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# 1 **Food Processing 4.0: Current and Future Developments Spurred by** 2 **the Fourth Industrial Revolution**

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**30 Abstract**

31 “Food processing 4.0” concept denotes processing food in the current digital era by harnessing  
32 fourth industrial revolution (called Industry 4.0) technologies to improve quality and safety of  
33 processed food products, reduce production costs and time, save energy and resources, as well as  
34 diminish food loss and waste. Industry 4.0 technologies have been gaining great attention in recent  
35 years, revolutionizing, and transforming many manufacturing industries, including the food  
36 processing sector. The aim of this narrative review is to provide an updated overview of recent  
37 developments of Industry 4.0 technologies in digital transformation and process automation of the  
38 food processing industry. Our literature review shows the key role of robotics, smart sensors,  
39 Artificial Intelligence, the Internet of Things, and Big Data as the main enablers of the Food  
40 Processing 4.0. advantages in terms of quality control (sorting during processing with robotics and  
41 Artificial Intelligence, for instance), safety (connecting sensors and devices with Internet of  
42 Things), and production efficiency (forecasting demand with Big Data). However, detailed studies  
43 are still necessary to tackle significant challenges and provide deep insights into each of Food  
44 Processing 4.0 enablers such as the development of specific effectors for robotics; miniaturization  
45 and portability for sensors; standardization of systems and improve data sharing for Big Data; and  
46 reduce initial and maintenance costs of these technologies.

47 **Keywords:** Artificial Intelligence, automation, Big Data, digitalization, emerging technologies,  
48 smart sensors

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 Our planet has been experiencing unprecedented challenges in the last few years, especially  
51 the drastic and systemic impact of climate change, in addition to the recent outbreak of pandemics  
52 (particularly COVID-19). Meanwhile, the demand for food continues is expected to increase by  
53 56% (62% considering climate change) with the growth of world population, which is expected to  
54 reach 9.7 billion people by 2050 (United Nations, 2019; van Dijk et al., 2021). Moreover, the  
55 evolution of food processing sector is expected to happen with foods with enhanced nutritional  
56 value, consuming fewer resources, preserving biodiversity, and causing low environmental impact  
57 (reducing water loss, for instance) in resilient systems to supply this increased demand with  
58 complementary programs to prevent food insecurity and hunger (Augustin et al., 2016; Sachs et  
59 al., 2019).

60 Meeting this future demand is considered possible, but important changes are necessary,  
61 especially in the area of food processing. This core pillar of our society is expected to evolve and  
62 become more sustainable, flexible, resilient, and adaptive (Boyacı-Gündüz et al., 2021; Knorr et  
63 al., 2020). Facing these challenges with current food processing systems can be seen as an  
64 integrative task due to the complexity of each one of aforementioned challenges and the necessary  
65 knowledge to find effective solutions that can be applied in food processing (Augusto, 2020).

66 This scenario has been motivating professionals of the food industry and researchers to step  
67 up and upgrade current processing operations to smarter food processing by incorporating  
68 innovative strategies, technologies, and machinery (Jambrak et al., 2021; Kakani et al., 2020). The  
69 advances in technology are the necessary breakthrough to strength the developments in food  
70 processing towards the solution of current and future challenges. The high connectivity and

71 automation assisted by computing power are key elements that can revolutionize food processing  
72 systems (Augusto, 2020).

73         Essentially, the Fourth Industrial Revolution (or Industry 4.0) aims to increase the  
74 interconnection (sensors, devices, machinery, and humans, for instance) and high-level automation  
75 to achieve smart processing systems (Hermann et al., 2016; Morella et al., 2021; Oztemel &  
76 Gursev, 2020). One of the fundamental aspects of Industry 4.0 is the interdisciplinary that involve  
77 a wide set of knowledge related to physical, digital, and biological domains (Chapman et al., 2021;  
78 Koh et al., 2020). This combination of characteristics are necessary to facilitate the progression  
79 towards more efficient production systems, improve food quality, and reduce food loss  
80 (Ghobakhloo, 2018; Onwude et al., 2020; Oztemel & Gursev, 2020; Sadeghi et al., 2022).  
81 However, it is important to mention that an universal agreement on the Industry 4.0 components is  
82 still lacking (Ali et al., 2021b; Ghobakhloo, 2018).

83         In recent years, a clear upward trend has been observed regarding papers published in the  
84 field of Industry 4.0 and food processing (**Figure 1**). Industry 4.0 encompasses many digital  
85 technologies and other advanced solutions (such as Artificial Intelligence (AI), Internet of Things  
86 (IoT), robotics, and smart sensors, for instance) that have the potential to accelerate automation  
87 and digitalization in industrial sectors, including the food industry.

88         Recently, a general overview of key Industry 4.0 enablers was given by Hassoun, Aït-  
89 kaddour, et al., (2022a). However, there is still a lack of comprehensive research on application of  
90 Industry 4.0 technologies in food processing. Therefore, the aim of this narrative review is to  
91 explore the role of Industry 4.0 enablers in digital transformation and process automation in the  
92 processing stage of food industry. Food Processing 4.0 concept will be introduced and the main

93 enabling technologies will be discussed. The role of emerging processing technologies in this  
94 context is also discussed. The articles to compose this review were searched on databases Scopus  
95 and Web of Science using the terms “Artificial Intelligence”, “Big Data”, “biosensors”, “Internet  
96 of Things”, “nanosensors”, “robotics”, “robots”, “smart sensors”, “emerging processing  
97 technologies”, “non-thermal processing”, and “food industry”. The articles published from 2017 to  
98 2022 were selected. Additional relevant studies were manually searched from the reference lists of  
99 selected studies and published reviews related to scope of the review.

## 100 **2. Brief overview of current challenges and main enabling 4.0 industry technologies in food** 101 **processing**

### 102 ***2.1. Current food processing challenges***

103 Food processing entails one or more steps of transformation of raw materials or fresh and  
104 inedible agricultural products into edible semi-finished or finished products or food ingredients  
105 (Bhargava et al., 2021a; McClements & Grossmann, 2021; Pérez-Santaescolastica et al., 2021;  
106 Qian et al., 2022; Teng et al., 2021). Food processing enables the production of a wide variety of  
107 food products that are convenient and affordable for consumers, hence the increased demand for  
108 processed foods in contemporary society (Ndisya et al., 2021; Qian et al., 2022). However, food  
109 processing has complex challenges that were introduced and gradually evolved with the industrial  
110 revolutions and emerging challenges that are still yet under investigation and at initial phases of  
111 incorporation into the industry after the mechanization of food processing: food safety,  
112 competitiveness, plant-based foods, quality control, and food security (Augusto, 2020; Silva et al.,  
113 2018).

114 Food safety is a constant concern about food processing due to the food borne outbreaks  
115 registered every years across different food categories. One of the main recurrent causative agents  
116 of food borne outbreaks are contamination with pathogenic microorganisms (such as  
117 *Campylobacter* spp. and *Salmonella* spp.). Consequently, regular updates in governmental pages  
118 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022) and annual reports (European Food Safety  
119 Authority, 2021) provide a comprehensive view of latest cases and trends. The contamination with  
120 toxic substances from vast sources (sanitizers, mycotoxins, pesticides, environmental pollutants)  
121 are also routinely observed in food recalls (FDA, 2021b).

122 The competitiveness of food market became a key characteristic after the modernization of  
123 food industry in the post-World War II period. Foods were viewed and perceived by consumers as  
124 goods with characteristics beyond their basic function (source of vital nutrients) and the presence  
125 of many companies sharing the same market favored the necessity of differentiation in the face of  
126 the competition (Silva et al., 2018). Consequently, two key research fields flourished from this  
127 scenario: sensory analysis and consumer science. The expansion of knowledge derived from the  
128 advances in these two areas generated new knowledge and expanded the view, technologies,  
129 concepts of food processing and open the possibility to have a better alignment of consumers  
130 preferences and desires with food processing (Fiorentini et al., 2020).

131 One key current example are the advances in the production of plant-based foods (intended  
132 to compete with animal protein foods such as meat, milk, dairy and meat products) due to  
133 environmental and health concerns associated with their production and consumption  
134 (Wickramasinghe et al., 2021). Due to the wide consumer interest in the consumption of this new  
135 category of processed foods, many products were developed and are on the supermarkets (Curtain  
136 & Grafenauer, 2019). However, advances in this food category are still necessary to obtain products



137 with higher acceptance in terms of color, flavor, and mouthfeel, and the appropriate nutritional  
138 information (Fiorentini et al., 2020; Wickramasinghe et al., 2021).

139         Quality control during processing is a necessary activity to monitor food characteristics and  
140 processing conditions and check their compliance with defined criteria (Ali & Hashim, 2021).  
141 However, the continuous monitoring of food characteristics and processing in modern production  
142 lines has important limitations. The fundamental organization of activities is comprised by  
143 acquiring representative samples, sample preparation, formal analysis, and interpretation of results.  
144 These activities are currently performed using protocols that require laboratory infrastructure,  
145 equipment, trained and skilled technicians, constant expenses with reagents and solvents, and long  
146 periods (several hours or days) until conclusive results, which support the study and further  
147 implementation of more sophisticated systems to improve the management of quality control (Di  
148 Rosa et al., 2017).

149         Food adulteration (a core aspect of Food Security) is a serious dishonest activity punished  
150 by law that is usually performed to generate additional profit (estimated to generate a global cost  
151 between 10 and 40 billion dollars/year) and deceive consumers at the expense of food quality (low  
152 nutritional and not compliant raw materials, for instance) and safety (unknown or unverified origin)  
153 (FDA, 2021a; Munekata et al., 2020). Cases of food fraud occur across different food production  
154 systems involving mainly fats and oils; seafood; meat and meat products; honey and royal jelly;  
155 dietetic foods, food supplements, fortified foods; fruits and vegetables; and infant formula  
156 (European Commission, 2022; FDA, 2021a). Another form of altering food is known as food  
157 tampering, which consist in the intentional inclusion of compounds or materials to cause harm to  
158 consumers and promote a food borne outbreak (FDA, 2018). Although rare, food tampering has  
159 also been monitored in recent reports (European Commission, 2020).

