rahman SM, El-Hanafy AA. Application of speciesspecific polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for different meat species authentication. Biotechnology 2007;6:426–30. <u>https://doi.org/10.3923/ biotech.2007.426.430</u>.
- [4] Mane BG, Mendiratta SK, Tiwari AK. Polymerase chain reaction assay for identification of chicken in meat and meat products. Food Chem 2009;116:806–10. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.03.030</u>.
- [5] Peter R, Mojca J, Primož P. Genetically modified organisms (GMOs) Editor(s): J. O. Nriagu, Encyclopedia of environmental health, 2011:879-888. https://doi. org/10.1016/B978-0-444-52272-6.00481-5. PMid: 21562922.
- [6] Grow from Knowledge (GFK). Decision factors on what to eat or drink Global GfK survey, (2017). London.
- [7] Bawa AS, Anilakumar KR. Genetically modified foods: safety, risks and public concerns-a review. J Food Sci Technol 2013;50(6):1035–46. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s13197-012-0899-1</u>. PMid: 24426015.
- [8] Burachik M. Regulation of GM crops in Argentina. GM Crops Food 2012;3 (1):48-51.
- [9] Brookes G, Barfoot P. GM crops: The First Ten Years-Global Socio-economic and Environmental Impacts. ISAAA Brief No. 36. ISAAA: Ithaca, NY. 2006. ISBN 1-892456-41-9
- [10] Roederer C, Nugent R, Wilson P. Economic impact of genetically modified crop on the agri-food sector; A first review. European Commission, Working Document; 2000.
- [11] Goumaz M. Menace sur les cantonssans OGM. Le Temps (in French). Retrieved 22 July 2016. Available at: https://www.letemps.ch/suisse/menace-cantonsogm
- [12] FAO. The future of food and agriculture: Trends and challenges. 2017, Rome. ISBN: 978-92-5-109551-5.
- [13] Damez JL, Clerjon S. Quantifying and predicting meat and meat products quality attributes using electromagnetic waves: An overview. Meat Sci 2013;95(4):879-896. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meatsci.2013.04.037. PMid: 23688798.
- [14] Kim YHB, Warner RD, Rosenvold K. Influence of high pre-rigor temperature and fast pH fall on muscle proteins and meat quality: A review. Anim Prod Sci 2014;54(4):375–95. <u>https://doi.org/10.1071/AN13329</u>.
- [15] Migaldi M, Rossi G, Sgambato A, et al. Histological and immunohistochemical analysis of meat-based food preparations. Progr Nutr 2016;18(3):276–82.
- [16] Ong SB, Zuraini LC, Chai WG, et al. Meat molecular detection: sensitivity of polymerase chain reaction-restriction fragment length polymorphism in species differentiation of meat from animal origin. ASEAN Food J 2007;14 (1):51–9.
- [17] Bohrer BM, Kyle JM, Boler DD, et al. Meta-analysis of the effects of ractopamine hydrochloride on carcass cutability and primal yields of finishing pigs. J Anim Sci 2013;91(2):1015–23. <u>https://doi.org/10.2527/jas.2012-5647</u>. PMid: 23148254.
- [18] Beermann DH. Meat, animal, poultry and fish production and management/beta-agonists. In: Encyclopedia of Meat Sciences. 2nd ed. London: Elsevier, 2014:177-180. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384731-7.00017-9.

