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Food quality 4.0: From traditional approaches to digitalized automated analysis

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1 **Food Quality 4.0: From traditional approaches to digitalized automated**
2 **analysis**

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42

43 **ABSTRACT**

44 Food quality has recently received considerable attention from governments, researchers, and
45 consumers due to the increasing demand for healthier and more nutritious food products.
46 Traditionally, food quality is determined using a range of destructive and time-consuming
47 approaches with modest analytical performance, underscoring the urgent need to develop novel
48 analytical techniques. The Fourth Industrial Revolution (called Industry 4.0) is progressing
49 exponentially, driven by the advent of a range of digital technologies and other innovative
50 technological advances. “Food Quality 4.0” is a new concept referring to the use of Industry 4.0
51 technologies in food analysis to achieve rapid, reliable, and objective assessment of food quality.
52 In this review, we will first discuss the fundamentals and principles of Food Industry 4.0
53 technologies and their connections with the Food Quality 4.0 concept. Then, the most common
54 techniques used to determine food quality will briefly be reviewed before highlighting the
55 advancements made in analytical techniques to assess food quality in the era of Industry 4.0.
56 Food Quality 4.0 is characterized by growing digitalization and automation of food analysis using
57 the most advanced technologies in the food industry. Key aspects of Food Quality 4.0, including,
58 among others, non-destructive fingerprinting techniques, omics technologies and bioinformatics
59 tools, Artificial Intelligence and Big Data, have great potential to revolutionize food quality.
60 Although most of these technologies are still under development, it is anticipated that future
61 research will overcome current limitations for large-scale applications.

62 **Keywords:** Artificial Intelligence, automation, Big Data, digitalization, food, Industry 4.0, omics,
63 quality, smart sensors, spectroscopy

64 **1. Introduction**

65 The modern food industry is a very competitive and dynamically developing environment, with
66 increasing consumers' demands towards better food quality, safety, and shelf life, more product
67 diversity and adoption of green/eco-friendly/sustainable production. Nevertheless, traditional
68 processing technologies may affect sensory quality characteristics such as appearance, color, taste,
69 and texture due to structural and conformational changes (e.g., lipid oxidation and protein
70 denaturation) in food products. Therefore, to meet the constantly growing consumer demands for
71 food products of high quality, food researchers and the food industry should constantly seek more
72 advanced solutions and technologies, including innovative processing and analytical techniques
73 (Echegary et al., 2022; García-Oliveira et al., 2020; Putnik et al., 2019).

74 Food quality refers to a range of attributes that are mainly related to sensory traits, shelf life, and
75 freshness of food, but other properties associated with microbiological and technological
76 parameters are also of utmost importance. During food processing and storage by using traditional
77 and advanced non-thermal technologies, food's physicochemical and sensory quality is affected to
78 some degree due to mechanical, electrical, or other physical damage to the microstructures of the
79 cell wall and cell membrane. Currently, the assessment of food quality has been focused on
80 conventional physicochemical methods, biological indicators, and sensory analysis, which are
81 destructive, time-consuming, and laborious (Ren et al., 2022). These techniques are considered
82 targeted methods and are often used to measure one specific aspect or a single well-described
83 attribute of a given food (ElMasry & Nakauchi, 2016). However, non-targeted methods that
84 simultaneously enable the acquisition of information about several parameters are more appropriate
85 for measuring food quality. A remarkable innovation has recently been seen in the application and
86 use of non-targeted detection methods to determine and monitor food quality (Hassoun, Siddiqui,
87 et al., 2022; Özdoğan et al., 2021). Most non-targeted methods are well adopted with the principle

88 of non-destructive non-contact screening. The need for such techniques has been receiving even
89 more interest over the past two years due to the outbreak of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic and
90 the increasing demand for less human contact with food (Khaled et al., 2021). Green foodomics
91 and bioinformatics technologies, including metabolomics (e.g., chromatography–mass
92 spectrometry-based metabolomics, and NMR-based metabolomics), have gained much attention
93 (Balkir et al., 2021). Besides, image and spectroscopic techniques are becoming increasingly
94 interesting alternatives to traditional methods, enabling rapid online measurements (Mahanti et al.,
95 2022; McVey et al., 2021). These advanced analytical techniques have recently been empowered
96 by the advent of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (Industry 4.0) technologies.

97 Industry 4.0 has emerged due to the fusion of multidisciplinary fields, particularly the digital,
98 biological, and physical domains (Maynard, 2015). In the food industry, the ongoing Industry 4.0
99 era has been characterized by high interconnectivity and growing use of novel technologies,
100 especially digital innovations, e.g., Artificial Intelligence (AI), cloud computing and analytics, and
101 blockchain, and other emerging techniques, such as the Internet of Things (IoT), smart sensors,
102 autonomous robotics, and 3D food printing (Bouzemrak et al., 2019; Chowdhury et al., 2022;
103 Galvan et al., 2021; Hassoun, Aït-kaddour, et al., 2022; Hassoun, Siddiqui, et al., 2022). These
104 advanced technologies have accelerated digitalization and automation in almost all sectors,
105 including the food industry, enhancing rapid, online and in-site monitoring and intelligent food
106 quality control. According to the Scopus database, the number of publications and citations related
107 to digitalization or automation in food quality has increased tremendously in the last decade, and
108 it is still permanently increasing (**Fig. 1**).

109 <**Fig. 1** near here>

110 Quality 4.0 concept has been used in many fields, such as development and management,
111 organizational readiness, businesses, and leadership (Antony et al., 2021; Javaid et al., 2021; Sader
112 et al., 2021). However, there is a gap in literature, as up to date, no application has been reported
113 in the food industry or food-related fields. This work will introduce, for the first time, the “Food
114 Quality 4.0” concept referring to the use of Industry 4.0 technologies (e.g., AI, Big Data, smart
115 sensors, etc.) to determine food quality in the most efficient, rapid, and reliable manner. This
116 literature overview will show through specific examples how the application of the Food Quality
117 4.0 concept will contribute to ensuring high food quality, saving time and labor, and increasing the
118 efficiency of the food industry.

119 The main motivation of the study is to encourage more automation and digitalization in the food
120 industry. More concretely, this review paper aims to i) adopt the concept of Quality 4.0 in the food
121 industry; ii) define the main enablers of Food Quality 4.0; iii) promote wider applications of
122 Industry 4.0 technologies in the food industry; and iv) help to automate and digitalize quality
123 analysis in the food industry.

124 The organization of this manuscript is as follows: After the introduction, Section 2 gives a general
125 overview of Industry 4.0 technologies and introduces the Food Quality 4.0 concept. Section 3
126 presents the most common traditional methods as well as emerging techniques and approaches used
127 for the determination of food quality. Section 4 presents a short discussion, highlighting the main
128 theoretical and practical implications of Food Quality 4.0 and its relevance to policy makers. The
129 main conclusions, limitations, and future perspectives are briefly presented in Section 5.

130 This literature review was conducted with a methodology that focused on scientific articles
131 authored in the English language, published in peer-reviewed journals in the last ten years. Data
132 were obtained from Scopus with the following search criteria: Title, Abstract, Keyword; Food
133 Quality AND Digitalization OR Automation.

134

135 **2. Food Industry 4.0 and “Food Quality 4.0” concept**

136 Industry 4.0 is gaining momentum and supporting businesses to optimize their operations by
137 increasing automation and improving communication. It integrates recent developments in
138 information technology, such as robotics and automation, Big Data, simulation, system integration,
139 IoT, cybersecurity, the cloud, additive manufacturing, and augmented reality (Rüßmann, 2015), as
140 shown in **Fig. 2**. In addition, Industry 4.0 can help increase the efficiency of operations by
141 supporting the implementation of lean principles and methods, such as Just-in-time and Jidoka
142 (Rosin et al., 2019).

143

<Fig. 2 near here>

144 Industry 4.0 principles are related to the three pillars of sustainability (i.e., environmental,
145 economic, and social domains). Ghobakhloo, (2020) analyzed such relationships and concluded
146 that Industry 4.0 is more connected to the economic domain of sustainability, mainly through
147 production efficiency and business model innovation. However, such principles can also pave the
148 way for improvements in the environmental and social domains. Bai et al.,(2020) ranked Industry
149 4.0 technologies based on their impact on sustainability performance and placed mobile
150 technologies first overall, while simulation ranked first in the food and beverage sector. Such
151 technologies contribute unequally to the economic, environmental, and social dimensions of
152 sustainability.

