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Food safety issues associated with sesame seed value chains: Current 

#### status and future perspectives

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**Research Highlights** Foodborne hazards are a major barrier to the global trade of sesame seeds. • Salmonella and mycotoxins are major hazards in imported sesame seeds. • Pesticide contamination of sesame is an emerging concern. • Limited knowledge of hazards in sesame seeds for domestic consumption. The safety of sesame along the value chain is an urgent research priority. • 

## 75 ABSTRACT

76 Sesame (Sesamum indicum) is an oilseed crop which is increasingly recognised as a 77 functional food by consumers due to its nutritional and nutraceutical components. 78 Consequently, global demand for sesame has increased significantly over the last three 79 decades. Sesame is an important export crop in producing countries, contributing to 80 their socio-economic development. However, in recent years, major foodborne 81 incidents have been associated with imported sesame seeds and products made with these seeds. Foodborne hazards are a potential risk to consumer health and hinder 82 international trade due to border rejections and increased import controls. An insight 83 into the routes of contamination of these hazards across the value chain and factors 84 affecting persistence may lead to more focused intervention and prevention strategies. 85 86 It was observed that Salmonella is a significant microbial hazard in imported sesame 87 seeds and has been associated with several global outbreaks. Sesame is mainly 88 cultivated in the tropical and subtropical regions of Africa and Asia by smallholder farmers. Agricultural and manufacturing practices during harvesting, storage, and 89 90 processing before export may allow for the contamination of sesame seeds with 91 Salmonella. However, only a few studies collect data on the microbiological quality of 92 sesame across the value chain in producing countries. In addition, the presence of 93 mycotoxins and pesticides above regulatory limits in sesame seeds is a growing 94 concern. Eliminating foodborne hazards in the sesame value chain requires urgent 95 attention from researchers, producers, processors, and regulators and suggestions for 96 improving the safety of these foods are discussed.

97 Keywords: Food safety, mycotoxins, pesticides, Salmonella, Sesamum indicum, value
98 chain

99 **1.** 

## 1. Introduction

100 Sesame (Sesamum indicum) is an ancient oilseed crop mainly cultivated for its edible 101 seeds from which oil is produced [1]. Sesame seeds comprise up to 60% oil, the highest 102 content of all major oilseed crops [2,3]. Sesame is a functional food as it is a source of 103 nutritional and nutraceutical components. Sesame oil is a rich source of 104 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), such as oleic and linolenic acids [4, 5]. Sesame is 105 also an excellent source of proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, and minerals, including phosphorus, manganese, copper, and iron [6]. Recent studies have reported that 106 sesame is an important natural food source of phytosterols (3 - 8 mg/g), melatonin 107 (0.04 to 298.62 ng/g) and tocopherols (530 – 1000 mg/kg) [7 - 9]. In addition, lignans 108 such as sesamin, sesamol, sesamolin, and sesaminol are another major group of 109 110 bioactive compounds found in sesame [9]. These components are associated with 111 various biological and pharmacological activities, including antioxidant, anti-112 inflammatory, cardioprotective, anticancer and anti-neurodegenerative effects [10]. Consequently, sesame has diverse uses across the food, cosmetic and pharmaceutic 113 114 industries, and increased demand is driving the growth of the sesame market. The 115 mainstreaming of indigenous foods and ingredients such as hummus, tahini, and halva, particularly in Western diets, have contributed to the increasing demand for sesame 116 117 seeds [11]. Sesame oil has pleasant sensorial characteristics, and the presence of 118 antioxidants confers increased resistance to rancidity compared to other oils [4, 6]. In 119 addition, different applications of sesame include soap and cosmetic production and 120 as a delivery vehicle for fat-soluble drugs [12, 13].