160           Once fraudulent actions are disclosed, one of the effects is the reduction of perceived  
161 confidence and trust from consumers in the involved food product and brand/company. Moreover,  
162 this effect seems to be extended to corresponding regulatory agencies and the productive sector as  
163 a whole (Kendall et al., 2019). Efforts to face the complexity of food fraud, especially with the  
164 imposed restrictions and challenges from COVID 19 pandemic, require coordinated actions and  
165 implementation of solutions (such as digital technologies) to improve the compliance with  
166 regulatory monitoring and discourage fraudsters to take advantage of consumers in circumstances  
167 of supply chain gaps (characterized by panic-buying and stockpiling) (Onyeaka et al., 2022). In  
168 this sense, increasing transparency, accessibility, security, and immutability of data registered from  
169 food production can potentially reduce food fraud (Antonucci et al., 2019).

## 170 ***2.2. Key 4.0 Industry technologies and technological adoption in food processing***

171           A historical overview of the industrial revolutions indicate that key transformations were  
172 progressively changing the food production lines (**Figure 2**). The first industrial revolution  
173 (occurred late 18<sup>th</sup> century) enable the use of steam engine to carry out repetitive tasks in food  
174 production and the developments of steam-based tasks, specifically thermal processing  
175 (pasteurization and sterilization). In terms of mechanization, the milling of grains was upgraded  
176 from human-, animal-, wind-, or water-powered systems to a steam-powered machinery during the  
177 18<sup>th</sup> century (Westworth, 1932). However, one of the key development for food processing using  
178 steam occurred much later. The formalization of pasteurization as technique is attributed to Louis  
179 Pasteur around years 1860's (supported by his studies to prove the role of microorganisms in food  
180 spoilage) and it was only in 1876 when he and Charles Chamberland developed the first autoclave  
181 (Misra et al., 2017).

182           The second industrial revolution (late 19<sup>th</sup> century) led to the utilization of electricity in  
183 food production. Steam-powered food processing equipment were gradually replaced by electric-  
184 powered counterparts and new equipment were also introduced. An intense development of  
185 machinery specific to food processing was derived from this period such as juice extraction  
186 machine by Norman Walker around 1930 (Omoregie et al., 2018), vacuum packaging systems by  
187 Karl Busch around 1960 (Patil et al., 2020), and the initial upgrade from batch to continuous  
188 pasteurizing systems (Rankin et al., 2017).

189           One key development from this period was the creation of refrigeration systems. Key events  
190 for lowering temperature in food production include the increasing necessity for cold storage and  
191 transportation of ice and foods during the 19<sup>th</sup> century and the eventual use of refrigeration for meat  
192 processing and preservation at the end of that century (Misra et al., 2017). The advances in electric  
193 systems and studies with gases to cool foods (initiated during the first industrial revolution) enable  
194 the development of electric-refrigeration systems to replace natural ice by mechanically produced  
195 ice at the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century (Sandvik, 2017).

196           The third industrial revolution (during the 1970s) inserted the digitalization of processes  
197 with the development of microchips, which paved the way for the improved control of food  
198 processing lines (Teixeira & Shoemaker, 1989). Continuous and more comprehensive processing  
199 with computers (with programmable and automated characteristics) and new equipment became  
200 possible (Goff & Griffiths, 2006). One main technology developed during this period is the  
201 development of extrusion as one-step process and the development of texturized plant protein  
202 products (especially texturized soy protein) (Riaz, 2000). The initial insertion of robotics in food  
203 processing (around 1990) happened during this revolution (Nayik et al., 2015). Additionally, the  
204 third revolution is also marked by the advances leading to the development of irradiation (ionizing

205 and microwave systems) systems for microbial decontamination of herb and spices (Farkas &  
206 Mohácsi-Farkas, 2011).

207         The great technological innovations and rapid developments that occurred in recent years  
208 have led to the emergence of Industry 4.0, with automation and interconnectivity being the main  
209 features (Morella et al., 2021; Oztemel & Gursev, 2020). Industry 4.0 is an interdisciplinary topic,  
210 involving a wide set of knowledge related to physical, digital, and biological domains (Chapman  
211 et al., 2021; Koh et al., 2020). Industry 4.0 has been characterized by smart systems and more  
212 intelligent manufacturing and production processes due to the development of advanced  
213 technologies at all stages of the supply chain, increasing efficiency and food quality and reducing  
214 food loss (Ghobakhloo, 2018; Onwude et al., 2020; Oztemel & Gursev, 2020; Sadeghi et al., 2022).  
215 Robotics, smart sensors, AI, IoT, and BD play an important role in the food processing (Hassoun  
216 et al., 2022a, 2022b). Additionally, Industry 4.0 main enablers include smart sensors and the IoT  
217 (Javaid et al., 2021; Ullo & Sinha, 2021; Zhang et al., 2022), robotics (Bader & Rahimifard, 2020;  
218 Dzedzickis et al., 2022; Iqbal et al., 2017), AI (Kakani et al., 2020; Ramirez-Asis et al., 2022; Sun  
219 et al., 2019), and Big Data (BD) (Jin et al., 2020; Tao et al., 2021) have been recently reviewed.

220         **Robotics and automation** are among the main Industry 4.0 enablers that provide many  
221 opportunities to perform multiple operations in various industrial sectors, including the food  
222 processing industry. While the first developed autonomous robots were intended to perform simple  
223 repetitive jobs (as important invention from the third industrial revolution), recent technological  
224 advances have enabled the design of more advanced robots that are able to perform high-level tasks  
225 and difficult operations, leading to increased productivity and decreased labour and manufacturing  
226 time and cost (Bader & Rahimifard, 2020; Chen & Yu, 2022; Iqbal et al., 2017; Jagtap et al.,  
227 2021a). The use of robots has become more popular in recent years, especially during the COVID-

228 19 pandemic to meet the growing demand for automation and robotic systems in the food sector,  
229 which is reflected by the increased number of studies published during the last two years (**Figure**  
230 **3a**). Robots are often combined with sensors and other Industry 4.0 elements.

231 **Smart sensors** are an important Industry 4.0 technology that plays a significant role in data  
232 acquisition and process automation. The development of sensors, initially, as mechanical systems  
233 with limited capacity to sense and return information (Moncrieff, 1961) evolved to portable and  
234 computer-controlled instruments (Qian et al., 2021). Sensors are being increasingly developed and  
235 implemented in various stages of processing lines to improve the control in food processing.  
236 Consequently, the management of quality control can be improved to reduce the loss of food quality  
237 and production cost (Franceschelli et al., 2021; Jambrak et al., 2021; Javaid et al., 2021). In recent  
238 years, the number of publications reporting advances with the application of smart sensors (or  
239 nanosensors/biosensors) in the food industry has increased significantly (**Figure 3b**), especially  
240 with the recent advances in nanotechnology and biotechnology that have accelerated the  
241 development of miniaturized sensors (Chen & Yu, 2022; Fernandez et al., 2022; McVey et al.,  
242 2021; Ren et al., 2022).

243 **AI** is one of the emerging digital technologies that has received great attention in recent  
244 years, being a creative tool that simulates the human reasoning ability and intelligence using  
245 computers, robots, and digital equipment (Ben Ayed & Hanana, 2021; Misra et al., 2020). AI has  
246 progressed from its key concepts of machine intelligence (Turing Test), computer development,  
247 and the creation of information theory to the development of modern learning/training strategies  
248 for complex computing systems (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2019). The role of AI in the food industry is  
249 becoming increasingly important, due to its ability to work and react like humans to perform many  
250 tasks quickly and in real-time (e.g., cleaning and ensuring hygiene standards, preparing food and

251 drink, detecting potential risks during food production, and sorting food according to its quality),  
252 supporting the implementation of smart factory (Bai et al., 2020; Di Vaio et al., 2020; Jambrak et  
253 al., 2021; Ramirez-Asis et al., 2022). Therefore, the research on potential application of AI in the  
254 food industry has witnessed an increasing interest in recent years (**Figure 3c**).

255 Another key 4.0 technology is **IoT** that can be defined as a network of “things” that can be  
256 located, identified, and operated upon, and which are connected through sensors (Ng &  
257 Wakenshaw, 2017). This technology has the potential to turn ordinary sensors into intelligent  
258 sensors and promote remote sensing (Javaid et al., 2021; Ullo & Sinha, 2021). The history of IoT  
259 is recent due to its first definition in 1999 and characterized by the intensification in the  
260 communication between “things” and developments aligned with mobile internet (Tzafestas,  
261 2018). The benefits of application of IoT in food processing are numerous, including the improved  
262 food safety, increased efficiency, enhanced production and transparency, and optimized food  
263 production systems (Astill et al., 2019; Jagtap et al., 2021b). There has been an increasing interest  
264 in using **IoT** technologies in the food industry, which has been intensified after the year 2016, as  
265 can be noticed from **Figure 3d**.

