

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

2 **Industry 4.0 technologies**

3 **Abdo Hassoun^{a,b,*}, Abderrahmane Aït-Kaddour^c, Adnan M. Abu-**

4 **Mahfouz^{d,e}, Nikheel Bhojraj Rathod^f, Farah Bader^g, Francisco J. Barba^h,**

5 **Alessandra Biancolilloⁱ, Janna Crotova^j, Charis M. Galanakis^{k,l}, Anet**

6 **Režek Jambrak^m, José M. Lorenzo^{n,o}, Ingrid Måge^p, Fatih Ozogul^q, Joe**

7 **Regenstein^r**

8 ^a Sustainable AgriFoodtech Innovation & Research (SAFIR), 62000 Arras, France

9 ^b Syrian Academic Expertise (SAE), 27200 Gaziantep, Turkey

10 ^c Université Clermont Auvergne, INRAE, VetAgro Sup, UMRP, 15000 Aurillac, France

11 ^d Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, Pretoria, South Africa

12 ^e Department of Electrical & Electronic Engineering Science, University of Johannesburg,
13 Johannesburg 2006, South Africa

14 ^f Department of Post-Harvest Management of Meat, Poultry and Fish, Post-Graduate Institute
15 of Post-Harvest Management, Roha, Raigad, Maharashtra 402 116, India

16 ^g Saudi Goody Products Marketing Company Ltd. Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

17 ^h Nutrition and Bromatology Area, Department of Preventive Medicine and Public Health,
18 Food Science, Toxicology and Forensic Medicine, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of
19 Valencia, València, 46100 Spain

20 ⁱ Department of Physical and Chemical Sciences, University of L'Aquila, 67100, Coppito,
21 L'Aquila, Italy

22 ^j Department of Biological Sciences in Ålesund, Norwegian University of Science and
23 Technology, Ålesund, Norway

24 ^k Research & Innovation Department, Galanakis Laboratories, Chania, Greece

25 ^l Food Waste Recovery Group, ISEKI Food Association, Vienna, Austria

26 ^m Faculty of Food Technology and Biotechnology, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia

27 ⁿ Centro Tecnológico de la Carne de Galicia, San Cibrao das Viñas, 32900 Ourense, Spain

28 ^o Área de Tecnología de los Alimentos, Facultad de Ciencias de Ourense, Universidad de Vigo,
29 32004 Ourense, Spain

30 ^p Nofima - Norwegian Institute of Food, Fisheries and Aquaculture Research, Ås, Norway

31 ^q Department of Seafood Processing Technology, Faculty of Fisheries, Cukurova University,
32 Adana, Turkey

33 ^r Department of Food Science, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, 14853-7201, USA

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36 * Corresponding author. E-mail addresses: a.hassoun@saf-ir.com (A. Hassoun).

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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 since
43 2015, being a significant driver for sustainable development and a successful catalyst to tackle
44 critical global challenges. This review paper summarizes the **most relevant food** Industry 4.0
45 technologies **including, among others, digital technologies (e.g., artificial intelligence, big data**
46 **analytics**, Internet of Things, and blockchain) and emerging technologies (e.g., **smart** sensors,
47 robotics, **digital twins, and cyber-physical systems**). Moreover, insights into the new food
48 trends **(such as 3D printed foods) that have emerged as a result of the Industry 4.0 technological**
49 **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, paving**
56 **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 **1. Introduction**

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

72 The fourth industrial revolution or Industry 4.0 (or even 4IR as it is abbreviated) has been
73 gaining momentum in agricultural and industrial sectors, including the food industry.
74 Considering the Scopus database, the number of published papers dealing with the Food
75 Industry 4.0 **enabling technologies has increased from only 2 publications in 2015 to more than**
76 **50 in 2021 (Figure 1)**. A sharp increase in the number of citations has also been observed for
77 the same time period. This may be explained by the increased awareness of the potential of
78 Industry 4.0 technologies and digital solutions to contribute to food systems' environmental
79 sustainability. Additionally, the ongoing COVID-19 crisis has significantly accelerated the
80 adoption of digital technologies throughout the entire food supply chain (Bakalis et al. 2020;
81 **Amentae & Gebresenbet 2021**). Industry 4.0 embraces advanced physical, digital, and
82 biological technologies (Maynard 2015; Massabni & Da Silva 2019; Chapman et al. 2021). It
83 includes, but is not limited to, artificial intelligence, machine learning, big data, **the Cloud**, the

84 Internet of Thing (IoT), blockchain, smart sensors, robotics, cybersecurity, and digital twins
85 and cyber-physical systems (CPS) (Bai et al., 2020; Galanakis et al., 2021; Jagtap et al., 2021;
86 Jambrak et al., 2021; Konur et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021).

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

105 The fourth industrial revolution era has been characterized by highly autonomous intelligent
106 systems in industrial production processes due to the implantation of cutting-edge technologies,
107 such as robotics and smart sensors at all stages of the supply chain. Robotics and autonomous
108 systems have been developing as promising technologies to improve sustainable development

109 and increase the quality, productivity, and efficiency of the food supply chain (Khan et al. 2018;
110 Bader & Rahimifard 2020; Duong et al. 2020; Ren et al. 2022). Smart sensors are increasingly
111 used in the food industry in various production equipment to smartly control, monitor, and
112 optimize multiple manufacturing tasks in real-time, along with improving traceability and food
113 quality (McVey et al. 2021; Ren et al. 2022). For example, optical sensors based on
114 spectroscopy have been increasingly applied to detect changes in the frequency of
115 electromagnetic radiation to monitor food quality, authenticity, or food processing (Hassoun,
116 Måge, et al. 2020; Hassoun, Gudjónsdóttir, et al. 2020; Hassoun et al. 2020; Krause et al. 2021).

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

128 Current review papers about Industry 4.0 in the food industry are limited, although some recent
129 publications have tackled this broad subject at different points in the food system. For example,
130 Jambrak et al. (2021) reviewed some of the Industry 4.0 platforms (such as AI, big data, and
131 smart sensors), with the main focus being placed on non-thermal food processing technologies.
132 A short overview of particular Industry 4.0 technologies in the food industry has also been
133 done by Chapman et al. (2021). Smart digital technologies and IoT were suggested as tools to

134 minimize food losses in the postharvest supply chain for fruits and vegetables (Onwude et al.
135 2020). In another review paper, blockchain was recently suggested as a promising solution to
136 improve traceability and consumer trust, and to reduce food waste and food loss along the
137 whole food supply chain (Kayikci et al. 2020).

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

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

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

153 The first industrial revolution (18th – early 19th century) was characterized by the first changes
154 towards the intensification of working activities using the invention and upgrade in machinery
155 powered by steam engines. The factories were organized to accommodate more workers and
156 machines, and produce more in a shorter period. During this period, the textile, coal, and iron
157 sectors intensified as well as the chemical sector with the British as the pioneers. The expansion

158 of the first industrial revolution within Europe happened gradually and slowly after the turn of
159 the 19th century when Belgian, French and German industries were gradually developed
160 (Koetsier 2019). The development of gas lighting for public illumination had a significant
161 effect on society during this period (Koetsier 2019). It was also the beginning of the
162 transformation of some food products from household to factory-based manufacturing.

