

## **Artificial intelligence for prediction of shelf-life of various food products: Recent advances and ongoing challenges**

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1 **Artificial intelligence for prediction of shelf-life of various food products: Recent advances and**  
2 **ongoing challenges**

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19 **Abstract**

20 **Background:**

21 Accurate estimation of shelf-life is essential to maintain food safety, reduce wastage, and improve supply chain  
22 efficiency. Traditional methods such as microbial and chemical analysis, and sensory evaluation provide reproducible  
23 results but require time and labor and may not be suitable for real-time or high-throughput applications. The integration  
24 of artificial intelligence (AI) with advanced analysis techniques offers a suitable alternative for rapid, data-driven  
25 estimation of shelf-life in dynamic storage environments.

26

27 **Approach and Scope:**

28 The current review assesses the application of AI-based techniques such as machine learning (ML), deep learning  
29 (DL), and hybrid approaches in food product shelf life prediction. This study highlights how AI can be utilized to

30 examine data from non-destructive testing methods like hyperspectral imaging, spectroscopy, machine vision, and  
31 electronic sensors to enhance predictive performance. The review also describes how AI-based techniques contribute  
32 to managing food quality, reduce economic losses, and enhance sustainability by ensuring optimized food distribution  
33 and reducing waste.

34

35 **Key Findings and Conclusions:**

36 AI techniques overcome conventional techniques by considering intricate, multi-sourced information capturing  
37 microbiological, biochemical, and environmental factors influencing food spoilage. Meat, dairy, fruits and vegetables,  
38 and beverage case studies illustrate AI techniques' superiority in real-time monitoring and quality assessment. It also  
39 identifies limitations such as data availability, model generalizability, and computational cost, constraining extensive  
40 applications. Cloud and Internet of Things (IoT) platform integration into future applications has to be considered to  
41 enable real-time decision-making and adaptive modeling. AI can be a paradigm-changing tool in food industries with  
42 intelligent, scalable, and low-cost interventions in food safety, waste reduction, and sustainability.

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44 **Key words:** Artificial Intelligence, Machine learning, Food quality, Food products, Digitalization, Intelligent sensors

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**1. Introduction**

Accurate prediction of the shelf life of food products is one of the most important concerns in the food industry worldwide for food safety, quality control and to maintain economic stability. With the increased demand for high quality food products with a long shelf life, there is a growing demand to practically and accurately predict when produce will expire (Cui et al., 2023). Food spoilage not only leads to considerable economic losses on the part of producers and retailers but also causes a lot of food to be wasted worldwide with associated negative environmental damage (Gao et al., 2020). It is estimated that up to 1.05 billion tonnes of food was lost across households, food services, and for retail it is approximately 132 kg per person per year (FAO, 2022). In this respect, the minimization of such losses, without compromising consumer safety, makes shelf-life prediction a very important topic for technological innovation.

Traditionally, food shelf life has been estimated using microbial analysis, chemical testing, and sensory evaluation (Marin et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2023). While these methods are effective, they are labor-intensive, time-consuming, and may not fully account for the dynamic environmental conditions, such as fluctuations in temperature, humidity, and microbial load during storage and transportation (Cui et al., 2023; Goyal et al., 2024; Cui et al., 2024). To address these challenges, mathematical models have been introduced to predict shelf life based on data obtained from either destructive or non-destructive analytical techniques. The reliability of these models depends heavily on the quality and precision of the analytical methods used for data collection. Destructive methods, including microbial culturing and chemical assays, provide highly detailed information but are impractical for real-time monitoring and large-scale applications (dos Santos Formiga and Júnior, 2024; Nguyen et al., 2024). In contrast, advanced non-destructive analytical methods such as spectroscopy, hyperspectral imaging, and electronic sensors, allow for real-time, high-throughput monitoring of food quality without compromising the integrity of the sample. These techniques provide comprehensive data on physicochemical changes in food, including microbial growth, biochemical transformations, and environmental influences, offering a more accurate and adaptable basis for predictive modeling. However, traditional mathematical models often rely on simplified assumptions that fail to fully capture the complexities of spoilage mechanisms, leading to potential inaccuracies in real-world applications (Gao et al., 2020; Marin et al., 2021; Cui et al., 2023). Therefore, integrating advanced analytical methods with artificial intelligence-driven approaches is essential to enhance the accuracy, scalability, and adaptability of shelf-life prediction, ultimately improving food safety, reducing waste, and optimizing supply chains.