266 In modern food industry sectors, large and heterogeneous data, referred to as Big Data  
267 (**BD**), are produced from various operations during food processing. The advances in BD have been  
268 characterized by the combination of key elements (5Vs) to deal with current data generation:  
269 volume, variety, velocity, veracity, and value. The progression from times when management of  
270 information and data were considered painstaking, complex, and time consuming tasks (population  
271 census prior to World War I, for instance) to modern management of data assisted by computers  
272 that quickly and accurately process digital data streams in any form (structure, semi-structured, and  
273 non-structured) demonstrates the importance of this technology (Barnes, 2013; Batistič & van der

274 Laken, 2019; Johnson et al., 2017). As for the other Industry 4.0 technologies, the research interest  
275 in BD has been increasing in the last decade (**Figure 3e**) due to its many advantages offered (Astill  
276 et al., 2019; Tzounis et al., 2017). BD can be used to align food processing with strategies to reduce  
277 food loss and food waste (Mishra et al., 2017), enhance demand forecasting (Alicke et al., 2016),  
278 increase process optimisation and improve new product development (Jagtap & Duong, 2019;  
279 Tzounis et al., 2017), and address concerns of food safety (Jin et al., 2020).

### 280 **3. Food Processing 4.0 concept**

281 Industry 4.0 technologies, such as AI, IoT, BD, robotics, smart sensors, blockchain, and  
282 augmented reality, among others, have been widely investigated in many research and industrial  
283 application areas in recent years. In the food industry, the application of these technologies (termed  
284 Food Industry 4.0, or simply Food 4.0) has offered many advantages to food quality, safety,  
285 traceability, and sustainability. In the current work, we introduce the concept of Food Processing  
286 4.0 to explore how exploiting these technologies in the best possible way will benefit the food  
287 processing sector. Food Processing 4.0 concept refers to processing food in the current modern  
288 digital era by harnessing Industry 4.0 technologies to improve food quality and safety of food  
289 products along with reducing food processing costs and time, saving energy and resources, and  
290 reducing food loss and food waste. In this work, robotics, smart sensors, AI, IoT, BD are considered  
291 among the main enablers in the food processing sector (**Figure 4**), although other Industry 4.0  
292 technologies (such as blockchain, 3D printing, cloud technologies, and cyber-physical systems)  
293 can be also applied but to a lesser extent (Hassoun et al., 2022a, 2022b).

### 294 **4. Industry 4.0 in food processing**

#### 295 *4.1. Use of robotics in food processing*

296 The need for more automation and robotics has been dramatically established over the last  
297 two years with the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, due to labour shortages and movement  
298 restrictions of workers needed in food processing worksites and the other unprecedented  
299 disruptions caused by this pandemic, e.g., high degree of sanitation and reduced human contact.  
300 These circumstances have opened new opportunities for robots to take over since many studies  
301 have reported that robotics can contribute to addressing many challenges posed by the COVID-19  
302 (Aday & Aday, 2020; Dzedzickis et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022).

303 As defined by the International Standards Organization (ISO), robots are autonomously  
304 controlled, reconfigurable, and reprogrammable machines that offer multiple degrees of freedom.  
305 Robots can be either stationary or mobile and are designed for use in several applications, which  
306 typically aim to replace manual labour. Robots are programmed to mimic humans and their actions,  
307 making them dexterous, and thus more flexible than regular automated machinery. These robots  
308 comprise of the robot itself, an arm, the wrist, and an end-effector (such as a hand) that performs  
309 the tasks (Dzedzickis et al., 2022; Sandey et al., 2017).

310 In food processing, they are mostly used for pick and place operations, to complete tasks  
311 such as sorting, packing, and packaging (Bader & Rahimifard, 2018; Jagtap, Bader, et al., 2021;  
312 Wang et al., 2022). Robotic automation is most efficient when implemented to resolve or improve  
313 certain manufacturing and processing scenarios. These include production line bottlenecks,  
314 hazardous or unfavourable manufacturing environments, simple and repetitive processes, which  
315 can be tedious for human labour, and facilities with a highly variable product line, which requires  
316 frequent changeovers (Bader & Rahimifard, 2018; Dzedzickis et al., 2022; Sandey et al., 2017).



317           Robotic automation offers food and beverages manufacturing many benefits, the main and  
318 most vital one being flexibility. Essentially, robotics provides reconfigurability and quick  
319 adaptation into new work environments and new processes. All while ensuring products are high  
320 in quality and uniformity, as robotics follow set planned actions repeatedly in a precise manner.  
321 Moreover, there is less workforce injury due to repetitive movement, thus improving overall  
322 working environment. Increased efficiency ensured production cost and time is reduced, and that  
323 waste material is kept at a minimum. All of these benefits ensure the company maintains a  
324 competitive advantage against others (Bader & Rahimifard, 2018, 2020; Chen & Yu, 2022;  
325 Schwarz & Wydra, 2021).

326           Despite the onset of Industry 4.0 and the technological advancements of robotics for food  
327 processing applications, their implementation rates is currently low due to specific challenges to  
328 be tackled for its wide use in the food industry (Bader & Rahimifard, 2020; Duong et al., 2020).  
329 The first and most challenging aspect is related to the essence of foodstuffs, which are naturally  
330 soft, fragile and can often have slippery surfaces. Moreover, many foods are non-rigid, thus making  
331 them more prone to damage under pressure. Specially designed end effectors are being needed and  
332 developed to overcome this challenge. Seven types of end effectors are currently available for use  
333 with food applications. These gripper mechanisms include pinching, enclosing, pinning,  
334 pneumatic, freezing, levitating, and scooping mechanisms (Bader & Rahimifard, 2020). Other  
335 challenges encompass strict hygiene requirements demanded by the food industry to ensure the  
336 food is safe for consumption, as well as the economic barriers related to the current high costs  
337 associated with purchasing and maintaining robotics (Wang et al., 2022).

#### 338 **4.2. Use of smart sensors in food processing**

339 Various types of sensors have been developed and used to make real-time monitoring and  
340 measurements along the food processing lines (Hassoun et al., 2022a; Jambrak et al., 2021).  
341 Nowadays, a wide range of sensors are available to monitor the quality and safety of food through  
342 the measurement of humidity, temperature, variations in gas concentrations (such as oxygen and  
343 carbon dioxide), and changes in pH (Amin et al., 2022). Smart sensors can be classified as physical  
344 sensors, chemical sensors, and biological sensors. Smart sensors can be also divided into several  
345 groups according to the measured analytes; biological and chemical contaminants, allergens,  
346 nutritional ingredients, and food additives (Cheng et al., 2022; Oveissi et al., 2022; Zhang et al.,  
347 2022).

348 For example, a light scattering sensor was developed to detect three major foodborne  
349 pathogens, *S. enterica*, STEC including *E. coli* O157:H7, and *L. monocytogenes* in food  
350 (Abdelhaseib et al., 2019). This non-invasive sensor achieved high classification accuracies  
351 (ranging between 84 and 100%), which could lead to a significant saving in terms of time and cost  
352 compared to traditional methods. In another study, a biosensor was synthesized for the detection  
353 of milk protein allergens in food processing environments, achieving detection limits superior to  
354 existent traditional methods (Ashley et al., 2018).

355 Smart sensors based on spectroscopy are being developed and employed in various food  
356 sectors, including monitoring food processing operations and determining food quality (McVey et  
357 al., 2021). Especially the use of optical sensors based on hyperspectral imaging (HSI) has become  
358 popular in recent years due to the many desirable features of this technology. For example HSI  
359 technique operating in the spectral range 400-1700 nm was used to assess quality changes in purple-

360 speckled cocoyam slices during hot-air drying processes (Ndisya et al., 2021). Prediction models  
361 were successfully built using few wavelengths, enabling to predict several quality parameters with  
362 excellent performance.

363         One of the emerging trends in sensors is their use in active and intelligent food packaging.  
364 Integration of sensors into packaging has the potential to improve food quality and safety and  
365 extend the shelf life in addition to communicating information to users about the changes in the  
366 product and environment, product history, and authenticity (Cheng et al., 2022; Gökşen et al., 2022;  
367 Soltani Firouz et al., 2021; Yousefi et al., 2019). For example the application of red cabbage  
368 anthocyanins in smart bio-based food packaging and biosensors was recently discussed in details  
369 by (Abedi-Firoozjah et al., 2022).

370         Electronic sensors, such as electronic nose (E-nose) and tongue (E-tongue) are being  
371 developed and used in different food-related applications, including food processing. E-nose  
372 simulates the human nose to detect and identify volatile organic compounds, distinguishing  
373 complex odours with an array of sensors. E-nose has also been effectively implemented in food  
374 spoilage detection, meat and fish freshness evaluation, shelf-life prediction, classification and  
375 discrimination, as well as adulteration (Chitrakar et al., 2021; Mohd Ali et al., 2020; Shi et al.,  
376 2018). Recently, E-nose combined with artificial neural network (ANN) was used to explore the  
377 relationship between different brewing processes and quality of vinegar (Li et al., 2022). The types  
378 of vinegar in different brewing processes were better distinguished, with correct classification rates  
379 of 98.6% and 96.7% for training and prediction, respectively, based on ANN modelling compared  
380 to physicochemical traditional parameters. Another important smart sensor is E-tongue that  
381 simulates the human tongue to perceive the five basic tastes (i.e., sweetness, acidity, bitterness,  
382 salinity, and umami), based on electrochemical reactions, such as voltammetry, potentiometry, and

383 conductometry (Chitrakar et al., 2021; Tan & Xu, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). The application of E-  
384 tongues in different food processing lines, such as fruits and vegetables, milk and milk products,  
385 fermented beverages, juices, among others, was reviewed by Wadehra & Patil (2016).

386 In recent years, miniaturization and portability have become important trends due to rapid  
387 technological advances in many scientific fields, particularly in biotechnology and nanotechnology  
388 (Chen & Yu, 2022; Rodriguez-Saona et al., 2020). For example, the development of user-friendly  
389 smartphone-based biosensors has been accelerated due to the increasing advances in smartphone  
390 technology (Amani et al., 2022; Roda et al., 2016; Yousefi et al., 2019).