163 The progression of mechanization, and the intensification and expansion of working activities
164 derived from the first industrial revolution led to the second industrial revolution (19th – early
165 20th century). During this period, the machine tool industry was consolidated, and the internal
166 combustion engine was developed, which led to fundamental advances in transportation and
167 the birth of the automobile industry (Zhang & Yang, 2020). At the industrial level, the use of
168 conveyors accelerated processes, which increased efficiency and industrial capacity.
169 Innovations in the development and use of new materials (such as alloys, lighter metals, and
170 synthetic plastics) also occurred with those technological advances. In addition, electricity
171 received more attention and replaced steam-powered machines for industrial activities and
172 illumination (Zhang & Yang, 2020). The industry progress was also influenced by political
173 views and decisions of that period, which, for example, led to significant changes in military
174 technology, especially during World War I. After the devastating period of the two world wars,
175 the focus of industrial activity gradually shifted. As a result, an economic boom occurred,
176 which was a turning point for the food industry. Aiming to provide convenient and tasty food
177 products became the new paradigm for food production (Silva et al. 2018).

178 The third industrial revolution (also known as the digital revolution, from the second half of
179 the 20th century – early 21st century) consisted in a transition from analogue to digital electronic
180 systems. Computers and the internet were significant technological advances, which
181 accelerated communications and facilitated connections around the world. In addition,
182 production became automated using electronic systems. During this period, the development

183 and use of nuclear energy became more important to supply the increasing demand from
184 industrial, public, and household consumers (Xu et al., 2018).

185 The current and fourth industrial revolution or Industry 4.0 (early 21st century) is marked by
186 high technological developments primarily centered on the internet and full automation, and
187 integrated with digital technologies. This ongoing revolution combines physical, digital, and
188 biological components and allows for the creation of communication and connectivity between
189 all industry stakeholders in real-time (Maynard 2015; Lee et al. 2015; Lu 2017a; Sukhodolov
190 2019). The automation of mass production is being optimized to include customization and
191 individual customer requests. The main aspects attributed to the development of Industry 4.0
192 are big data, ML, AI, smart sensors, blockchain, cybersecurity, IoT, robotics, digital twins and
193 CPS, among others (Vaidya et al. 2018; Lennon Olsen & Tomlin 2019; Oláh et al. 2020; Misra
194 et al. 2020; Liu et al. 2021). These advanced digital and other emerging technologies have, on
195 the one hand, allowed increased productivity and operational efficiency in the food industry,
196 but on the other hand, they have led to some disruptions in the food supply chain and negative
197 impacts on environmental sustainability (Oláh et al. 2020; Bai et al. 2020; Galanakis 2021;
198 Galanakis et al. 2021). The most relevant Industry 4.0 technologies from the food industry
199 perspective will be discussed in more detail in the following sections. However, it should be
200 stressed that these Industry 4.0 elements could be referred to differently in the literature, mainly
201 due to their application in various fields. For example, some authors claim that IoT, and
202 information and communication technologies (ICT) are the backbone of the Industry 4.0 in the
203 agricultural fields (Demestichas et al. 2020). Others referred to digitalization including
204 blockchain, IoT, big data, and AI as the main Industry 4.0 enablers in the management of the
205 agro-food supply chain (Amentae & Gebresenbet 2021). Robotics and automation,
206 cybersecurity, the Cloud, 3D printing, simulation, and augmented reality, have been added to
207 the list of the aforementioned digital technologies as being important for the sustainable

208 development of food logistics (Jagtap et al. 2021), while the connectivity, associated with
209 digitalization, robotics, IoT, and cloud computing, have been viewed as the core of Industry
210 4.0 in intelligent food processing (Khan, Khalid, & Iqbal 2018). Another confusing issue is the
211 diverse definitions, notations, and terminologies in the literature of these emerging
212 technologies; e.g., they may be termed as disruptive technologies (Cozzolino 2019; Galanakis
213 et al. 2021; Galanakis 2021). Thus, no unanimous definition of Industry 4.0 and its enabling
214 technologies has emerged.

215 **3. Fourth industrial revolution technologies**

216 ***3.1. Big data, ML, AI, and the Cloud***

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

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

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

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

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

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

266 *Data types in the food value chain*

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

275 *Food domain challenges solved using data and AI*

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

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

285 *Food processing:* Food processing resembles chemical and pharmaceutical processing in many
286 ways, and the same technologies are often used across these sectors. Process analytical
287 technology (PAT), advanced process control (APC), model-predictive control (MPC), and
288 statistical process control (SPC) are all concepts aiming at monitoring and controlling
289 important quality attributes to improve efficiency, reduce waste, and ensure product quality.
290 ML and AI have become integral parts of all these control concepts, and successful use-cases
291 have been reported by several branches of the food industry (Tajammal Munir et al. 2015;
292 Kondakci & Zhou 2017; Jerome & Singh 2019; Khadir 2021; Mavani et al. 2021; Macdonald
293 2021). Apart from optimizing the process and product, a similar methodology can monitor the
294 processing equipment, leading to concepts such as *predictive maintenance* (Dalzochio et al.
295 2020). This is not a food-specific topic and will therefore not be pursued further here.

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

305 framework can, in principle, take multiple aspects such as sustainability, supply, and
306 government politics into account.

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

314 *Retail and marketing:* Consumers leave digital traces of their attitudes, habits, and experiences
315 at retailers and online, including location data captured by smartphones. Retailers routinely
316 collect and analyse information from, for example, loyalty cards and online grocery data for
317 individual customer profiling, which can predict buying behaviour and which can be used to
318 create personalized deals and offers (Hu 2018; Montgomery et al. 2019). Sales forecasting can
319 aid retailers in stock management (short-term predictions) and business development (long-
320 term predictions). Recent surveys show that ML techniques can improve such predictions by
321 combining company data with data from external sources (Tarallo et al. 2019; Tsoumakas
322 2019).

323 **3.2. Smart sensors and robotics**

324 To realize the full promise of Industry 4.0 requires doing real-time monitoring and
325 measurements all along the food supply chain. This requires sensors that are able to monitor
326 the supply chain by measuring critical parameters during continuous production. Sensors are
327 everywhere, especially with recent advances with nanobiotechnology, nanosensors, and
328 biosensors. They have been used to develop a variety of applications in many fields such as the

329 environment, and the medical, agricultural, and food industry sectors (Misra et al. 2020; Javaid
330 et al. 2021; Lugani et al. 2021). Innovations in other Industry 4.0 technologies (e.g., big data
331 and digital twins) have enabled digital sensing technologies to grow and flourish, deliver
332 greater levels of intelligence and communication capabilities, and be used along the food value
333 chain, from farm-to-fork (Mayer & Baeumner 2019; Verboven et al. 2020; Haleem et al. 2021).
334 Various optical spectroscopic and non-spectroscopic sensors can be used to monitor and collect
335 multi-source data along the food supply chain. The following section will discuss some relevant
336 examples of different types of sensors.