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97 Among the challenges in modeling and prediction, artificial intelligence (AI) has emerged as a potential solution, (Shi  
98 et al., 2023). AI can, through machine learning (ML) and deep learning, analyze large volumes of data and find patterns  
99 that may be hard to perceive under more traditional models (Wang et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2023). AI-based methods  
100 can include all kinds of variables including biochemical composition, conditions of storage, and microbial activity  
101 (Cui et al., 2023). This capacity and predictive power make AI an ideal tool with which to understand with the very  
102 roots of food spoilage and extend shelf life.

103 AI techniques have great potential for food shelf-life prediction of a wide array of products, such as meat and poultry  
104 (Cui et al., 2024; Esposito et al., 2024; Saeed et al., 2025), dairy (Sunithamani et al., 2024; Golzarjalal et al., 2024;  
105 Wang et al., 2025), fresh fruit and vegetables (Goyal et al., 2024; Kanjilal et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025) and, soft  
106 drink and beverages (Harris et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024). Each of these categories was subject to  
107 different forms of spoilage mechanisms, which, in turn, are under the influence of specific environmental and  
108 biological factors. AI flexibility in modeling these variable parameters is yet another evident advantage over traditional  
109 methods in terms of gaining higher accuracy and efficiency (Chhetri, 2024).

110 AI application in predicting food shelf-life is a paradigm shift from traditional methods, with more accurate, real-time,  
111 and scalable predictions. Unlike traditional chemical and microbiological tests with high labor inputs and in many  
112 situations impossible in dynamic storage environments, AI-based models can evaluate enormous amounts of  
113 information from non-destructive analysis techniques and give rapid and adaptive predictions. This integration is very  
114 useful in food industries, as it maximizes shelf life to enhance quality control, reduce economic losses, and avert  
115 wastage of food (Cui et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025). Food wastage being a global issue with enormous environmental  
116 and economic implications, AI-based shelf-life prediction is a high-social value technological innovation. Through  
117 real-time monitoring and predictive evaluation, AI enables manufacturers, retailers, and consumers to make intelligent  
118 choices, reducing unnecessary disposal and ensuring food safety (Chhetri, 2024; Sunithamani et al., 2024; Saeed et  
119 al., 2025). This review particularly emphasizes AI's application in such a situation, systematically describing its  
120 potential, limitations, and future scope in reshaping food sustainability and supply chain management.

121 A number of reviews detailing the application of machine learning in food safety are available in the literature (Wang  
122 et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2023; Feng et al., 2023; Chhetri, 2024). However, no review (to the best of our knowledge)  
123 exclusively focuses on the application of AI in the prediction of shelf life in food products. The novelty of the  
124 manuscript is that it focuses on the integration of AI with advanced analytical methods, gives a critical review of AI  
125 applications across diverse food categories, and addresses critical challenges and future opportunities. Unlike other  
126 reviews, this article puts the focus on actionable insights for food-specific applications and shows the practical and

127 **transformative potential of AI for the food industry.** This article reviews the potential for AI in the prediction of shelf  
128 life for food products. on the article will present some key AI approaches, together with their applications in smart  
129 systems like machine vision and spectroscopic techniques. This paper also presents AI applications across different  
130 categories of food and assesses the major economic and sustainability impacts. **These sustainability impacts were**  
131 **addressed through examples in various case studies, such as the reduced wastage of fruits and vegetables due to**  
132 **accurate ripening predictions and energy savings in the meat industry through optimized refrigeration.** It also considers  
133 contemporary challenges and limitations to the implementation of AI for shelf life prediction. The last section  
134 discusses the future directions of this approach and then outlines a vision of how this area of food shelf-life prediction  
135 will continue to evolve with AI.