121 The top producers of sesame are in Africa and Asia, where sesame significantly
122 contributes to the local economy through job creation and foreign exchange revenue [1,

123 14]. However, microbial and chemical hazards in this commodity constitute a 124 significant barrier to the global trade of sesame seeds [15, 16]. Salmonella spp. and 125 mycotoxin contamination are frequently reported in sesame and sesame-based 126 products. Salmonella spp. and mycotoxins were the most significant hazards in the 127 "nuts, nut products and seeds" category in foods exported into the European Union (EU) in 2018 and 2019 [17]. Recent reports have also highlighted the scale of 128 Salmonella contamination in sesame imported into the EU [16, 18]. In addition, 129 outbreaks of salmonellosis associated with sesame and sesame-related products have 130 been reported worldwide [19 - 21]. Sesame seeds contaminated with mycotoxins have 131 132 been observed at different stages of the value chain, suggesting this is a widespread problem [22, 23]. Pesticides are also an emerging concern. In September 2020, sesame 133 134 seeds contaminated with ethylene oxide were reported to the EU's Rapid Alert System 135 for Food and Feed (RASFF). This major incident led to several recalls and withdrawals of 136 sesame-containing foods across Europe [24]. Sesame seeds often serve as ingredients in a wide variety of products. Therefore, the presence of hazards in sesame can have 137 138 severe and widespread health and economic consequences.

Sesame can be exposed to various contaminants at all stages of the value chain. Poor agricultural practices during cultivation, harvesting and storage can allow for microbial and chemical contamination of sesame seeds [25]. Furthermore, the warm and humid conditions characteristic of tropical and subtropical regions where sesame is grown may also create an optimal environment for the growth of foodborne pathogens or the production of microbial toxins, further exacerbating the problem [22].

on single aspects such as nutritional or nutraceutical components [4, 9, 26] or

economic value [1, 27] to producing countries. Olaimat et al. [28] reviewed the
microbial safety of oil-based food products but focused on foodborne pathogens.
However, no comprehensive overview of microbial and chemical contamination is
focused explicitly on sesame and sesame-based products. Therefore, this review is
necessary to summarise current knowledge on the safety of sesame-based foods. It
also highlights data gaps for future research and suggests interventions to strengthen
the sesame value chain.

154 **2.** The global sesame seed market and value chain

Sesame is a highly valued crop worldwide because of its various uses for its seeds and
oil in the food, nutraceutical, and pharmaceutical industries. Increased consumer
awareness of sesame's health benefits, changing consumption patterns, and a growing
population have increased the demand for sesame [27].

159 The sesame market is projected to grow at a compound annual growth rate of 2.6% to

160 USD 8.7 billion by 2029 [29]. Global sesame seed production exceeded 7 million tonnes

161 in 2022, an increase of almost 200% over the last three decades (Figure 1). Africa and

162 Asia produce over 95% of the world's supply of sesame. In 2022, the highest producing

163 countries were Sudan, India, Myanmar, the United Republic of Tanzania, and China,

164 accounting for over 60% of global production (Table 1).

165 In producing countries, sesame is gaining recognition as a high-value export crop. Over

166 2.0 million tonnes of unprocessed sesame seeds, valued at USD 3 billion, were traded

- 167 globally in 2022 [30]. In Nigeria, almost 70% of domestic sesame production was
- 168 exported in 2022 (Table 1), and sesame seeds are the third most valuable export
- 169 product after cocoa and herbs [31]. In addition, Ethiopia, Chad, and India exported
- 170 60%, 35%, and 30% of their cultivated sesame in 2022 (Table 1). Asia and Europe are

the primary destinations for sesame seeds (Figure 2). China, Turkey, and Japan are the
largest importers of sesame seeds, accounting for about 56% (almost 1.2 million
tonnes) of global imports, valued at nearly USD 1.9 billion [30]. The European Union
(EU) is also a growing market for imported sesame seeds primarily used in the food
industry to supplement local production [11]. Consequently, sesame is gaining
attention as a priority crop, and increasing production has become the focus of many
national and international efforts [1, 13, 32, 33].

The supply chain connecting sesame producers with consumers is global and complex 178 (Figure 3). In major producing regions, sesame is grown predominantly by smallholder 179 180 farmers, with a minor contribution from a few large-scale farmers. Producers sell individually or through cooperative unions to wholesalers, the principal actors in the 181 182 sesame value chain. Exporters purchase the bulk of the seeds, while smaller amounts 183 are sold to processors and local retailers [31, 32, 34]. Several constraints to the value 184 chain in many low and middle-income sesame-producing countries include access to high-yielding and well-adapted cultivars, seed supply systems, and credit. In addition, 185 186 there is limited use of modern agricultural production technologies, post-harvest crop management infrastructure and systems [14, 35, 36]. Sesame value chains are poorly 187 organised in the world's major producing regions. They are, therefore, more vulnerable 188 189 to foodborne hazards that may pose health risks to consumers.