153 Although the implementation of Industry 4.0 technologies is generally expected to generate
154 industrial benefits, some of these technologies are still at a very early stage of adoption. As a result,
155 they do not offer clear benefits yet, especially in emerging economies (Dalenogare et al., 2018). In
156 this context, Raj et al.,(2020) analyzed the barriers to adopting Industry 4.0 technologies in the

157 manufacturing sector of developed and developing economies. They found that, although the lack
158 of a digital strategy alongside resource scarcity is the most significant barrier in both types of
159 economies, important differences exist between developed and developing countries. In developing
160 countries, improvements in standards and government regulation could facilitate the adoption of
161 Industry 4.0 technologies, whereas the focus should be on technological infrastructure in developed
162 countries. An important challenge to implementing Industry 4.0 more widely is the lack of expertise
163 and thus the need for a skilled workforce to operate such new systems (Sony & Naik, 2020).

164 The adoption of Industry 4.0 technologies varies significantly among European countries. The
165 Netherlands and Finland are leading the implementation thanks to their Industry 4.0 infrastructure
166 and Big Data maturity, while Hungary, Bulgaria, and Poland rank last (Castelo-Branco et al., 2019).
167 Sony & Naik, (2020) proposed factors from the following themes to assess Industry 4.0 readiness
168 for businesses (**Fig. 3**).

169 <**Fig. 3** near here>

170 Macroeconomic factors also influence the adoption of Industry 4.0, such as the structure of the
171 industrial sector, its role within each country's economy and differences in business models or
172 management styles (Castelo-Branco et al., 2019). Frank et al.,(2019) proposed a framework to
173 support the implementation of Industry 4.0 technologies in manufacturing businesses.

174 Food businesses are slowly embracing Industry 4.0 technologies, with sensors, simulations, AI-
175 based autonomous systems, additive manufacturing, cloud systems, and blockchain projected to
176 have the greatest impact in the sector. There are several examples of the application of such
177 technologies in various food-manufacturing applications, such as logistics (Jagtap, Bader, et al.,
178 2021); reduction of waste, energy and water use (Jagtap, Garcia-Garcia, et al., 2021); data
179 collection and monitoring (Konur et al., 2021a); and quality control (Garcia-Garcia et al., 2021).

180 Currently, Quality 4.0 is integrated with traditional quality practices rather than substituting them
181 (Sader et al., 2021). According to interviews with senior management professionals, the most
182 critical technologies for driving Quality 4.0 are predictive analytics, sensors and tracking, and
183 electronic feedback loops (Antony et al., 2021). Nevertheless, it is often difficult to transform
184 traditional quality-control processes into Quality 4.0 and obtain value from such changes.
185 Therefore, Escobar et al.,(2021) presented a problem-solving strategy based on seven steps
186 (namely, identify, accessorize, discover, learn, predict, redesign, and relearn) to increase the
187 likelihood of success in implementing Quality 4.0.

188 Quality control is key in the food sector, as it assures food products are safe for consumers and
189 have the required organoleptic properties. Quality 4.0 allows assessing the quality of food products
190 more accurately and in real-time (Ada et al., 2021), thus facilitating traceability (Khan et al., 2020),
191 which is a critical step toward more transparency in the food supply chains. There already exist
192 examples of the application of Quality 4.0 to optimize the quality-control process in food
193 businesses. Bhatia & Ahanger, (2021) presented an IoT-based framework to assess food-quality
194 parameters in restaurants and food outlets. Rejeb et al., (2020) analyzed the implementation of
195 blockchain technology for different applications, including quality assurance in the food supply
196 chain. Ping et al., (2018) reviewed the application of IoT technology in monitoring agricultural
197 product's quality and safety.

198 Furthermore, due to the high perishability of food products, smart packaging plays an important
199 role in food quality to extend the shelf life, improve quality, safety, and provide information about
200 food products. Technologies integrated into smart packaging include nano sensors, biosensors, and
201 gas sensors to measure the temperature and freshness of food products (Ben-Daya et al., 2020).

202 Implementation of Industry 4.0 technologies could create huge time and cost savings compared to
203 traditional analytical approaches. Although initial capital investment associated with innovative

204 technologies could be large, higher product quality, fewer errors, and reduced machine
205 downtimes, and other desirable features associated with smart technologies make the move from
206 traditional to Quality 4.0 system financially viable. For example, the application of blockchain will
207 not only solve problems of food safety and quality and improve transparency but also reduce costs
208 along the different stages and operations of food supply chain, such as transaction, quality, and
209 time costs, among other costs (Qian et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2020). Beside economic costs, a wider
210 implementation of digitalization, AI, and other Industry 4.0 elements has high potential to reduce
211 environmental costs by supporting the transition towards more sustainable food systems (Marvin
212 et al., 2022). Despite these advances, most of the innovative technologies are still under
213 development, and further research and testing is still required to accelerate the transition from
214 laboratory to industrial-scale applications.

215 In conclusion, Industry 4.0 technologies show great potential for food businesses. Industry 4.0 may
216 optimize the quality-control process, key in the food sector, by increasing automation and
217 digitalization, and improving communication. The rest of the article reviews traditional methods
218 used to determine food quality and emerging techniques within Quality 4.0 that are expected to
219 contribute to the development of quality control in the food sector in the coming years.

220

221 **3. Findings**

222 **3.1. Traditional methods used for the determination of food quality**

223 Quality is defined through various characteristics, including nutritional value, physicochemical
224 properties, safety, sensory attributes, and shelf-life stability. Several standard and reference
225 methods have been used over the years to determine the quality and authenticity of food products,
226 mainly based on intrinsic attribute measurements (Bernués et al., 2003; Kutsanedzie et al., 2019).
227 Among them, physicochemical determinations (color, texture, water holding capacity) that are

228 related to product technological properties, sensory attributes (flavor, juiciness, tenderness) linked
229 to consumer acceptability, safety aspects including the presence of pathogenic and foodborne
230 microorganisms or toxic substances, and nutritional/health concerns (proximate composition, fatty
231 acid and amino acid composition) are included among these analytics (Lorenzo et al., 2022).

232 The most commonly used methods are supported by international organizations such as the AOAC
233 International, International Organization for Standardization (ISO), or the American Oil Chemists
234 Society (AOCS) (AOAC, 2019; ISO, 1981). The standards are intended to establish a quality
235 system, maintain product integrity, and satisfy customers. Others, such as *Codex Alimentarius* also
236 aim to protect consumers' health and guarantee and facilitate international food trade. In addition,
237 these methods allow the comparison of results, ensuring that the results are of quality.

238 There is no single standard method for proximate composition determination since the selection of
239 the method depends on the type of sample. This is clearly reflected in the case of lipids, where the
240 total content could be quantified by organic solvent extraction methods such as Soxhlet or Folch,
241 among others. In the case of protein, Kjeldahl and Dumas methods based on nitrogen measurements
242 are commonly used. In the case of total carbohydrate analysis, colorimetric and reducing sugar
243 methods are applied, while gravimetric procedures are the ones selected in the case of moisture and
244 ash. Moreover, spectroscopic methods are based on the absorption or emission of radiation in UV-
245 visible, and infrared frequency ranges are among the common instruments in many food
246 laboratories. In fact, these analyses can also be carried out using near-infrared reflectance
247 spectroscopy (NIRS), which allows the detection of product adulterations, predicting fat, protein
248 and water content quickly. Still, it has some limitations regarding instrument calibration and spectra
249 interpretation (Troy et al., 2016). In addition, the high absorbance of the NIRS signal by water
250 could disturb the results in products with high moisture content (Liu et al., 2015). In elemental
251 analysis, atomic emission spectroscopy (AAS), flame atomic emission spectroscopy (FAAS),

252 inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) are among the
253 recommended techniques. In contrast, various chromatographic and mass spectrometry techniques
254 are used to identify these compounds in a more specific way (Di Stefano et al., 2012). **Fig. 4** shows
255 the traditional methods vs. emerging techniques for food quality determination.

256 <Fig. 4 near here>

257 Regarding physicochemical parameters, color is one of the most important parameters that has a
258 huge impact on consumer acceptance, and is especially important in products, such as meat and
259 meat products, oils, or honey, among others (Brühl & Unbehend, 2021; Kuš et al., 2018;
260 Milovanovic et al., 2020; Tomasevic et al., 2019). It can be evaluated using visual or instrumental
261 methods. In the first case, color pattern cards or photographic scales are used. However, visual
262 evaluation is considered a subjective measure, since it is dependent on several factors, such as
263 testing conditions, lighting, color tones, training of assessors, and difficulty in finding matches
264 between standards and tested samples. In the case of instrumental measurements, the evaluation
265 based on the CIELAB system allows determining the exact color of the product in a three-
266 dimensional color sphere through the determination of three coordinates defined as L^*
267 (luminosity), a^* (redness-greenness), and b^* (yellow-blueness). Moreover, other parameters such
268 as chroma (C^*) and hue (h^*) can also be obtained from a^* and b^* .