- [19] Hassan M, Reham AA, Marzouk NM, et al. Effect of different cooking methods on ractopamine residues in beef. Benha Vet Med J 2016;31(2):210–2. <u>https:// doi.org/10.21608/bvmj.2016.31299</u>.
- [20] Aroeira CN, Feddern V, Gressler V, et al. Determination of ractopamine residue in tissues and urine from pig fed meat and bone meal. Food Addit Contam: Part A 2019;36(3):424–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/19440049.2019.1567942. PMid: 30785370
- [21] Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA). Information sheet – Discussion on ractopamine in codex and in the joint FAO/WHO expert committee on food additives (JECFA). 2012;1:1–2.
- [22] EFSA European Food Safety Authority. Safety evaluation of ractopamine. Scientific Opinion of the panel on Additives and products or Substances used in animal feed. EFSA J 2009;1041:1-52. 1041. https://doi.org/10.2903/j. efsa.2009.1041.
- [23] Ghovvati S, Nassiri MR, Mirhoseini SZ, et al. Effect Fraud identification in industrial meat products by multiplex PCR assay. Food Control 2009;20 (8):696–9. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2008.09.002</u>.
- [24] Ciupa A, Mihaiu M, Dan SD, et al. Using PCR techniques for rapid detection of animal species in meat products. Bull UASMV Vet Med 2012;69(1-2):58–61.
- [25] Köppel R, Ruf J, Rentsch J. Multiplex real-time PCR for the detection and quantification of DNA from beef, pork, horse and sheep. Eur Food Res Technol 2011;232(1):151–5. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-010-1371-y</u>.
- [26] IS/ISO 21571 /2013: Foodstuffs Methods of analysis for the detection of genetically modified organisms and derived products – Nucleic acid extraction.
- [27] Al-Kahtani HA, Ismail EA, Ahmed MA. Pork detection in binary meat mixtures and some commercial food products using conventional and real-time PCR techniques. Food Chem 2017;219:54-60. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.foodchem.2016.09.108. PMid: 27765258.
- [28] ISO 21569:2005/Amd: (2013). Foodstuffs Methods of analysis for the detection of genetically modified organisms and derived products – Qualitative nucleic acid based methods – Amendment 1 (ISO 21569:2005/ Amd1:2013).
- [29] ISO/TS 21098(2005) Amd: 2013 Foodstuffs Nucleic acid based methods of analysis of genetically modified organisms and derived products – Information to be supplied and procedure for the addition of methods to ISO 21569, ISO 21570 or ISO 21571.
- [30] Sieradzki Z, Walczak M, Kwiatek K. Occurrence of genetically modified maize and soybean in animal feeding stuffs. Bull Vet Inst Pulawy 2006;51:567–70.
- [31] Ujhelyi G, Vajda B, Béki E, et al. Surveying the RR soy content of commercially available food products in Hungary. Food Control 2008;19(10):967–73. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2007.10.004</u>.
- [32] Greiner R, Konietzny U. Presence of genetically modified maize and soy in food products sold commercially in Brazil from 2000 to 2005. Food Control 2008;19 (5):499–505. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/i.foodcont.2007.05.016</u>.
- [33] Arun ÖÖ, Yılmaz F, Muratoğlu K. PCR detection of genetically modified maize and soy in mildly and highly processed foods. Food Control 2013;32 (2):525-31. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/i.foodcont.2013.01.023</u>.
- [34] Rabiei M, Mehdizadeh M, Rastegar H, et al. Detection of genetically modified maize in processed foods sold commercially in Iran by qualitative PCR. Iran J Pharm Res 2013;12(1):25-30. PMid: 24250568.
- [35] Kaur J, Radu S, Ghazali FM, et al. Real-time PCR-based detection and quantification of genetically modified maize in processed feeds commercialised in Malaysia. Food Control 2010;21(11):1536-1544. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2010.03.018.
- [36] Herzallah SM. Detection of genetically modified material in feed and foodstuffs containing soy and maize in Jordan. J Food Compost Anal 2012;26(1-2):169-72. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfca.2012.01.007</u>.
 [37] Holden MJ,Levine M, Scholdberg T, et al. The use of 35S and T *nos* expression
- [37] Holden MJ,Levine M, Scholdberg T, et al. The use of 35S and T nos expression elements in the measurement of genetically engineered. Plant Mater Anal Bioanal Chem 2010;396(6):2175-2187. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00216-009-3186-x. PMid: 19856176.
- [38] Safaei P, Aghaee EM, Khaniki GJ, et al. A simple and accurate PCR method for detection of genetically modified rice. J Environ Health Sci Eng 2019;17:847–51. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s40201-019-00401-x</u>. PMid: 32030158.
- [39] Oraby HAS, Hassan AA, Abou Mossallam AA. Screening food products for the presence of CaMV 35S promoter and NOS 3' terminator. Sci Food Agric 2005;85(12):1974–80. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.2201</u>.
- [40] Zdjelar G, Nikolić Z, Vasiljević I, Bajić B, Jovičić D, Ignjatov M, et al. Detection of genetically modified soya, maize, and rice in vegetarian and healthy food products in Serbia. Czech J Food Sci 2013;31(1):43–8. <u>https://doi.org/</u> 10.17221/105/2012-CIFS.
- [41] Bonny S. Genetically modified glyphosate-tolerant soybean in the USA: Adoption Factors, impacts and prospects. A review. Agron Sustain Dev 2008;28(1):21–32. <u>https://doi.org/10.1051/agro:2007044</u>.
- [42] Mesnage R, Defarge N, Spiroux de Vendômois J, et al. Potential toxic effects of glyphosate and its commercial formulations below regulatory limits. Food Chem Toxicol 2015;84:133–53. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2015.08.012</u>. PMid:26282372.
- [43] Fraiture MA, Herman P, De Loose M, et al. How can we better detect unauthorized GMOs in food and feed chains? Trends Biotechnol 2017;35:508–17. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2017.03.002</u>. PMid:28347568.
- [44] Gao W, Tian J, Huang K, et al. Ultrafast, universal and visual screening of dual genetically modified elements based on dual super PCR and a lateral flow