190 3. Salmonella and other microbial hazards in sesame seeds and associated
 191 products

Sesame seeds and sesame seed products such as *tahini* (sesame paste) and *halva* are
classified as low water activity (a<sub>w</sub>) foods (a<sub>w</sub> < 0.70) that typically have an extended</li>
shelf life of several months [28]. Low a<sub>w</sub> does not support the growth of pathogenic and

195 spoilage bacteria [37]. Therefore, these foods are usually considered microbiologically

196 safe. However, factors influencing pathogen survival in low aw foods are poorly

197 understood and vary among foods [38]. The oil content of sesame-based foods may

protect some pathogens from preservative measures such as heat treatment and 198

199 gamma irradiation during processing [39, 40].

200 There have been several reports of imported sesame-based foods contaminated with

pathogenic bacteria, notably Salmonella, with severe consequences, including border 201

rejections, product recalls, and foodborne outbreaks [16, 20]. Many of these products 202

are purchased as ready-to-eat (RTE) products without a further inactivation step. 203

204 Therefore, their safety is of paramount importance.

205 Salmonella has emerged as a significant hazard in sesame seeds and sesame-based products (Table 2) and is becoming increasingly recognised as a source of outbreaks

206

207 [41]. A notable example was the 2016-2017 outbreak of salmonellosis, with 47

208 confirmed cases across five European countries. The causative agent was identified as

209 a novel Salmonella enterica subspecies enterica serotype (11: z41: e,n,z15). A

210 traceback investigation implicated sesame paste produced in Greece and sesame

211 seeds imported from Nigeria as the vehicles of transmission [20]. More recently, the

212 European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) reported an outbreak associated with sesame-

213 containing products (halva and tahini) imported from Syria. In total, 135 confirmed

214 cases from five European countries (Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, Norway,

215 Sweden), Canada and the United States of America were infected with six Salmonella

216 enterica serotypes between January 2019 and October 2021 [42]. Other outbreaks of

217 salmonellosis linked to sesame-based foods have been reported in New Zealand [43],

218 Australia [21, 43], the United States of America [19, 44], and Canada [45].

219 It is important to note that all these outbreaks have involved imported sesame products 220 or raw materials, highlighting the role of the supply chain in the transmission of this 221 microbial hazard. Salmonella is recognised as a significant hazard in sesame seeds 222 imported from Africa into the EU. Fifty-six percent (56%) of the notifications in the 223 RASFF database arising from pathogenic organisms in foods imported into the EU 224 between 2009 and 2019 were due to Salmonella-contaminated sesame seeds [16]. Similarly, Salmonella contamination was frequently observed in sesame seeds 225 exported into Europe from the Asia-Pacific region between 2000 and 2020 [18]. Van 226 227 Doren et al. [46] observed that almost 10% of 229 shipments of sesame seeds imported 228 into the United States of America within a six-month period were contaminated with Salmonella. Conversely, Zhang et al. [47] did not detect Salmonella in 527 samples of 229 230 imported sesame seeds collected from retail establishments in the United States of America between 2013 and 2014. In addition, Compaore et al. [48] noted that 27% of 231 232 359 sesame samples intended for export from Burkina Faso over a 10-year period were contaminated with Salmonella. 233

234 Consequently, RTE sesame seeds and associated products are regarded as high-risk foods and have been subjected to increased official controls in several countries at 235 various times [49, 50]. These findings have significant implications for producers, 236 237 particularly in low- and middle-income countries, where sesame is an essential source 238 of foreign revenue and jobs contributing to socioeconomic development [34]. 239 The prevalence of pathogenic and indicator bacteria in retailed sesame seeds and 240 products made from sesame has also been investigated. Willis et al. [51] studied the prevalence of Salmonella and Escherichia coli in 771 sesame seed samples collected 241

from retail outlets in the United Kingdom. They reported 1.7% and 1% prevalence rates