## 136 **2. Traditional methods for predicting shelf life**

137 The traditional methods used to assess shelf life of food include chemical and microbiological analyses. The microbial  
138 growth studies have been the most instrumental since they monitor the increase of spoilage and pathogenic organisms  
139 with time. Bacteria, yeasts, and molds commonly act as spoilage indicators of foods (Chhetri, 2024). Parameters  
140 monitored to predict shelf life include lipid oxidation, protein degradation in meats and poultry (Saeed, et al., 2022),  
141 ethylene production and organic acid production in fruits and vegetables (Li, et al., 2024), lactic acid, pH, and acidity  
142 in dairy products (Freire et al., 2024) and alcohol content in beverages (Kyaw et al., 2024). Trained sensory panels  
143 regularly test at pre-defined intervals throughout the life cycle of the product. In most literature reviewed, it was stated  
144 that sensory methods require a large amount of operations and are costly to be run, hence they are usually less practical  
145 for routine use in large-scale shelf life prediction (Saeed et al., 2022; Cui et al., 2023; Chhetri, 2024). Although these  
146 techniques are highly valued in shelf life predictions, their dependency on periodical testing and specific markers  
147 affects their efficiency and adaptability to dynamic storage conditions. Within the past few years, various mathematical  
148 modeling approaches have been developed in order to enhance predictiveness and to account for the food spoilage  
149 complexity involving different circumstances.

150 Predictive microbiology models extend conventional microbial growth studies to develop mathematical relationships  
151 between microbial growth and environmental factors (Cui et al., 2023). Most predictive microbiology models make  
152 use of kinetic equations in predicting the trends of microbial growth, therefore, predictive microbiology models can  
153 be useful in evaluating how products will respond to different storage environments. Prediction of shelf life for various  
154 food products available in the literature use first-order kinetic and Weibull models to predict chemical degradation  
155 processes and microbial survival curves (Gao et al., 2020; Tuly et al., 2023; dos Santos Formiga and Júnior, 2024;  
156 Cheng et al., 2025). Empirical data has been analyzed using pathogen modelling methods, together with model  
157 predictions for several microorganisms. While these empirical models provide quantitative predictions, most of them  
158 are bound within the limited scope of data collected and decrease the generalisation of a model across variable  
159 conditions.

160 Although both empirical and kinetic models have a wide range of applications in traditional shelf life prediction, there  
161 are quite a number of limitations in their use. The most important of these is the dependency on historical data,  
162 specified for a product, which restricts generalization to new formulations or variable storage conditions (Bhagya Raj

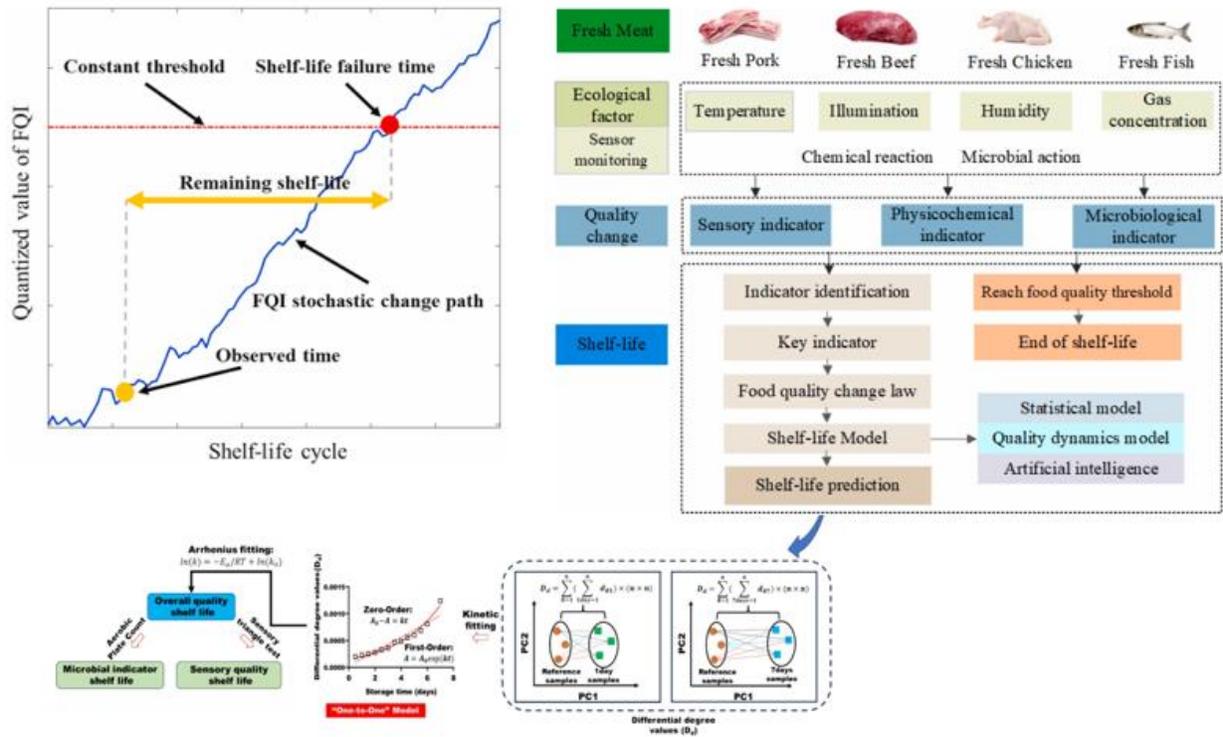
163 and Dash,2022; Shi et al., 2023). This is because most of them are based on fixed parameters that cannot fully capture  
164 diverse environmental and composition factors affecting spoilage. In addition, these models normally work on  
165 simplified assumptions like linear or exponential reaction rates-outside the real-world food systems in which most  
166 factors are dynamic in microbial interactions and interplay (Cui et al., 2023; Rashvand et al., 2023; Taiwo et al., 2024).  
167 Considering these limitations, novel approaches have been attracting more interest. Literature has shown that AI could  
168 overcome some of these constraints imposed by traditional methods toward faster, more adaptable, and perhaps more  
169 accurate predictions (Gonzalez Viejo and Fuentes, 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Harris et al., 2023; Yıkımiş et al., 2024;  
170 Zhang et al., 2025).