337 *Spectral fingerprint-based sensors*

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

347 One example of the promising application areas of spectroscopy-based sensors is controlling
348 and optimizing the various processing steps with enzymatic protein hydrolysis (**Figure 5**) to
349 obtain high-value products from multiple industrial by-products. However, the high variability
350 of these materials and the characterization of the reaction in real-time remain the most
351 challenging tasks. Several studies have shown the possibility of using smart sensors based on
352 infrared, fluorescence or Raman spectroscopy, to determine the quality of raw materials (such

353 as protein, fat, and ash contents), to optimize processing parameters (including, among others,
354 reaction rate, enzyme concentration, time, and temperature), and to characterize the final
355 products (e.g., amino acid composition, and molecular weight distribution) (Wubshet et al.
356 2018; Wubshet et al. 2019; Måge et al. 2021). Thus, several quality parameters (such as sensory
357 properties) of protein hydrolysates can be predicted based on the measurements of the raw
358 materials (uncontrollable process variables) and the applied processing parameters
359 (controllable process variables).

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

373 *Non-spectroscopic smart sensors*

374 For Industry 4.0, the food industry will require more sensors, multi-sensors, biosensors, and
375 autonomous systems for remote and real-time use to improve productivity and efficiency, and
376 to provide complete monitoring of each food production stage. Beside the aforementioned

377 optical sensors, many electrochemical smart sensors have been developed for food safety and
378 quality (Mayer & Baeumner 2019; Ivanišević et al. 2021). They can be used for process control,
379 inserted on-line during food processing, and, in the case of smart modules, even connected and
380 automatized. On the other hand, smart sensors can also be used at the end of the process to
381 ensure food quality and protect the consumers from food damage/spoilage, as in the case of
382 sensors developed for the food packaging industry (Yousefi et al. 2019; Rodrigues et al. 2021).
383 Such sensors can be incorporated into intelligent “smart” packaging materials in the form of
384 bar codes, films, or labels, etc. to give information about changes in time and temperature
385 (time/temperature sensors and indicators), humidity (humidity sensors), oxygen levels (oxygen
386 sensors), pH (pH sensors), chemical composition (specific chemical sensors), or microbial
387 contamination (microorganism sensors) (Yousefi et al. 2019; Rodrigues et al. 2021; Shao et al.
388 2021; Cheng et al. 2022).

389 Recent advances in nanotechnology have led to new applications in many fields of food science
390 and industry. Food sensor technologies have benefited from the opportunities offered by
391 nanotechnology, enabling sensor miniaturisation to use low cost, reliable, and highly sensitive
392 nanocomposite materials (Ivanišević et al. 2021; Shao et al. 2021). Thus, micro-and nano-scale
393 devices are being applied as well-functioning alternatives to traditional biosensors (Inbaraj &
394 Chen 2016; Jafarizadeh-Malmiri et al. 2019; Ali et al. 2021). Seymour et al. (2021) reported
395 an example of their application using nano-electrochemical sensors. They established a multi-
396 purpose electrochemical device for smart agriculture by developing a suitable sensing platform
397 for pesticide and nitrite detection (detection limit of 0.22 ng/mL for clothianidin, 2.14 ng/mL
398 for imidacloprid and 0.2 μ M for nitrates). Eventually, the system was interfaced with a
399 smartphone to allowed data inspection and handling. Ge et al. (2022) developed a portable
400 wireless intelligent nano-sensor for detecting terbutaline in meat products. The result obtained
401 using the proposed device was compared with alternative, traditional nanosensing technology

402 and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Their platform had a layer-by-layer
403 design and was made of bimetallic platinum-palladium nanoparticles, carboxylated graphene,
404 and molybdenum disulfide. As in the sensing devices discussed above, the potentiostat of a
405 smartphone was used as part of the system. The different figures of merit of the device were
406 optimized correctly using ML and artificial neural networks. The smartphone-based device
407 provided (in the linear range: 0.55–14.9 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) results comparable to those obtained using
408 the sensor based on a computer potentiostat (in the linear range of 0.4–14 $\mu\text{mol/L}$). Measuring
409 actual samples, the recovering of the proposed nano-sensor was between 91–98.4%, i.e.,
410 comparable to the recovering obtained using HPLC (93.4–98.6%).

411 Emphasis has been on smart sensors based on smartphones, and a significant part of the recent
412 literature related to farm/industry 4.0 is focused on their development (Roda et al. 2016;
413 Kalinowska et al. 2021). A brief search of the Scopus database (done in October 2021) focused
414 on the keywords: *smartphone*, *sensor*, and *food*, showing an increase in such publications. As
415 shown in **Figure 6** (top), since 2019, the number of documents associated with these keywords
416 doubled. As expected, these are (mainly) from engineering, computer science, chemistry,
417 physics/astronomy, and, to a lesser extent, from medicine, biochemistry, material science,
418 chemical engineering, and agro-bio sciences (**Figure 6**). The increasing attention to
419 smartphone-based devices is linked to several factors; among others, the high level of
420 performance achieved by their cameras, their wide-spread availability, and their portability. In
421 addition, these devices are associated with IoT and data analysis, without which the collection
422 of data would have been non-productive. However, from a chemical point of view, it is
423 important that these devices are adequately validated and that their repeatability is accurately
424 estimated, in particular when they are used for the analysis of complex matrices (Kalinowska
425 et al. 2021).

426 Several biosensors for food/beverage quality control, based on the smartphone, have been
427 proposed. Their aims have been multi-fold and cover different aspects of food quality control.
428 Many of these sensing platforms are focused on pathogen and toxin detection (Inbaraj & Chen
429 2016; Zhou et al. 2020). A relevant example is the work of Sidhu et al. (2020) who developed
430 a smart device for the real-time determination of *Listeria* in water used for hydroponic
431 irrigation. The authors applied a sensing platform of platinum microelectrodes and a
432 smartphone potentiostat. The sensing platform had high sensitivity ($3.4 \pm 0.2 \text{ k}\Omega \text{ log-CFU}^{-1}$)
433 and a more than acceptable limit of detection (LOD) ($48 \pm 12 \text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$, in the range 102-104
434 CFU mL^{-1}), in agreement with the literature. Caratelli et al. (2021) showed the suitability of a
435 paper-based sensor for detecting botulinum neurotoxins (BoNT). Briefly, the proposed sensor
436 used a paper electrode covered with methylene blue connected to smartphone potentiostat. The
437 neurotoxins reacted with the methylene blue causing its depletion to produce a signal that was
438 correlated with the concentration of the BoNT. It could detect both BoNT (A and C) with a
439 LOD of 10 pM. Similar sensors were developed to detect other bacteria, e.g., *Salmonella*,
440 *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus*, and other bacteria species, as well as fungi and/or their
441 metabolites in food (Sergeyeva et al. 2020; Kim et al. 2021; Xue et al. 2021). Besides bacteria
442 and toxins, several smart sensing devices have been developed to detect unwanted substances,
443 e.g., drugs and pesticides in food matrices, with good analytical performance (Kalyani, Goel,
444 & Jaiswal 2021; Majdinasab, Daneshi, & Louis Marty 2021).

445 Coupling sensors to radio frequency identification tags (RFID) provides opportunities for real
446 time monitoring of food quality, tracking, control, and early warning. RFID are an automatic
447 identification technology of objects, animals, and people that can be obtained using a
448 transponder (Bibi et al. 2017; Fathi et al. 2020; Ren et al. 2022). For example, a RFID without
449 a battery coupled with a digital sensor tag was proposed for monitoring ammonia in packaged
450 food (Karuppuswami et al. 2020). The sensitivity of the sensing elements was evaluated using

451 capacitance and resistance changes. The results showed that the direct probing (based on
452 resistance change) was able to detect a minimum of 3 ppm of ammonia at room temperature
453 with a response and time recovery of 30 and 60 min, respectively.

