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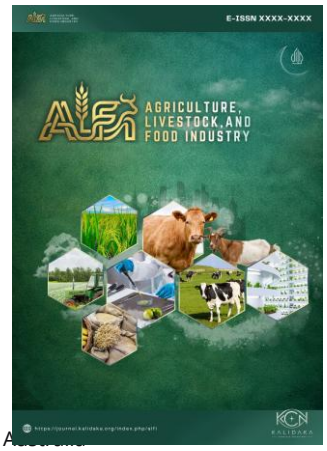
Halal Governance in Indonesia and Australia: A Comparative Policy Analysis of Certification, Supervision, and Trade Interoperability

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ABSTRACT
Indonesia and Australia have developed halal assurance under markedly different regulatory architectures, yet their systems increasingly intersect through agri-food trade. This study compares the two regimes as they stood on 15 August 2026, focusing on regulatory orientation, product scope, institutional authority, certification, supply-chain controls, enforcement, and cross-border recognition. A qualitative comparative policy design was used to analyze legislation, regulations, agency guidance, recognition lists, market-access information, and peer-reviewed scholarship. Indonesia operates a broad, mandatory product-assurance regime centered on the Halal Product Assurance Organizing Agency (BPJPH), supported by inspection, fatwa, facilitation, registration, and administrative-enforcement mechanisms. Australia's most formalized federal halal regime is sector-specific and export-oriented, particularly the Australian Government Authorised Halal Program for red meat, where government export controls, Approved Islamic Organisations, and registered establishments share responsibilities. The systems nevertheless converge on core assurance functions: religious authorization, segregation, traceability, auditability, documentation, and government oversight. By May 2026, 13 Australian halal certification bodies had BPJPH approval, while the Australian Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry listed 18 Approved Islamic Organisations for halal red-meat export certification as of 8 July 2026, illustrating that domestic authorization and destination-market recognition are distinct. The July 2026 bilateral memorandum provides an institutional bridge between the systems. The study concludes that practical interoperability depends on scope-specific recognition, synchronized certification data, timely status notification, and risk-based oversight rather than full regulatory harmonization.

IMPACT STATEMENT
Halal trade between Indonesia and Australia increasingly depends on regulatory compatibility rather than identical certification systems. This study shows how scope-based recognition, synchronized registries, certificate-status notification, and risk-based oversight can bridge Indonesia's broad mandatory regime and Australia's export-focused co-regulatory model. The framework provides practical guidance for regulators, certifiers, exporters, and importers preparing for Indonesia's 17 October 2026 implementation date. It also shows how interoperability can reduce duplicate verification while preserving each jurisdiction's legal responsibilities, religious authority, traceability requirements, and consumer-protection objectives.

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1. Introduction

Halal has developed from a normative religious category into a product-assurance regime with direct implications for consumer protection, supply-chain governance, and market access. In Indonesia, this transition is anchored in Law No. 33 of 2014 on Halal Product Assurance and its implementing framework under Government Regulation No. 42 of 2024, which places products entering, circulating, and being traded in Indonesia within a mandatory halal-assurance architecture implemented in stages [1], [2]. The institutional transition has also shifted certification from a predominantly civil-society arrangement toward stronger state administration, while religious determination remains embedded in the system [3], [4], [5].

Australia has followed a different regulatory pathway. The federal government has not created a single cross-sector halal certification regime equivalent to Indonesia's domestic framework. Instead, the most formalized federal halal architecture identified in the official sources concerns halal red meat and red meat products for export under the Export Control Act 2020 and the Export Control (Meat and Meat Products) Rules 2021 [6], [7]. Within this framework, the Australian Government Authorised Halal Program (AGAHP) combines government export controls, religious oversight by Approved Islamic Organisations (AIOs), and establishment-level process controls. This institutional configuration has been identified as an important source of halal-integrity assurance in the Australian meat supply chain [8].

