

1 **The fourth industrial revolution in the food industry — Part I:**

2 **Industry 4.0 technologies**

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38 **ABSTRACT**

39 Climate change, the growth in world population, high levels of food waste and food loss, and
40 the risk of new disease or pandemic outbreaks are examples of the many challenges that
41 threaten future food sustainability and the security of the planet and urgently need to be
42 addressed. The fourth industrial revolution, or Industry 4.0, has been gaining momentum
43 since 2015, being a significant driver for sustainable development and a successful catalyst to
44 tackle critical global challenges. This review paper summarizes the most relevant food
45 Industry 4.0 technologies including, among others, digital technologies (e.g., artificial
46 intelligence, big data analytics, Internet of Things, and blockchain) and **other technological**
47 **advances** (e.g., smart sensors, robotics, digital twins, and cyber-physical systems). Moreover,
48 insights into the new food trends (such as 3D printed foods) that have emerged as a result of
49 the Industry 4.0 technological revolution will also be discussed in Part II of this work.

50 The Industry 4.0 technologies have significantly modified the food industry and led to
51 substantial consequences for the environment, economics, and human health. Despite the
52 importance of each of the technologies mentioned above, ground-breaking sustainable
53 solutions could only emerge by combining many technologies simultaneously. The Food
54 Industry 4.0 era has been characterized by new challenges, opportunities, and trends that have
55 reshaped current strategies and prospects for food production and consumption patterns,
56 paving the way for the move towards Industry 5.0.

57 **KEYWORDS:** Autonomous robots; artificial intelligence; big data; blockchain, digital
58 transformation; smart sensors; Internet of Things

59

60 1. Introduction

61 The world faces challenging health, demography, and nutrition crises, which need innovative
62 solutions and sustainable food systems (Galanakis 2020). Indeed, tackling current significant
63 challenges, such as climate change induced by global warming, pollution, biodiversity loss,
64 deforestation for food production, overfishing, **substantial amount of food waste and loss**, the
65 rapid increase in the world population, and the risk of new disease or pandemic outbreaks
66 **(such as COVID-19)** requires innovative, sustainable, and practical solutions to secure
67 sufficient food for all (Boyacı-Gündüz et al. 2021; Mondejar et al. 2021). One dilemma is
68 that while the food industry is already one of the most significant contributors to climate
69 change, food production needs to be increased to meet the growing food demand of the
70 increasing population. Therefore, many food manufacturing industries have recently been
71 under unprecedented pressure to adopt various sustainable technologies, and innovate and
72 meet high efficiency and performance standards (Chapman et al. 2021; Chakka et al. 2021).

73 The fourth industrial revolution or Industry 4.0 (or even 4IR as it is abbreviated) has been
74 gaining momentum in **many** sectors, including the food industry. Considering the Scopus
75 database, the number of published papers dealing with the Food Industry 4.0 enabling
76 technologies has increased from only 2 publications in 2015 to more than 50 in 2021 (**Figure**
77 **1**). A sharp increase in the number of citations has also been observed for the same time
78 period. This may be explained by the increased awareness of the potential of Industry 4.0
79 technologies and digital solutions to contribute to food systems' environmental sustainability.
80 Additionally, the ongoing COVID-19 crisis has significantly accelerated the adoption of
81 digital technologies throughout the entire food supply chain (Bakalis et al. 2020; Amentae &
82 Gebresenbet 2021).

83 Industry 4.0 embraces advanced physical, digital, and biological technologies (Maynard
84 2015; Massabni & Da Silva 2019; Chapman et al. 2021). It includes, but is not limited to,
85 artificial intelligence, machine learning, big data, the Cloud, the Internet of Thing (IoT),
86 blockchain, smart sensors, robotics, cybersecurity, **as well as** digital twins and cyber-physical
87 **systems** (Bai et al., 2020; Galanakis et al., 2021; Jagtap et al., 2021; Jambrak et al., 2021;
88 Konur et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021).

89 Artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning (ML), and big data are essential components of
90 Industry 4.0 for the food industry and many other production domains. ML is a subset of AI,
91 and it includes algorithms used to find patterns in data to make classifications and predictions
92 (Khalil et al. 2021; Saha & Manickavasagan 2021). The AI revolution has become one of the
93 main drivers of Industry 4.0. This is mainly due to the digitalization of almost everything,
94 giving a massive amount of data, which is characterized by its Variety, Velocity, and Volume
95 (the 3 Vs of big data). Big data has thus become the new norm, allowing AI and ML to
96 advance at an exponential pace. Big data analytics are also closely related to **other** emerging
97 Industry 4.0 components such as blockchain and IoT (Jin et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021). The
98 interest in IoT has grown to include a network of devices and other physical objects
99 connected to the Internet through different technologies (e.g., sensors and software) enabling
100 **collection and interchange of data**. The collected data makes it possible to evaluate the status
101 of a given system and can then be used to optimize the performance of that system (Chapman
102 et al. 2021; Mondejar et al. 2021). Blockchain is another digital technology approach that has
103 emerged under the umbrella of Industry 4.0 and has many applications in various sectors. In
104 the food industry sector, blockchain technology can be used to improve and ensure higher
105 performance of different aspects of food value chain systems, such as those for food safety,
106 food quality, and food traceability (Zhao et al. 2019; Khan, Byun, and Park 2020).

107 The 4IR era has been characterized by highly autonomous intelligent systems in industrial
108 production processes due to the implantation of cutting-edge technologies, such as robotics
109 and smart sensors at all stages of the supply chain. Robotics and autonomous systems have
110 been developing as promising technologies to improve sustainable development and increase
111 the quality, productivity, and efficiency of the food supply chain (Khan et al. 2018; Bader &
112 Rahimifard 2020; Duong et al. 2020; Ren et al. 2022). Smart sensors are increasingly used in
113 the food industry in various production equipment to smartly control, monitor, and optimize
114 multiple manufacturing tasks in real-time, along with improving traceability and food quality
115 (McVey et al. 2021; Ren et al. 2022). For example, optical sensors based on spectroscopy
116 have been increasingly applied to detect changes in the frequency of electromagnetic
117 radiation to monitor food quality, authenticity, or food processing (Hassoun, Måge, et al.
118 2020; Hassoun, Gudjónsdóttir, et al. 2020; Hassoun et al. 2020; Krause et al. 2021).

119 Digital twins and cyber-physical systems (CPS) have increased in popularity in recent years
120 as important digital elements of Industry 4.0. Digital twin is an innovative simulation
121 technology that incorporates the computer simulation into actual operations. This emerging
122 technology can be used, for example, to extend shelf life and reduce food losses, predict the
123 quality and safety of future food product, and improve the design and control of products and
124 processes (Defraeye et al. 2019; Onwude et al. 2020; Verboven et al. 2020; Defraeye et al.
125 2021). CPS refers to the integration of computational and physical processes, although many
126 other definitions can be found in the literature depending on the field of application (Lee et
127 al. 2015; Smetana et al. 2021; Dafflon et al. 2021). CPS is considered to be a part of the
128 foundation of Industry 4.0 and it is even considered in some publications as a synonym for
129 Industry 4.0 (Tao et al. 2019; Esmaeilian et al. 2020).

130 Current review papers about Industry 4.0 in the food industry are limited, although some
131 recent publications have tackled this broad subject at different points in the food system. For

132 example, Jambrak et al. (2021) reviewed some of the Industry 4.0 platforms (such as AI, big
133 data, and smart sensors), with the main focus being placed on non-thermal food processing
134 technologies. A short overview of particular Industry 4.0 technologies in the food industry
135 has also been done by Chapman et al. (2021). Smart digital technologies and IoT were
136 suggested as tools to minimize food losses in the postharvest supply chain for fruits and
137 vegetables (Onwude et al. 2020). In another review paper, blockchain was recently suggested
138 as a promising solution to improve traceability and consumer trust, and to reduce **food waste**
139 **and loss** along the whole food supply chain (Kayikci et al. 2020).

140 This paper will be focused on reviewing the most relevant Food Industry 4.0 technologies
141 and associated digital transformations. These include AI, ML, and big data analytics, the
142 Cloud, IoT, blockchain, smart sensors and robotics, digital twins and CPS, among others.
143 Although most of the topics discussed in this paper were previously reviewed in more detail,
144 this review is meant to raise awareness of the importance of simultaneously considering a
145 wide range of emerging technologies, which address an important principle of Industry 4.0,
146 namely the convergence between various areas of advanced science, especially physical,
147 biological, and digital disciplines.