454 *Autonomous robots*

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

466 As implementing robotics and automation in the food industry has many benefits, it is expected
467 to grow significantly as the food industry adapts rapidly to Industry 4.0 principles and
468 technologies (Jagtap et al. 2021). A variety of food industry sectors (e.g., food processing)
469 already benefit from using robots in some parts of the production process. For example, the
470 Norwegian meat industry is becoming highly automated and robotized with several tasks, such
471 as carcass cutting and deboning in abattoirs and meat factories being done using robots and
472 more advanced machines (de Medeiros Esper et al. 2021). The implementation of more
473 automation in primary and secondary meat processing could increase the efficiency and
474 production capacity while reducing manual labour and production costs (Barbut 2020).

475 **3.3. IoT, blockchain, and cybersecurity**

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

480 *IoT*

481 IoT refers to transferring data between interconnected computer devices and machinery. Recent
482 IoT progress has led to the proliferation of interconnected devices, promoting an increase in
483 the usage of various IoT smart applications in different fields ranging from medicine and
484 healthcare, e-commerce, and education, to manufacturing and agriculture (Onwude et al. 2020;
485 Khalil et al. 2021). Although different layers for the structure of IoT according to the
486 application areas have been described, most studies mainly try to establish three layers, namely
487 i) the device layer including sensors, RFID, and other physical devices that collect data, ii) the
488 network layer including all types of network communication protocols that are used to transmit
489 data collected by the device layer, and iii) the application layer, including IoT applications and
490 services (Bouzembrak et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2021; Friha et al. 2021). Application of IoT
491 technology increases connectivity and provides better productivity, quality, and profitability
492 along the entire supply chain. The interaction and exchange of data and information occur
493 between humans and machines as well as between machines and machines (Kamble et al. 2018;
494 Friha et al. 2021; Jagtap et al. 2021). Recent advances in IoT technologies have brought a wide
495 range of applications in different fields including, among others, various processes used for
496 agricultural production (Yang et al. 2021), food safety (Bouzembrak et al. 2019), and food
497 processing (Jambrak et al. 2021).

498 An essential aspect delivered by IoT is real-time traceability, which allows for quick actions
499 when dealing with product recalls (Jagtap et al. 2021). A food fraud IoT-based system,
500 containing various sensors for temperature, oil, humidity, salt, metal, colour, pH, and viscosity
501 was proposed to monitor adulterants in food products (Gupta & Rakesh 2018). The system was
502 effective and simple, so that it can be used by several actors in the food supply chain (e.g.
503 farmers, consumers and regulatory authorities). **RFID has been successfully applied in broad**
504 **areas including traceability and ensuring food quality and safety in the agrifood sector (Bibi et**
505 **al. 2017). Bouzembrak et al. (2019) reviewed several studies where IoT devices were used in**
506 **combination with RFID to track and trace food authenticity (e.g., food safety and quality**
507 **monitoring, shelf life and pesticide residue monitoring, traceability and anti-counterfeiting,**
508 **etc.). For example, Alfian et al. (2020) proposed a RFID-based traceability system integrated**
509 **with IoT for the perishable food supply chain to track product movement and monitor the**
510 **temperature and humidity of food products.**

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

515 *Blockchain*

516 **Traditional** food supply chains lack traceability and trackability of products, resulting in the
517 absence of labelling transparency, slow product innovation cycles, and complications in
518 logistics. Blockchain technology can be a solution to these food supply chain concerns.
519 **Blockchain has been suggested as a promising technology, underpinned by Industry 4.0,**
520 **consisting of digital, decentralized, distributed ledgers maintained by a network of multiple**

521 computers that can promoting trust and transparency in the agri-food value chain (Zhao et al.
522 2019; Kamilaris et al. 2019; Rejeb et al. 2020; Amentae & Gebresenbet 2021).

523 Blockchain increases traceability throughout the supply chain, connecting and tracking data
524 from producer to consumer, allowing for more accurate and faster recalls, thus eliminating
525 some risk and offering better quality food. Better traceability means the validity of claims such
526 as “sustainable”, “organic”, and “halal” can be monitored and authenticated (Kayikci et al.
527 2020; Javaid et al. 2021). This technology was found to be helpful in the reduction of food
528 losses along a global supply chain (Kayikci et al. 2020). In addition, blockchain can be used as
529 an integrated traceability technology to reduce the risk of a pandemic (such as COVID-19)
530 disruption of the food system. For example, blockchain along with other new technologies
531 (e.g., RFID) have proven to be beneficial for food cold-chain continuity during the ongoing
532 coronavirus crisis (Masudin et al. 2021). When looking to access the data gathered in real-time
533 (e.g., from sensors), it works best in a secure environment, which blockchain technology can
534 facilitate. Kamilaris et al. (2019) reviewed the increased use of blockchain in the food supply
535 chain and determined the types of data gathered at each stakeholder stage (**Figure 3**).

536 Several studies suggested the application of blockchain in combination with several other
537 emerging technologies. For example, a decentralized information system based on blockchain,
538 IoT, and HACCP (Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Points), was developed for real-time
539 food tracing in a food supply chain (Tian 2017). Recently, a secure monitoring and reporting
540 system based on blockchain and IoT was developed to allow for the management of transaction
541 integrity, immutability, and transparency of perishable products along the supply chain with a
542 focus on transportation without any human intervention (Bhutta & Ahmad 2021). In another
543 study, a supply chain system based on blockchain, IoT, and advanced deep learning was
544 evaluated with different numbers of users to verify the provenance of agricultural products

545 (Khan, Byun, and Park 2020). The proposed system was found to be suitable to handle a large
546 number of users, enabling them to check the origin and the supply chain of their food.

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

554 *Cybersecurity*

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

563 The food industry's infrastructure makes it more prone to cyberattacks, e.g., the number of
564 stakeholders involved along the supply chain (Jagtap et al. 2021) tends to be greater than other
565 industries. Therefore, increasing awareness of cybersecurity at all stages of the supply chain is
566 needed. Recipe leakages, process tampering, and consumer data theft are of the most concern.
567 Such instances may threaten a company's supply chain, reputation, and profits. Other examples

568 include turning off software and hardware, and tampering with supply chain logistics (Duong
569 et al. 2020).

570 ***3.4. Digital twins and CPS***

571 The concept of digital twin has recently emerged and can be defined as a digital representation
572 of a real-world product, process operation, or physical object that integrates various
573 technological developments, e.g., IoT and AI to synchronize physical activities with the virtual
574 world. Statistical, data-driven, and physics-based models are the main types of digital twins
575 (Tao et al. 2019; Verboven et al. 2020; Defraeye et al. 2021; Burg et al. 2021). Digital twins
576 have the potential to increase knowledge and facilitate decision-making in, for example,
577 agricultural fields (Defraeye et al. 2021; Burg et al. 2021) and food processing factories
578 (Verboven et al. 2020). Digital twins could be used to predict postharvest evolution of food
579 quality and tailor supply chains to maximize shelf life and reduce food losses (Onwude et al.
580 2020; Defraeye et al. 2021).