The policy interaction between the two systems has intensified as Indonesia approaches the next phase of mandatory halal implementation for imported food and beverage products. Australian government guidance states that the relevant requirements become mandatory on 17 October 2026 and require exporters to use a BPJPH-approved halal certification body within its approved scope, maintain halal–non-halal segregation, comply with labeling requirements, and ensure registration of foreign halal certificates through SIHALAL by the Indonesian importer or authorized representative [9]. On 13 July 2026, BPJPH and the Australian Government, represented through the Australian Embassy in Indonesia, signed a memorandum of understanding covering consultation, information exchange, technical cooperation, recognition processes, trade facilitation, capacity building, technology, and research and development [10].

These developments make a simple question—whether each country has a halal certification system—analytically insufficient. The more consequential issue is how two regulatory architectures with different legal triggers, institutional scopes, and certification pathways can recognize verifiable evidence of compliance without collapsing those differences. This article therefore treats interoperability as a governance problem involving institutional identity, product scope, certificate validity, supply-chain evidence, data exchange, and destination-market recognition.

1.1. Research problem and gap

Existing scholarship has examined the evolution of halal governance in Indonesia, comparative certification arrangements across countries, the operation of Australia's halal meat sector, and the accessibility of Australian certification bodies. Research on Australia has also discussed the country's position in international halal meat trade [11] and the digital accessibility of halal certification organizations [12]. However, the literature remains fragmented across institutional, supply-chain, legal, and trade perspectives. It does not provide an integrated comparison of Indonesia's post-2024 regulatory architecture with Australia's 2026 export-halal system, nor does it systematically interpret the July 2026 bilateral memorandum and the distinction between Australian AIO status and BPJPH recognition as destination-specific layers of authorization. This gap matters because recognition of a certifying institution does not automatically imply equivalence of regulatory scope, product coverage, or enforcement responsibility.

1.2. Research objectives

This study has four objectives: (1) to map the contemporary halal policy architecture of Indonesia and Australia; (2) to compare regulatory orientation, product scope, institutional authority, certification procedures, supply-chain controls, enforcement, and cross-border recognition; (3) to examine how Australian halal certification bodies are recognized for the Indonesian market; and (4) to formulate an interoperability framework that can facilitate trade while preserving halal integrity and consumer protection. The article contributes a synchronized policy analysis with a cut-off date of 15 August 2026 and distinguishes system-level harmonization from scope-specific regulatory interoperability.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Halal governance and supply-chain integrity

Halal governance extends beyond the issuance of a certificate. It encompasses the institutional allocation of authority, standards, verification, documentation, supervision, corrective action, and the continuity of halal status across a product's movement through the supply chain. Foundational halal supply-chain research emphasizes segregation, process control, information integrity, and coordination between actors as central conditions for preserving halal assurance [13], [14]. Integrity-oriented frameworks further show that halal status can be compromised through material mixing, handling failures, logistics, documentation gaps, or weak organizational controls even when the final product carries a certificate [15], [16].

More recent reviews show that halal supply-chain scholarship has expanded from certification and logistics toward sustainability, risk, technology, and governance, but also remains uneven in its treatment of cross-border regulatory interfaces [17], [18]. This broader perspective supports an analytical distinction between certification as an institutional decision and halal assurance as an end-to-end governance process. For international trade, the relevant question is therefore not only who issues the certificate, but whether the certificate is supported by controls and information that are legible to the importing jurisdiction.

2.2. Regulatory architecture, co-regulation, and compliance

Regulatory architecture refers here to the configuration of legal rules, public authorities, religious institutions, certifiers, inspection bodies, business actors, and enforcement mechanisms through which halal assurance is produced. Halal logistics research demonstrates that performance depends on the integration of organizational practices and the ability of service providers to translate halal requirements into operational controls [19]. The value created by halal assurance is similarly linked to credible logistics and service capabilities rather than certification as a stand-alone label [20].