148 **2. Historical overview of industrial revolutions**

149 The industrial revolutions are historical periods (**Figure 2**) that have been characterized by
150 the emergence of ground-breaking advances in industrial production, which are mainly
151 related to technological advances. Consequently, lifestyles and daily activities **have been**
152 **impacted** (Agarwal & Agarwal 2017). The dates for the beginning and the end of each
153 industrial revolution are in debate because of the variety of activities they encompassed and
154 the uneven industrial development in different countries.

155 The first industrial revolution (18th – early 19th century) was characterized by the first
156 changes towards the intensification of working activities using the invention and upgrade in
157 machinery powered by steam engines. The factories were organized to accommodate more
158 workers and machines, and produce more in a shorter period. During this period, the textile,
159 coal, iron, as well as the chemical sectors intensified along with the transformation of some
160 food products from household to factory-based manufacturing (Koetsier 2019).

161 The progression of mechanization, and the intensification and expansion of working activities
162 derived from the first industrial revolution led to the second industrial revolution (19th – early
163 20th century). During this period, the machine tool industry was consolidated, and the internal
164 combustion engine was developed, which led to fundamental advances in transportation and
165 the birth of the automobile industry (Zhang & Yang, 2020). At the industrial level, the use of
166 conveyors accelerated processes, which increased efficiency and industrial capacity.
167 Innovations and development of new materials (such as alloys, lighter metals, and synthetic
168 plastics) also occurred with those technological advances. In addition, electricity received
169 more attention and replaced steam-powered machines for industrial activities, enabling mass
170 production (Silva et al. 2018; Zhang & Yang 2020). The third industrial revolution (also
171 known as the digital revolution, from the second half of the 20th century – early 21st century)
172 consisted in a transition from analogue to digital electronic systems. Computers and the
173 Internet were significant technological advances, which accelerated communications and
174 facilitated connections around the world. In addition, production became automated using
175 electronic systems. During this period, the development and use of nuclear energy became
176 more important to meet the increasing demand from industrial, public, and household
177 consumers (Xu et al., 2018).

178 The current 4IR or Industry 4.0 (early 21st century) is marked by high technological
179 developments, primarily centered on the Internet, full automation, and the integration with

180 digital technologies. This ongoing revolution combines physical, digital, and biological
181 components and allows for the creation of communication and connectivity between all
182 industry stakeholders in real-time (Maynard 2015; Lee et al. 2015; Lu 2017a; Sukhodolov
183 2019). The automation of mass production is being optimized to include customization and
184 individual customer requests. The main aspects attributed to the development of Industry 4.0
185 are big data, ML, AI, smart sensors, blockchain, cybersecurity, IoT, robotics, digital twins
186 and CPS, among others (Vaidya et al. 2018; Lennon Olsen & Tomlin 2019; Oláh et al. 2020;
187 Misra et al. 2020; Liu et al. 2021). These advanced digital and other emerging technologies
188 have, on the one hand, allowed increased productivity and operational efficiency in the food
189 industry, but on the other hand, they have led to some disruptions in the food supply chain
190 and negative impacts on environmental sustainability (Oláh et al. 2020; Bai et al. 2020;
191 Galanakis 2021; Galanakis et al. 2021).

192 The most relevant Industry 4.0 technologies from the food industry perspective will be
193 discussed in more detail in the following sections. However, it should be stressed that these
194 Industry 4.0 elements could be referred to differently in the literature, mainly due to their
195 application in various fields. For example, some authors claim that IoT, and information and
196 communication technologies (ICT) are the backbone of the Industry 4.0 in the agricultural
197 fields (Demestichas et al. 2020). Others referred to digitalization including blockchain, IoT,
198 big data, and AI as the main Industry 4.0 enablers in the management of the agro-food supply
199 chain (Amentae & Gebresenbet 2021). Robotics and automation, cybersecurity, the Cloud,
200 3D printing, simulation, and augmented reality, have been added to the list of the
201 aforementioned digital technologies as being important for the sustainable development of
202 food logistics (Jagtap et al. 2021), while the connectivity, associated with digitalization,
203 robotics, IoT, and cloud computing, have been viewed as the core of Industry 4.0 in
204 intelligent food processing (Khan, Khalid, & Iqbal 2018). Another confusing issue is the

205 diverse definitions, notations, and terminologies in the literature of these emerging
206 technologies; e.g., they may be termed as disruptive technologies **in some references**
207 (Cozzolino 2019; Galanakis et al. 2021; Galanakis 2021). Thus, no unanimous definition of
208 Industry 4.0 and its enabling technologies has emerged.

209 **3. Fourth industrial revolution technologies**

210 **The main Industry 4.0 technologies, from a food perspective, will be discussed in more**
211 **details in the following sections.**

212 ***3.1. Big data, ML, AI, and the Cloud***

213 Big data was initially associated with the three V's: Volume, Velocity, and Variety, i.e.,
214 unstructured data of different types, generated continuously at high speed, creating volumes
215 that traditional software cannot handle. Later, more V's were added to the definition:
216 Veracity and Value, **referring to truthfulness and usability have become** even more necessary
217 than size and speed. As a result, big data can address business and societal problems in new
218 and efficient ways, and has already revolutionized many areas such as telecom,
219 transportation, and finance (Bughin et al. 2017). Even so, in many domains, the hype of big
220 data has shifted towards a focus on data quality, with the realization that the value of data lies
221 in its insights and not in its size (Baldassarre et al. 2018; Reda et al. 2020).

222 ML is a group of methods and algorithms used to find patterns in data, and make predictions
223 or classifications. In principle, ML covers all processes that use data to fit a model, and
224 therefore range from classical statistical methods such as ordinary least squares regression,
225 through chemometric methods such as partial least squares, to more modern and data-
226 intensive methods such as support vector machines, random forests, K-nearest neighbours,
227 and artificial neural networks (ANN). Deep learning has been important in the ML field.

228 Deep learning consists of multi-layered ANN with strong feature-learning capabilities,
229 making it possible to predict traits from complex data without the need to extract manually
230 features of the data. Most of the successful deep learning applications in the food industry
231 involve image analysis, but recent work also shows that deep learning can eliminate the need
232 for pre-processing spectroscopic data (Zhou et al. 2019; Helin et al. 2021).

233 AI systems can mimic human intelligence by sensing, comprehending, acting, learning, and
234 explaining (Andersen et al. 2018). Industrial AI is a weak or narrow application AI, which
235 can **perform** clearly defined and specialized tasks. Strong AI, on the other hand, is where the
236 machine more closely resembles human intelligence. The latter is still just a goal for AI
237 development and does not yet exist. Industrial AI is usually based on one or more sensors and
238 external data streams, combined with ML algorithms, and logical or causal constraints. AI
239 converts data and predictions into actions and explanations, yielding solutions such as
240 decision support, abnormality detection, automatic process adjustments, and root cause
241 analysis.

242 The cloud computing (or the Cloud) and its extensions (e.g., fog and edge computing) are
243 new digital infrastructure systems used to store data on multiple servers. Cloud computing
244 has become an important element of Industry 4.0 due to the increased need for managing the
245 massive amounts of data obtained from the various network platforms (Jagatheesaperumal et
246 al. 2021; Jagtap et al. 2021). **These systems have numerous advantages including easy
247 sharing, access to information in real-time, and low cost as only one hosting company is
248 responsible for storing and managing the data.** The host company may also provide other
249 services such as cloud-based applications that are becoming popular in many fields (Friha et
250 al. 2021; Jagtap et al. 2021). For instance, cloud computing was used to minimize the carbon
251 footprint of the entire beef supply chain (Singh et al. 2015). However, cloud computing is
252 characterized by its centralized computations and data storage, leading to some challenges

253 such as high latency and inconsistency with various types of new network technologies.
254 Recently, other network computing paradigms, such as fog and edge computing, have
255 emerged to overcome the limitations experienced using cloud computing. Fog computing is
256 based on using local networks (rather than core networks with cloud computing) and enables
257 the computations, communication, and storage to be closer to end users. Edge computing is
258 similar to fog computing and allows data generated by smart devices or sensors to be
259 processed using the device itself or a computer near the device (Zhou et al. 2017; Parikh et al.
260 2019; Kalyani & Collier 2021). **However**, with the rapid development and application of
261 cloud/fog-edge platforms, concerns are increasing with respect to security and privacy issues.