### 391 *4.3. Applications of AI in food processing*

392 The use of AI in food processing industry is expected to have a compound annual growth  
393 rate (CAGR) of 45% between 2021 and 2026 (Mordor Intelligence, 2022). The main applications  
394 of AI in food processing include food sorting, quality control and safety compliance, maintenance,  
395 and optimizing production (Nayak et al., 2020). AI offers many possibilities to optimise and  
396 automate processes, cut costs, and reduce human error.

397 **Food sorting:** The most significant use of AI in food processing is in the sorting of food  
398 and products. Historically, the sorting processes have required considerable human labour that was  
399 monotonous and repetitive. AI connected to imaging technology uses algorithms to analyse various  
400 aspects of food and identify deficiencies. Sensors may examine colour, biological characteristics,  
401 and shape (length, width, and diameter, for instance). An example is the food sorters and peelers  
402 developed by TOMRA that demonstrated not only generous processing capacity, but increased  
403 food quality and safety (Kumar et al., 2021). Similarly, Kewpie Corporation in Japan has created

404 an AI-based TensorFlow machine that can identify anomalies in food coming from farms (Kumar  
405 et al., 2021).

406 **Food safety and quality:** Establishing traceability systems for the safety and quality of  
407 processed foods is a challenge due to the variety of raw materials, batch mixing and resource  
408 transformation. As such, statistical models are an important part of food processing (Qian et al.,  
409 2022). Traceability during food processing may be improved with AI employed for processing  
410 flow analysis, batch mixing simulations, and batch optimization modelling.

411 Artificial biomimetic technology (E-noses, E-tongue, and computer vision) are intelligent  
412 methods based on changes in smell, taste and appearance. Chemical sensors can accurately  
413 distinguish various food odours supported by an AI algorithm with access to a database of  
414 potentially dangerous odours. In a food-processing environment, E-noses could assist with the  
415 detection of contaminants. For instance, an E-nose coupled with chemometric techniques may be  
416 a reliable instrument for monitoring food drying processes (Sun et al., 2019).

417 Computer vision can also reveal nutritional information of food (Kakani et al., 2020). One  
418 application is the detection of pesticide residue in berries to measure the effectiveness  
419 of washing step during their processing (Wang et al., 2021). Imaging and sensing devices can also  
420 be used to identify food residue on equipment that has the potential to contaminate an entire product  
421 line. Self-Optimizing-Clean-In-Place (SOCIP) uses ultrasonic sensing and optical fluorescence  
422 imaging to detect the presence of food residues and microorganisms inside food processing  
423 equipment (Simeone et al., 2016). AI can also ensure employees have appropriate personal  
424 protective equipment, do temperature checks, and grade food cleanliness. Surveillance systems can

425 detect and track people as well as their movements and attire. Face- and object-recognition can  
426 identify if masks or hair coverings are being worn (Kumar et al., 2021).

427       **Maintenance:** AI can optimize technical parameters for higher output and greater  
428 reliability and technical availability of equipment using predictive maintenance, e.g., in wheat grain  
429 processing (Massaro et al., 2020). The ability to accurately determine time-to-repair and cost-to-  
430 repair is possible with AI via data categorization and the delivery of predictive alerts. Condition  
431 monitoring can determine the real-time state of equipment for improved effectiveness. Fixed  
432 maintenance intervals can be partially replaced with data-based predictions obtained from sensors.  
433 Predictive algorithms can identify issues in advance of serious complications requiring production  
434 to cease. Different types of maintenance that AI may play a role in are shown in **Table 1**.

435       **Optimizing production:** AI may be connected with other technologies such as IoT, remote  
436 sensing, BD analytics, machine learning, and blockchain to develop synergistic approaches to  
437 optimize advanced thermal and non-thermal processing technologies (Jambrak et al., 2021). AI can  
438 enable real-time monitoring instead of waiting for the end of a production cycle to identify issues.  
439 Optimizing resource consumption (e.g., energy and water) can immediately reduce production  
440 costs (Funes et al., 2015). Significant performance improvements can be achieved while reducing  
441 overall total cost and the need for continuous operator oversight (Lockey & Bhartia, 2019).

442       Examples of process optimization include a cheese manufacturer that used correlation  
443 models trained on historical data of 29 different processing variables to classify impacts on the  
444 final product moisture content. The result was a reliable increase of average moisture content  
445 within regulatory compliance limits, resulting in significant savings (Ziyinet Boz, 2021). Likewise,  
446 an AI approach using unstructured and correlated data for the analysis and management of

447 processes has also been employed with bacterial spoilage indicator data from 23 dairy processing  
448 facilities to identify post-pasteurization contamination factors (Murphy et al., 2021).

#### 449 ***4.4. Applications of IoT in food processing***

450 There is a wide range of industrial applications of IoT, and as such IoT is developing rapidly  
451 and receiving increasing attention. Indeed, the IoT market is expected to reach \$1.1 trillion in  
452 revenue by 2024 (GlobalData, 2021). The main advantages that IoT provides are related to  
453 monitoring processes and products. The large amounts of data collected by IoT systems can support  
454 decision making in industry.

455 IoT architecture is generally formed of 3-5 layers, depending on the classification used (see  
456 examples in **Figure 5**). These layers may include, for instance, sensing, networking, service and  
457 interface layers (Xu et al., 2014). Under this classification, the sensing layer contains the hardware,  
458 the networking layer permits data transfer, the service layer creates and manages services, and the  
459 interface layer allows interaction by users and other applications.

460 IoT has a lot of potential to improve operational performance in food supply chains. With  
461 this aim, Jagtap et al. (2021c) developed a framework to improve the resource efficiency of food  
462 manufacturing through the design and implementation of IoT-based tools. Such framework  
463 supports decision making for reduction of food waste generation and energy and water  
464 consumption. However, other food operations can also improve their transparency, traceability,  
465 monitoring, security, control, and overall sustainability performance via IoT, such as agricultural  
466 activities, resource management, transportation, processing, quality and safety monitoring, and  
467 waste generation (Bigliardi et al., 2022; Jagtap et al., 2021b). An overview of how IoT can support  
468 several food operations is presented below.

469           **Efficient food production:** The amount of data that IoT systems can collect and the speed  
470 to share such data allows the optimization of food operations, saving resources, and reducing waste  
471 generation. IoT, along with other Industry 4.0 technologies, show several advantages for non-  
472 thermal food processing, including energy savings, better environmental performance, lower  
473 manufacturing cost, higher level of health and safety during food processing, and better conditions  
474 for workers (Jambrak et al., 2021). Retrofitting existing industrial equipment to incorporate IoT  
475 technologies is a way to improve food operations and reduce inefficiencies (Panda et al., 2019).  
476 This may reduce the cost of installing new machineries that have sensors already incorporated. At  
477 the agricultural stage, IoT can be used for chemical (e.g. pesticides and fertilisers) control, crop  
478 monitoring, disease prevention, irrigation control, and soil management, among other uses  
479 (Navarro et al., 2020).

480           **Food safety:** Ensuring the safety of food products is paramount in the food sector.  
481 Improved monitoring, by interconnected sensors, helps detecting safety issues in food processing,  
482 and therefore reacting to them before the contamination spreads. IoT can therefore detect safety  
483 issues more rapidly than traditional methods, and share the corresponding information  
484 instantaneously to act without delay. This, in addition to reducing safety risks to a minimum,  
485 ensures production is minimally disrupted, saving the use of resources for a batch that would have  
486 to be discarded and wasted. For instance, Zhang et al. (2022) and Griesche and Baeumner (2020)  
487 explored the use of IoT in combination with biosensors to detect food contamination and release  
488 warnings that immediately block supply routes.

489           The food-safety parameters that researchers have monitored the most with IoT technologies  
490 are temperature, humidity, location, and gas presence (Bouzembrak et al., 2019; Dias et al., 2021).  
491 These authors also claimed that the most widely used communication technologies in this context



492 are ZigBee, Wi-Fi, radio-frequency identification, and Bluetooth low energy. However, the use of  
493 IoT systems in the field of food safety is still rare (Dias et al., 2021). This is mostly due to costs  
494 and know how required to set up and manage these systems.

495 **Food quality:** As with food safety, IoT can more quickly and precisely find issues related  
496 to food quality than with traditional methods. Sensors can identify processing errors or food  
497 products with defects and rapidly alert the factory staff to react before more defective products are  
498 produced. This is particularly important with the current high-quality standards for food products  
499 to meet stringent regulations. Bhatia and Manocha (2021) developed a framework for food quality  
500 assessment that acquires real-time data through IoT devices, communicates the collected data to  
501 fog nodes backed by the cloud platform, and analyses the data to determine the food quality.

502 There are several examples of IoT systems that support assessments of food quality. Popa  
503 et al. (2019) developed an IoT system to monitor gas, temperature and humidity of packed food  
504 products, being able to provide more useful quality information than with traditional quality control  
505 systems that focus on weight, volume, and colour and aspect inspection. Sarmah and Aruna (2020)  
506 used heterogeneous IoT devices, cloud services, and an Android application, along with a MQ4  
507 gas sensor to detect methane gas, to determine the freshness of food.

#### 508 ***4.5. Applications of BD in food processing***

509 BD is defined as large volumes of structured, unstructured or semi-structured data  
510 generated from various sources such as sensors, devices, video/audio, networks, log files,  
511 transactional applications, web, social media, etc. Nowadays, several manufacturers are analysing  
512 large sets of BD and using it to enhance their supply chain performance, and even the food sector

513 is not an exception to this change (Jagtap & Duong, 2019). BD in the food sector is still at initial  
514 stage but has attracted attention from both academic and industrial practitioners.