269 Food texture is another determining characteristic in food products since it conditions food satiety,
270 the organoleptic experience of the consumer, and the overall acceptance of food products
271 (Guimarães et al., 2020). Sensory, instrumental (known as objective, physical or mechanical) and
272 indirect methods (collagen content, dry matter, among others) can be used to evaluate texture. The
273 main textural parameters evaluated in instrumental methods are hardness and cohesiveness,
274 although springiness, gumminess, and chewiness are also evaluated. These parameters are selected
275 depending on the product to be analyzed. The most common way to determine these parameters is

276 mechanical tests, such as the Warner-Bratzler test (WB) and texture profile analysis (TPA).
277 However, other parameters are more difficult to determine through instrumental methods. It is the
278 case of adhesiveness, creaminess, tenderness, and juiciness since these characteristics are more
279 linked to oral processing (Pascua et al., 2013). Therefore, they are usually evaluated through
280 sensory assessment. Consequently, many industries use both methodologies since they are
281 complementary and provide more reliable results. Along with these, the rheological properties of
282 foods are also determined to determine how the shape of the food changes in response to some
283 applied force. Other physicochemical parameters such as acidity or electrical conductivity could
284 complement the previous determinations, and in some cases, they would offer important data about
285 their quality.

286 In the case of microbiological analysis, there are several methodologies to determine the viability
287 of a product and the identification of microbial contaminants. However, cultivation continues to be
288 the most widely used method. It is the case of Total Viable Counts (TVC) determination,
289 considered as a standard tool (Hassoun, Gudjónsdóttir, et al., 2020). In addition to this, enzyme-
290 linked immune sorbent assay (ELISA) and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) are commonly used.
291 Other parameters can also be used as freshness indicators, along with these determinations. This is
292 the case of peroxide values (PV) and thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), or protein
293 carbonyls and total volatile basic nitrogen (TVB-N), which are related to the stability of,
294 respectively, lipids and proteins to oxidation (Bekhit et al., 2021; Domínguez et al., 2019; Rubén
295 Domínguez et al., 2022).

296 The value of these analytics is unquestionable, but the results of these techniques must be correlated
297 with sensory analysis since the results obtained in the sensory characterization of a product are of
298 vital importance both in the development of new products and in their acceptance by the final
299 consumer (Ruiz-Capillas et al., 2021). Descriptive sensory analysis is the most used method in

300 sensory characterization. The attributes are evaluated by a panel of highly trained panelists, making
301 the results obtained more objective and reliable. This, together with the fact that it is a flexible
302 method, has continued to be used over time (Purriños et al., 2022). The selected attributes usually
303 offer a large amount of information about the product whose intensity is evaluated within a
304 structured scale (Pateiro et al., 2022).

305 In summary, there are many methods conventionally used to determine food quality. However, it
306 is important to note that although they have good precision and reliability, in many cases, they
307 require several preliminary steps, are destructive, and are time-consuming (Hassoun et al., 2019),
308 highlighting the urgent need for more innovative and advanced analytical approaches.

309

310 **3.2. Emerging techniques and approaches**

311 *3.2.1. Non-destructive fingerprinting techniques*

312 As discussed before, conventional or traditional methods used to determine food quality have
313 several drawbacks, e.g., laborious and destructive nature, high cost, long process time, a limited
314 number of analytes, and low performance (El-Mesery et al., 2019; Khaled et al., 2021; Sarkar et
315 al., 2022; Valdés et al., 2021). These drawbacks can be faced by the Industry 4.0 vision or Quality
316 4.0 principles. Non-destructive, non-targeted fingerprinting methods (e.g., spectroscopic and
317 imaging techniques) can be more suitable for analyzing complex materials such as food products,
318 achieving rapid and cost-effective outcomes. Moreover, the need for such non-destructive methods
319 has become more evident in the last two years due to the outbreak of COVID-19 and the trend of
320 increased adoption of automation and AI in the food industry (Khaled et al., 2021).

321 This section will discuss a selection of the most common non-destructive fingerprinting techniques.
322 Spectroscopic techniques are based on the interaction between electromagnetic radiation and
323 matter at various wavelengths. Spectroscopic-based techniques can provide reliable information

324 about physical properties and the chemical composition of samples quickly and inexpensively, in
325 line with the core principles of Quality 4.0. A range of spectroscopic techniques, including, among
326 others, near-infrared (NIR) and mid-infrared (MIR) spectroscopy (Munawar et al., 2022; Pasquini,
327 2018; Su & Sun, 2019), fluorescence (Hassoun, 2021; Hassoun et al., 2019), and Raman
328 spectroscopy (Jiang et al., 2021; Lintvedt et al., 2022), has recently been gaining special attention
329 due to their desirable features such as high sensitivity and specificity and the possibility of being
330 applied on line during food production or processing for real-time data acquisition of intact
331 samples.

332 Spectroscopic methods have been widely used in many applications, ranging from detection of
333 adulteration and fraud (Hassoun, Måge, et al., 2020; Hassoun, Shumilina, et al., 2020; Rifna et al.,
334 2022; Silva et al., 2022; Zaukuu et al., 2022), determination of the chemical composition or specific
335 constituents (Xu et al., 2022), monitoring processing conditions, such as thermal and non-thermal
336 treatments (Abderrahmane Aït-Kaddour et al., 2021; Hassoun, Ojha, et al., 2020; Hassoun et al.,
337 2021; Hassoun, Heia, et al., 2020), to the determination of food quality and safety (Fan et al., 2022;
338 Hassoun & Karoui, 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2021).

339 In recent years, tremendous progress has been made in miniaturized instrumentation, compact
340 spectral sensors and handheld systems (Giussani et al., 2022; Müller-Maatsch et al., 2021; Müller-
341 Maatsch & van Ruth, 2021; Rodriguez-Saona et al., 2020) has been made, driven by Industry 4.0
342 innovations and recent advancements. This trend has especially concerned NIR spectrometers that
343 have become available at a much smaller size and lower cost than traditional NIR benchtop
344 laboratory instruments (Beć et al., 2021; Giussani et al., 2022). Furthermore, the integration of AI,
345 deep learning, smart sensors, and other Industry 4.0 elements into spectroscopic systems has
346 enhanced the analytical performance of the proposed analysis systems. For example, in a recent

347 study, a portable system integrating NIR sensor, load sensor, and deep learning methods was
348 proposed for mixture powdery food evaluation (Zhou et al., 2022).

349 One of the most significant communication protocols for Industry 4.0 and IoT is Open Platform
350 Communications Unified Architecture (OPC-UA). OPC standardizes access to machines, devices,
351 and other systems in the industrial environment, allowing for identical and manufacturer-agnostic
352 data sharing (Ioana & Korodi, 2021). For example, a miniaturized spectrometer technology,
353 combined with AI was developed (called SmartSpectrometer) and used to predict sugar and acid
354 in grapes in the field. The open communication interface OPC-UA can be used to connect the
355 SmartSpectrometer modules on one side by ensuring interoperable data and information sharing
356 inside and on the other side between different Industry 4.0 automation levels. Production processes
357 can be optimized, quality can be improved, and resources can be saved by collecting and analyzing
358 spectroscopic measurement data and exchanging production-relevant information (Krause et al.,
359 2021).

360 Hyperspectral imaging (HSI) combines traditional spectroscopy and imaging and simultaneously
361 obtains spectral and spatial information. HSI has been most commonly used in Vis/NIR,
362 fluorescence, and Raman (Özdoğan et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2020). Three different sensing modes,
363 namely interactance, reflectance, and transmittance, are widely applied for various applications
364 (Hassoun, Heia, et al., 2020; Khaled et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2019). The technique can also be used
365 with microscopy systems (Pu et al., 2019). Data created by HSI has a three-dimensional structure;
366 x , y , λ (called hypercube), with two spatial dimensions (x rows, y columns) and one spectral
367 dimension (a range of wavelengths). A detailed overview of HSI principles, different configurations
368 and settings, and various hardware and software can be found in other review papers (Caporaso et
369 al., 2018; Fu & Chen, 2019; Ma et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021).