171 Interactions among microorganisms, such as competition, synergy, and antagonism, are very prominent and can affect  
172 the dynamics of food spoilage and thus the accuracy of predictions (Dantigny, 2021; Cui et al., 2023). Cui et al .  
173 (2023) stated competitive interactions between bacteria and fungi may alter spoilage rates because some bacteria act  
174 to inhibit fungal growth or vice versa. There can also be synergistic interactions whereby metabolic by-products of  
175 one microorganism provide favorable conditions for the proliferation of another, accelerating spoilage. These complex  
176 dynamics, thus, are an illustration of constraints on developing traditional models of microbial growth in their  
177 descriptions, since such models often involve assumptions of one single dominant organism.

178 Yeast, mold, and bacteria differ in characteristics that affect spoilage and hence the prediction of spoilage, its accuracy,  
179 and the approach to it (Dantigny, 2021). Yeasts cause spoilage in foods high in sugar or acids. They form volatile  
180 compounds and can be detected with intelligent sensors such as spectroscopy devices. Molds are aerobic and dominate  
181 in drier environments; they are often found on fruits, vegetables, and cheese. They also produce spores and secondary  
182 metabolites including mycotoxins, which have a bearing on safety and shelf life. Snyder et al. (2024) reported bacteria  
183 represent the most important spoilage agents in high-moisture foods. Rapid growth under favorable conditions often  
184 makes them the focus of traditional predictive methods. This justifies using advanced models of AI that are better  
185 positioned in handling such multi-dimensional data and interactions. Real-time data on microbial communities'  
186 interactions can be fed into AI methods for more robust, more accurate predictions under natural conditions.

187 Figure 1 represents the overall frame of foods' shelf-life assessment and prediction as a function of various factors,  
188 indicators, and modeling techniques. The progress of freshness quality indicator (FQI) could be described as a function  
189 of time, passing through a stochastic path depending on the environmental conditions, until it crosses a failure  
190 threshold corresponding to the conclusions of shelf life. This is the maximum acceptable level beyond which quality  
191 degradation was no longer acceptable and defines remaining shelf life from any given observed point (Chen et al.,  
192 2023). In addition, the figure indicates that ecological factors like temperature, illumination, humidity, and gas  
193 concentration drive the chemical reactions and microbial growth on meats that constitute spoilage. Shelf life was  
194 monitored by sensory, physicochemical, and microbiological indices that assessed critical thresholds of quality  
195 deterioration and established predictive shelf life models (Ren et al., 2022). Advanced statistical and kinetic models,  
196 such as zero-order kinetics and Arrhenius equations, were applied to understand dynamics in quality variation with  
197 time. The most accurate prediction of shelf-life could be achieved by an integrated model combining statistical models,  
198 quality dynamics models, and algorithms from AI for capturing complex interactions among the multiple factors

199 (Cheng et al., 2025). This integrated modeling approach will support quality management and, therefore, will allow  
 200 producers to monitor the shelf life of various perishable foods more precisely and predict and extend it.