515 For instance, Jagtap and Duong (2019) demonstrated a case study within a food beverage  
516 company where these authors used BD to reduce costs and time for new food product development  
517 without affecting taste of the product at the same level of quality than competitor's products. BD  
518 is currently being deployed in the food sector for improving transparency and traceability, thereby  
519 contributing to sustainable development (Hader et al., 2022; Jagtap et al., 2021a). Some researchers  
520 applied BD within food manufacturing to obtain demand and yield forecast (Magnin, 2016).  
521 Another study explored the application of BD in order to reduce food waste (Annosi et al., 2021),  
522 while others studied its application in food logistics (Jagtap et al., 2021a). **Figure 6** shows the  
523 application of BD in the food sector.

524 **Food safety:** BD technologies are being implemented in the food production that analyse  
525 the data generated from smartphones, social media, IoT, and multimedia. Moreover, BD can be  
526 used to provide transparency, traceability, and predictive insights of various activities. It helps in  
527 making real-time decisions as well as developing the monitoring and sampling strategies for safety  
528 evaluation (Jin et al., 2020). BD analytics technology can provide greater predictability to food  
529 production operations for the occurrence of foodborne diseases and thwart a potential outbreak in  
530 its early stages. Furthermore, this data allows the identification and verification of certain practices  
531 or actions that are robust in preventing outbreaks. Similarly, accurate prediction of food products  
532 shelf life would be easier as it could be used to determine exact spoilage of product (Astill et al.,  
533 2019).

534           **Demand forecasting:** BD can support food production operations with new abilities such  
535 as demand forecasting. For instance, IBM supported bakeries by using BD to analyse weather data  
536 to estimate the demand of certain products based on amount of sunshine, temperature, and  
537 consumer preference (Alicke et al., 2016). This also leads to optimised food operations, less food  
538 wastage, better planning, and improved resource utilisation.

539           **Food waste:** Data captured from social media such as Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, etc.  
540 can be analysed using BD to formulate policies, which will ultimately reduce food waste. BD can  
541 be utilised to uncover previously unknown and valuable insights to reduce waste. For instance,  
542 retailers are capitalising BD for waste minimisation using customer complaints made in retail stores  
543 (Mishra et al., 2017).

544           **Efficient production:** Tzounis et al. (2017) proposed that application of BD can automate  
545 processes, predict situations, and improve food production activities in real-time. It can act as a  
546 decision-making tool to provide suggestions, early warnings, and control situations. It can help in  
547 maintaining and preserving product quality. For instance, the taste of a product may vary depending  
548 on various factors; however, BD analytics can clarify these changes and suggest improvement  
549 measures. BD can delve into historical production parameters and identify the optimal settings for  
550 a production line. Also, it can reduce the time and cost of launching a new product with minimum  
551 impact on product facilities or logistics (Jagtap & Duong, 2019).

## 552 **5. Novel Food Processing Technologies**

553           The existing conventional food technologies used to ensure microbiological safety of foods  
554 and inactivate enzymes, such as sterilization, pasteurization, cooking and drying, result often in  
555 degradation of bioactive thermolabile vitamins and polyphenols, as well as oxidation of

556 polyunsaturated fatty acids. At the same time, the growing consumer and market demand for  
557 healthier and more nutritious foods that are lightly processed, of high quality and ‘fresh-like’  
558 characteristics has resulted in the emergence and further development of non-thermal technologies,  
559 such as High hydrostatic pressure (HPP), Pulsed electric field (PEF), Ultrasound (US), and Cold  
560 plasma (CP). Most of these techniques exert minimal or no effect on essential nutrients and sensory  
561 characteristics of food products. These technologies have a potential to partially, or completely,  
562 replace the well-known and largely used conventional food processing and preservation  
563 technologies (Denoya et al., 2021; Echegary et al., 2022; Hassoun et al., 2020; Jadhav et al., 2021;  
564 Sruthi et al., 2022).

565 In recent years, new non-thermal food processing technologies have emerged (**Figure 3f**).  
566 These processing technologies are widely studied due to the potential to provide high-quality and  
567 safe foods with enhanced nutritional and health-promoting properties. In addition, these green  
568 techniques enable sustainable food production with reduced energy costs and environmental impact  
569 (Chakka et al., 2021; Pérez-Santaescolastica et al., 2021; Priyadarshini et al., 2019).

570 **HHP** is a non-thermal, cold pasteurization technique involving the use of a liquid (normally  
571 water) as a medium to transmit the desired pressure (in the range of 300–600MPa) to a product in  
572 a temperature range from 0 °C to 90 °C. The procedure involves sealing a food product in its final  
573 packaging followed by submerging in cold or room temperature water within an enclosed vessel  
574 (Chakka et al., 2021; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2019; Pérez-Lamela et al., 2021). HHP can  
575 successfully inactivate microorganisms by interrupting their cellular function leading to enhanced  
576 safety and extended shelf life of foods. Therefore, this technology is mostly used for inactivation  
577 of enzymes and pathogenic and spoilage microorganisms including yeasts, moulds, and Gram-  
578 positive and Gram-negative bacteria in a wide range of food products, including fresh, processed

579 and canned fruits and vegetables, juices, dairy, meat and seafood (Nie et al., 2022; Pérez-Lamela  
580 et al., 2021; Režek Jambrak et al., 2018).

581 For example, the application of HPP treatment of 200 and 300 MPa was found to be  
582 efficient in reducing microbial growth in lean (haddock) and fatty (mackerel) fishes (Cropotova et  
583 al., 2020). In another study, it was reported that HPP has the potential to restrict the degradation of  
584 phenolic acids and flavonoids and maintain aroma substances of Mandarin (*Citrus unshiu*) juice  
585 better than thermal pasteurization (Cheng et al., 2020). Besides the cold pasteurization effect, the  
586 use of HHP delays the loss of essential nutrients and undesirable changes of sensory parameters,  
587 such as texture, appearance, colour, flavour, and aroma of foods associated with microbial or  
588 enzymatic decay (Fernandez et al., 2019). The application of HHP could be also used as a method  
589 to enhance the extraction of valuable compounds such as vitamins, polyphenols, proteins, lipids,  
590 carbohydrates, and minerals from raw material (Ali et al., 2021).

591 **PEF** is another emerging non-thermal technology, which has gained an increasing interest  
592 from the food professionals due to its speed (operates in milliseconds) and wide range of  
593 applications. A typical PEF treatment involves the application of short-time electric pulses (1–100  
594  $\mu$ s) in different ranges of electric field intensities to a food product placed between two electrodes,  
595 for a very short duration of time, resulting in reversible and irreversible permeabilization of cell  
596 membranes (Arshad et al., 2020; Denoya et al., 2021; Jadhav et al., 2021). Permeabilization of  
597 plant cells is normally reversible and occurs under low PEF intensities, resulting in release of  
598 intracellular compounds due to electroporation of the cell membrane. This procedure is currently  
599 applied to enhance the extractability of valuable compounds from different agri-food and animal-  
600 based raw materials. Moderate intensities lead to irreversible permeabilization of both plant and  
601 animal cells, while high intensities cause irreversible permeabilization of microbial cells (Ali et al.,  
602 2021; Arshad et al., 2020; Chakka et al., 2021; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2019).

603 Therefore, the application of high PEF intensities helps to inactivate or inhibit proteolytic  
604 and degradative enzymes, spoilage bacteria and other microorganisms in food products, providing  
605 safety and maintaining freshness and high quality of food. PEF technology is considered a reliable  
606 emerging technology able to ensure a significant microbial inactivation in liquid and semi-liquid  
607 foods such as juices, purees, beverages and smoothies with a minor impact on nutritional value,  
608 physicochemical quality parameters and number of health-beneficial compounds due to low  
609 treatment temperature (Arshad et al., 2020; Cropotova et al., 2021; Režek Jambrak et al., 2018).  
610 Similarly to HHP, PEF can also be used for continuous extraction to enhance the recovery of  
611 valuable and bioactive compounds from biological tissue (Ali et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2019).

612 However, the antimicrobial effect of PEF depends on both extrinsic factors, such as  
613 intensity of electric field, pulse width, duration of treatment, electrical conductivity and pH, and  
614 intrinsic factors of microorganisms, such as microbial load, size, type, and growth stage and rate  
615 (Zhao et al., 2019). This technology needs some refinement by conducting more economic and  
616 engineering studies before it is ready for large scale industrial applications (Chakka et al., 2021;  
617 Hernández-Hernández et al., 2019).

618 **US** is also a promising non-thermal technology referring to sound waves that exceeds the  
619 audible frequency range, i.e. greater than 20 kHz. The main principle of ultrasound is reflection  
620 and scattering of acoustic waves originated from molecular movements oscillating in a propagation  
621 medium and generating compressions and decompressions, which further result in an increase in  
622 mass transfer, turbulence, and production of energy (Bhargava et al., 2021b; Gallo et al., 2018).

623 Based on the frequency and intensity, ultrasound waves can be divided into two categories:  
624 low-energy ultrasound characterized by high frequency (5–10 MHz) and low intensity ( $<1 \text{ W/cm}^2$ )  
625 and high-energy ultrasound, having low frequency (20–100 kHz) and high intensity ( $>1 \text{ W/cm}^2$ ).  
626 High intensity (from 10 to 1000  $\text{W/cm}^2$ ) and low-frequency (from 20 to 100 kHz) ultrasound is

627 considered disruptive due to detrimental influence on the physical (including structure and  
628 mechanical properties), physicochemical and biochemical characteristics of biological materials,  
629 in contrast to low-energy ultrasonic waves (Bhargava et al., 2021b; Gallo et al., 2018; Zhao et al.,  
630 2019).