262 *Data types in the food value chain*

263 The majority of data-driven applications in the food chain are focused on instrument-
264 generated data, but solutions that utilize new data streams such as text and transactional data
265 are also being developed (Tao et al. 2020; Sharma et al. 2021). **Figure 3** shows a broad
266 overview of data sources and data-driven solutions along the food value chain. Most of the
267 solutions already implemented utilize local or internal data, i.e., data generated close to the
268 application. Other solutions rely on a combination of data sources of different types across
269 the value chain. Such solutions are still in their infancy **due to various issues related** to digital
270 infrastructure, data security, and **data** ownership.

271 *Food domain challenges solved using data and AI*

272 *Precision Farming*: Huge data sets combined with ML have already been used for decades in
273 breeding and genetics. Even so, modern biotechnologies (such as genomics, transcriptomics,
274 metabolomics, and proteomics) combined with smart sensors for extensive phenotyping of
275 many members of the selected organism enable more efficient and targeted breeding of plants
276 and animals (Nayeri et al. 2019; Niazian & Niedbała 2020). Data-driven solutions can also

277 solve many operational challenges with farming. Examples are yield improvement, deciding
278 optimal harvesting time, efficient feeding/fertilizing, improved health and welfare, and
279 enhanced environmental stewardship (Wolfert et al. 2017; Jinbo et al. 2018; Morota et al.
280 2018; Finger et al. 2019; Sharma et al. 2020).

281 *Food processing:* Food processing resembles chemical and pharmaceutical processing in
282 many ways, and the same technologies are often used across these sectors. Process analytical
283 technology (PAT), advanced process control (APC), model-predictive control (MPC), and
284 statistical process control (SPC) are all concepts aiming at monitoring and controlling
285 important quality attributes to improve efficiency, reduce waste, and ensure product quality.
286 ML and AI have become integral parts of all these control concepts, and successful use-cases
287 have been reported by several branches of the food industry (Tajammal Munir et al. 2015;
288 Kondakci & Zhou 2017; Jerome & Singh 2019; Khadir 2021; Mavani et al. 2021; Macdonald
289 2021). Apart from optimizing the process and product, a similar methodology can monitor
290 the processing equipment, leading to concepts such as *predictive maintenance* (Dalzochio et
291 al. 2020). This is not a food-specific topic and will therefore not be pursued further here.

292 *Innovation and product development:* Continuous new product development is considered to
293 trigger competitiveness in the food industry. Recent studies have shown that AI can reduce
294 R&D costs and increase the success rate for new products. In addition, several studies report
295 that text mining of social media and online communities can be used to automatically identify
296 consumer needs and new product ideas (Kakatkar et al., 2020; Patroni et al., 2020; Zhang et
297 al., 2021). Also, some research has been done on the automatic generation of formulations
298 and process conditions by optimizing predictable quality attributes such as sensory properties,
299 nutrition, and shelf life (Zhang et al. 2019; Trinh et al. 2021). The latter approach benefits
300 from using hybrid modeling, i.e., a combination of ML and mechanical models. The

301 optimization framework can, in principle, take multiple aspects such as sustainability, supply,
302 and government politics into account.

303 *Food safety:* Food fraud and authenticity is a challenge where data, ML, and AI can have an
304 important role, both by discovering fraud using analytical data (such as DNA and
305 spectroscopy) and developing early warning systems by monitoring trade flow data and
306 **analyzing** text from media reports (Hassoun et al., 2020; Ulberth, 2020). Likewise, source
307 tracking of foodborne illness outbreaks may be done by combining high-throughput genomic
308 data with text from the **Internet**, such as news articles, social media or review sites, along
309 with geo-spatial and socio-environmental information (Marvin et al. 2017; Sadilek et al.
310 2018; Deng et al. 2021).

311 *Retail and marketing:* Consumers leave digital traces of their attitudes, habits, and
312 experiences at retailers and online, including location data captured by smartphones. Retailers
313 routinely collect and **analyze** information from, for example, loyalty cards and online grocery
314 data for individual customer profiling, which can predict buying behaviour and which can be
315 used to create personalized deals and offers (Hu 2018; Montgomery et al. 2019). Sales
316 forecasting can aid retailers in stock management (short-term predictions) and business
317 development (long-term predictions). Recent surveys show that ML techniques can improve
318 such predictions by combining company data with data from external sources (Tarallo et al.
319 2019; Tsoumakas 2019).

320 **3.2. Smart sensors and robotics**

321 **Realizing** the full promise of Industry 4.0 requires **making** real-time monitoring and
322 measurements all along the food supply chain. This **in turn** requires sensors that are able to
323 monitor the supply chain by measuring critical parameters during continuous production.
324 Sensors are everywhere, especially with recent advances with nanobiotechnology,

325 nanosensors, and biosensors. They have been used to develop a variety of applications in
326 many fields such as environment, medical, agricultural, and food industry sectors (Misra et
327 al. 2020; Javaid et al. 2021; Lugani et al. 2021). Innovations in other Industry 4.0
328 technologies (e.g., big data and digital twins) have enabled digital sensing technologies to
329 grow and flourish, deliver greater levels of intelligence and communication capabilities.
330 Smart sensors have become available along the entire food value chain, from farm to fork
331 (Mayer & Baeumner 2019; Verboven et al. 2020; Haleem et al. 2021). Various optical
332 spectroscopic and non-spectroscopic sensors can be used to monitor and collect multi-source
333 data along the food supply chain. The following section will discuss some relevant examples
334 of different types of sensors.

335 *Spectral fingerprint-based sensors*

336 Smart sensors, including optical sensors based on spectroscopy, could be considered as one
337 of the main features of Industry 4.0. Spectral fingerprinting technologies have evolved from
338 being traditional laboratory instruments to miniaturized and automated sensors used in smart
339 factories as parts of Food Industry 4.0 (Figure 4). Recent advances in Industry 4.0
340 technologies have resulted in miniaturized spectroscopy devices and sensor platforms that are
341 portable, affordable, and easy-to-use (Kalinowska et al. 2021; McVey et al. 2021).
342 Application of these sensors have increased to include, among others, control of food safety,
343 composition, nutritional quality, food traceability, monitoring processing, and process
344 sustainability (Figure 4).

345 One example of the promising application areas of spectroscopy-based sensors is controlling
346 and optimizing the various processing steps with enzymatic protein hydrolysis (Figure 5) to
347 obtain high-value products from multiple industrial by-products. High variability of these
348 materials and the characterization of the reaction in real-time remain the most challenging

349 tasks. Several studies have shown the possibility of using smart sensors based on infrared,
350 fluorescence or Raman spectroscopy, to determine the quality of raw materials (such as
351 protein, fat, and ash contents), to optimize processing parameters (including among others,
352 reaction rate, enzyme concentration, and time and temperature), and to characterize the final
353 products (e.g., amino acid composition and molecular weight distribution) (Wubshet et al.
354 2018; Wubshet et al. 2019; Måge et al. 2021). Thus, several quality parameters, such as
355 sensory properties of protein hydrolysates can be predicted based on **raw material properties**
356 (uncontrollable variables) and the applied processing parameters (controllable process
357 variables).

358 Food authenticity and food traceability are examples of the topics that can be addressed using
359 digitalization and smart sensors (Han et al. 2021; Amentae & Gebresenbet 2021; McVey et
360 al. 2021). Spectroscopic sensors can provide an actual fingerprint of food products that can be
361 used to authenticate food materials. Different spectroscopic sensors (e.g., fluorescence,
362 infrared, or Raman) in laboratory or miniaturized configuration, combined with chemometric
363 tools, have been used to authenticate food products (Hassoun et al., 2020; Valand et al.,
364 2020). **Recently**, Qin et al. (2020) used multimode hyperspectral imaging techniques to
365 authenticate fish fillets in terms of freshness (fresh versus frozen-thawed products) and
366 species (i.e., six different fish species including red snapper, vermilion snapper, Malabar
367 snapper, summer flounder, white bass, and tilapia that may be substituted for each other).
368 After testing 24 ML classifiers with different datasets, the authors showed that the reflectance
369 spectroscopy technique in the visible and near-infrared regions has the best performance,
370 allowing the development of a low-cost point spectroscopy device for real-time
371 authentication.