581 Although digital twins have been developed in various industrial sectors (e.g., optimization of
582 the operations and maintenance of vehicles, and aircrafts, etc.), their implementations are still
583 in their infancy in the food industry due to several challenges that still remain (Verboven et al.
584 2020; Burg et al. 2021). Only a few studies have described the application of digital twins in
585 the food supply chain. For instance, digital fruit twins, based on a mechanistic finite element
586 model and coupled with the real-world environmental conditions were developed to simulate
587 the thermal behaviour of mango fruit throughout the cold chain (Defraeye et al. 2019). The
588 results showed that the digital twins can make the refrigerated food supply chain greener by
589 improving refrigeration processes and logistics as well as reducing food losses.

590 CPS is an important feature of Industry 4.0 and could be considered as a global network
591 infrastructure that integrates the physical and virtual world. CPS shares some essential concepts

592 with digital twins. The application of CPS with Industry 4.0 has the potential to reach the
593 ultimate goal, i.e., achieving smart factories. The concept of CPS is also closely related to IoT
594 and robotics. CPS of food systems can be foreseen as reaching the highest autonomy levels for
595 self-management and self-control (Lu 2017b; Iqbal et al. 2017; Da Xu et al. 2018; Tao et al.
596 2019; Jagatheesaperumal et al. 2021; Smetana et al. 2021). Application of the CPS concept in
597 the current food industry and agricultural systems is scarce, but multiple domains could benefit
598 from these technologies (Iqbal et al. 2017).

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

609 **4. Advantages and common challenges**

610 Important concepts of Food Industry 4.0 are AI, ML, big data analytics, cloud computing, IoT,
611 blockchain, robotics and smart sensors, digital twins and CPS, although other technologies
612 could be considered in other application domains. Industry 4.0 has highlighted the need for
613 multidisciplinary approaches and connectivity between various domains, not least those related
614 to the physical, biological, and digital fields. This connectivity revolution can basically be
615 understood as being based mostly on data; data acquisition using smart sensors, robots, IoT,

616 and other systems, data processing and mining using cloud computing, and data interpretation
617 using AI and other advanced technologies. Most of these technologies are expected to have an
618 important role in future smart factories and production systems with enhanced digitalization
619 and automation. For example, IoT can be seen as the future of food safety while blockchain
620 could become the future of food traceability.

621 Industry 4.0 technologies could promote digital transformation and sustainable development
622 along the different stages of the food value chain, saving time and reducing cost. By optimizing
623 and including such advanced digital production technologies, energy-efficient food production
624 and zero waste can be achieved while monitor changes in food production systems leading to
625 sustainable processing and mass customization processes that increase speed and efficiency
626 (Oztemel & Gursev 2020; Jambrak et al. 2021). An example is the use of hyperspectral sensors
627 based on different spectroscopic principles to optimize and monitor at any time and stage
628 multiple processing conditions throughout the course of an enzymatic hydrolysis process for
629 various food by-products (Wubshet et al. 2018; Anderssen & McCarney 2020; Måge et al.
630 2021). These “green” technologies would reduce food waste, and give opportunities to
631 customize food products and obtain desirable products with specific quality attributes.
632 Consequently, it becomes possible to increase profitability, reduce food wastes, optimize
633 customer needs, and increase consumer satisfaction.

634 By embracing food traceability and digital solutions, processing from raw material to the final
635 product can be monitored. For example, blockchain can be implemented in the food supply
636 chain as a digital and transparent system to track a product’s journey from farm to fork,
637 ensuring traceability and authenticity (Rejeb et al. 2020). Implementing the different elements
638 of Industry 4.0 has the potential to improve supply chain modernization, food quality, and
639 authenticity assessments to ensure food safety (Misra et al. 2020). Moreover, it becomes

640 possible to involve consumers in the decision cycle and their education to reduce waste
641 generation (zero waste production) and increase re-use and recycling of packaging material.

642 **Digitalization of the food industry** by incorporating elements of Industry 4.0, i.e., big data
643 analytics, smart sensors, autonomous robotics, and the other advanced technologies could lead
644 to greater productivity, better process stability, and customizable products. However, little
645 attention has been paid to the sustainability of Industry 4.0 (Kamble et al. 2018). **An intensive**
646 **focus on innovation, digital skills, digital infrastructure, and cooperation will help to ensure**
647 **sustainability** and achieve the United Nations' sustainable development goals leading to the
648 smart factories concept and putting it into practice, **even** in developing countries (UNIDO
649 2020). **Beside the sustainability issue**, several other challenges related to Food Industry 4.0
650 technologies still need to be addressed. **Overall, adoption of new technologies can seem like a**
651 **daunting task, and the uptake of these technologies is slower in the food industry compared to**
652 **other sectors. This might be due to a silo mentality (i.e., the mind-set of not wishing to share**
653 **information with others) that still exists among some food industry actors (Hassoun et al., 2020;**
654 **Power & Cozzolino, 2020). It seems that most emerging technologies have not yet gone beyond**
655 **laboratory scale because of the high implementation costs and lack of adaptability to an**
656 **industrial environment. Moreover, lack of technical and technological skills is another issue**
657 **that hinders wider acceptance of Industry 4.0 and its new technologies and innovation.**

658 **Other barriers may be related to specific technologies.** Although successful applications of AI,
659 ML, and big data analytics have been reported both for specific operations and along the food
660 value chain, adoption of these technologies is still limited. Barriers are related to challenges
661 with data (infrastructure, quality, standardization, security, and ownership), uncertainties about
662 deployment, validation, and maintenance, as well as lack of competence and resources (Bahlo
663 et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2020). **Robotics and smart sensors** could enable human-machine
664 collaboration, **leveraging recent advances in AI and IoT**, but need to become integrated with

665 the food facility's current systems, and the necessity for more flexibility, advanced hardware
666 and software, as well as lower costs are still apparent.

667 Finally, it is important to emphasize the necessity of intensifying innovation and the need for
668 further automation and digitalization throughout the whole food supply chain. While Industry
669 4.0 has already helped in certain areas, some of its greatest potential remains mostly untapped
670 and lies in its ability of achieving successful digital transformations and ecological transitions.
671 These can only be achieved by holistic multidisciplinary approaches that embrace
672 simultaneously as many Industry 4.0 technologies as possible, and include all relevant actors
673 in the food industry (e.g., academic research institutions, industrial partners, as well as
674 regulatory and other governmental authorities).

675 **5. Future perspectives and conclusions**

676 The food industry, as have other industries, has experienced four industrial revolutions,
677 evolving from being a small-scale, manually-operated and labour intensive, fragmented
678 activity to a large-scale, highly-automated and digitalized global industry. Recently, the era of
679 the fourth industrial revolution (Industry 4.0) has started, characterized by the fusion of a
680 number of modern digital technologies, such as AI, IoT, blockchain, and other emerging
681 technologies including, among others, robotics and smart sensors. Industry 4.0 technologies
682 have offered a broad scope of possibilities for the food industry and led to the emergence of
683 new food trends, which will be discussed further in Part II of this review.

684 This review paper has tried to be an up-to-date source of information about the most relevant
685 technological advances of Industry 4.0 in the food industry. This literature review shows that,
686 on the one hand, several opportunities have arisen to reach climate goals, cope with
687 environmental, economic, and social pressures exerted on the food supply chain, and achieve
688 food sustainability and climate resilience. The Industry 4.0 technologies discussed in this paper

689 will contribute to the green transition toward more sustainable, intelligent, innovative food
690 production systems, with improved efficiency and productivity.