631 Because the cavitation produced by high-intensity US, the technology is being applied in  
632 the food industry to inactivate degradative enzymes, eliminate spoilage microorganisms and  
633 improve the recovery of valuable compounds from a vast variety of foodstuffs. US can also be used  
634 to improve many processing operations, such as emulsification and foaming, freezing and thawing,  
635 concentration, drying, tenderization, as well as control and modification of microstructure and  
636 textural properties of fatty and protein-rich foods (Ali et al., 2021; Bhargava et al., 2021; Gallo et  
637 al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019).

638 **CP** has gained popularity in recent years as an alternative food processing technique that  
639 can affect the quality attributes of food during treatment and storage, as well as extend food shelf  
640 life based on microbial and enzyme inactivation (Pankaj et al., 2018; Sruthi et al., 2022). Plasma  
641 may be generated by any kind of energy able to ionize the gases, such as thermal, electrical, light  
642 energy, radioactive, and X-ray electromagnetic radiation (Denoya et al., 2021; Pankaj et al., 2018).  
643 The mechanism of action of CP on microorganisms can be explained by the impact of reactive  
644 species on the microbial cell and damage caused by UV on cellular components and DNA strand  
645 break (Hernández-Hernández et al., 2019; Jadhav et al., 2021). The use of CP for microbial  
646 decontamination has been extensively researched. For example, CP treatment was found to be  
647 effective for postharvest sterilization and preservation of blueberry (Ji et al., 2020). In another  
648 study, the application of CP under various processing conditions was investigated on carrot discs,  
649 and the results showed a decreased microbial growth in the samples treated at 100 kV for 5 min  
650 (Mahnot et al., 2020).

651           However, there were found many negative effects during treatment of foods due to direct  
652 contact between the food and the CP. For example, the ionization produced by CP generates UV  
653 irradiation, which increases the content of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Therefore, despite the  
654 proven benefits of the application of CP for microbial inactivation in food products, the negative  
655 aspects related to the generation of ROS hinder its regulatory approval in the food industry. Other  
656 challenges include costs, complexity of equipment and processing parameters, safety of the gases  
657 used, and plasma-matrix interactions (Denoya et al., 2021; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2019;  
658 Sruthi et al., 2022).

659           Despite the aforementioned advantages of non-thermal processing, there are still some  
660 issues related to consumer acceptance, safety, limited packaging options, and expensive equipment  
661 (Chakka et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2019). At the present time, most of these technologies are applied  
662 either on a lab-scale or pilot scale, while a few industrial applications have been seen.

663           Some relevant examples from studies supporting the reduced environmental impact of  
664 emerging technologies are the pasteurization of orange juice with HPP (Cacace et al., 2020), high-  
665 pressure homogenization of milk (Valsasina et al., 2017), ultrasound-assisted freeze-drying of  
666 apple, carrot, and eggplant (Merone et al., 2020), and PEF pre-treatment for the maceration stage  
667 in olive oil and winemaking in relation to conventional processes (Ferreira et al., 2019). However,  
668 in terms of processing cost, the use of ultrasound as pre-treatment on freeze-dried apple, carrot,  
669 and eggplant was associated with a reduction of 70% in energy consumption in relation to non-  
670 sonicated freeze-dried samples (Merone et al., 2020). However, contrasting outcomes in the  
671 literature about the economic feasibility among different non-thermal technologies is dependent of  
672 food and technology (Aganovic et al., 2017; Cacace et al., 2020), which indicates the necessity of  
673 development in the emerging technologies per se.



674 The progression of processing technologies aligned with these factors is a process that has  
675 emerged in recent decades (Chemat et al., 2020). This progressing towards global levels as  
676 companies producing the equipment for industrial applications: Hiperbaric based in Spain  
677 producing HPP equipment (Hiperbaric, 2021), ELEA producing PEF systems in Germany (ELEA,  
678 2022), Ultratecno producing US systems in Spain (Ultratecno, 2019), and Adtec producing CP  
679 equipment in Japan (Adtec Plasma Technology, 2020).

680 Consequently, the advances in food science generated a parallel development of food  
681 processing technologies to the technologies that characterize Industry 4.0 per se (HPP vs. IoT, for  
682 instance). Since each one of emerging food processing technologies and 4.0 Industry technologies  
683 has its own characteristics and applications (indicated in previous sections), seems reasonable to  
684 consider that the development of a common area of application between them is necessary to find  
685 a harmonious and concurrent evolution. The mutual benefits for food processing from this  
686 combination are expected to improve food quality, safety, alignment with consumer preferences  
687 and tendencies.

## 688 **6. Conclusions and future perspectives**

689 There is a high demand for digitalization and automation of various processing operations  
690 in the food industry. Especially in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is evident that the  
691 time has come to enhance digitalization and automation in the food sector, including food  
692 processing, using recent advances and innovations of the fourth industrial revolution (Industry 4.0).  
693 In this work, we explored “Food Processing 4.0” concept, utility and effectiveness referring to  
694 processing food products in the modern digital era using robotics, smart sensors, AI, IoT, and BD,  
695 among other Industry 4.0 technologies. The main advantages of applying the concept of Food

696 processing 4.0 are increased food quality and safety and reduced food waste and impact on the  
697 environment, contributing to the green shift in the food processing sector.

698 Various types of robots are increasingly being deployed in the food industry. The need for  
699 automation and robotics has increased in the last two years with the outbreak of COVID-19  
700 pandemic. Many challenges (such as variability in size and shape of foods) stand in the way of  
701 automated applications in food processing, preventing widespread adoption of robots. However,  
702 recent technological advances in this field, including the design of advanced grippers, have enabled  
703 to handle delicate or irregularly shaped food products. Different smart sensors (e.g., spectroscopic-  
704 based sensors and electronic sensors) have been developed to be used in various applications. For  
705 example, in the food packaging, the use of smart sensors has the potential to improve food quality  
706 and safety and communicate useful information to consumers. Recent trends of miniaturization and  
707 portability, as well as scientific advances in certain fields, such as nanobiotechnology have led to  
708 the development of efficient and cheap smartphone-based sensors.

709 AI is one of the most powerful tools that can be used to solve complex problems and  
710 perform various tasks (such as food sorting, quality and safety check, and process optimization) in  
711 the food processing, accelerating the move toward an intelligent food processing. Although AI has  
712 already transformed some areas of manufacturing and food processing environments, it is expected  
713 that more AI-based applications will be introduced in many more areas in the near future.

714 Slowly, but surely, the food processing industry is getting acquainted with IoT and other  
715 related technologies. Food quality, safety and logistics can be enhanced and food waste and food  
716 production cost can be reduced by the implementation of IoT-based technologies. Based on this  
717 literature review, it was possible to observe a growth trend in the number of publications related to

718 IoT in food processing. IoT provides opportunities to improve food processing through  
719 strengthening supply chain transparency by real-time monitoring and tracking production,  
720 distribution, and storage of food products. IoT technology could be a game-changer for future food  
721 processing and other food industry sectors once technical, operational, financial, and other related  
722 challenges are met.

723 Another Food Processing 4.0 enabler that was discussed in this review is BD that is paving  
724 its way to revolutionize the food industry. Implementing data analytics tools in the food industry  
725 offers many benefits, including among others, food safety, demand forecasting, real-time decision  
726 making, and food waste management. However, some barriers, related to lack of system standards,  
727 limited shared data, data security, and legal issues, are still hampering the full exploitation of BD  
728 in the food production.

729 Innovative food processing technologies (e.g., HPP, PEF, etc.) are increasingly adopted in  
730 the food industry given their desirable features (such as energy efficiency, and time and resource  
731 saving) that are fully aligned with Industry 4.0 principles. These emerging technologies are of  
732 paramount importance to meet consumer's demands for minimally-processed food with high  
733 nutritional and sensory quality. However, many factors (including among others, consumer  
734 acceptance, benefits and risk, high initial investments, and regulatory frameworks) that are  
735 impacting the adoption of these novel technologies by food processing industry, need to be  
736 considered and thoroughly analysed.

737 In short, more research focusing on a wider utilization of Industry 4.0 innovations and  
738 aligned with emerging food processing technologies is expected in the near future, allowing to  
739 overcome current shortcomings, thus supporting the transition to a smarter and more sustainable

740 food processing. Although Food Processing 4.0 enablers bring great opportunities and significant  
741 improvements to the food industry, they also create challenges that need to be tackled.

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**Table 1.** Optimizing maintenance systems and processes supported by AI (adapted from Uptake, (2018)).

	<b>Total Productive Maintenance (TPM)</b>	<b>Planned Preventive Maintenance (PPM) or Planned Maintenance (PM)</b>	<b>Predictive Maintenance</b>
<i>Description</i>	A holistic system resulting in fewer breakdowns, less downtime, increased production and improved safety	A part of TPM that is scheduled by time or events necessitating repairs	Uses high-frequency raw data readings, machine learning, historical performance data and contextual data to draw attention to condition-based maintenance needs
<i>Data Used</i>	Historical maintenance data for lower repair budgets	Historical maintenance data for lower repair budgets	Historical maintenance data, sensor data and contextual information like weather and geographic data for real-time, condition-based alerts
<i>The role of AI</i>	Enables Autonomous Maintenance: equipment maintenance is carried out by the machine operators	Helps businesses aggregate and interpret data faster	Interprets large amounts of data into meaningful intelligence and actionable insights possibly using edge computing

## Captions to Figures

**Figure 1.** Number of publications and citations per year on application of Industry 4.0 in the food processing industry over the last decade (search query was performed in May 2022). The following keyword search query was used in Scopus: TITLE-ABS-KEY (Fourth industrial revolution) OR (Industry 4.0) AND (Food processing) OR (Food process).