372 *Non-spectroscopic smart sensors*

373 **Food** industry will require more sensors, multi-sensors, biosensors, and autonomous systems
374 for remote and real-time use to improve productivity and efficiency, and provide complete
375 monitoring of each food production stage. Beside the aforementioned optical sensors, many
376 electrochemical smart sensors have been developed for food safety and quality applications
377 (Mayer & Baeumner 2019; Ivanišević et al. 2021). **Smart sensors** can be used for process
378 control, inserted on-line during food processing, **or** at the end of the process to ensure food
379 quality and protect the consumers from food damage/spoilage, **e.g.**, sensors developed for the
380 food packaging industry (Yousefi et al. 2019; Rodrigues et al. 2021). Such sensors can be
381 incorporated into intelligent “smart” packaging materials in the form of bar codes, films, or
382 labels, etc. to give information about changes in **time and temperature, humidity, oxygen**
383 **levels, pH, chemical composition, or microbial contamination** (Yousefi et al. 2019; Rodrigues
384 et al. 2021; Shao et al. 2021; Cheng et al. 2022).

385 Recent advances in nanotechnology have led to new applications in many fields of food
386 science and industry. Food sensor technologies have benefited from the opportunities (**e.g.**,
387 **availability of low-cost, reliable, and highly sensitive nanocomposite materials**) offered by
388 nanotechnology (Ivanišević et al. 2021; Shao et al. 2021). Thus, micro-and nano-scale
389 devices are being applied as well-functioning alternatives to traditional biosensors (Inbaraj &
390 Chen 2016; Jafarizadeh-Malmiri et al. 2019; Ali et al. 2021). Seymour et al. (2021) reported
391 an example of **such applications** using nano-electrochemical sensors. **The authors** established
392 a multi-purpose electrochemical device for smart agriculture by developing a suitable sensing
393 platform for pesticide and nitrite detection. Eventually, the system was interfaced with a
394 smartphone to **allow** data inspection and handling. Ge et al. (2022) developed a portable
395 wireless intelligent nano-sensor for detecting terbutaline in meat products.

396 **Much attention** has **recently** been **focused** on smart sensors based on smartphones, and a
397 significant part of the recent literature related to farm/**Industry** 4.0 is focused on their

398 development (Roda et al. 2016; Kalinowska et al. 2021). A brief search of the Scopus
399 database (done in October 2021) using the keywords: *smartphone*, *sensor*, and *food*, showed
400 an increase in such publications (Figure 6). Indeed, the number of publications associated
401 with these keywords has doubled since 2019, with most studies being focused on
402 engineering, computer science, chemistry, physics/astronomy, and, to a lesser extent, on
403 medicine, biochemistry, material science, chemical engineering, and agro-bio sciences
404 (Figure 6). The increasing attention to smartphone-based devices is linked to several factors;
405 among others, the high level of performance achieved by their cameras, their wide-spread
406 availability, and their portability. In addition, these devices are associated with IoT and data
407 analysis, without which the collection of data would have been non-productive. However,
408 from a chemical point of view, it is important that these devices are adequately validated and
409 that their repeatability is accurately estimated, in particular when they are used for the
410 analysis of complex matrices (Kalinowska et al. 2021).

411 Several biosensors based on the smartphone have been proposed for various applications in
412 food/beverage quality control. Many of these sensing platforms have focused on pathogen
413 and toxin detection (Inbaraj & Chen 2016; Zhou et al. 2020). A relevant example is the work
414 of Sidhu et al. (2020) who developed a smart device for the real-time determination of
415 *Listeria* in water used for hydroponic irrigation. Caratelli et al. (2021) showed the suitability
416 of a paper-based sensor for detecting botulinum neurotoxins. Similar sensors were developed
417 to detect bacteria species, e.g., *Salmonella*, *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus*, and other
418 bacteria species, as well as fungi and/or their metabolites in food (Sergeyeva et al. 2020; Kim
419 et al. 2021; Xue et al. 2021). Besides bacteria and toxins, several smart sensing devices have
420 been developed to detect unwanted substances, e.g., drugs and pesticides in food matrices,
421 with good analytical performance (Kalyani, Goel, & Jaiswal 2021; Majdinasab, Daneshi, &
422 Louis Marty 2021).

423 Coupling sensors to radio frequency identification tags (RFID) provides opportunities for
424 **real-time** monitoring of food quality, tracking, control, and early warning. RFID are an
425 automatic identification technology of objects, animals, and people that can be obtained using
426 a transponder (Bibi et al. 2017; Fathi et al. 2020; Ren et al. 2022). For example, a RFID
427 without a battery coupled with a digital sensor tag was proposed for monitoring ammonia in
428 packaged food (Karuppuswami et al. 2020). The sensitivity of the sensing elements was
429 evaluated using capacitance and resistance changes. The results showed that the direct
430 probing (based on resistance change) was able to detect a minimum of 3 ppm of ammonia at
431 room temperature with a response and time recovery of 30 and 60 min, respectively.

432 *Autonomous robots*

433 Food manufacturers are struggling to meet consumer demands for varied, safe, healthy, and
434 sustainable food. Industrial robots are an important component of Industry 4.0 and could
435 solve some challenges in the food industry such as difficulty of obtaining appropriate labour
436 and reduction of time and cost of production (Bader & Rahimifard 2020; Duong et al. 2020).
437 However, robot implementation in the food industry is still limited due to the industry's
438 stringent safety and hygiene requirements, cost of investment, **and** lack of understanding of
439 the full benefits of this new technology (Iqbal et al. 2017; Jagtap et al. 2021). Moreover,
440 foods are naturally unique and come in various shapes, sizes, and colours, making it harder to
441 automate these processes using robots (Bader & Rahimifard 2018). The most common
442 application of robotics in the food industry is **end** processes, such as packaging and
443 palletizing (Iqbal et al. 2017), where the **material** is more uniform.

444 **Recently, the food industry has started to adapt rapidly to Industry 4.0 principles and**
445 **technologies. Therefore, implementing robotics and automation in this industry is expected to**
446 **grow significantly in the coming years** (Jagtap et al. 2021). A variety of food industry sectors

447 (e.g., food processing) already benefit from using robots in some parts of the production
448 process, **especially in the developed countries**. For example, the Norwegian meat industry is
449 becoming highly automated and robotized with several tasks (such as carcass cutting and
450 deboning in abattoirs and meat factories) being done using robots and more advanced
451 machines (de Medeiros Esper et al. 2021). The implementation of more automation in
452 primary and secondary meat processing could increase the efficiency and production capacity
453 while reducing manual labour and production costs (Barbut 2020).

454 ***3.3. IoT, blockchain, and cybersecurity***

455 IoT and blockchain are both considered as important digital technologies that are driving
456 significant changes in different fields, including the food industry sector. At the same time,
457 the need for preventative methods used to secure digital information and data from potential
458 cybersecurity attacks is constantly increasing.

459 *IoT*

460 IoT refers to transferring data between interconnected computer devices and machinery.
461 Recent IoT progress has led to the proliferation of interconnected devices, promoting an
462 increase in the usage of various IoT smart applications in different fields ranging from
463 medicine and healthcare, e-commerce, and education, to manufacturing and agriculture
464 (Onwude et al. 2020; Khalil et al. 2021). Although different layers for the structure of IoT
465 have been described **according to the application areas**, most studies mainly try to establish
466 three layers, namely i) the device layer including sensors, RFID, and other physical devices
467 that collect data, ii) the network layer including all types of network communication
468 protocols that are used to transmit data collected by the device layer, and iii) the application
469 layer, including IoT applications and services (Bouzembrak et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2021;
470 Friha et al. 2021). Application of IoT technology increases connectivity and provides better

471 productivity, quality, and profitability along the entire supply chain. The interaction and
472 exchange of data and information occur between humans and machines as well as between
473 machines and machines (Kamble et al. 2018; Friha et al. 2021; Jagtap et al. 2021). Recent
474 advances in IoT technologies have brought a wide range of applications in different fields
475 including, among others, various processes used for agricultural production (Yang et al.
476 2021), food safety (Bouzembrak et al. 2019), and food processing (Jambrak et al. 2021).