201  
 202 Figure 1. Integrated framework for shelf-life prediction and quality assessment of food products using ecological  
 203 factors, quality indicators, and advanced modeling techniques (Reproduced from Ren et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023,  
 204 Cheng et al., 2025).

205 Similar to meat products, respiration is a critical factor in the shelf life of plant-based products because it is among  
 206 the fundamental metabolic processes in fruits and vegetables after their harvest. Pieczywek et al. (2024) and Yin et al  
 207 (2024) demonstrated that the process of respiration includes degradation of stored carbohydrates and other substrates  
 208 by cellular biochemical transformations to produce energy, which will be dissipated as carbon dioxide, water, and  
 209 heat. This is very dependent on temperature, humidity, and the concentration of oxygen. Overall, literature have  
 210 combined information on respiration rates with numerical modeling, using environmental conditions and alterations  
 211 in metabolic activities to make better predictions in plant-based commodities (Wang et al., 2021; Rashvand et al.,  
 212 2023, Yin et al., 2024).

213  
 214 **3. Fundamental of Artificial Intelligence methods for shelf life prediction**

215 The accuracy and reliability of AI models for shelf-life prediction are highly dependent on the quality of data generated  
 216 by analytical methods. Advanced analytical techniques play a crucial role in ensuring that the data fed into AI systems  
 217 are precise, reproducible, and representative of real-world conditions. Inaccurate or low-quality data can lead to flawed

218 predictions, underscoring the need for selecting superior analytical approaches that consistently provide reliable  
219 information across various food categories and storage environments (Eş and Khaneghah, 2024). Both destructive and  
220 non-destructive analytical methods contribute significantly to AI-driven shelf-life modeling. Non-destructive  
221 techniques, such as hyperspectral imaging and Raman spectroscopy, enable real-time monitoring of food quality by  
222 capturing biochemical and structural changes without damaging the samples, making them ideal for continuous  
223 assessment and industrial applications. In contrast, destructive methods, including microbial enumeration and  
224 chemical assays, offer highly precise and detailed measurements of spoilage indicators but are invasive and impractical  
225 for large-scale or real-time monitoring. A comparative discussion of these techniques will be presented in the  
226 following sections, highlighting their respective advantages and limitations in enhancing the predictive power of AI-  
227 based shelf-life estimation.

228 Besides this, the features extracted by such analytics methods, which are relevant in nature, such as the production  
229 of ethylene in fruits or variations of pH in dairy products, must be strongly related to the variation in shelf life if the  
230 AI models are to provide practical predictions. ML is a powerful tool capable of handling enormous data volumes  
231 include food chemical composition, storage temperature, humidity, and non-destructive evaluation sensors for  
232 highly accurate predictions of product shelf life (Çetin et al., 2022; Do et al., 2024; Haghbin et al., 2023). Various  
233 traditional and novel ML models have been developed and applied in the food industry. The traditional ML models  
234 usually require structured and hand-engineered features, interpretable, and suffer from high-dimensional and  
235 unstructured data. While deep learning has been designed to automatically learn feature representations from raw  
236 data using multiple layers of computation, performing exceptionally well on unstructured data like images (Chen et  
237 al., 2023). The key difference lies in their complexity and feature extraction. While classical machine learning  
238 involves manual feature engineering, deep learning models learn from raw data hierarchically and are hence flexible  
239 but, at the same time, computationally expensive. However, some of them have been utilized in the shelf life  
240 prediction of food product. In the following, common models that have been applied and developed in the literature  
241 were described.