243 for Salmonella and E. coli, respectively. Juarez-Arana et al. [52] also observed that 12% 244 of sesame seeds sold in Mexican markets were contaminated with Salmonella. Alaouie 245 et al. [53] also reported the presence of Salmonella and E. coli in 47% and 43% 246 respectively, of *tahini* samples collected in Lebanese markets. 247 Contamination with enteric pathogens such as Salmonella is an indication of 248 unhygienic practices during food production and storage. Sesame seeds are 249 susceptible to microbial hazards from contaminated soil, irrigation water, livestock, equipment surfaces and human handling [25, 54]. Salmonella can persist in soil for 250 extended periods and be transferred to water and cultivated crops [55]. Post-harvest 251 252 handling is a significant challenge in many sesame-producing countries. An important post-harvest treatment of sesame seeds is drying to reduce the moisture content of 253 254 seeds and prevent spoilage during storage. In several producing countries, this process usually occurs on the farm, under the sun, or in the open, exposing sesame seeds to 255 hazards in the farm environment [14, 36]. Potential sources of enteric pathogens 256 257 include contaminated aerosols or dust, manure and animal droppings, and the harvest 258 stage, which are increasingly considered critical for Salmonella contamination [48, 56]. Many sesame-based products such as halva and tahini undergo further processing, 259 260 e.g., cooking or the addition of sugar, which should inhibit the growth of pathogens like 261 Salmonella. Therefore, cross-contamination from food handlers is also a possible 262 source of contamination where good manufacturing practices are not utilised. 263 Other pathogenic or indicator bacteria have been linked to products from sesame 264 seeds. Tahini contaminated with Listeria monocytogenes has been recalled from retail 265 outlets in New Zealand [57], and other Listeria species have been isolated from 266 hummus [58]. In addition, survival challenge studies have shown that L.

*monocytogenes* can survive in sesame seed products under various environmental
conditions and should be considered a safety concern [59, 60]. *Bacillus* spp. including *B. cereus*, has also been linked to retailed sesame seeds [61, 62]. Compaore et al. [63]
evaluated the sanitary quality of sesame seeds and sesame based RTE foods in Burkina
Faso. Although they did not detect any pathogenic *Escherichia coli* or *Salmonella* in the
75 samples collected, more than 30% of the samples did not meet the microbiological
criteria for dehydrated products.

Food safety remains a significant global public health challenge. The World Health 274 Organisation (WHO) estimates that 1 in 10 people fall ill, and over 400,000 people, 275 276 mainly under the age of 5, die each year after eating contaminated food [64]. The role of food as a vehicle for the transmission of biological hazards is well documented, and in 277 278 an increasingly complex and global food chain, safeguarding the health of consumers, 279 both domestic and international, remains a crucial goal. Salmonella outbreaks linked 280 to sesame are a significant public health concern. Results from large-scale surveillance 281 studies suggest that the prevalence of pathogenic organisms in sesame is low [46, 65]. 282 However, there are only a few of these studies and surveillance data from producing countries is sparse. Many sesame-based foods are sold as RTE with a long shelf life, 283 284 which may put consumers' health at risk [66].

Furthermore, more information must be provided on the microbiological quality and safety of raw and processed sesame marketed for domestic consumption in producing countries. Most reports on microbial hazards and foodborne outbreaks linked to sesame are from importing countries [48]. In addition, very few studies investigate the whole supply chain to assess and evaluate critical control points to reduce

290 contamination (Table 2). These are significant research gaps that require further291 investigation.

**4.** Chemical Hazards in Sesame Seeds

### **4.1 Mycotoxins**

294 Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites of fungal species mainly belonging to the 295 genera Aspergillus, Fusarium and Penicillium. These natural contaminants of food and feed are a growing public health concern, especially in low and middle-income 296 297 countries [67-70]. The most widely recognised classes of mycotoxins of concern are aflatoxins (AF), ochratoxin A (OTA), fumonisins, deoxynivalenol (DON) and other 298 299 trichothecenes, and zearalenone (ZEA) [71 – 73]. Aspergillus flavus and A. parasiticus are the primary producers of aflatoxins [74]. 300 301 Aflatoxin exposure can lead to acute aflatoxicosis, and long-term exposure is a risk 302 factor for hepatocellular carcinoma [75]. Aflatoxin B1 (AFB1) is considered the most 303 toxic and has been classified as a Group 1 carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer [76]. Contamination with multiple mycotoxins occurs frequently 304 305 and can lead to severe health problems for consumers as the cytotoxic effects can 306 impair the function of several organs, such as the liver and kidney, as well as the 307 immune and nervous systems [77, 78]. Chronic exposure to mycotoxins has also been 308 associated with childhood stunting [79, 80].