477 An essential aspect delivered by IoT is real-time traceability, which allows for quick actions
478 when dealing with product recalls (Jagtap et al. 2021). A food fraud IoT-based system,
479 containing various sensors for temperature, oil, humidity, salt, metal, color, pH, and viscosity
480 was proposed to monitor adulterants in food products (Gupta & Rakesh 2018). The system
481 was effective and simple, so that it can be used by several actors in the food supply chain
482 (e.g. farmers, consumers, and regulatory authorities). RFID has been successfully applied in
483 broad areas including traceability, ensuring food quality and safety in the agrifood sector
484 (Bibi et al. 2017). Bouzembrak et al. (2019) reviewed several studies where IoT devices were
485 used in combination with RFID to track and trace food for various applications (e.g., food
486 safety and quality monitoring, shelf life and pesticide residue monitoring, traceability and
487 anti-counterfeiting, etc.). For example, Alfian et al. (2020) proposed a RFID-based
488 traceability system integrated with IoT for the perishable food supply chain to track product
489 movement and monitor the temperature and humidity of food products.

490 Some concerns and challenges still remain. The biggest being the lack of infrastructure to
491 host the connectivity needed for seamless data gathering and analysis using IoT. Another
492 issue associated with this technology is the high implementation cost. Moreover, the security
493 of the networks is also a major concern (Bouzembrak et al. 2019; Jagtap et al. 2021).

494 *Blockchain*

495 Traditional food supply chains lack traceability and trackability of products, resulting in the
496 absence of **labeling** transparency, slow product innovation cycles, and complications in
497 logistics. Blockchain technology can be a solution to these food supply chain concerns.
498 Blockchain has been suggested as a promising technology, underpinned by Industry 4.0,
499 consisting of digital, decentralized, distributed ledgers maintained by a network of multiple
500 computers **that can promote** trust and transparency in the agri-food value chain (Zhao et al.
501 2019; Kamilaris et al. 2019; Rejeb et al. 2020; Amentae & Gebresenbet 2021).

502 Blockchain increases traceability throughout the supply chain, connecting and tracking data
503 from producer to consumer, allowing for more accurate and faster recalls, thus eliminating
504 some risk and offering better quality food. Better traceability means the validity of claims
505 such as ‘‘sustainable’’, ‘‘organic’’, and ‘‘halal’’ can be monitored and authenticated (Kayikci
506 et al. 2020; Javaid et al. 2021). This technology was found to be helpful in the reduction of
507 food losses along a global supply chain (Kayikci et al. 2020). In addition, blockchain can be
508 used as an integrated traceability technology to reduce the risk of a pandemic (such as
509 COVID-19) disruption of the food system. For example, blockchain along with other new
510 technologies (e.g., RFID) have proven to be beneficial for food cold-chain continuity during
511 the ongoing coronavirus crisis (Masudin et al. 2021). **Blockchain can ensure a secure**
512 **environment for gathering and accessing data in real-time**. Kamilaris et al. (2019) reviewed
513 the increased use of blockchain in the food supply chain and determined the types of data
514 gathered at each stakeholder stage (**Figure 3**).

515 Several studies suggested the application of blockchain in combination with several other
516 emerging technologies. For example, a decentralized information system based on
517 blockchain, IoT, and HACCP (Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Points) was developed
518 for real-time food tracing in a food supply chain (Tian 2017). Recently, a secure monitoring
519 and reporting system based on blockchain and IoT was developed to allow for the

520 management of transaction integrity, immutability, and transparency of perishable products
521 along the supply chain with a focus on transportation without any human intervention (Bhutta
522 & Ahmad 2021). In another study, a supply chain system based on blockchain, IoT, and
523 advanced deep learning was evaluated with different numbers of users to verify the
524 provenance of agricultural products (Khan, Byun, and Park 2020).

525 The implementation of blockchain in the food industry is still low as most of the systems are
526 in the early piloting stages. Costs and shortage of required technical skills, education and
527 training platforms are **the main obstacles limiting** food manufacturers from utilizing
528 blockchain technology. Moreover, some barriers related to regulation, privacy leakage,
529 limited storage capacity, and latency issues still need to be dealt with. Additional challenges
530 include the digital gap between developed and developing countries, and the lack of trust in
531 cryptocurrencies in some countries (Zhao et al. 2019; Kamilaris et al. 2019; Khan et al. 2020;
532 Jagtap et al. 2021).

533 *Cybersecurity*

534 Industry 4.0 increased the influx of data within food manufacturing companies. More data
535 has become increasingly available, as global digital networks open up access to
536 manufacturing processes, **but this** involves higher cybersecurity risks (Maynard 2015; Duong
537 et al. 2020). Every time a new piece of technology is introduced, cybersecurity becomes a
538 concern. Cybersecurity refers to the processes and availability of technologists with the
539 needed skills that protect information and computer technology systems, such as networks
540 and computers. The protection is needed against cyberattacks that may damage software and
541 hardware or involve costly ransomware (Demestichas et al. 2020).

542 The food industry's infrastructure makes it more prone to cyberattacks, e.g., the number of
543 stakeholders involved along the supply chain tends to be greater than other industries (Jagtap

544 et al. 2021). Therefore, increasing awareness of cybersecurity at all stages of the supply chain
545 is needed. Recipe leakages, process tampering, and consumer data theft are of the most
546 concern. Such instances may threaten a company's supply chain, reputation, and profits.
547 Other examples include turning off software and hardware, and tampering with supply chain
548 logistics (Duong et al. 2020).

549 ***3.4. Digital twins and CPS***

550 The concept of digital **twins** has recently emerged and can be defined as a digital
551 representation of a real-world product, process operation, or physical object that integrates
552 various technological developments, e.g., IoT and AI **in order to** synchronize physical
553 activities with the virtual world. Statistical, data-driven, and physics-based models are the
554 main types of digital twins (Tao et al. 2019; Verboven et al. 2020; Defraeye et al. 2021; Burg
555 et al. 2021). Digital twins have the potential to increase knowledge and facilitate decision-
556 making in, for example, agricultural fields (Defraeye et al. 2021; Burg et al. 2021) and food
557 processing factories (Verboven et al. 2020). **In addition**, digital twins could be used to predict
558 postharvest evolution of food quality and tailor supply chains to maximize shelf life and
559 reduce food losses (Onwude et al. 2020; Defraeye et al. 2021).

560 Although digital twins have been developed in various industrial sectors (e.g., optimization of
561 the operations and maintenance of vehicles, and aircrafts, etc.), their implementations are still
562 in their infancy in the food industry due to several challenges that still remain (Verboven et
563 al. 2020; Burg et al. 2021). Only a few studies have described the application of digital twins
564 in the food supply chain. For instance, digital fruit twins, based on a mechanistic finite
565 element model and coupled with the real-world environmental conditions were developed to
566 simulate the thermal behaviour of mango fruit throughout the cold chain (Defraeye et al.

567 2019). The results showed that the digital twins can make the refrigerated food supply chain
568 greener by improving refrigeration processes and logistics.

569 CPS is an important feature of Industry 4.0 and could be considered as a global network
570 infrastructure that integrates the physical and virtual worlds. CPS shares some essential
571 concepts with digital twins. The application of CPS with Industry 4.0 has the potential to
572 reach the ultimate goal, i.e., achieving smart factories. The concept of CPS is also closely
573 related to IoT and robotics. CPS of food systems can be foreseen as reaching the highest
574 autonomy levels for self-management and self-control (Lu 2017b; Iqbal et al. 2017; Da Xu et
575 al. 2018; Tao et al. 2019; Jagatheesaperumal et al. 2021; Smetana et al. 2021). Application of
576 the CPS concept in the current food industry and agricultural systems is scarce, but multiple
577 domains could benefit from these technologies (Iqbal et al. 2017).

578 Various examples of possible applications of CPS from a robotic perspective include
579 intelligent food manufacturing systems. These were reviewed by Khan, Khalid, and Iqbal
580 (2018), while Smetana, Aganovic, and Heinz (2021) provided an overview of the current
581 knowledge about CPS applications in the food industry. The concept of CPS can be applied
582 to build food traceability systems. For example, a CPS-based system inspired by the fog
583 computing was created by Chen (2017) for food traceability (tracking and tracing) in the food
584 supply chain. The authors used a case study, along with a software system design and
585 implementation. Challenges associated with CPS include the complexity, multidisciplinary,
586 and heterogeneity of CPS. Lack of technical standards and security models are other
587 challenging issues that should be addressed (Lu 2017b).