### 242 3.1. Traditional machine learning

#### 243 3.1.1. Linear models

244 Linear models consist of Multiple linear regression (MLR), Generalized linear models (GLM) and Partial least squares  
245 regression (PLSR). These algorithms are well-suited for straightforward, structured datasets, such as those obtained  
246 from chemical analysis. For example, MLR has been effectively applied to correlate shelf-life indicators in dairy  
247 products where relationships between features and outcomes are largely linear (Golzarizjalal et al., 2024). However,  
248 these models fall short when non-linear interactions such as microbial growth dynamics, or high-dimensional datasets  
249 are involved. MLR is a widely applied regression method assuming a linear relationship among predictors and the  
250 response variable. Since MLR illustrates how changes in the predictors influence the dependent variable by fitting a  
251 linear equation to the observed data, MLR models are straightforward to implement and interpret the linear  
252 relationships between the variables. MLR has been applied to correlate quality data with the shelf life indicators for a

253 variety of food products(Çetin et al., 2022; Dulger Altiner et al., 2024). However, some of the drawbacks to MLR  
254 models are non-linearity, inflated standard errors, unstable coefficient estimates, and overfitting to the data.

255 GLM extend traditional linear regression to accommodate a wider range of data types and distributions that might not  
256 follow a linear relationship. They can model various probability distributions for the dependent variable and therefore  
257 can be modeled with a variety of link functions such as an identity link in normal distribution, a logit link in binomial  
258 distribution, and a log link in Poisson distribution. According to Çetin et al. (2022) and Nturambirwe and Opara  
259 (2020), this was indicative that GLMs could become flexible in correlating a variety of data types. They also provide  
260 a unified framework for various regression models such as linear regression and logistic regression . However, the  
261 interpretation of coefficients in GLMs is less intuitive on many aspects when compared to linear regression analysis  
262 (Fan et al., 2019).

263 PLSR is designed to model the relationships of independent and dependent variables and this method is considered an  
264 efficient tool in both dimensionality reduction and predictive modelling (Ren and Sun, 2022). PLSR build upon the  
265 extraction of new latent variables that are highly correlated with the dependent variables such that this approach is  
266 particularly useful when the number of predictors is large and highly collinear or for the case when the number of  
267 observations is smaller than the number of predictors. It is such challenges that are quite common in datasets that are  
268 intrinsically complex, which also relates to datasets associated with predicting the shelf life of food items (Çetin et al.,  
269 2022; Goyal et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2023; Pieczywek et al., 2024; Sharma et al., 2023). It has also been observed a  
270 number of times that PLSR had the tendency to overfit when dealing with highly complex models or small datasets,  
271 because it works on maximum covariance between the variables rather than pure prediction accuracy. Therefore, the  
272 other developed ML methods in this regard have been preferred by researchers (Xiao et al., 2024; Shao et al., 2024;  
273 Francis et al., 2025).

### 274 3.1.2. Decision trees (DT) and random forests (RF)

275 DT and RF algorithms are exceptionally good at dealing with diverse data from multiple sources, such as sensory,  
276 microbial, and environmental information. RF is much more effective on fruits and vegetables whose spoilage depends  
277 on several related factors, which interact with one another, such as those related to the production of ethylene,  
278 temperature, and moisture (Goyal et al., 2024; Kanjilal et al., 2025). RF even prevents overfitting, enabling its  
279 application in real conditions. However, DT and RF are computationally intensive when dealing with extensive  
280 datasets, considering that optimization is necessary in such cases. DT operate by recursively splitting data into subsets  
281 based on their input features and makes a tree-like structure of decisions. In regression tasks, the model predicts the  
282 character of the new incoming data point by navigating the tree starting from the root node down to a leaf node (Hassan  
283 et al., 2024). RF is an ensemble learning method based on many decision trees to boost the accuracy of models and  
284 reduce overfitting. The methodology ensembles multiple decision trees to yield a more generalizable model. RF  
285 improves general model accuracy and robustness by averaging the predictions in the case of regression tasks or via a  
286 majority vote in case of classification tasks.