These observations are important for comparing a broad state-administered regime with a sectoral co-regulatory regime. Sustainability-oriented studies emphasize that halal supply-chain management operates through interdependent economic, social, religious, and environmental considerations [21], while food-integrity research highlights the multiple dimensions through which product claims can fail or be contested [22]. Empirical studies also identify organizational capability, infrastructure, standards, coordination, and stakeholder commitment as barriers to effective halal supply-chain management and logistics implementation [23], [24]. Accordingly, regulatory breadth alone does not guarantee operational effectiveness; implementation capacity and institutional coordination remain decisive.

2.3. Mutual recognition and policy interoperability

Standardization and mutual recognition are related but conceptually distinct. Standards can create common expectations while still allowing organizational variation, and their implementation is shaped by the actors and institutions that interpret them [25]. Mutual recognition, by contrast, enables one jurisdiction to accept compliance evidence generated under another jurisdiction when specified conditions are met [26]. Applied to halal trade, interoperability therefore does not require identical institutions or a single transnational halal authority. It requires a clear mapping of what evidence is accepted, who may issue it, the products and services within scope, the duration of recognition, and the procedures used when status changes or non-compliance occurs.

2.4. Digital traceability and cross-border assurance

Digitalization has become increasingly relevant because cross-border halal assurance depends on the timely verification of institutional and product-level information. Reviews of digital technology in halal supply chains identify traceability, data integration, and distributed verification as recurring applications [27]. Studies of food SMEs show that adoption of halal traceability systems depends on organizational readiness and perceived value [28], while blockchain research highlights both the potential and the practical limitations of immutable or shared records for halal verification [29], [30].

Traceability can also influence logistics performance and brand credibility [31], while recent work has examined consumer and regulatory acceptance of blockchain-based halal certification [32] and proposed sustainable traceability frameworks for meat processing [33]. These studies provide a technological foundation for policy interoperability, but technology alone cannot determine whether a certificate is legally acceptable. Digital systems must remain subordinate to valid institutional recognition, product scope, and regulatory authority.

2.5. Analytical framework

Drawing on these strands of literature, the study compares Indonesia and Australia across seven dimensions: (1) regulatory orientation, (2) product scope, (3) institutional authority, (4) certification and religious determination, (5) supply-chain control, (6) enforcement, and (7) trade interoperability. The framework treats interoperability as an additional layer connecting two otherwise distinct systems. At this layer, recognition is assessed through institutional identity, approved product or service scope, certificate validity, registration requirements, status updates, and the availability of auditable traceability evidence.

3. Methods

3.1. Research design and scope

This study uses a qualitative comparative policy design based on legal and policy document analysis. Document analysis is appropriate where the object of inquiry is constituted by formal rules, institutional mandates, administrative guidance, and public records rather than by individual attitudes or behavior [34]. The unit of analysis is the national or federal halal policy architecture of Indonesia and Australia. The document window covers 2014 to 15 August 2026, with particular attention to developments from 2024 to 2026 because this period includes Indonesia's updated implementing regulation, institutional restructuring of BPJPH, the 2026 enforcement framework, the bilateral memorandum, and Australia's preparations for the October 2026 implementation phase.

3.2. Document universe and purposive selection

The document universe comprised legislation, subordinate regulations, agency regulations, official guidance, market-access notices, lists of recognized or approved certification bodies, government webpages describing certification and registration procedures, and peer-reviewed scholarship relevant to halal governance and supply-chain assurance. Documents were selected purposively when they met at least one of four criteria: they established a binding legal requirement; defined the mandate or status of an institution; described a current certification, recognition, supervision, registration, or market-access procedure; or provided peer-reviewed analytical evidence directly relevant to the comparative framework. Superseded legal instruments were used only when necessary to explain institutional evolution and were not treated as the basis for describing the current regime.