- 309 The frequent isolation of fungal species which have the potential to produce
- 310 mycotoxins, particularly during the storage of sesame seeds, is a cause for concern.
- 311 Aspergillus flavus and Fusarium spp. were reported as the dominant fungi in retailed
- sesame seeds in Nigeria [81]. Ajmal et al. [82] reported an increase in the prevalence of

313 Aspergillus flavus and the concentration of aflatoxins during the storage of sesame314 seeds.

315 Sesame seeds are susceptible to fungal contamination at different stages of 316 production and processing. The farm environment can be a source of fungal spores. 317 Post-harvest storage of sesame seeds is common as sesame cultivation is seasonal, 318 and storage provides supply between harvests or before seeds can be exported [35, 319 83]. The storage period can range from a few weeks to several months [84]. Harvested produce is usually stored in non-hermetic packaging and non-climate-controlled 320 321 facilities, which can support microbial growth. Temperature and water activity are the 322 major extrinsic factors influencing fungal growth and mycotoxin production in food [85, 86]. Storage at high humidity may increase water activity. Many sesame-producing 323 324 countries are in tropical regions, and the warmer temperatures may provide suitable 325 conditions for any fungal spores in the seeds to germinate during storage, thus 326 producing mycotoxins [82, 87, 88]. Exposure to mycotoxins in food and feed is a major issue for human and animal health, 327 328 nutrition, and the food trade [89]. International, regional, and national agencies have set maximum tolerable limits (MTLs) for mycotoxins in food to mitigate dietary exposure 329 to mycotoxins and safeguard public health. For example, the European Commission 330 331 has maximum levels for AFB<sub>1</sub>, total aflatoxins and ochratoxin A at 2, 4 and 5 µg/kg, 332 respectively [90], while the United States Food and Drug Administration (U.S. FDA) 333 recommends a maximum limit of 20 µg/kg for aflatoxins in foods intended for human 334 consumption [91].

335 Several studies have reported a low prevalence of mycotoxins in sesame (Table 3).
336 Ezekiel et al. [84] demonstrated that no detectable aflatoxins or fumonisins were

337 present in sesame seeds collected from farmers (stored for less than 30 days after 338 harvest) in Nigeria. These seeds also complied with international standards for 339 regulated mycotoxins. These data corroborate results by Pongpraket et al. [23], where only 2 out of 200 (1%) samples of retailed sesame seeds in Thailand were above the 340 341 European Commission (EC) regulatory limits for aflatoxins. Tabata et al. [92] observed 342 aflatoxins in 5 of 47 (10.6%) sesame samples in Japan, noting concentrations of AFB1 between 0.6 – 2.4  $\mu$ g/kg. Similarly, Hosseininia et al. [93] observed that 50% of 269 343 344 samples from five shipments of sesame seeds imported into Iran contained less than 1 345 µg/kg of total aflatoxins. Esan et al. [94] reported a prevalence of 12% and 7% for total aflatoxins and Fumonisin B<sub>1</sub>, respectively, in sesame samples collected from retail 346 markets in Nigeria. Ochratoxin A (OTA) was not detected in any of the samples in the 347 study. It should be noted that in most of these studies, only specific mycotoxins were 348 investigated. The full spectrum of mycotoxins and fungal metabolites in food products 349 must be determined to accurately assess dietary mycotoxin exposure from consuming 350 351 such foods. Furthermore, consuming foods contaminated with multiple mycotoxins, 352 even at low concentrations over a prolonged period, may pose a health risk due to the 353 possible synergistic effects of metabolite combinations [72, 95]. 354 An analysis of aflatoxin contamination in sesame seeds in this report has shown that 355

contaminated samples at the retail or household level regularly exceed regulatory

limits (Table 3). Elaigwu et al. [96] observed concentrations of AFB1 above 2 µg/kg in all