691 On the other hand, the adoption of Industry 4.0 elements by the food industry is not without
692 challenges. For example, security and privacy issues when collecting large amounts of data
693 over time, makes them more vulnerable to confidentiality attacks. Setting common standards
694 and legal frameworks, as well as establishing the proper regulatory environment, is important
695 to ensure the protection and consistency of data, especially with cross-border data flows. Most
696 of the emerging technologies are still confined to laboratory-scale experiments and are not
697 commercially available because of the gap between laboratory-scale research and real-time
698 applications. The studies reported showed that research has addressed many of the
699 aforementioned challenges. Continuous research and development, and intensive collaboration
700 between regulators, research institutions, and industry are required to harness the power of
701 Industry 4.0 in the food industry and reap the opportunities offered by its **advanced**
702 **technologies. Enhanced networks and connectivity are expected to contribute to a greater**
703 **success of modern sustainable agriculture and the food industry. The application of several**
704 **Industry 4.0 technologies, especially together, could provide important sustainable solutions,**
705 **achieving valuable outcomes for public health, and environmental and economic development.**
706 **Finally, the literature review showed that many human aspects have been ignored in Industry**
707 **4.0 technologies and their implementation in the food industry. Therefore, it is likely that**
708 **humans will be central to a possible fifth industrial revolution (Industry 5.0). Hopefully soon.**

709

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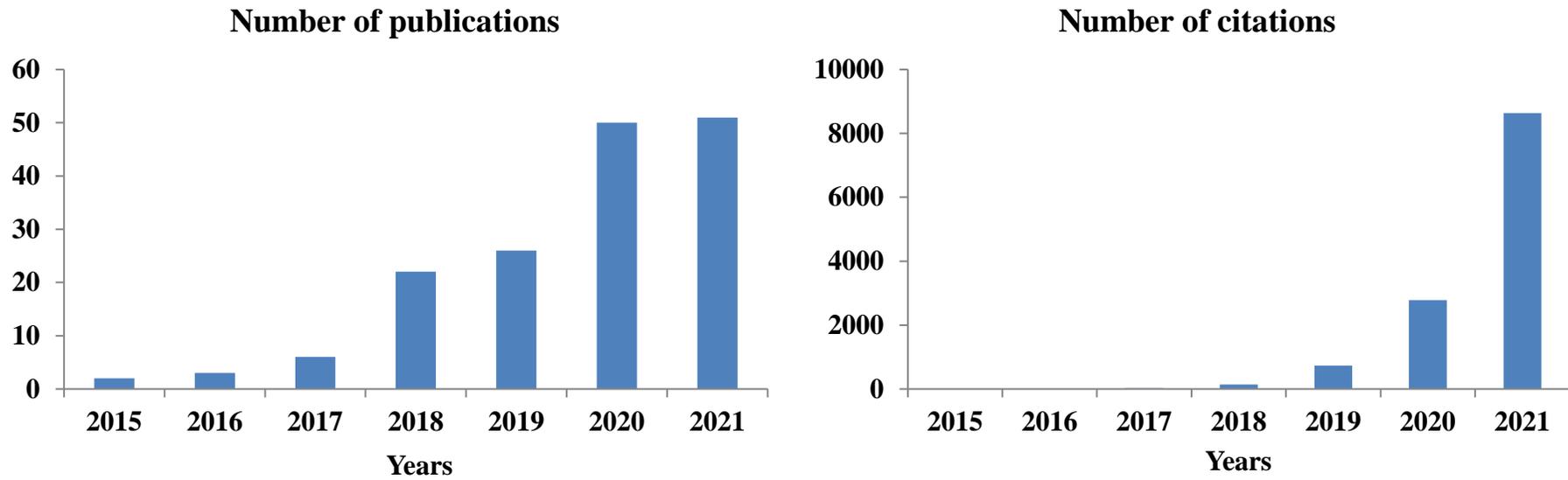


Figure 1. Publications and citations numbers related to the fourth industrial revolution in the food industry. (Search criteria: Article title, Abstract, Keywords: Fourth industrial revolution, OR Industry 4.0, AND Food industry, AND artificial intelligence, OR big data, OR Internet of Things, OR blockchain,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