3.3. Analytical dimensions and operational definitions

Regulatory orientation identifies the event that activates halal obligations, such as circulation in the domestic market or export to a destination that requires halal certification. Product scope records the categories of goods and services covered. Institutional authority maps the distribution of functions among regulators, inspection or certification bodies, religious authorities, and businesses. Certification includes verification, religious determination, certificate issuance, and foreign recognition. Supply-chain control covers segregation, identification, documentation, integrity, and traceability. Enforcement includes supervision, corrective action, and administrative or export-control consequences. Trade interoperability refers to mechanisms that allow evidence generated in one system to be recognized and operationalized in the other.

3.4. Data sources and document collection

Indonesian sources were obtained from the national legal-regulation database, BPJPH's Legal Documentation and Information Network, the BPJPH official portal, and SIHALAL-related guidance. Australian sources were obtained from the Federal Register of Legislation, the Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry (DAFF), and the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT). Peer-reviewed literature was checked against publisher records and DOI metadata. For each document, the analysis recorded the title, issuing body, date or currency status, legal or administrative function, relevant provisions, comparative dimension, and any stated limitations on scope or recognition.

3.5. Comparative coding and analysis

Analysis proceeded in three stages. First, open coding identified regulatory mandates, responsible actors, regulated objects, certification steps, supply-chain controls, enforcement mechanisms, and cross-border recognition rules. Second, focused coding organized these observations within the seven analytical dimensions. Third, pattern matching compared the two systems and identified points of convergence, divergence, and operational connection. Thematic coding was used as an organizing technique rather than as a substitute for legal interpretation [35]. Claims about current regulatory conditions were retained only when they could be traced to official sources that were current at the study cut-off date.

3.6. Trustworthiness and source verification

Trustworthiness was strengthened through source triangulation, hierarchical source checking, and an audit trail. Legal claims were checked against legislation or regulations before being interpreted through administrative guidance. Agency webpages were used to clarify implementation details, recognition status, or procedural requirements, while peer-reviewed literature was used primarily for conceptual and comparative interpretation. The analytical record distinguished direct documentary statements from researcher inference. This procedure follows qualitative trustworthiness principles emphasizing traceability, transparency, and consistent coding decisions [36], [37].

3.7. Ethical considerations

The study analyzes publicly available legal, policy, regulatory, and scholarly documents. It does not involve human participants, animals, personal data, or intervention. Ethical review and informed consent were therefore not required. Research integrity was maintained by distinguishing binding legal provisions, administrative guidance, and the authors' analytical interpretations, and by using a defined policy cut-off date for rapidly changing information.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

4.1.1. Indonesia's halal policy architecture: broad market obligations and distributed authority

Indonesia's contemporary halal architecture is grounded in a broad market obligation. Law No. 33 of 2014 and Government Regulation No. 42 of 2024 require products entering, circulating, and being traded in Indonesia to comply with halal-certification obligations according to the applicable implementation stages, while products derived from prohibited materials are excluded from halal certification but must carry non-halal information [1], [2]. The framework covers food and beverages as well as other regulated product groups and associated services, making the system substantially broader than a sector-specific export-certification regime.

Institutionally, Presidential Regulation No. 153 of 2024 establishes BPJPH as a non-ministerial government agency responsible for government functions in halal product assurance [38]. However, the architecture remains functionally distributed. Halal inspection is conducted through Halal Inspection Bodies (LPH); facilitated pathways for micro and small enterprises involve assistance institutions and halal-process assistants; and religious determination is undertaken through the Indonesian Ulema Council or the Halal Product Fatwa Committee according to the applicable pathway. The regulatory basis for the Halal Product Fatwa Committee was further specified in BPJPH Regulation No. 7 of 2025 [39].

Indonesia also combines mandatory obligations with facilitation and enforcement. In 2026, BPJPH opened 1.35 million free halal-certification quotas for eligible micro and small enterprises through the SEHATI self-declaration program [40]. At the enforcement end of the architecture, BPJPH Regulation No. 2 of 2026 regulates the authority, types, procedures, objections, and follow-up associated with administrative sanctions for violations of halal-product-assurance requirements [41]. The resulting model is therefore state-centered in legal authority but networked in implementation.