370 HSI was first used in remote-sensing applications, but the range of applications has recently
371 become very large, including food quality (Caporaso et al., 2018; Pu et al., 2019; Saha &
372 Manickavasagan, 2021). HSI can be used to evaluate external quality attributes and internal quality
373 parameters (Hassoun et al., 2021; Khaled et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021). HSI is
374 most used in sensory and freshness assessment (Özdoğan et al., 2021), authentication (Qin et al.,
375 2020), and determination of the quality of different food categories such as egg (Yao et al., 2022),
376 meat (Fu & Chen, 2019), and fruits and vegetables (Lu et al., 2017). Recent research has shown
377 that most of the quality indicators (discussed in Section 3), such as TVB-N, TBARS, TPA, and
378 color, can be predicted from HSI data. Some relevant examples of recent applications of HSI in the
379 field of food quality control can be found in **Table 1**. This table shows that HSI has been widely
380 used in various food products, mostly of animal origin, and the Vis/NIR range (especially 400-
381 1000 nm) has been the most used mode.

382 *<Table 1 near here>*

383 Compared to other techniques, HSI has many desirable features that meet Industry 4.0
384 requirements. The technique is characterized by high speed, accuracy, automation, and real-time
385 monitoring and could be suitable for automated quality evaluation and safety inspection of large
386 sample sets. Although most investigations have been conducted at the laboratory level, HSI has
387 great potential for industrial applications (El-Mesery et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2017; Özdoğan et al.,
388 2021). One of the main limitations of HSI remains the huge amount of obtained data that should
389 be processed in real-time. However, with the rapid developments in technology (especially the
390 recent advancements of Industry 4.0 and the combination of HSI with Big Data and cloud-
391 computing technologies), the development of new algorithm models for optimal wavelength
392 selection and implementation of multispectral imaging have enabled higher computing efficiency
393 and enhanced the entire system performance, demonstrating the feasibility of using HSI to evaluate

394 numerous properties of various food products (Khaled et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2019; Özdoğan et al.,
395 2021).

396 Besides spectroscopic and imaging techniques, a wide range of analytical methods have been
397 developed in recent years. These include acoustic and ultrasound sensing (Caladcad et al., 2020;
398 Lei & Sun, 2019), machine vision system and computer vision (El-Mesery et al., 2019; Kakani et
399 al., 2020; Saberioon et al., 2017), bioelectrical impedance analysis (Fan et al., 2021; Huh et al.,
400 2021), wireless chemical sensors and biosensors, such as radio-frequency identification (RFID)
401 (Karuppuswami et al., 2020; Kassal et al., 2018), electronic nose and electronic tongue (Di Rosa
402 et al., 2017), just to mention a few. However, most of these techniques are still under development
403 and require more research to meet industrial needs.

404 *3.2.2. Omics and bioinformatics technologies*

405 Generally, foods represent very complex and diverse mixtures consisting of naturally occurring
406 compounds including primary and secondary metabolites such as lipids, proteins, carbohydrates,
407 amino acids, fatty acids, phytochemicals, colorants, aromas, preservatives, among others, in
408 addition to several other exogenous compounds, which pose enormous analytical challenges. The
409 assessment of these metabolites and the monitoring of food quality and food safety imply the use
410 of robust, sensitive, cost-effective, and efficient analytical methodologies.

411 Currently, the most common high-throughput analytical techniques that are well accepted and
412 taken as gold standards for food quality assessment and safety monitoring are liquid (LC) or gas
413 chromatography (GC), usually coupled to mass spectrometry (MS), nuclear magnetic resonance
414 (NMR) spectroscopy, and capillary electrophoresis (CE) (**Fig. 5**).

415 <**Fig. 5** near here>

416 In addition to those molecular analysis methods, other methodological approaches of biological
417 origin, such as ELISA and PCR, are also used extensively in food analysis (Tramuta et al., 2022;
418 Xu et al., 2022). Although these methods have been in use for a long time (hence their introduction
419 in Section 3), recent advances and developments in terms of instrumentation and techniques have
420 revolutionized many aspects of analytical chemistry. Coupled with machine learning, these
421 techniques are a promising way of modelling food-human interaction. In recent years,
422 bioinformatics technologies have been gaining popularity, especially with the increased need for
423 enhanced computational capabilities to process huge biological data, enabling effective monitoring
424 of food quality (Jeevanandam et al., 2022). Omics is a sub domain of “foodomics” that studies food
425 and nutrition domains through the application and integration of advanced omics technologies,
426 such as proteomics (proteins), metabolomics (metabolites), and genomics (detection of genes),
427 among others (Balkir et al., 2021; Carrera et al., 2020; Picone et al., 2022).

428 One of the most powerful analytical techniques that has played a vital role in food safety and quality
429 issues, in addition to food authenticity and labeling accuracy as a useful tool to prevent food fraud
430 and adulteration, is liquid chromatography with ultraviolet (LC-UV) detection or coupled to mass
431 spectrometry (LC-MS) (Malik et al., 2010; Núñez et al., 2005). The characterization of food
432 products based on LC analytical methodologies has been reported in several works, providing a
433 large amount of information, such as the confirmation and quantification of thousands of
434 compounds in one chromatographic run (Núñez et al., 2005). For example, native Colombian fruits
435 and their by-products were characterized by Loizzo et al., (2019) by determining their
436 hypoglycemic potential antioxidant activity and phenolic profile. The presence of chlorogenic acid
437 as a dominant compound in Solanaceae samples was revealed by ultra-high performance liquid
438 chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometry (UHPLC-HRMS) with an Orbitrap mass
439 analyzer. Izquierdo-Llopart & Saurina, (2019) established the polyphenolic profiles (280, 310 and

440 370 nm) of sparkling wines by LC-UV/Vis and principal component analysis (PCA). Figueira et
441 al., (2021) established the fingerprint of the free low molecular weight phenolic composition and
442 bioactivity of *Vaccinium padifolium* Sm. fruits by LC-MSMS, while Aguiar et al., (2020) reported
443 the chemical fingerprint of free polyphenols and antioxidant activity in dietary fruits and vegetables
444 using a non-targeted approach based on QuEChERS-ultrasound assisted extraction combined with
445 UHPLC-FLR.

446 In a recent study, Reyrolle et al.,(2022) selected ion flow tube mass spectrometry (SIFT-MS) was
447 developed to detect and quantify volatile organic compounds emitted by ewe cheeses, illustrating
448 producer's typicality and process control and the impact of the animals' diet on the final product
449 without any previous separation step. Other applications of chromatography and spectrometry
450 techniques for the analysis of food metabolites and metabolomics research have been recently
451 reviewed (Emwas et al., 2021; Pedrosa et al., 2021).

452 NMR is a non-destructive analytical method based on the magnetic properties of several atomic
453 nuclei, in which the spin nuclear magnetization of a sample that contains NMR active nuclei and
454 is located inside a strong field NMR magnet, is excited by radio-frequency pulses generating a
455 signal, which during its relaxation back to equilibrium, is recorded and Fourier transformed to
456 provide the NMR spectrum. The most common nuclei studied in food analysis are
457 hydrogen, deuterium, carbon, and phosphorus (Higashi et al., 2020; Pedrosa et al., 2021;
458 Wieczorek et al., 2021). NMR is well suited to omics approach. It is a versatile and accurate
459 quantitative technique that can be applied to samples of all states of matter for quality control,
460 production monitoring/improvement, sensory evaluation, and food authentication. However, its
461 sensitivity is relatively low compared to other high-throughput technologies. High-resolution solid
462 state (Munson et al., 2022) and liquid state NMR (Dubrow et al., 2022) are the most common NMR
463 techniques applied to food to obtain a frequency domain spectrum.

464 CE is another emerging technique that has generated great interest in the analyses of many
465 compounds due to its high separation efficiency, extremely small sample and reagent requirements,
466 and rapid analysis. Recently, Valdés et al., (2022) presented a detailed overview of the main
467 applications (e.g., detection and analyzing carbohydrates, amino acids, biogenic amines,
468 heterocyclic amines, lipids, proteins and peptides, vitamins, among others)of CE methods in food
469 analysis and foodomics. Another review paper provided an overview of the application of MS,
470 NMR, CE and other metabolomics approaches for the characterization of meat and the exploration
471 of biomarkers in the production system (Muroya et al., 2020).

472 Despite the numerous obvious advantages and the important capabilities and possibilities offered
473 by the application of omics and bioinformatics, these main characteristics of the Quality 4.0 era are
474 not without challenges. The main obstacles are the complexity and variety of data generated from
475 different bioinformatics tools, expensive instrumentation, and lack of skilled operators needed for
476 method development (Valdés et al., 2021, 2022).