357 sesame seed samples (n=96) collected in Nigeria. Heshmati et al. [97] reported that

358 25% of sesame seeds from the Iranian market were contaminated with AFB1 above the

359 EC ML. In the same study, 18% and 15% of tahini and tahini-halva samples,

356

360 respectively, were above the EC ML for AFB<sub>1</sub>. Overall, 38%, 35% and 11% of the sesame

361 seeds, tahini, and tahini-halva samples contained total aflatoxins above the EC limit. A 362 study in China investigating the occurrence of aflatoxins in sesame paste collected 363 from both small-scale and industrial manufacturers noted that 37% of the samples 364 were contaminated with AFB<sub>1</sub>. The maximum AFB<sub>1</sub> concentration recorded was 20.45 μg/kg, and 12% of samples had concentrations above 2 μg/kg [98]. Echodu et al. [99] 365 observed that 13% of sesame seed samples collected from households in Northern 366 Uganda exceeded the EC ML for aflatoxins. In tahini samples from Egypt, 21% exceeded 367 368 the Egyptian ML of 2  $\mu$ g/kg [100]. 369 Ochratoxin has been demonstrated to be genotoxic and carcinogenic in animals with the kidney as the primary target organ, and it is classified as a Group 2B possible 370 371 carcinogen [101, 102]. There are few reports of OTA contamination of sesame seeds. Makun et al. [103] investigated the prevalence of OTA in sesame samples from Nigeria. 372 373 They reported that all sesame seed samples in their study (n = 19) were contaminated with OTA, and EC limits were exceeded in 13% of the samples. This contrasts with 374 Echodu et al. [99], where only 3% of collected samples had OTA concentrations 375 exceeding EC limits. 376 Only a few major producing countries have set regulatory limits for mycotoxins, 377 378 specifically for sesame seeds and products, and where these exist, focus on 379 international trade [104]. In addition to potential risks to consumer health, mycotoxin 380 contamination of sesame seeds could have severe economic consequences due to

381 border rejections and recalls.

## 382 **4.2 Pesticides**

383 Controlling the growth of microorganisms and pests in sesame is critical for improving
 384 food quality and safety. Some previously used biological control methods for reducing

microbial hazards in harvested sesame include irradiation, fumigation with carbon
dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) or propylene oxide, and the addition of salts [25,105]. Furthermore, plant
protection products, such as pesticides, are used at different stages of cultivation to
reduce post-harvest losses due to pest infestation and pathogens. However, there is
growing concern about the potential adverse effects of pesticide residues on

390 consumers and the environment [106, 107].

391 Recently, global attention was drawn to the issue of pesticide contamination due to

392 consumer exposure to ethylene oxide after its detection in sesame seeds imported into

393 Europe from India in 2020 [108]. The use of ethylene oxide as a plant protection product

is not approved in the EU as it has been classified as a Group 1 carcinogen [109].

395 However, ethylene oxide was detected at over 1000 times the maximum residue level

396 (MRL) of 0.05 mg/kg [110, 111]. This incident led to an unprecedented recall and

397 withdrawal of sesame-based foods across the Member States and non-EU Member

398 States [24]. As a result, new legislation has been implemented to increase import

399 controls on sesame originating from India [15].

400 Between January 2020 and March 2024, there were 419 notifications regarding 401 pesticide residues in sesame seeds in the EU RASFF system. Most of the notifications 402 concerned sesame seeds originating from India (349, 83.3%). The main contaminant 403 was ethylene oxide (312 out of 349) and its derivatives, 2-chloroethanol, chlorate and 404 iprobenfos. There have been reduced notifications from India since 2020 (262 405 notifications in 2020, 78 notifications in 2021, 8 notifications in 2022 and 1 notification 406 in 2023). This is probably because of the increased frequency of checks and import 407 control by importing countries. As of April 2024, there are only 5 notifications regarding 408 pesticide residues in sesame seeds entering the EU for 2024. Four of the notifications

409 were from Nigeria, with Chlorpyrifos (more than two times the MRL) and Chlorate (more
410 than 8 times the MRL) reported in sesame seeds from Nigeria [112].