A.A. Mostafa, Abd El-Hay G. Abu-Hassiba, M.T. ElRouby et al.

biosensor. Food Chem 2019;279:246–51. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/</u> j.foodchem.2018.12.013. PMid: 30611487.

- [45] Sánchez-Paniagua López M, Manzanares-Palenzuela CL, López-Ruiz B. Biosensors for GMO testing: nearly 25 years of research. Crit Rev Anal Chem 2018;48(5):391-405. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10408347.2018.1442708</u>.
- [46] FaragMR AM, Abd El-Hack ME, et al. Identification of different animal species in meat and meat products: Trends and advances. Adv Anim Vet Sci 2015;3 (6):334-46. <u>https://doi.org/10.14737/journal.aavs/2015/3.6.334.346</u>.
- [47] Atta PM, Babashekh MO, Marouf AS. Identification of animal species in meat broth by simplex and multiplex PCR. J Zankoy Sulaimani 2014;16(1):97–102.
- [48] Soares S, Amaral JS, Oliveira MBPP, et al. A SYBR Green real-time PCR assay to detect and quantify pork meat in processed poultry meat products. Meat Sci 2013;94(1):115–20. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meatsci.2012.12.012</u>.
- [49] Niño AMM, Granja RHMM, Wanschel ACBA, Salerno AG. The challenges of ractopamine use in meat production for export to European Union and Russia.

Electronic Journal of Biotechnology 55 (2022) 65-77

Food	Control	2017;72:289-92.	https://doi.org/10.1016/
i.foodcor	nt.2015.10.015.		

- [50] Chai M, Hui H, Huang C. Ractopamine detection in meat and meat products by ELISA. Food Res Dev 2013;34:78–80.
- [51] Dong Y, Xia X, Wang X, et al. Validation of an ultra-performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry method for determination of ractopamine: Application to residue depletion study in swine. Food Chem 2011;127(1):327–32. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.12.138</u>.
- [52] Ramli S, Talib RA, Rahman RA, et al. Detection of lard in ink extracted from printed food packaging using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy and multivariate analysis. J Spectrosc 2015;2015:. <u>https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/ 502340</u>502340.
- [53] Lee TC, Zeng J, Bailey M, et al. Assessment of equivalence of insect protected corn and *E. coli* produced B.T.K. HD-1 protein. Plant Physiol Suppl 1995;108:151.