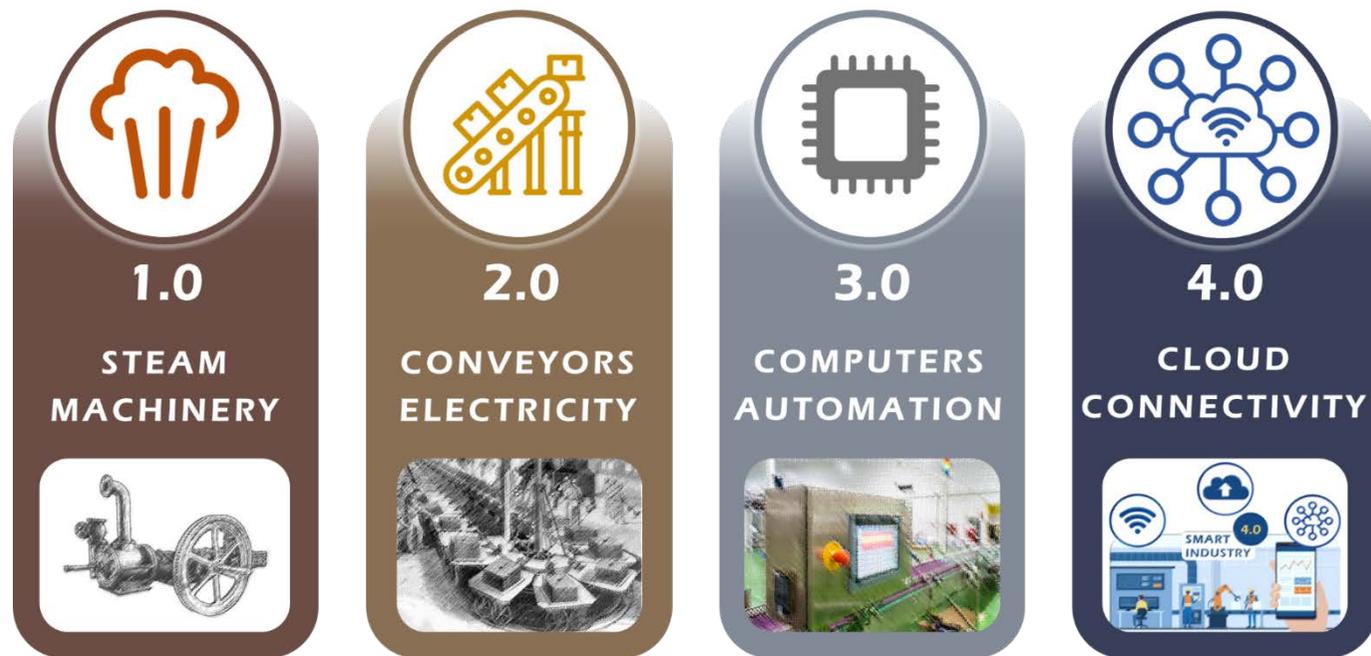


Figure 2. Schematic representation of past and current industrial revolutions

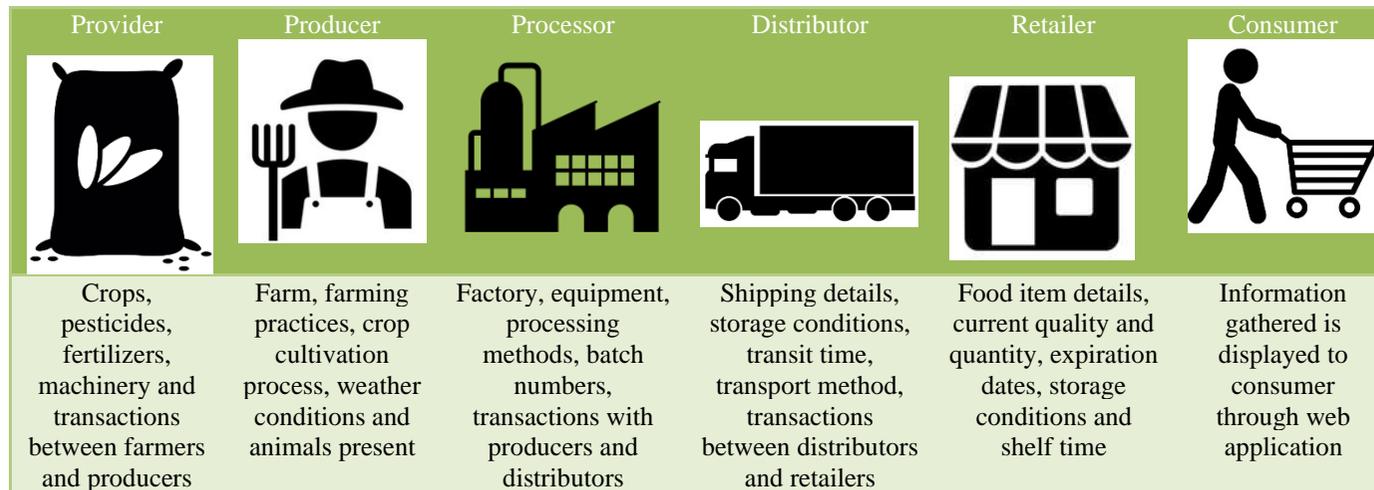
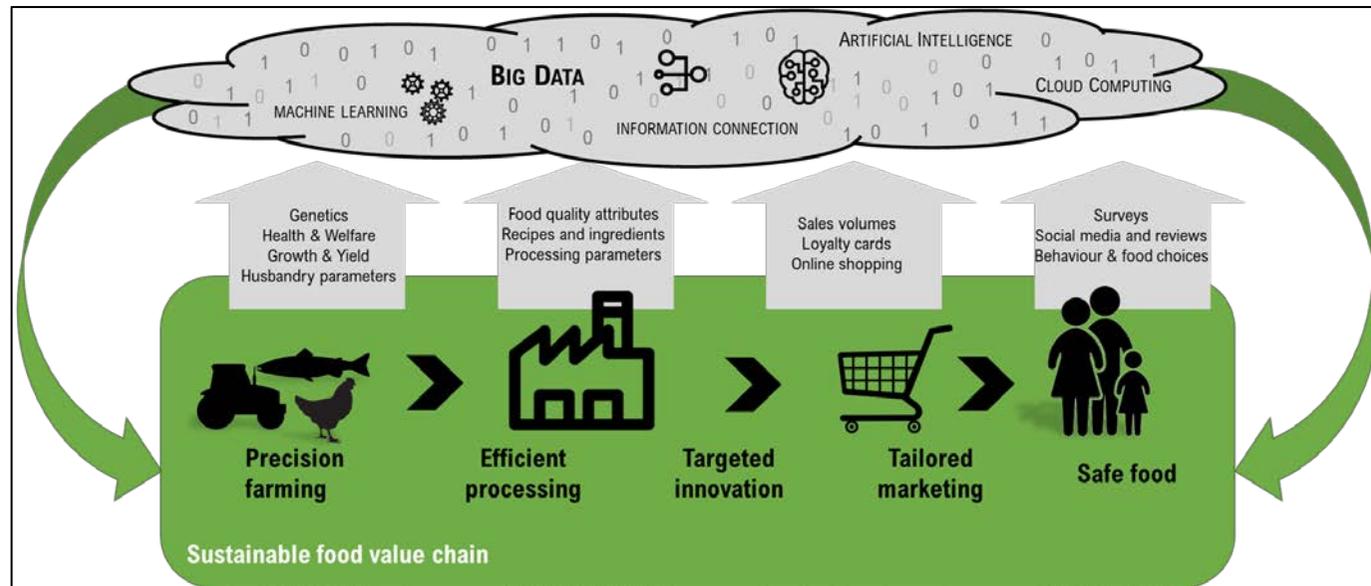


Figure 3. Overview of data sources and information flow along the food value chain (Adapted from Kamilaris et al. (2019))

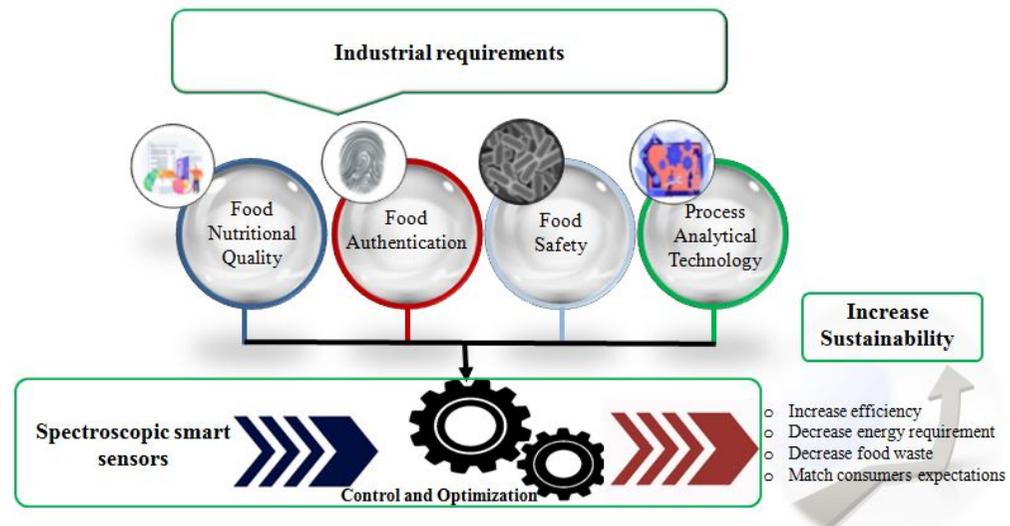
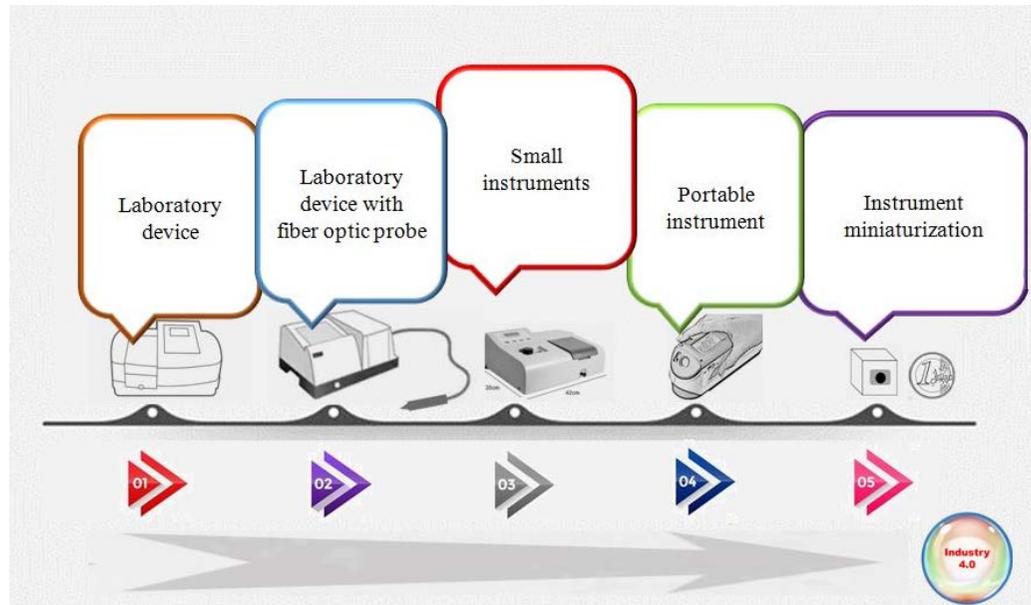