411 Some pesticide residues, including lindane, chlorpyriphos, and metalaxyl, have been 412 observed in sesame seeds and oil [113, 114]. Pesticide residues are not only found in 413 the sesame seeds but could also be carried over into the processed products. For 414 example, ethylene oxide was detected in caramelised nuts made with sesame seeds 415 from Nigeria [115], in baking mixes made with sesame seeds from India [116], in spice mixes made with sesame seeds from India [117] and in bread baking mixes made with 416 417 sesame seeds from India [118]. A residue of ethylene oxide, 2-chloroethane, was also detected in baking mixes made with sesame seeds from Nigeria [119]. 418 The presence and persistence of pesticides in sesame seeds and their products raise 419

420 the urgent need for research and development of alternative pest control strategies.

421 This will eliminate the need to use these unsafe chemicals in foods. Furthermore, there

422 have been repeated notifications of ethylene oxide in sesame seeds imported into the

423 EU. This suggests a need for continuous monitoring and surveillance of these

424 chemicals in sesame seeds and their products. This is particularly important in

425 producing countries for which there is limited data.

426 4.3 Allergens

427 Sesame allergy is a growing concern as it triggers hypersensitivities that lead to

428 symptoms including vomiting, diarrhoea, contact dermatitis and systematic

429 anaphylaxis [120, 121]. Sesame allergens have been classified into three major groups:

430 lipid, protein, and unknown allergens [122]. Protein allergens are classified into eight

431 groups, Ses *i* 1 to Ses *i* 8 and are associated with IgE-mediated immediate

432 hypersensitivity reactions. Lipid allergens initiate both immediate (seeds) and delayed
433 (oil) hypersensitivity reactions [123].

434 Reports on the prevalence of sesame allergies globally vary widely from about 0.1% to 435 0.8%, as this depends on how much sesame is consumed within the local diet [121, 436 124, 125]. Sesame has been recognised as a source of food allergens in the Middle 437 East, where it is used extensively in the diet. Sesame ranked third as the most common 438 food allergy after eggs and milk in Israeli children [122]. A study in Saudi Arabia noted that sesame was the third most common cause of anaphylaxis, accounting for 15% of 439 cases prescribed antihistamines over a 2-year period [126]. In Turkey, an estimated 440 441 20% of children with food allergies are allergic to sesame [127]. However, sesame allergies are reported in several other parts of the world. For example, although 442 443 sesame-induced anaphylaxis rates were reported to be higher in the Middle East than in 444 North America [128], sesame allergy is a substantial burden in the United States. An 445 estimated 0.49% of the population report a current sesame allergy, and 17% of children with an IgE-mediated food allergy are estimated to have a sesame allergy [129, 130]. 446 447 Consequently, it is thought that the burden of sesame allergies may be higher than 448 reported [131].

Several countries have established regulatory food labelling on products containing sesame to protect consumers and reduce the risk of unintentional exposure to sesame allergens. Since 2023, it has been required by law in the United States to label sesame as an allergen on food and dietary supplement packaging. This requirement also exists in the European Union, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and other parts of the world [132]. In addition, a joint FAO-WHO Expert Committee recommended that sesame be considered a priority allergen [133].

456 There is scarce information on the prevalence of sesame allergies and their regulation

457 in many sesame-producing countries worldwide, particularly those in Africa. This could

458 be because sesame seeds are produced for export rather than local consumption.

459 However, it has also been noted that there are significant data gaps on food allergens in

460 many low-resource countries that bear a significant burden of other food-related

461 challenges, e.g., malnutrition [134].

As observed with microbial hazards, there is limited information on the prevalence and
human health risks of chemical hazards in sesame seeds and sesame-based products.

464 Inadequate food safety and quality regulatory and monitoring systems and a lack of

465 public awareness are important limitations in many producing countries [87, 99]. To

466 address this critical food safety issue, a better understanding of the routes of

467 contamination of sesame seeds and routine surveillance in producing countries is

468 required. This will serve as a baseline for developing evidence-based strategies for risk

469 assessment and identifying intervention strategies to reduce exposure to these

470 hazards.