588 **4. Advantages and common challenges**

589 Important concepts of Food Industry 4.0 are AI, ML, big data analytics, cloud computing,
590 IoT, blockchain, robotics and smart sensors, digital twins and CPS, although other

591 technologies could be considered in other application domains. Industry 4.0 has highlighted
592 the need for **convergence** and connectivity between various domains, not least those related to
593 the physical, biological, and digital fields. This connectivity revolution can basically be
594 understood as being based mostly on data; data acquisition using smart sensors, robots, IoT,
595 and other systems, data processing and mining using cloud computing, and data interpretation
596 using AI and other advanced technologies. Most of these technologies are expected to have
597 an important role in future smart factories and production systems with enhanced
598 digitalization and automation. For example, IoT can be seen as the future of food safety while
599 blockchain could become the future of food traceability.

600 Industry 4.0 technologies could promote **extensive digital transformation of everything**
601 **possible** and sustainable development along the different stages of the food value chain,
602 saving time and reducing cost (Oztemel & Gursev 2020; Jambrak et al. 2021). An example is
603 the use of hyperspectral sensors based on different spectroscopic principles to optimize and
604 monitor at any time and stage multiple processing conditions throughout the course of an
605 enzymatic hydrolysis process for various food by-products (Wubshet et al. 2018; Anderssen
606 & McCarney 2020; Måge et al. 2021). These “green” technologies would reduce food waste,
607 and give opportunities to customize food products and obtain desirable products with specific
608 quality attributes. Consequently, it becomes possible to increase profitability, reduce food
609 wastes, optimize customer needs, and increase consumer satisfaction.

610 By embracing food traceability and digital solutions, processing from raw material to the
611 final product can be monitored. For example, blockchain can be implemented in the food
612 supply chain as a digital and transparent system to track a product’s journey from farm to
613 fork, ensuring traceability and authenticity (Rejeb et al. 2020). Implementing the different
614 elements of Industry 4.0 has the potential to improve supply chain modernization, **food**
615 **quality and authenticity and ensure food safety (Misra et al. 2020).**

616 Digitalization of the food industry by incorporating elements of Industry 4.0, i.e., big data
617 analytics, smart sensors, autonomous robotics, and the other advanced technologies could
618 lead to greater productivity, better process stability, and customizable products. However,
619 little attention has been paid to the sustainability of Industry 4.0 (Kamble et al. 2018). An
620 intensive focus on innovation, digital skills, digital infrastructure, and cooperation will help
621 to ensure sustainability and achieve the United Nations' sustainable development goals
622 leading to the smart factories concept and putting it into practice, even in developing
623 countries (UNIDO 2020). Beside the sustainability issue, several other challenges related to
624 Food Industry 4.0 technologies still need to be addressed. Overall, adoption of new
625 technologies can seem like a daunting task, and the uptake of these technologies is slower in
626 the food industry compared to other sectors. This might be due to a silo mentality (i.e., the
627 mind-set of not wishing to share information with others) that still exists among some food
628 industry actors (Hassoun et al., 2020; Power & Cozzolino, 2020). It seems that most
629 emerging technologies have not yet gone beyond laboratory scale because of the high
630 implementation costs and lack of adaptability to an industrial environment. Moreover, lack of
631 technical and technological skills is another issue that hinders wider acceptance of Industry
632 4.0 and its new technologies and **innovations**.

633 Other barriers may be related to specific technologies. Although successful applications of
634 AI, ML, and big data analytics have been reported both for specific operations and along the
635 food value chain, adoption of these technologies is still limited. Barriers are related to
636 challenges with data (infrastructure, quality, standardization, security, and ownership),
637 uncertainties about deployment, validation, and maintenance, as well as lack of competence
638 and resources (Bahlo et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2020). Robotics and smart sensors could
639 enable human-machine collaboration, leveraging recent advances in AI and IoT. **However,**
640 **these emerging new technologies** need to become integrated with the **already existing food**

641 **facility's systems**, and the necessity for more flexibility, advanced hardware and software, as
642 well as lower costs are still apparent.

643 Finally, it is important to emphasize the necessity of intensifying innovation and the need for
644 further automation and digitalization throughout the whole food supply chain. While Industry
645 4.0 has already helped in certain areas, some of its greatest potential remains mostly untapped
646 and lies in its ability of achieving successful digital transformations and ecological
647 transitions. These can only be achieved by holistic multidisciplinary approaches that embrace
648 simultaneously as many Industry 4.0 technologies as possible, and include all relevant actors
649 in the food industry (e.g., academic research institutions, industrial partners, as well as
650 regulatory and other governmental authorities).

651 **5. Future perspectives and conclusions**

652 The food industry, as have other industries, has experienced four industrial revolutions,
653 evolving from being a small-scale, manually-operated and labour intensive, fragmented
654 activity to a large-scale, highly-automated and digitalized global industry. Recently, the era
655 of the fourth industrial revolution (Industry 4.0) has started, characterized by the fusion of a
656 number of modern digital technologies (such as AI, IoT, blockchain) and other emerging
657 technologies including, among others, robotics and smart sensors, **digital twins and cyber-**
658 **physical systems**. Industry 4.0 technologies have offered a broad scope of possibilities for the
659 food industry and led to the emergence of new food trends, which will be **reviewed** in Part II
660 of this **work**.

661 This review paper has tried to be an up-to-date source of information about the most relevant
662 technological advances of Industry 4.0 in the food industry. This literature review shows that,
663 on the one hand, several opportunities have arisen to reach climate goals, cope with
664 environmental, economic, and social pressures exerted on the food supply chain, and achieve

665 food sustainability and climate resilience. The Industry 4.0 technologies discussed in this
666 paper will contribute to the green transition toward more sustainable, intelligent, innovative
667 food production systems, with improved efficiency and productivity.

668 On the other hand, the adoption of Industry 4.0 elements by the food industry is not without
669 challenges. For example, security and privacy issues when collecting large amounts of data
670 over time, makes them more vulnerable to confidentiality attacks. Setting common standards
671 and legal frameworks, as well as establishing the proper regulatory environment, is important
672 to ensure the protection and consistency of data, especially with cross-border data flows.
673 Most of the emerging technologies are still confined to laboratory-scale experiments and are
674 not commercially available because of the gap between laboratory-scale research and real-
675 time applications. The studies reported showed that research has addressed many of the
676 aforementioned challenges. Continuous research and development, and intensive
677 collaboration between regulators, research institutions, and industry are required to harness
678 the power of Industry 4.0 in the food industry and reap the opportunities offered by its
679 advanced technologies. Enhanced networks and connectivity are expected to contribute to a
680 greater success of modern sustainable agriculture and the food industry. The application of
681 several Industry 4.0 technologies, especially together, could provide important sustainable
682 solutions, achieving valuable outcomes for public health, and environmental and economic
683 development. Finally, the literature review showed that many human aspects have been
684 ignored in Industry 4.0 technologies and their implementation in the food industry. Therefore,
685 it is likely that humans will be central to a possible fifth industrial revolution (Industry 5.0).
686 Hopefully soon.

687

688

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694

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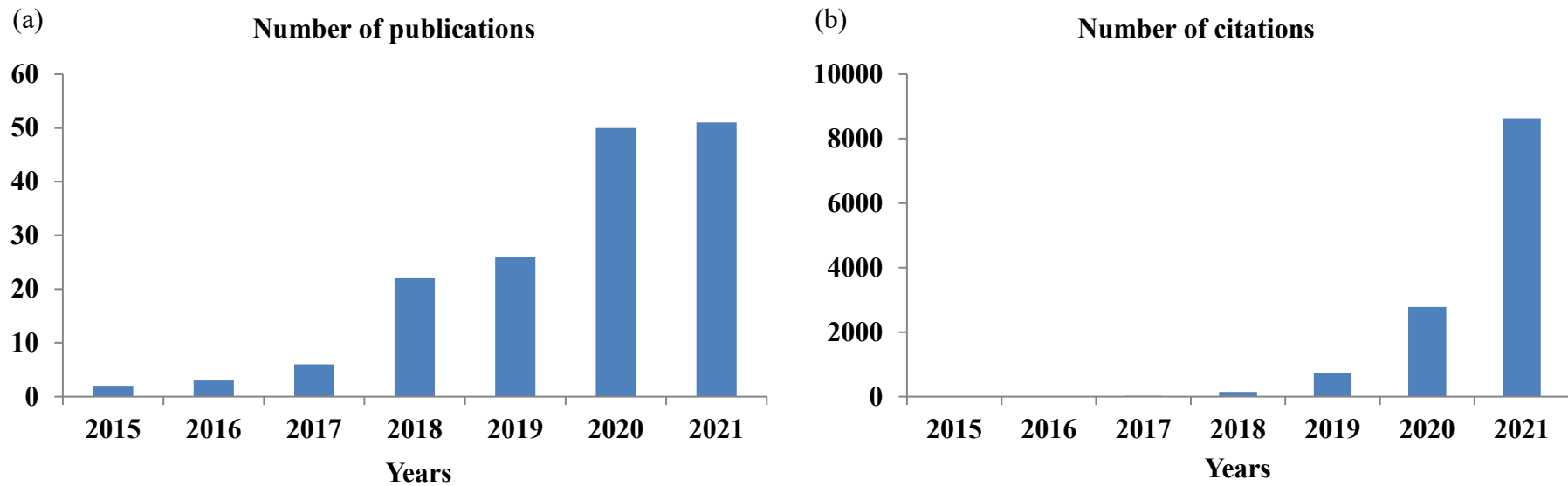