287 One of the key strengths of decision trees is their interpretability. Nturambirwe and Opara (2020) and Palumbo et al.  
288 (2024) mentioned that the model structure gives one obvious visual information about how the model makes decisions,  
289 thus, it becomes easily understandable. Furthermore, applied DT are good at describing complex and nonlinear  
290 relationships between data without any need for transformation of features, normalizing, or scaling. By nature, they  
291 are versatile in handling continuous and categorical data, hence suitable for a wide range of datasets (Çetin et al.,  
292 2022; Do et al., 2024; Nturambirwe and Opara, 2020; Palumbo et al., 2024; Sharma et al., 2023). On the other hand,  
293 DT and RF are prone to overfitting by the training data, especially in DTs with deep tree structures. Oliveira Chaves  
294 et al. (2023) found that with just a little change in the data, sometimes quite dramatic changes in the tree structure  
295 would result, meaning it was a less stable model. Therefore, RF reduces the risk of overfitting by taking an average  
296 of several decision trees' predictions and is less sensitive to outliers and noisy data; hence, they have the capability to  
297 handle large datasets with high-dimensional feature space(Oliveira Chaves et al., 2023; Goyal et al., 2024; Kanjilal et  
298 al., 2025).

### 299 3.1.3. Support vector machines (SVM)

300 SVM are supervised ML algorithms applied to establish regression models. The major goal of SVM is to find a  
301 decision boundary, normally referred to as the hyperplane, which splits various classes within data with maximum  
302 separation. Different from the other algorithms, which apply all data points to create decisions, SVM relies solely on  
303 the data points that might be closest to the decision boundary or hyperplane (Wang et al., 2022). For this purpose, it  
304 is highly suitable for nonlinear data, generally obtained in the spectroscopy or sensor-based analysis of volatile organic  
305 compounds in meat and poultry products (Esposito et al., 2024; Liang et al., 2024). The computational performance  
306 of SVM greatly depends on the choice of kernel-for example, radial basis function-that involves adapting kernel  
307 selection to fit the complexity of the dataset. Although highly accurate, SVM suffers from high computational cost  
308 with large datasets, hence presenting limitations to real-time applications. Manthou et al. (2020) demonstrated that it  
309 was computationally more efficient and more robust to outliers, hence, possibly reducing overfitting. Further, Manthou  
310 et al. (2022) and Haghbin et al. (2023) applied different kernel functions for SVM, which can handle both data of  
311 linearly and nonlinearly separated classes; it is thus flexible for most calibration modeling tasks. One of the  
312 disadvantages of SVM presented in the literature was that the performance of the SVM depends on the choice of the  
313 kernel and associated tuning of the kernel parameters. Besides, the computational load of an SVM increases with  
314 dataset size, hence not always suitable for the analysis of large datasets (Çetin et al., 2022; Huang et al, 2023; Jiang et  
315 al., 2023;Nturambirwe and Opara, 2020).

## 316 3.2. Deep learning and neural networks (NNs)

### 317 3.2.1. Multilayer perceptron (MLP)

318 MLPs can be considered one of the most used neural network architecture types in both classification and regression.  
319 Typically, MLP have more than three layers of nodes that are fully connected to each subsequent layer. Shi et al.  
320 (2023) and Deng et al. (2024) fully described the basic architecture of an MLP. The learning process in an MLP occurs  
321 through backpropagation and gradient descent. During the process of training, internally, the MLP adjusts internal

322 parameters like weights and biases by going forward with every step of the training data, computing loss and  
323 backpropagation so that for every MLR, the error between predicted and actual outputs gets minimized. MLP can be  
324 configured with respect to nonlinear relationship modeling. Moreover, works done by Anwar et al. (2023), Shi et al.  
325 (2023), and Karimi, (2025) have documented that this increase in the number of hidden layers gave the chance for an  
326 MLP to made deep representations of features that enhanced its generalization to new unseen data. The addition of  
327 more hidden layers however carries an added risk which could result in overfitting of MLPs against a training set.  
328 Training MLP is often a resource intensive process that always requires high processing and memory. In addition  
329 selecting the optimal hyperparameters of the model is often time-consuming and use methods such as grid searchers  
330 (Do et al., 2024; W. Huang et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2023).