4.1.2. Australia's halal policy architecture: export co-regulation and red-meat assurance

At the Australian federal level, the clearest statutory halal regime identified in the official sources applies to halal red meat and red meat products for export. The Export Control Act 2020 provides the overarching export-control framework, while the Export Control (Meat and Meat Products) Rules 2021 regulate halal certification operations, approved arrangements, identification, segregation, integrity, and government certification [6], [7]. Under the Rules, a halal certificate for prescribed meat is a government certificate jointly issued by a relevant Islamic organisation and the Secretary, confirming that the meat satisfies halal requirements and has maintained halal integrity.

AGAHP operationalizes this framework through shared responsibilities. DAFF retains legislative control and export-market responsibilities; AIOs supervise religious aspects of halal production, audit establishment compliance, oversee Muslim slaughter personnel, maintain records, report critical non-compliance, and endorse halal certificates; and export-registered establishments implement approved arrangements and maintain product identification, segregation, integrity, and importing-country requirements [42]. This arrangement is more accurately described as sectoral co-regulation than as purely private certification.

DAFF's list of recognized Islamic bodies was current as of 8 July 2026 and contained 18 AIOs holding approved arrangements for halal red-meat certification. The same list makes destination-market status

visible, demonstrating that an organization's approval under AGAHP does not itself guarantee recognition for every importing country [43]. The official sources reviewed did not identify an equivalent mandatory cross-sector federal halal certification regime for all products circulating in Australia's domestic market. The Australian federal architecture examined here is therefore comparatively narrow in product scope but detailed in export-process control.

4.1.3. Comparative policy matrix

Table 1 consolidates the principal differences and points of convergence. The comparison shows that the two systems differ most clearly in regulatory trigger and scope, while converging on the need for identifiable religious authority, documented process control, traceability, and government-recognized compliance evidence.

Table 1. Comparison of halal policy architectures in Indonesia and Australia

Dimension	Indonesia	Australia
Regulatory trigger	Covered products entering, circulating, and being traded in Indonesia; obligations are implemented in stages.	Federal halal controls examined here are triggered mainly by halal red-meat export and importing-country requirements.
Product and service scope	Food and beverages plus other product groups and services specified under staged halal-product-assurance rules.	The formal federal halal regime examined is sector-specific, with its clearest statutory application to red meat and meat products for export.
Institutional authority	BPJPH works with Halal Inspection Bodies (LPH), MUI or the Halal Product Fatwa Committee, and facilitation actors such as LP3H/P3H.	DAFF retains export-regulatory authority; Approved Islamic Organisations (AIOs) provide religious supervision; registered establishments implement approved arrangements.
Certification / religious determination	BPJPH issues certificates through applicable pathways after inspection or facilitated verification and halal determination; recognized foreign certificates require registration for the Indonesian market.	For prescribed exported meat, halal certification operates within the Export Control Rules and AGAHP, with government and the relevant Islamic organisation sharing certification responsibilities.
Supply-chain control	Segregation, labeling, documentation, registration, supervision, and halal-product-process controls support market assurance.	Identification, segregation, security, integrity, traceability, approved arrangements, audits, and importing-country requirements underpin export assurance.
Enforcement	BPJPH supervision and administrative sanctions operate under the Halal Product Assurance framework, including BPJPH Regulation No. 2 of 2026.	Compliance is governed through export legislation, approved arrangements, AIO auditing and reporting, and DAFF supervision.
Cross-border recognition	Foreign HCB recognition is scope-specific and foreign halal certificates must satisfy recognition and registration requirements, including SIHALAL-related processes.	AIO status for Australian export control is market-specific and is distinct from BPJPH recognition for products destined for Indonesia.