Figure 1. Publications (a) and citations numbers (b) related to the fourth industrial revolution in the food industry. (Search criteria: Article title, Abstract, Keywords: Fourth industrial revolution, OR Industry 4.0, AND Food industry, AND artificial intelligence, OR big data, OR Internet of Things, OR blockchain, OR robotics, OR smart sensors, OR digital twins, OR cyber-physical systems). The data were obtained from Scopus in December 2021.

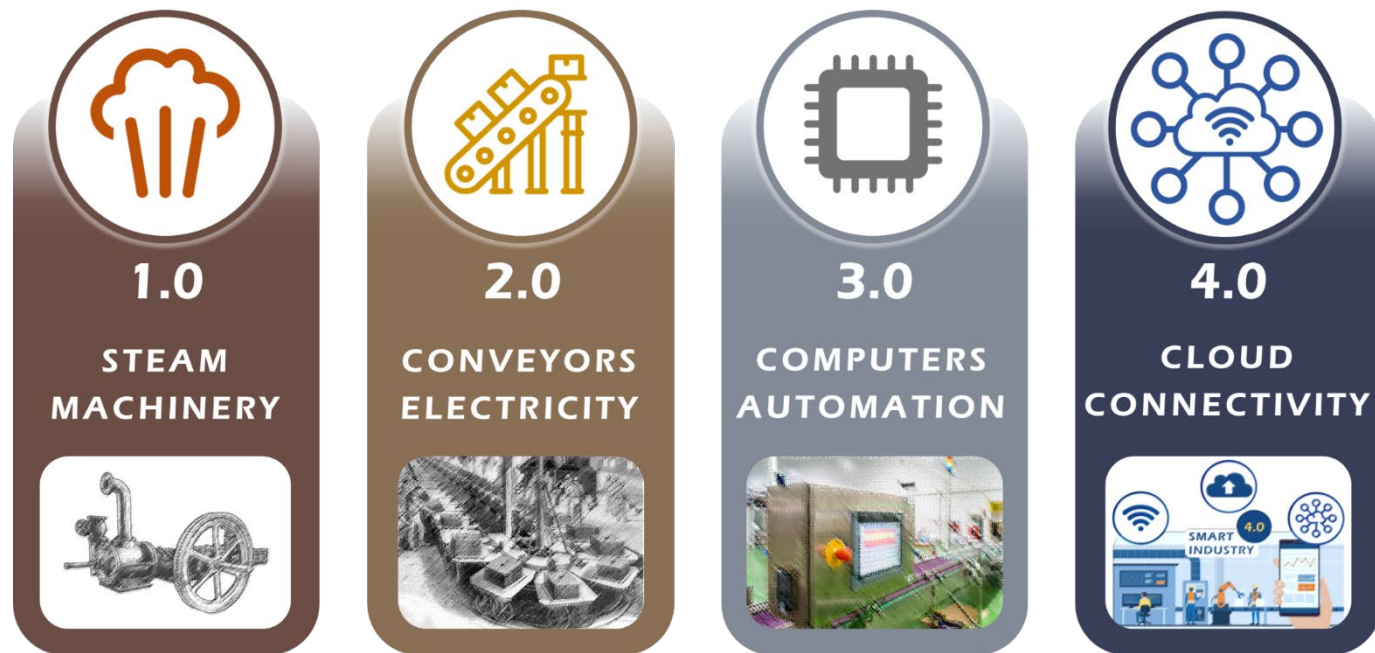
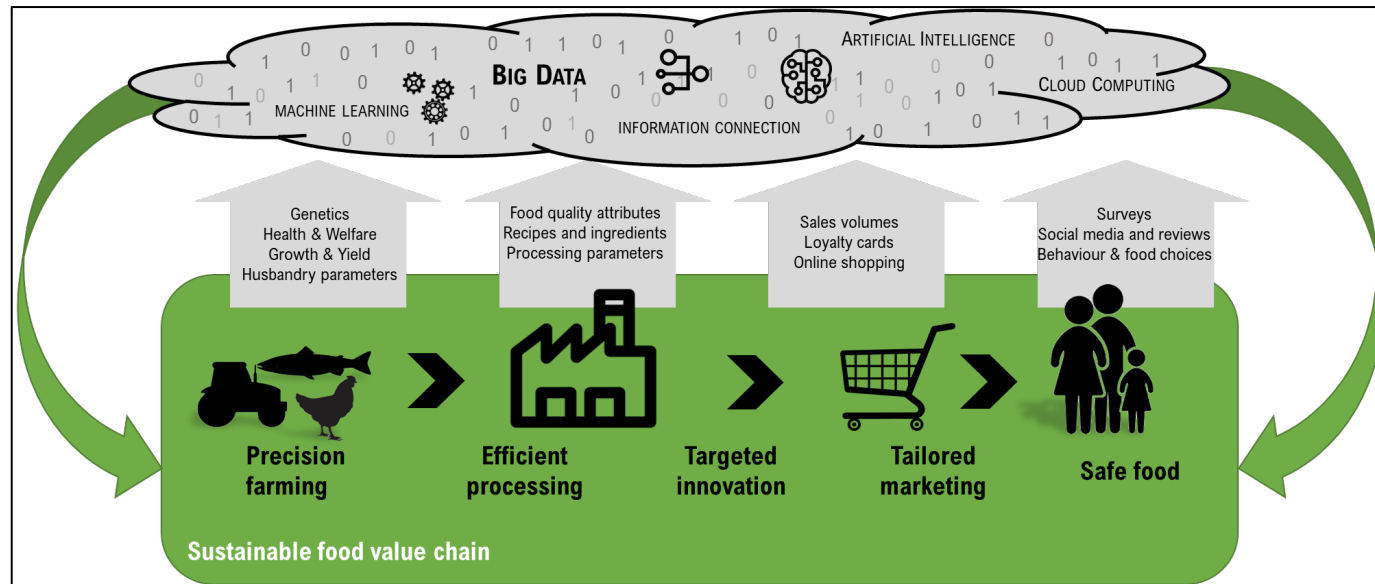


Figure 2. Schematic representation of past and current industrial revolutions









Provider	Producer	Processor	Distributor	Retailer	Consumer
					
Crops, pesticides, fertilizers, machinery and transactions between farmers and producers	Farm, farming practices, crop cultivation process, weather conditions and animals present	Factory, equipment, processing methods, batch numbers, transactions with producers and distributors	Shipping details, storage conditions, transit time, transport method, transactions between distributors and retailers	Food item details, current quality and quantity, expiration dates, storage conditions and shelf time	Information gathered is displayed to consumer through web application

Figure 3. Overview of data sources and information flow along the food value chain (Adapted from Kamilaris et al. (2019))