**Figure 2.** The four industrial revolutions and the main enabling technologies

**Figure 3.** Number of publications and citations reporting on the application of robotics (a), smart sensors (b), Artificial Intelligence (c), The Internet of Things (d), Big Data (e), and emerging technologies (f) in the food industry during the last decade (search query was performed in May 2022). The following keywords search query were used in Scopus: (a) TITLE-ABS-KEY (Robotics) OR (Robots) AND (Food industry), (b) TITLE-ABS-KEY (Smart sensors) OR (Nanosensors), OR (Biosensors) AND (Food industry), (c) TITLE-ABS-KEY (Artificial Intelligence) AND (Food industry), (d) TITLE-ABS-KEY (Internet of Things) OR (IoT) AND (Food industry), (e) TITLE-ABS-KEY (Big Data) AND (Food industry), and (f) TITLE-ABS-KEY (Emerging processing technologies) OR (Nonthermal processing) AND (Food industry) (f).

**Figure 4.** Food Processing 4.0 elements

**Figure 5.** Four layers of an IoT architecture

**Figure 6.** Application of Big Data (BD) in the food processing

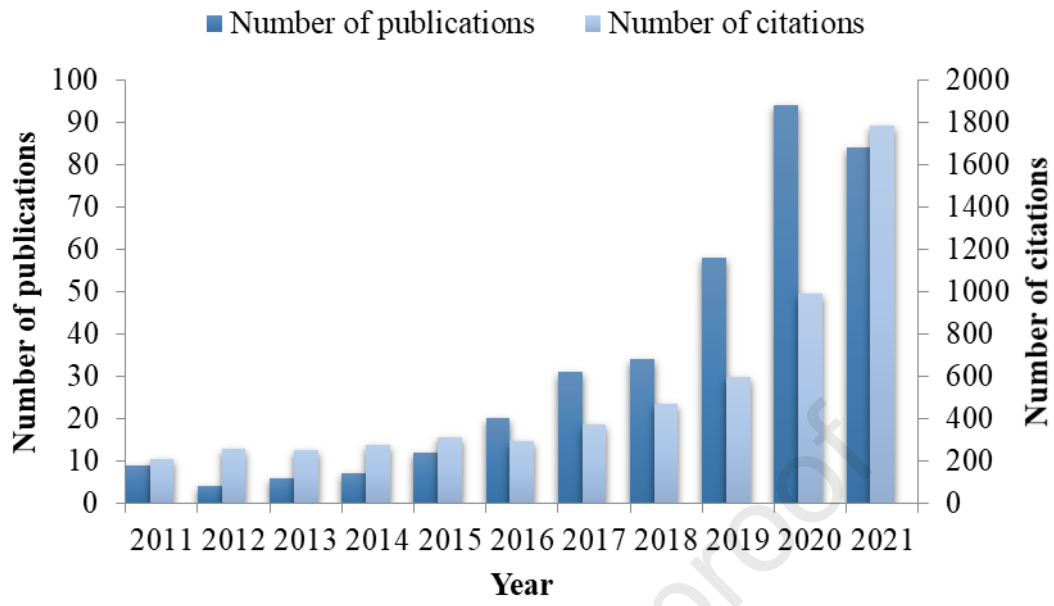
**Figure 1.**



Figure 2.

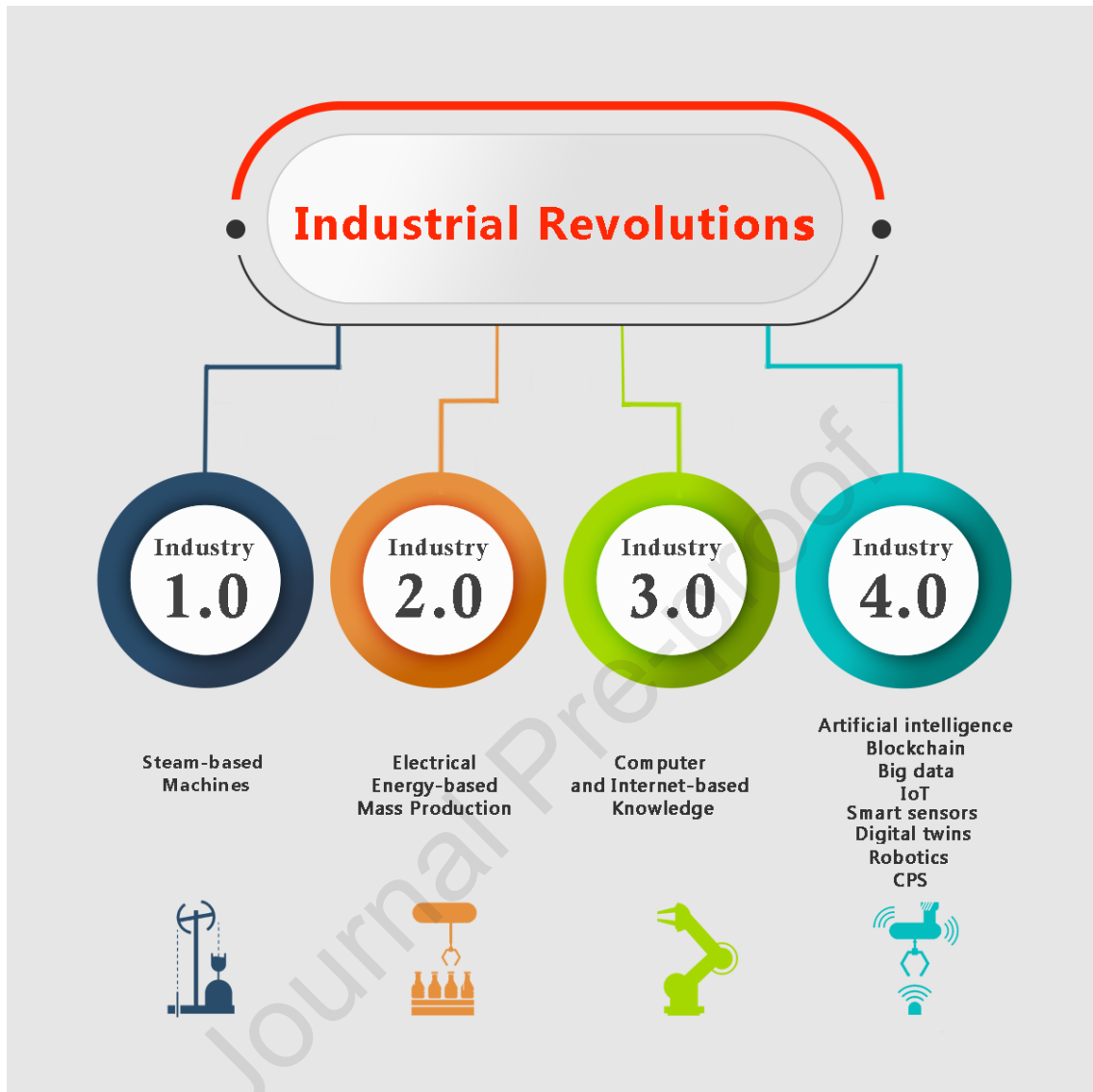


Figure 3.