4.1.4. Indonesia–Australia interoperability toward the October 2026 implementation phase

The most concrete interoperability issue is the distinction between Australian approval and Indonesian destination-market recognition. DFAT reported that, as of May 2026, 13 Australian halal certification bodies had been approved by BPJPH for specified product or service scopes [9]. DAFF, by comparison, listed 18 AIOs under AGAHP as of 8 July 2026 [43]. These figures describe different regulatory populations: AIO status authorizes participation in Australia's government-approved halal red-meat export system, whereas BPJPH recognition determines whether an Australian certification body may issue certificates that Indonesia accepts within the approved scope.

The memorandum signed on 13 July 2026 creates an intergovernmental framework for connecting these layers. BPJPH describes the cooperation as covering consultation, information exchange, technical cooperation, recognition processes, trade facilitation, technology, human-resource development, research and development, infrastructure strengthening, and regular communication [10]. The memorandum does not eliminate Indonesia's domestic legal requirements; rather, it creates a mechanism through which evidence generated in Australia can be more systematically assessed and recognized within the Indonesian regime.

Operationally, exporters must still verify the recognition status and scope of the Australian HCB they use, maintain required segregation, comply with Indonesian labeling rules, and ensure that the foreign halal certificate is registered through SIHALAL by the Indonesian importer or authorized representative. Australian government guidance places the relevant mandatory date for imported food and beverage

products at 17 October 2026 [9]. Interoperability should therefore be assessed not by the existence of the memorandum alone, but by whether institutional status, certificate scope, registration, product identity, and supply-chain evidence remain synchronized across the transaction.

4.2. Discussion

The comparison challenges a binary distinction between state-based and private halal certification. Indonesia has strengthened state authority through BPJPH, yet implementation continues to depend on inspection bodies, religious authorities, facilitation networks, and business-level halal controls. Australia's red-meat system likewise combines public export law with religious certification organizations and establishment-level approved arrangements. This pattern is consistent with research showing that halal logistics and value creation depend on coordinated responsibilities across multiple actors rather than on a single certifying institution [19], [20].

The most substantive difference is the regulatory trigger. Indonesia's system is activated by the presence of covered products in the Indonesian market, whereas the Australian federal system analyzed here is principally activated by export of halal red meat and importing-country requirements. This difference produces a breadth–depth contrast: Indonesia must administer assurance across a wider range of products and services, while Australia has developed detailed controls within a strategically important export sector. The distinction helps explain why institutional recognition must be tied to product scope and destination market rather than treated as a universal status. Barriers documented in halal supply chains—such as coordination gaps, infrastructure limitations, and uneven organizational capability—reinforce the need for precise scope definitions and implementation support [23], [24].

4.2.1. From institutional recognition to data interoperability

The next policy challenge is to move from document-centered recognition toward verifiable data interoperability. Digital halal research consistently emphasizes traceability, certificate verification, and information integration as potential mechanisms for strengthening supply-chain assurance [27], [28], [29], [30]. A minimum bilateral data package could include the identity and status of the HCB or AIO, certificate number, facility, product or HS category, approved scope, validity period, suspension or revocation status, and traceability evidence. Such a package would support rapid verification without transferring religious or legal authority from one jurisdiction to the other.

However, digitalization should be treated as an enabling mechanism rather than a substitute for governance. Traceability technology can improve logistics performance and credibility [31], but its value depends on the legitimacy of the issuing institution and the quality of the underlying data. Research on blockchain-based halal certification and sustainable traceability similarly indicates that adoption and system design must align with regulatory expectations and stakeholder capabilities [32], [33]. The bilateral framework should therefore prioritize interoperable identifiers, version-controlled recognition lists, and timely notifications of suspension, revocation, or scope changes.

4.2.2. Policy implications for regulators and business actors

For Indonesia, the principal implementation challenge is to combine expanding mandatory coverage with service capacity, reliable recognition data, and proportionate enforcement. Recognition lists for foreign HCBs should be searchable, version-controlled, and explicit about product and service scope. For Australia, Indonesia's requirements need to be translated into consistent commodity-specific guidance beyond the red-meat sector, especially where exporters have limited prior experience with mandatory halal assurance. For businesses, due diligence should extend beyond the certifier's logo to verification of recognition status, approved scope, certificate registration, product identity, segregation controls, and any change in validity.