Figure 4. Time line development of smart spectroscopic sensors and their application areas

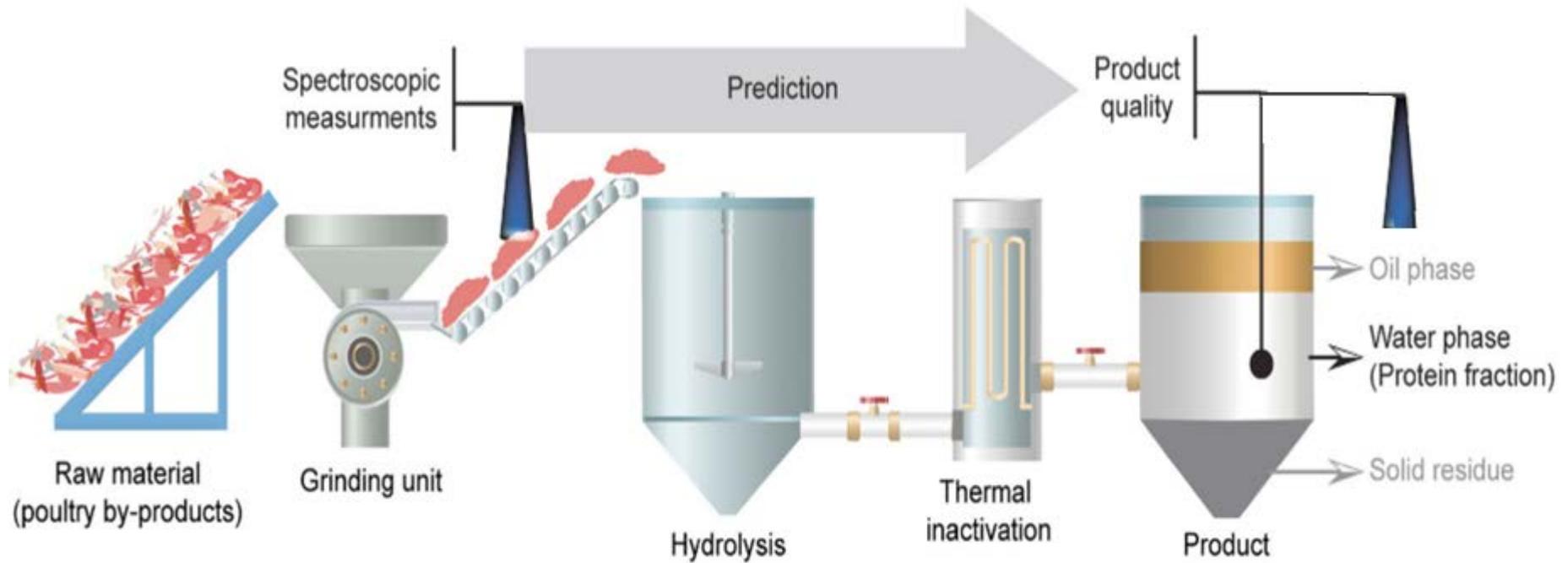


Figure 5. Application of spectroscopic techniques for monitoring the main steps of enzymatic protein hydrolysis (Reprinted by permission from Springer Nature, (Wubshet et al., 2018) (Copyright: 2018) and Elsevier, (Wubshet et al., 2019)).

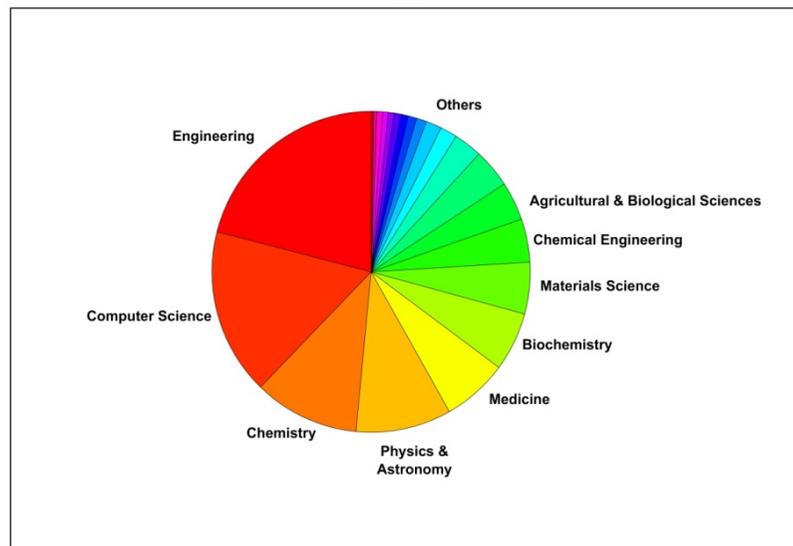
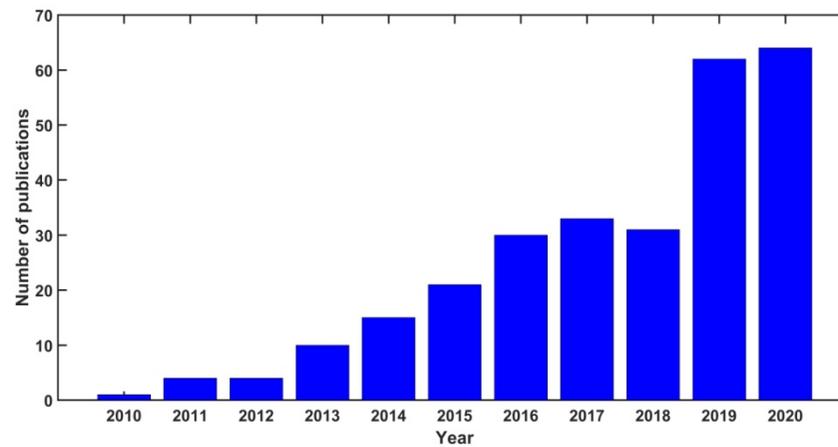


Figure 6. Outcome of a Scopus search of the keywords: “smartphone”, “sensor” and “food”. Top: Number of published documents in the period 2010-2020. Bottom: Pie chart of the application fields.