477

478 *3.3. Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Big Data*

479 Industry 4.0 includes innovative technologies, such as Big Data and AI. Deep learning and Big
480 Data are among the most important topics of Industry 4.0 (Zeba et al., 2021). These technologies
481 exist within smart ecosystems: humans, machines, and devices interact for efficient product
482 manufacturing. These technologies improve food manufacturing efficiency and consistency and
483 reduce operational costs. They may be implemented to adapt existing machinery to a new way of
484 operating instead of expensive replacement (Konur et al., 2021b). Integrating Big Data and AI into
485 traditional food science can create new recipes alongside intelligent recommendations, track and
486 trace food for improved food quality, and analyze food taste preferences.

487 *3.3.1. Agriculture*

488 Agri-food supply chains are the source of quality raw materials transformed into quality
489 manufactured foods. In response to consumer demand for affordable and higher quality food, agri-
490 food supply chains deploy AI and Big Data to guide decision-making to improve food product
491 quality through traceability, reduced waste and improved productivity. For example, AI can assess
492 plants and fruits at various harvest stages and post-harvest stages to detect effects such as decay
493 and mold (Stasenko et al., 2021). There are, however, challenges to the digitalization of agri-food
494 supply chains such as low inter-operability of different data sets, silo mentality, low willingness to
495 share data and a significant skills gap (Serazetdinova et al., 2019).

496 Our ability to assess crop quality at scale in the fields has recently improved due to remote sensing
497 and AI, which integrate Big Data into predictive and prescriptive management tools to address
498 agricultural and human nutrition challenges (Jung et al., 2021). AI has great potential to support
499 the transition to sustainable food systems, impacting the entire value chain from farmers to
500 consumers (Marvin et al., 2022). AI may be combined with ontological models to improve the
501 product quality of vertical farms, supporting autonomous data-driven decisions (Abbasi et al.,
502 2021). Further optimization and decision-making support may be derived from digital twins that
503 rely on AI and Big Data for even greater insights (Nasirahmadi & Hensel, 2022).

504 *3.3.2. Traceability*

505 Food traceability is an important means of ensuring food quality that addresses trust issues between
506 consumers and the market. RFID technology and Big Data may be used to obtain information about
507 the food production process (Zheng et al., 2021). Processed food is particularly challenging due to
508 the variety of raw materials, batch mixing and resource transformation. In the context of processed
509 food, AI may be used to optimize batch mixing and Big Data can support quality forecasting (Qian
510 et al., 2022). It is predicted that blockchain technology will be integrated with AI and Big Data,
511 supporting a new level of supply chain traceability.

512 3.3.3. Food processing quality

513 With respect to food processing, AI-based 3D food printing can produce high quality, customized
514 products for individuals based on appropriateness judgments and standards for food ingredients
515 supported by Big Data values of various food groups (Yoo & Park, 2021). Furthermore, new food
516 product development can look to “computational pharmaceuticals” (Wang et al., 2021) for
517 inspiration on integrating Big Data, AI and multi-scale modelling techniques for pre-formulation
518 studies and predicting nutritional effects. Recently, AI used in conjunction with simple sound
519 vibrations traversing the food product has demonstrated the ability to verify high-quality products
520 with no additives and organic food products (Iymen et al., 2020).

521 3.3.4. Sensors and food quality

522 Determining the quality of a food product may also be aided by sensor data combined with AI and
523 Big Data. Non-destructive spectroscopic, acoustic, ultrasound and artificial sensing techniques
524 have immense food quality testing applications. The application of computer vision and learning
525 methods to improve the food industry is termed “computer vision and AI-driven food industry”
526 (Kakani et al., 2020).

527 Biogenic amines are important biomarkers for monitoring food quality that benefit from AI’s
528 application; this application may be a new way to monitor the freshness of meat (Tan et al., 2022).

529 Non-destructive inspection based on X-ray CT scans has been used with a deep neural network to
530 indicate suboptimal storage conditions of pear fruits. In addition, the technique can be used to
531 detect internal disorders, such as internal browning and cavity formation, which are often invisible
532 from the outside (Van De Looverbosch et al., 2021).

533 Nonthermal technologies such as high-power ultrasound, pulsed electric fields, high voltage
534 electrical discharge, high-pressure processing, UV-LED, pulsed light, e-beam, and advanced
535 thermal food processing techniques including microwave processing, ohmic heating, and high-

536 pressure homogenization may all benefit from the implementation of smart sensors combined with
537 AI and Big Data (Jambrak et al., 2021). AI may support food quality analysis using food images
538 (from smartphones) to estimate their nutrient content (Ma et al., 2022). In addition, AI human-like
539 sensors exist for vision, hearing, smell, taste and touch (Zhao et al., 2020), which may complement
540 and eventually replace human sensory tests of food quality.

541 Big Data and AI afford opportunities for multi-parameter sensing that mimics the sense of taste,
542 overcoming the limitations of salty, sweet, sour, bitter and glutamate sensing by using electronic
543 taste chip systems that can act as fingerprints of health and wellness (Christodoulides et al., 2019).
544 In addition, E-sensing and nanoscale-sensing devices may be combined with AI for food quality
545 control (Galvan et al., 2021)(Galvan et al., 2021)[20](Galvan et al., 2021). However, although there
546 is significant literature investigating food product quality with computer vision algorithms, there
547 is a lack of commercial exploitation (Meenu et al., 2021).

548 *3.3.5. Food safety and food quality*

549 The globalization of food production makes ensuring food quality more difficult. Therefore, a
550 reliable digital ecosystem of food quality management requires a balanced strategy for the
551 integration of Big Data, AI and blockchain for the end-to-end monitoring of food quality and safety
552 and improvement of quality management and traceability of food products at all stages –
553 production, circulation and consumption (Savina et al., 2020).

554 *3.3.6. Food supply chain and cold chain*

555 The main challenge of Sustainable Development Goal 12, “Responsible Consumption and
556 Production”, is the reduction of food losses along production and supply chains. Improving food
557 product quality is particularly important for fresh food products to avoid waste and losses. Big Data
558 and AI may bring new solutions to mitigate the perishability nature of fresh food products (Vernier
559 et al., 2021).

560 Constructing a traceable system for cold chain logistics would help brand image and increase
561 consumer trust by delivering safe and higher-quality food products (Wang et al., 2020;
562 Zhuangzhuang, 2020). Traditional systems may be slow to adjust the fresh food storage
563 temperature. Temperature control algorithms using AI and Big Data may be used to adjust the
564 temperature environment so that food is consistently at the optimal storage temperature (Guan et
565 al., 2021).

566 *3.3.7. Packaging*

567 Food quality depends on food packaging methods and materials. AI and Big Data can be used to
568 assess a range of environmental factors near food manufacturing sites and impacts within a variable
569 food packaging value chain for better decision-making on packaging materials aligned with the
570 Sustainable Development Goals (Sand, 2020). Furthermore, recent advances in nanotechnology
571 have enabled the development of small devices and nano-sized sensors that could be incorporated
572 in food packaging or even in smartphones giving consumers the ability to assess the quality and
573 investigate the properties of their own food easily (Saadat et al., 2022).

574

575 **4. Discussion and implications**

576 Our literature overview revealed that some of the recently developed technologies can be
577 considered promising options in food quality assessment. Specifically, the use of spectroscopic
578 techniques (NIR, MIR, fluorescence, and Raman spectroscopy) in addition to HSI has received
579 much attention in the determination of food quality. For example, the HSI technique generates both
580 spectral and spatial data, showing promising results for various classification purposes and
581 prediction of many traditional quality parameters (e.g., TVB-N, TBARS, TPA, and color). Imaging
582 and spectroscopic techniques have demonstrated considerable capacity to detect food fraud and
583 determine chemical composition, food quality and safety parameters, as well as monitor particular

584 quality parameters during production, processing, or storage of food. Most of these techniques are
585 non-destructive, relatively low-cost, and generate data that contains maximum information,
586 providing a “fingerprint” of the investigated food product. Other analytical methods, such as mass
587 spectrometry and chromatographic methods are powerful tools to determine freshness parameters,
588 safety, authenticity, traceability, and overall quality of foods, but they often require large
589 equipment and experienced laboratory personnel.

590 Recently, “omics” has emerged as a sub-domain of “foodomics” that refers to the study of
591 proteomics (proteins), metabolomics (metabolites), among others, through the application of
592 advanced platforms of electrophoresis, molecular approaches, nuclear magnetic resonance
593 spectroscopy, and others (Creydt & Fischer, 2018; Singh et al., 2021). More recently, food quality
594 monitoring through bioinformatics, Big Data, machine learning, AI, IoT, and smart sensors has
595 received huge considerations (Bouzembrak et al., 2019; Goyal et al., 2022; Jagatheesaperumal et
596 al., 2021; Jeevanandam et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2021; Marvin et al., 2022; Mavani et al., 2021).
597 These Industry 4.0 elements have revolutionary features (e.g., allowing obtaining robust data,
598 appropriate for real-time measurements, and saving time and costs), making them most suitable for
599 the future Food Quality 4.0 era.