471 **5. Discussion and Recommendations** 

Sesame seeds have high economic value and immense potential in enabling producing 472 473 countries to achieve Sustainable Development Goals focused on poverty alleviation 474 and food security. Sesame is mainly grown as an export crop in producing countries, providing employment and income for producers and processors. While the global 475 476 sesame market is anticipated to grow [135], compliance with food safety regulations 477 remains a significant barrier to the international trade of sesame seeds. Some major 478 hazards affecting the sesame seed trade identified in this review include Salmonella 479 mycotoxins and pesticide residues.

480 Currently, there is a limited understanding of which stages of sesame production and 481 processing are most vulnerable to contamination. Many studies investigating the 482 occurrence of hazards in sesame focus on the storage and retail stages of the value 483 chain. During production, contaminants can be introduced through pollution from the 484 farm environment, the use of contaminated soil amendments, irrigation water and 485 pesticide use [136]. Further contamination could occur due to poor harvesting, drying, storage and transportation practices and unhygienic conditions during the processing 486 487 and retail stages [96, 137].

There is a dearth of data from sesame-producing countries describing the link between 488 489 local agricultural practices, particularly at the pre-harvest stage, and the occurrence of microbial and chemical hazards in sesame. Although some good agricultural practices 490 491 have been recommended to improve the quality of sesame seeds [138], systematic 492 investigations are needed to identify the critical points where contamination occurs in 493 the value chain. This information is important to better target control strategies to minimise the contamination of sesame. This will contribute to food security for many 494 495 smallholder farmers in producing countries and overall food safety for consumers. Research could also focus on infrastructural interventions such as alternative drying 496 497 procedures and hermetic technologies for seed storage [138, 139]. In humid climates, 498 in addition to drying, seeds need to be packed in moisture-proof packaging to prevent 499 rehydration [140]. Hermetic technologies such as the Purdue Improved Crop Storage 500 [141] and Super Grain Pro [142] are moisture-proof and prevent oxygen from getting into 501 the seeds. Microorganisms and pests require oxygen for respiration; therefore, oxygen 502 concentrations are reduced to concentrations which cannot support their growth [140]. 503 This is particularly important as conditions that support fungal growth will lead to

504 mycotoxin contamination. In addition, better pest control reduces the need for the use 505 and abuse of pesticides. Consequently, hermetic packaging has been promoted in 506 many low-resource, tropical countries to reduce post-harvest losses of several crops 507 [143, 144]. There are relatively few studies exploring the use of hermetic packaging for 508 sesame seed storage that focus on microbial hazards [139]. Sesame seeds stored in 509 hermetic bags had lower levels of fungal infestation and mycotoxins compared to 510 standard packaging in polypropylene and jute bags over a six-month storage period [145]. The effect of environmental factors, storage periods and affordable packaging 511 technologies on sesame safety and quality is an important research priority in 512 513 producing countries. Regular surveillance is required to detect contamination sources and measure the 514 515 effectiveness of mitigation strategies for mycotoxin contamination. For pesticides in 516 sesame seeds, there is a need to conduct a risk assessment of their presence in 517 sesame seeds and how these are carried over to sesame-based products. 518 Furthermore, it is essential to develop and employ novel rapid detection methods for 519 determining contaminants across the value chain to mitigate post-harvest and 520 economic losses where possible. Alternative pest management strategies, which are 521 sustainable and environmentally-friendly, should be developed and deployed to avoid 522 using unapproved pesticides in the sesame seed value chain. 523 The safety of sesame seeds for domestic consumption must also be prioritised as a 524 research need in producing countries. Knowledge transfer between researchers, 525 producers, and processors of sesame seeds on food safety is essential. This will give 526 producers and processors the knowledge and tools to produce sesame seeds that 527 meet the food safety requirements for local consumption and the international market.

- 528 Researchers should regularly network with stakeholders in the sesame seeds value
- 529 chain to identify emerging food safety challenges and make these research priorities for
- 530 action (Figure 4).

#### 531 Data Availability

- 532 All data to support the conclusions in this review have been provided in the manuscript.
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#### 536 Author's contributions

- AA: Conceptualisation, Writing Original draft preparation, Writing Review and 537
- Editing, Visualisation, Project administration, Supervision. YS: Conceptualisation, 538
- 539 Writing- Original draft preparation, Writing - Review and Editing, Visualisation,
- 540 Supervision. **AO**: Writing – Original draft preparation. **SR**: Writing – Original draft
- 541 preparation.
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