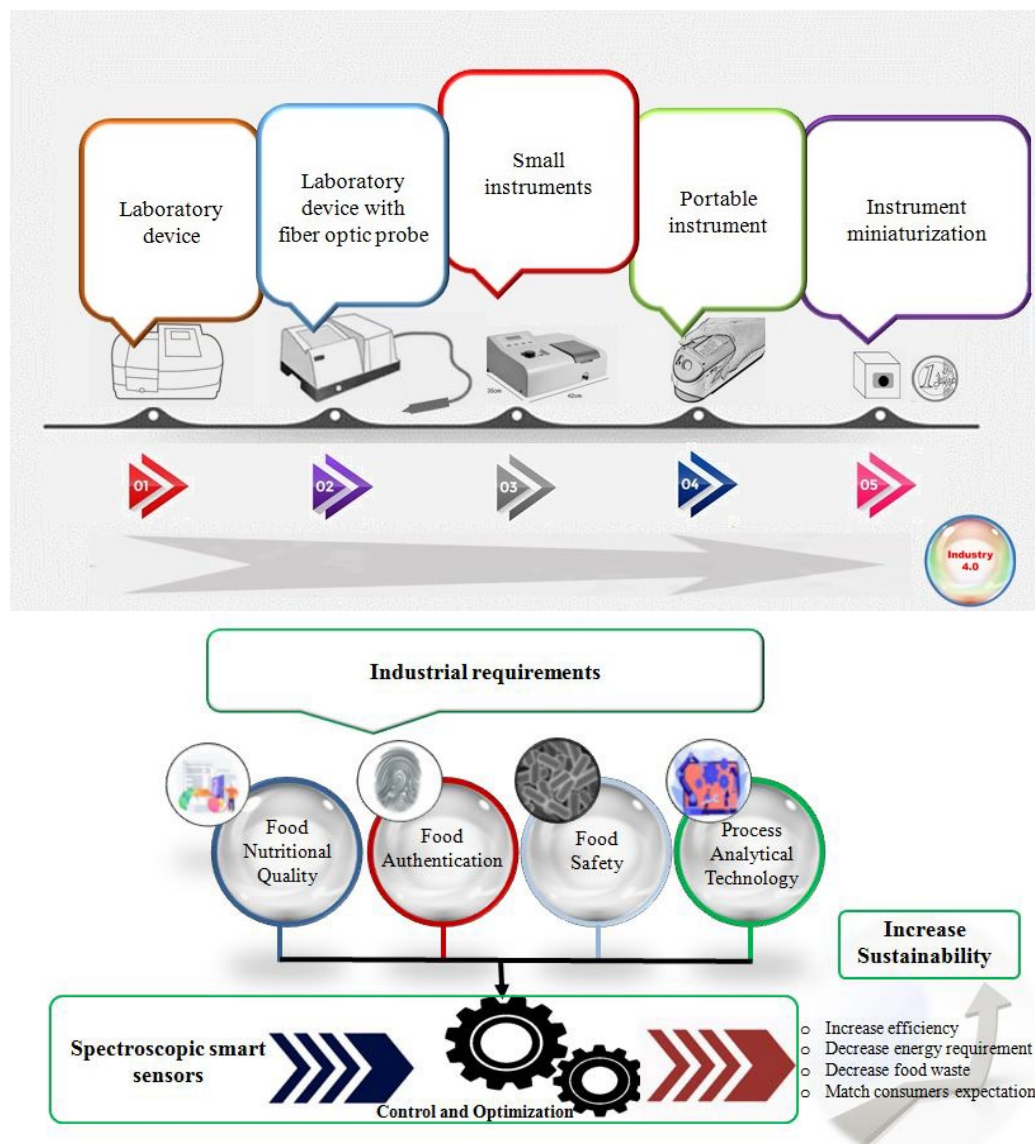


Figure 4. Time line development of smart spectroscopic sensors and their application areas

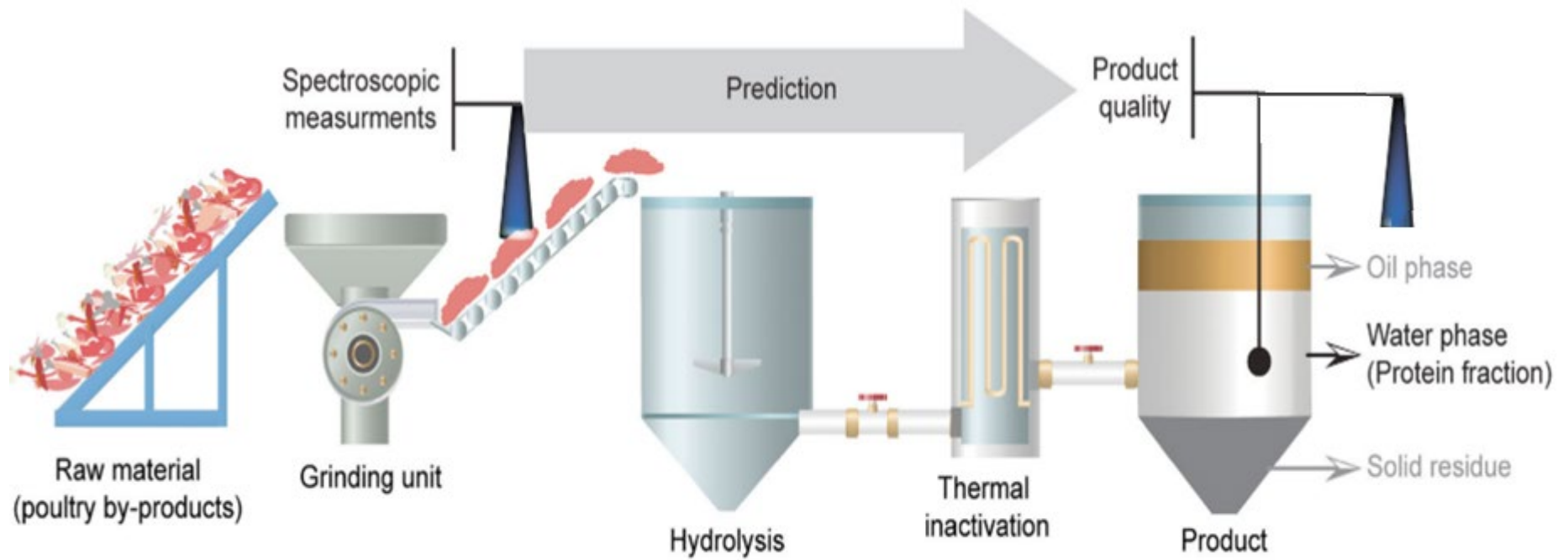


Figure 5. Application of spectroscopic techniques for monitoring the main steps of enzymatic protein hydrolysis (Reprinted by permission from Springer Nature, (Wubshet et al., 2018) (Copyright: 2018) and Elsevier, (Wubshet et al., 2019)).

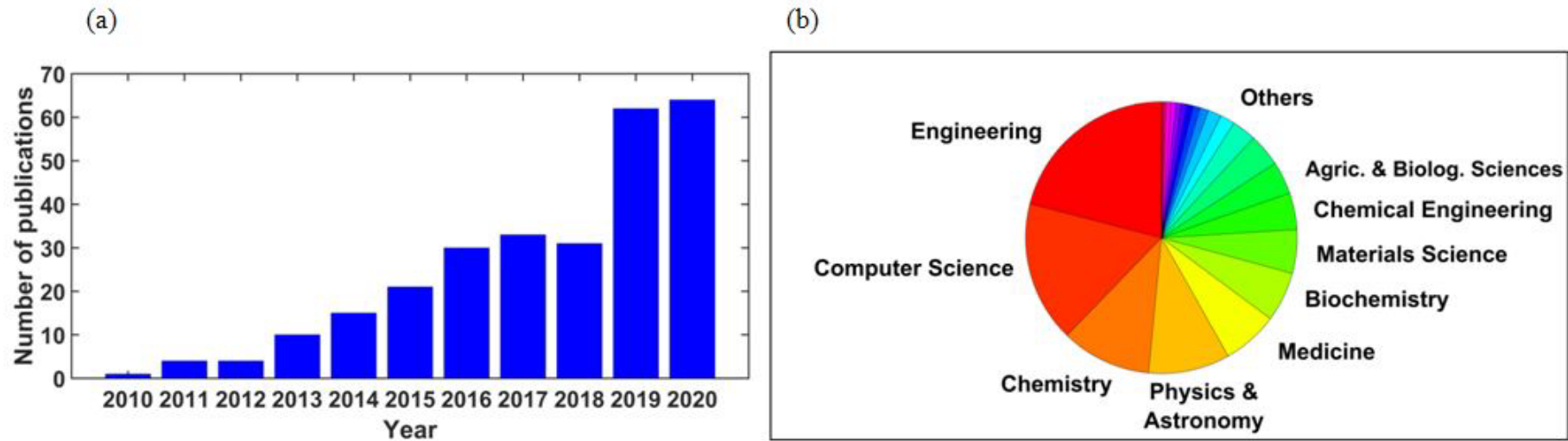


Figure 6. Outcome of a Scopus search of the keywords: “smartphone”, “sensor” and “food” (a): Number of published documents in the period 2010-2020, (b): Pie chart of the application fields.