600 Our findings highlight the importance of AI and Big Data as a crucial pillar of Food Quality 4.0
601 era. The use of these digital quality enablers in agriculture, traceability, food processing quality,
602 packaging, and other stages along the supply and cold chains has been demonstrated through
603 concrete examples. However, the findings from our review shows that research studies dealing
604 with the application of Industry 4.0 technologies in the food industry are limited. This is likely due
605 to the silo mentality and the conservative nature of the food industry compared to other industrial
606 sectors (Chapman et al., 2022; Hassoun et al., 2020), in addition to other limitations that will be
607 discussed in the next section.

608 The introduction of Quality 4.0 concept into the food industry could have several theoretical and
609 practical implications. Theoretically, the incorporation of Food Quality 4.0 will address the gap
610 highlighted in the literature regarding the scarce of research investigating application of Industry
611 4.0 technologies in the food industry. Food Quality 4.0 opens up promising avenues for future
612 research in several digitalization and automation technologies. Although, most of the topics
613 discussed in this work were previously reviewed in more detail in other publications, to the best of
614 our knowledge, this manuscript is the first to raise awareness of the importance of multidisciplinary
615 approaches and simultaneously considering a wide range of emerging technologies that address the
616 key principle of Industry 4.0, namely the convergence between various areas of science, especially
617 physical, biological, and digital disciplines.

618 In practice, this research can be used as a basis for understanding the different challenges and
619 opportunities offered by adopting Quality 4.0 in the food industry. More adoption of Quality 4.0
620 enablers will ensure best quality management practices of raw materials and final food products
621 during production, processing and commercialization. Close collaboration and cooperation
622 between different actors is needed to optimally implement and fully exploit and harness the
623 potential of Industry 4.0 in food quality.

624

625 **5. Conclusions, limitations, and future research perspectives**

626 The main objective of this work is to discuss the concept of Food Quality 4.0, highlighting the
627 potential of emerging analytical methods and smart technologies, in the context of the Fourth
628 Industrial Revolution (Industry 4.0), for enhancing food quality. Industry 4.0 technologies have a
629 significant role to play in sustainable social, environmental, and economic development. Although
630 the Quality 4.0 concept has been used in many other disciplines, such as manufacturing
631 development, management, and related fields (Antony et al., 2021; Javaid et al., 2021; Sader et al.,

632 2021), up to date, an obvious gap in literature can be noticed since no application has been reported
633 in the food industry. This review paper provides an up-to-date source of information about the
634 latest developments and advances in food quality assessment methods by introducing, for the first
635 time, the concept of “Food Quality 4.0” in food-related applications.

636 The results of this review may help policy makers to move toward fostering and supporting
637 transdisciplinary collaboration to embrace more technological innovations. Long-term policy-
638 making strategies are needed to facilitate the adoption of the Industry 4.0 paradigm, and
639 consequently accelerate the implementation of Food Quality 4.0. The results of our literature
640 review show that, despite the increased research attention directed to the importance of Industry
641 4.0 technologies, there are a lot of uncertainties regarding the wider adoption of these technologies
642 in the food industry. There is still a lack of serious awareness related to Industry 4.0 features within
643 the food quality context. However, the interest for Industry 4.0 among managers and policy-makers
644 has increased significantly in recent years. Managers and policy-makers should set out on a journey
645 towards Food Quality 4.0 by identifying the measures (such as incentives, roadmaps, and
646 consultancy services) that could facilitate the implementation of Industry 4.0 technologies in small
647 and medium-sized enterprises (Matt et al., 2020). The role of new generation (young managers and
648 leaders) having an open-mindset should be strengthen and prioritized in decision-making process
649 to overcome the limitation of silo mentality, which is a well-known character of food industry.

650 The efficiency of food quality and safety assessment methods, as well as food processing
651 technologies come into question with every food crisis and pandemic outbreak, seriously
652 undermining consumer confidence. The role policy makers is particularly important during crises,
653 such as the coronavirus pandemic. For this reason, it is ever more important, during and in the wake
654 of the COVID-19 pandemic, to develop rapid and non-destructive techniques to measure food
655 quality efficiently and objectively.

656 Food quality is traditionally determined using intrinsic attributes, such as physical, chemical,
657 microbial, and technical (processing) parameters, through the application of numerous methods
658 that are time-consuming, laborious, and destructive. In contrast, Industry 4.0 technologies have
659 strong prospects for overcoming these limitations. By combining the physical, digital, and
660 biological worlds, Industry 4.0 has recently begun to automate and digitalize many food production
661 and consumption sectors thanks to the implementation of AI, Big Data analytics, IoT, smart
662 sensors, robotics, and other digital and innovative technologies along the whole food value chain.
663 Industry 4.0 innovations and technologies can be employed to enable Food Quality 4.0, improving
664 efficiency, rapidity, and reliability of food assessment techniques.

665
666 A successful transition from the traditional to Food Quality 4.0 system implies some prerequisites
667 and challenges that need to be addressed. While Food Quality 4.0 offers various advantages
668 concerning automation and digitalization in food quality analysis, it faces various obstacles. The
669 techniques need to be more affordable, adequate in size, and efficient in industrial environments.
670 High cost, lack of adaptability to the existing industrial environment, and lack of technical skills
671 are among the most challenging bottlenecks hindering the wider application of these technologies.
672 Inadequate infrastructure facilities, especially in developing countries are also a critical limitation
673 that needs to be addressed.

674 Besides the challenges related to implementation of Quality 4.0 concept and obstacles facing the
675 application of emerging technologies, some limitations linked to the approach used in this review
676 paper can be highlighted. Although most relevant studies (mainly extracted from Scopus) have
677 been reported, more systematic reviews that consider bibliometric approaches to visualize results
678 should be conducted in the future. A larger source of data, including, in addition to Scopus, Web

679 of Science, Google Scholar, and other online databases (e.g., IEEE Explore, SAGE Publications,
680 and MDPI, among others) should be considered.

681 However, in line with the ongoing efforts put into the development of technical innovations and
682 digital solutions, it is expected that the limitations of these emerging techniques will be overcome.

683 More research is needed to better understand the contribution of Industry 4.0 technologies to Food
684 Quality 4.0. Optimal quality monitoring (once achieved by implementing Food Quality 4.0
685 principles) means smart quality controls and high-quality assurance of food products, reduced food
686 waste and loss, and decreased use of resources and energy, thus enhancing the transition towards
687 more sustainable food systems.

688

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702 **Author Contributions**

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706 writing—original draft preparation, revision. José S. Câmara: writing—original draft preparation,
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709

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1344 **Figure Captions**

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1346 **Fig. 1.** Number of publications and citations per year (until June 06, 2022) related to the application
1347 of digitalization and automation in the food quality.

1348 **Fig. 2.** Building blocks of Industry 4.0.

1349 **Fig. 3.** Some factors to assess Industry 4.0 readiness for businesses.

1350 **Fig. 4.** Traditional methods *vs.* emerging techniques used in the food quality determination.

1351 **Legend:** IRMS: Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry; MALDI-TOF-MS: Matrix-Assisted
1352 Laser Desorption Ionization coupled to Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometry; NMR: Nuclear
1353 Magnetic Resonance spectroscopy; PTR: Proton Transfer Reaction; REIMS: Rapid
1354 Evaporative Ionization Mass Spectrometry.

1355 **Fig. 5.** Common high-throughput analytical techniques taken as gold standards for food quality
1356 assessment and safety monitoring.