Risk-based oversight offers a practical way to allocate regulatory resources without weakening assurance. Halal supply-chain research has identified risk prioritization as important for managing multiple sources of non-compliance [44], while resilience research emphasizes the value of systematic assessment across supply-chain dimensions [45]. Adoption studies also show that implementation depends on stakeholder objectives and organizational readiness [46], and empirical work on halal logistics highlights the combined influence of internal capability and external institutional pressure [47]. These findings support differentiated audit intensity based on commodity risk, compliance history, process change, and the reliability of traceability evidence.

4.2.3. Recommendations for bilateral policy design

Six priorities follow from the analysis. First, Indonesia and Australia should maintain a synchronized bilateral registry that distinguishes AIO status from BPJPH HCB recognition and displays approved scope and validity. Second, the two governments should establish rapid notification protocols for accreditation

changes, suspension, revocation, and critical non-compliance. Third, a minimum interoperable data package should be defined for certificates, facilities, products, and traceability records. Fourth, joint technical review and risk-based audit procedures should be developed for high-risk products or recurring compliance problems. Fifth, commodity-specific guidance should be expanded for non-meat products affected by Indonesia's mandatory regime. Sixth, a coordinated help mechanism should support exporters, importers, and certifiers during the 2026 transition. None of these measures requires full standardization; they require clarity about which evidence is accepted, who may issue it, what it covers, and how its status can be verified.

4.2.4. Limitations

This study is subject to four limitations. First, document analysis cannot quantify compliance costs, processing times, or the experiences of exporters, importers, auditors, and certifiers. Second, the Australian analysis focuses on federal arrangements and does not map every state-level practice, retailer requirement, or private standard. Third, the comparison examines institutional and regulatory architecture rather than the technical equivalence of every halal standard used by individual certification bodies. Fourth, the policy environment is changing rapidly ahead of 17 October 2026; recognition lists and technical guidance may change after the 15 August 2026 cut-off. The numerical counts of AIOs and BPJPH-approved HCBs should therefore be interpreted as time-bounded policy snapshots rather than permanent characteristics of the systems.

5. Conclusion

Indonesia and Australia have developed halal assurance through different regulatory logics. Indonesia operates a broad mandatory product-assurance regime centered on BPJPH and implemented through a network of inspection, religious-determination, facilitation, registration, and enforcement mechanisms. Australia's most formalized federal halal framework is a sectoral co-regulatory system for red-meat exports in which DAFF, Approved Islamic Organisations, and export establishments share distinct legal, religious, and operational responsibilities. These differences do not make the systems incompatible. Their common reliance on recognized religious authority, documented process control, segregation, traceability, auditability, and government oversight creates a basis for interoperability. The July 2026 bilateral memorandum and BPJPH recognition of Australian certification bodies provide an institutional bridge, but effective implementation will depend on scope-specific recognition, synchronized status data, certificate registration, and proportionate risk-based oversight. The most credible policy direction is therefore calibrated interoperability rather than full harmonization: each jurisdiction retains its legal and religious authority while compliance evidence becomes more transparent, verifiable, and usable across the trade corridor.

Author contribution statement

Rizki Idsam Matura, Rudi Santoso, and Hendriyadi jointly contributed to Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Validation, and Writing - review & editing. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the documentary evidence, reviewed and approved the final manuscript, and agree to be accountable for the integrity of the work.

Disclosure statement

The authors declare no conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, or publication of this article.

AI-assisted technologies disclosure

AI-assisted tools were used to support language editing, structural refinement, and reference-format checking. They were not used to generate or alter research data. The authors independently verified the cited sources, regulatory interpretations, findings, and conclusions and remain fully responsible for the accuracy, originality, and integrity of the work.

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Data availability statement

All materials analyzed in this study are publicly available from the legal, regulatory, policy, and scholarly sources cited in the manuscript.

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