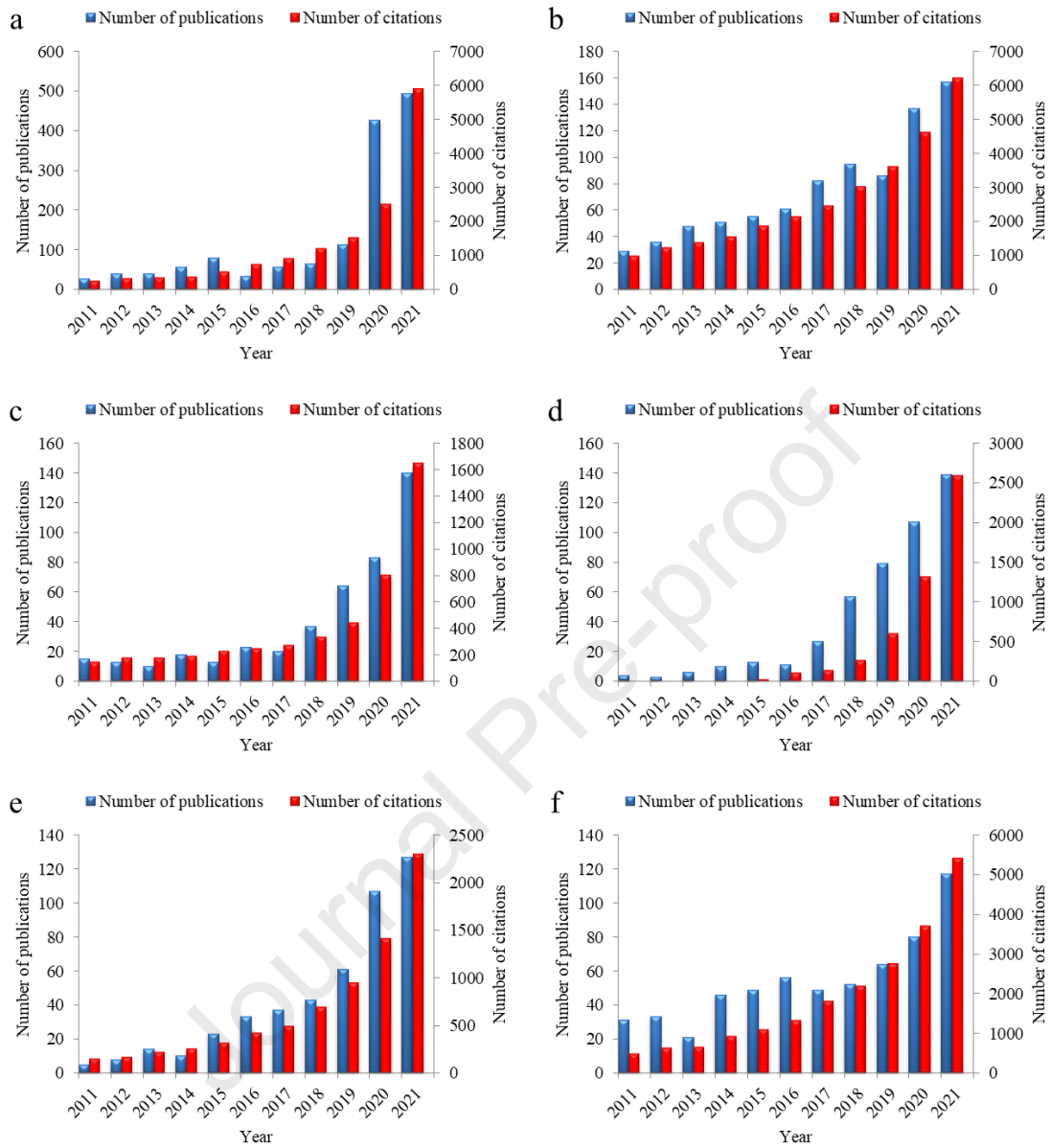
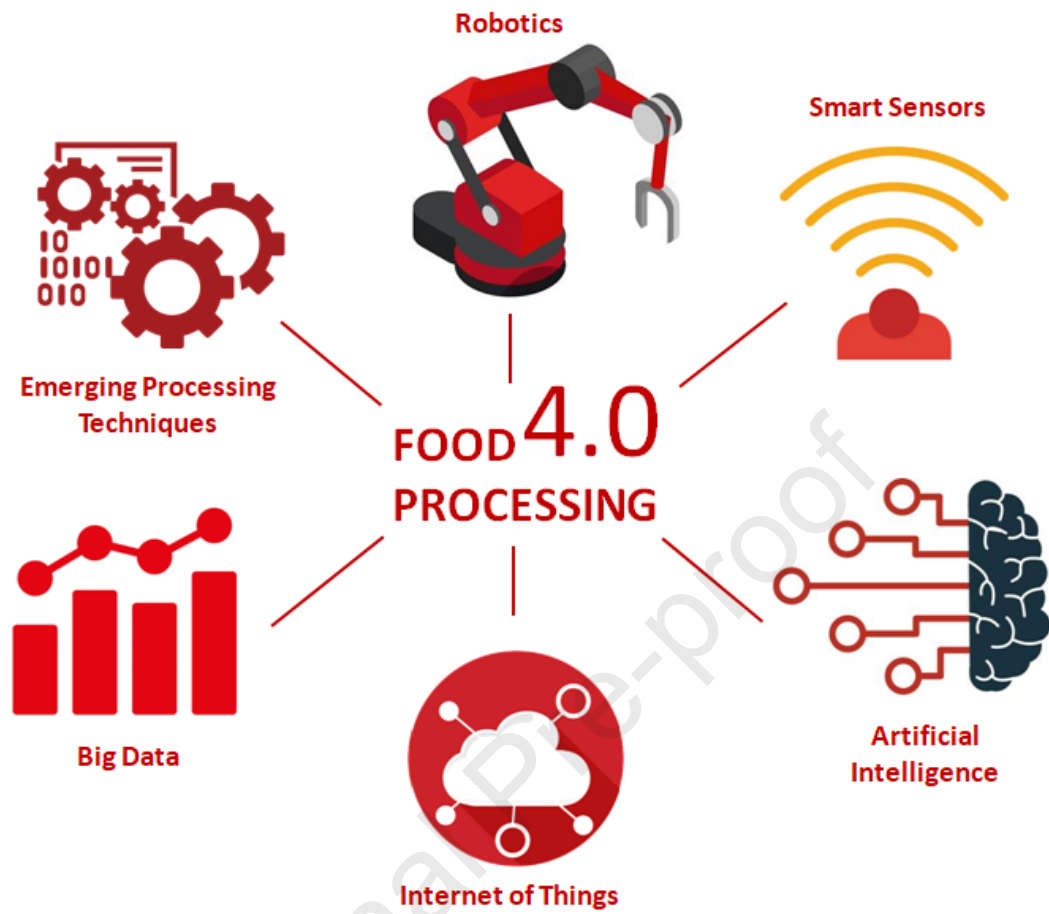
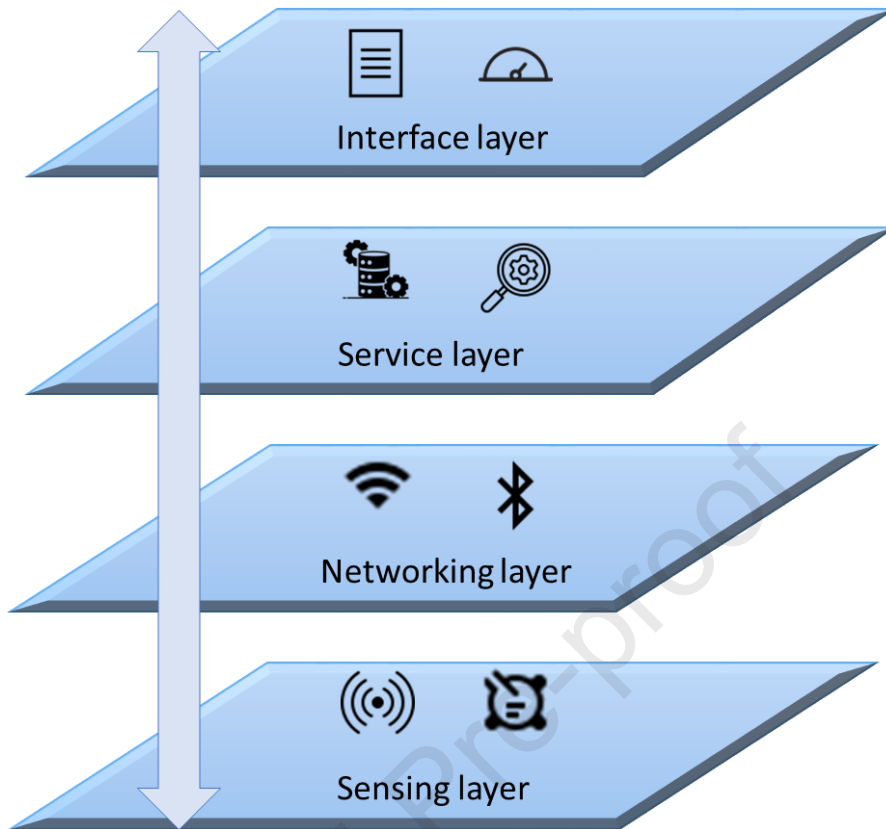


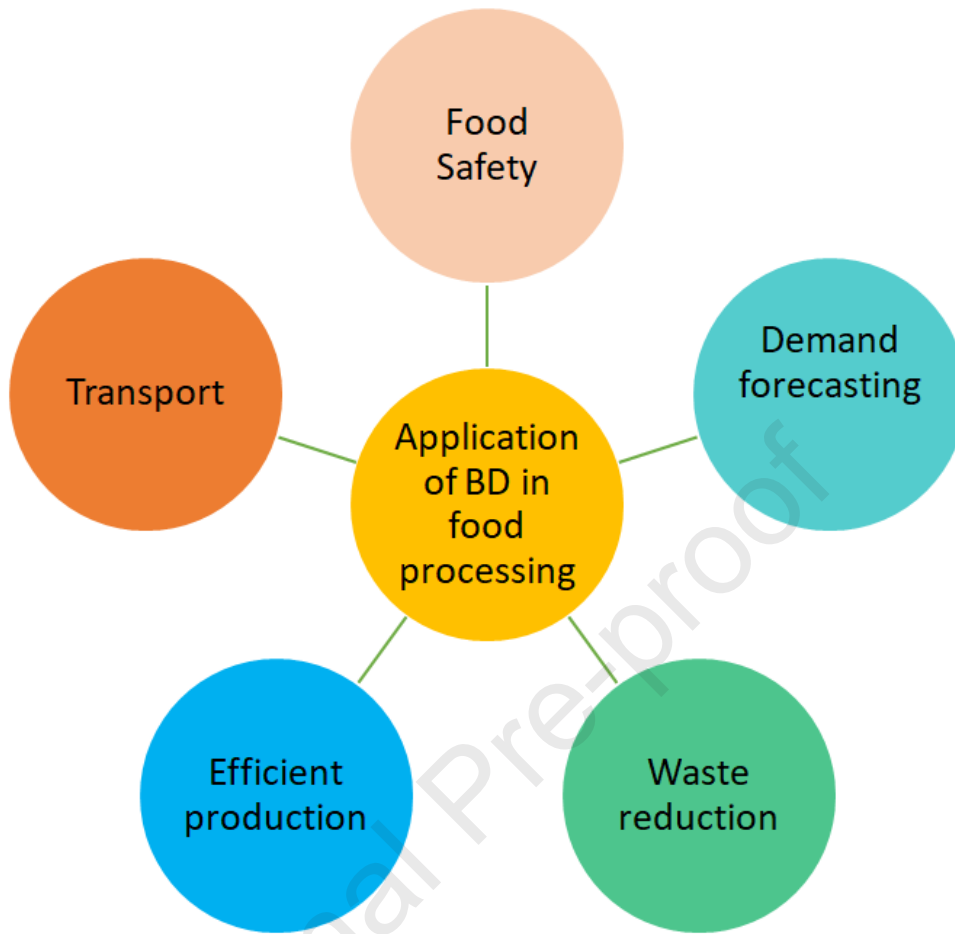
Figure 4.



**Figure 5.**



**Figure 6.**



**Declaration of Interest form**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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