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1358 **Table 1.** Use of hyperspectral imaging in various foods quality-related applications

Food	Objective	Spectral Range	Main results	Reference
American bison (<i>Bison bison</i>)	Classification of muscles according to ageing period and retail display period, and prediction of color parameters	400-1000 nm	Satisfactory classification results were obtained using PLS-DA model. Redness value (a^* value) was successfully predicted using PLSR model.	(Chaudhry et al., 2021)
Pacific white shrimp (<i>Litopenaeusvannamei</i>)	Prediction of TVB-N	900-1700 nm	After extracting spectral features by deep learning algorithms, LS-SVM model predicted TVB-N with satisfactory accuracy.	(Yu et al., 2019)
	Prediction of TVB-N	860-1700 nm	After building PLSR models with six various pretreatments algorithms, the one built with multiple scattering correction gave the best results. A graphical user interface system was developed to predict the freshness.	(Guo et al., 2021)
Grass carp (<i>Ctenopharyngodonidella</i>)	Prediction of TVB-N	308-1105 nm	The best TVB-N prediction result was obtained using PLSR model applied to six optimal wavelengths, selected by a novel algorithm called <i>Physarum</i> network combined with genetic algorithm.	(Cheng et al., 2017)
	Detection of fish bones in natural fish fillets	Raman: Excitation; 785 nm line laser (covering a Raman shift range from 820 cm^{-1} - 2847 cm^{-1})	Support vector data description classification model was built on optimal band information, selected using a fuzzy-rough set model, yielding a detection performance of 90.5% with a depth of up to 2.5 mm.	(Song et al., 2020)
Pork	Prediction of TVB-N	842–2532 nm	The PLSR model optimized using random frog (wavelength selection method) and maximum normalization (preprocessing method) showed the best prediction results.	(Baek et al., 2021)
	Prediction of several freshness parameters in frozen pork	Fluorescence: Excitation at 365 nm and emission at 400-1000 nm Vis/NIR: 400–1000 nm	The PLSR model established on the fluorescence data showed good performances in predicting freshness attributes (TVB-N, pH, and color parameters) in frozen samples without thawing.	(Zhuang et al., 2022)

	Prediction of microbial growth	400–1000 nm	A high correlation coefficient between the growth models of <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> established using HSI and the plate count method.	(Zhou et al., 2022)
	Detection of offal adulteration in ground pork	400–1000 nm	Good prediction performances were achieved using PLSR models established on eleven featured wavelengths. Limit of detection less than 10 % was obtained.	(Jiang et al., 2021)
Cured pork	Prediction of chemical composition	400-1000 nm	The PLSR model based on nine wavelengths enabled good prediction performances of moisture, protein, and fat contents with R ² values of respectively 0.8294, 0.8909, and 8241.	(Ma, Sun, Nicolai, et al., 2019)
Atlantic salmon (<i>Salmo salar</i>)	Prediction of TBARS and pH	900-1700 nm	Feature wavelengths were selected for developing multispectral imaging system. A satisfactory performance of TBARS prediction model was obtained, enabling a rapid assessment of oxidative degradation.	(Xu et al., 2016)
	Prediction of tenderness	400-1720 nm	Warner–Bratzler shear was predicted with good accuracy by LS-SVM models established on four wavelengths, selected using successful projections algorithm.	(He et al., 2014)
Traditional dry-cured pork belly	Prediction of TBARS as a lipid oxidation indicator	400-1000 nm	Acceptable prediction results of TBARS were obtained using PLSR models established following first and second derivatives pretreatments.	(Ahetto et al., 2020)
Crucian carp	Prediction of TVB-N and TPA	900-1700 nm	The PLSR models built on spectral data and textural features, extracted from fish eyes and gills to predict TVB-N and TPA, respectively, show high accuracy.	(Wang et al., 2019)
	Detection of micro plastics in the intestinal tracts	900-1700 nm	SVM classification model was developed, showing promising efficiency and satisfying detection accuracy on three marine fish species.	(Zhang et al., 2019)
Beef, lamb and venison samples including different muscle type	Prediction of intramuscular fat and pH	548 - 1701 nm	PLSR and deep convolutional neural networks models showed good prediction performances.	(Dixit et al., 2021)
Tilapia	Prediction of 4 freshness parameters;	325-1098 nm	A new neural network algorithm (called radial basis function neural networks) was developed	(Shi et al., 2019)

	TVB-N, total aerobic count, <i>K value</i> , and sensory evaluation		using nine wavelengths selected by the successive projection algorithm, and the optimized model provided accurate prediction of the 4 freshness indicators.	
Fish cakes	Prediction of core temperature	760-1040 nm	A good prediction model was established giving a root mean square error of prediction of 2.3 °C, even down to 11–13 mm depth.	(Wold, 2016)
Japanese Big Sausages	Determination of pH of cooked sausages after different storage conditions	380 -1000 nm	The PLSR model built on the optimal wavelengths showed good prediction precision (R^2 0.909 and the root mean square error of prediction 0.035).	(Feng et al., 2018)
Potato slices	Prediction of foodborne pathogens (<i>Escherichia coli</i>) on the surface of fresh-cut products	400-1000 nm	<i>E. coli</i> was predicted with back-propagation neural network model giving a good accuracy ($R^2 = 0.976$).	(Li et al., 2021)
Plant-based meat analogues	Prediction of proximate composition and alpha-galactosides content	950–1654 nm	A robust prediction of the chemical composition was achieved using PLSR models, and pixel-by-pixel prediction allowed the tracking of components distribution.	(Squeo et al., 2022)
Kyoho grape (<i>Vitis labruscana</i> cv. <i>Kyoho</i>)	Prediction of firmness and pH	400-1000 nm	Deep features, extracted via a deep learning approach (called Stacked auto-encoders), were used to build a LS-SVM, achieving an optimal prediction performance for firmness and satisfactory accuracy for pH.	(Xu et al., 2022)
Banana (<i>Musa spp.</i> , AAA group cv. 'Brazil')	Prediction of color parameters and firmness	380-1023 nm	Color parameters (L^* , a^* and b^*) and firmness were predicted with acceptable accuracy using PLSR models. Excellent classification results of ripe and unripe banana were achieved.	(Xie et al., 2018)
Beef	Detection of adulteration of beef with duck meat	380-1012 nm	Good performance of predicted values of adulteration levels using PLRS models was achieved. Adulteration maps in the samples with different adulteration levels were generated, enhancing the visual appearance of adulteration.	(Jiang et al., 2019)
Cod	Characterization of lutefisk and classification of four brands	Fluorescence: Excitation at 365 nm and emission at 430-1000 nm	High performance for the discrimination between samples of four different brands of lutefisk using PLR-DA applied on fluorescence data.	(Hassoun, Heia, et al., 2020a)

Lamb, beef, and pork	Authentication and classification of meat species	548-1701 nm	Spectral and spatial information, integrated into deep convolutional neural network models, provided a stable accuracy on line-scanning and snapshot HSI images.	(Al-Sarayreh et al., 2020)
Pearl Gentian Grouper	Detection of freshness of fish stored under different conditions	900-1700 nm	Classification accuracies of 100%, 96.43%, and 96.43% were obtained for respectively fresh, refrigerated, and frozen thawed fish. PLSR models used to predict storage time achieved high modeling and prediction accuracy.	(Chen et al., 2021)
Lettuce	Detection of foreign substances	Fluorescence: Excitation at 365 nm and emission at 430-700 nm	Prediction accuracy of 95.87% for worm detection was obtained, with best classification accuracy being achieved using spectral images with a pixel size of 1×1mm.	(Mo et al., 2017)
Cod (<i>Gadus morhua</i> L.)	Monitoring thermal treatments and storage time	Fluorescence: Excitation at 365 nm and emission at 430-1000 nm	Fluorescence intensity was decreased with increasing cooking temperature and storage time. Classification accuracy of 92.5% was obtained.	(Hassoun et al., 2020)

1359 TVB-N: Total volatile basic nitrogen; HSI: Hyperspectral imaging; PLS-DA: Partial least square discrimination analysis; PLSR: Partial least squares regression;
 1360 LS-SVM: Least-squares support vector machine; TPA: Texture profile analysis; TBARS: Thiobarbituric acid reactive substance; Vis/NIR: Visible/Near infrared
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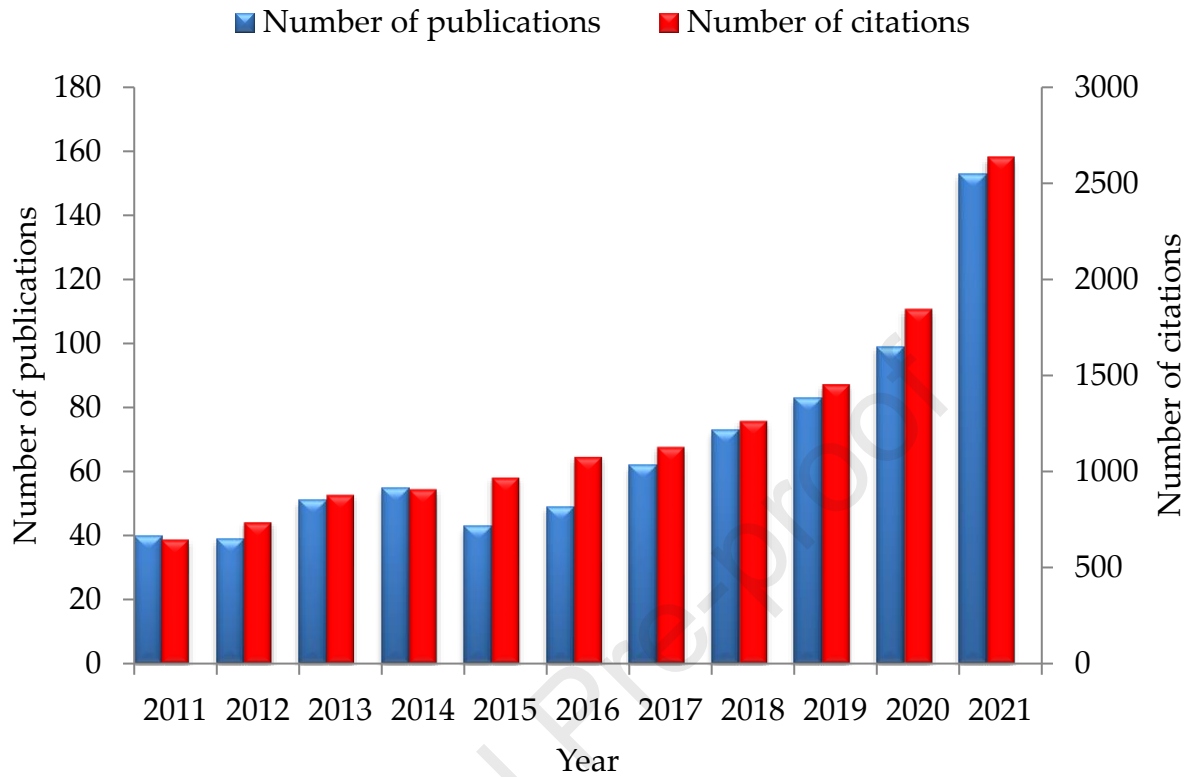
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1372 **Fig. 1**

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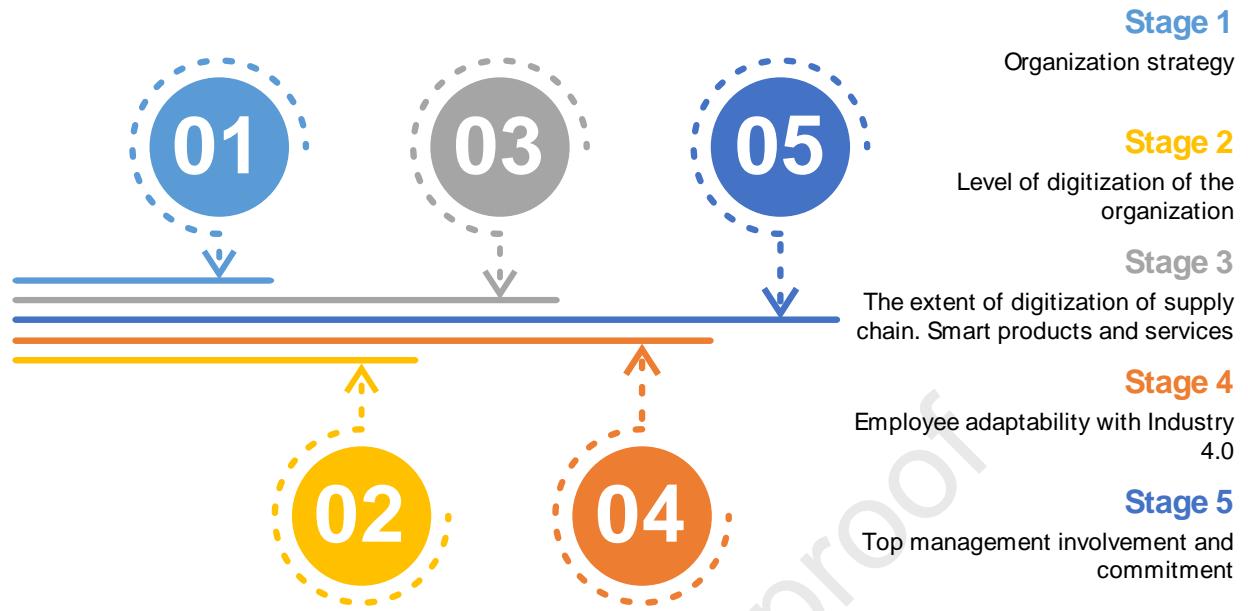
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1380 **Fig. 2**

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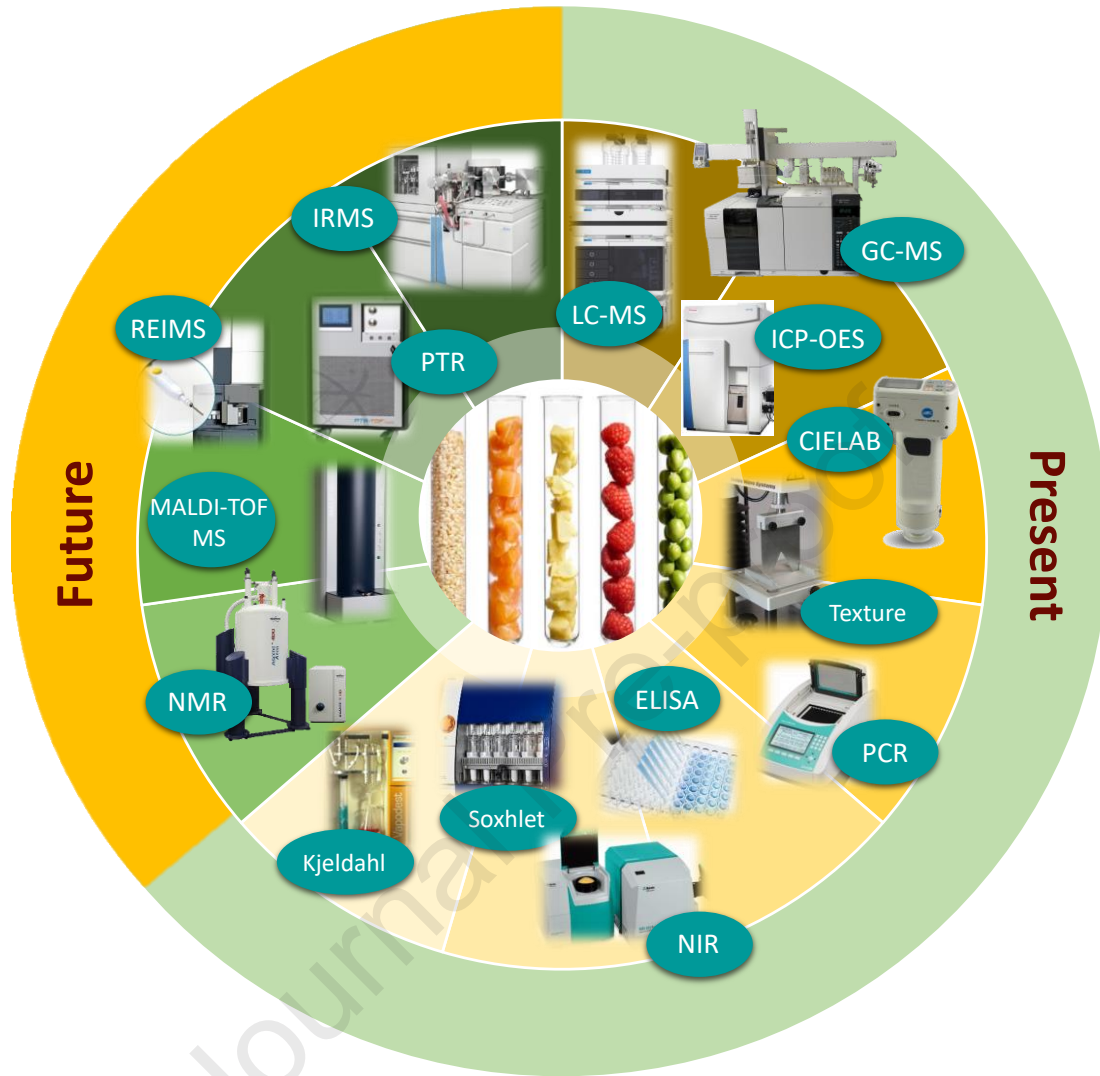


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1383 **Fig. 3**

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1387 **Fig. 4**

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Fig. 5

HIGHLIGHTS

- Consumer interest in food quality call for advanced and reliable analytical methods
- Industry 4.0 has offered numerous opportunities in many fields, including food analysis.
- Food Quality 4.0 concept - determination of food quality using Industry 4.0 technologies
- AI, Big Data, and smart sensors are important enablers of Food Quality 4.0
- Innovations, digitalization, and automation experienced a massive boost

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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