### 331 3.2.2. Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)

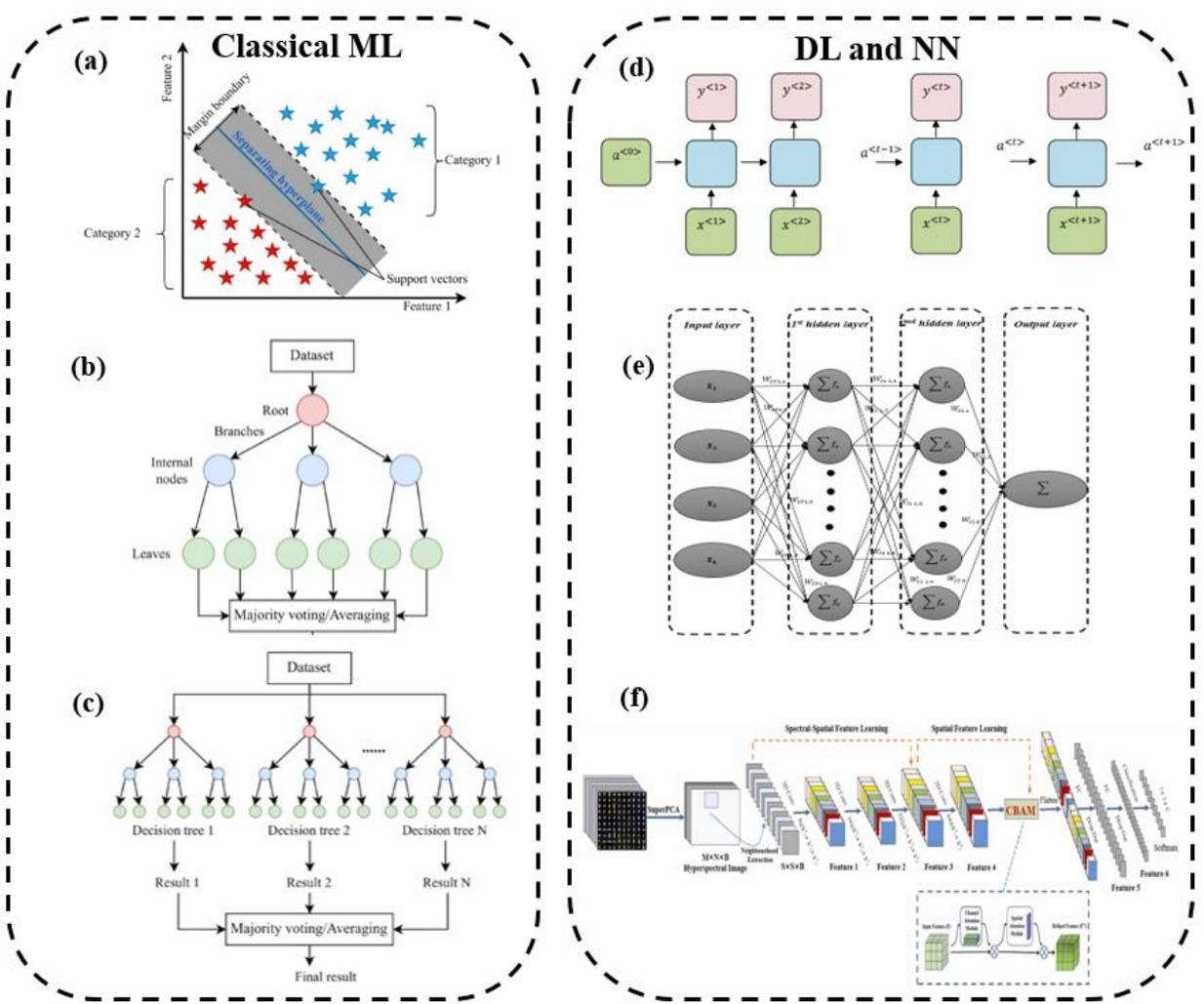
332 RNNs represent a class of ANNs which was specially designed to process sequential data. Unlike the traditional  
333 feedforward neural networks, such as MLP, these process their inputs independently. RNNs consist of directed cycles  
334 and this architecture can process any input sequences in a step-by-step manner (Nayak et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2024).  
335 Such architectures will possibly allow information to be kept over time and the information from the previous inputs  
336 is preserved, hence, the best-suited applications for RNNs include time-series forecasting tasks. Dhiman et al. (2021)  
337 and Kanjilal et al. (2025) evaluated a general-purpose multi-fruit system for the quality assessment of fruit by applying  
338 a recurrent neural network. They realized that in RNNs, the hidden state was a sort of memory that got updated at  
339 every input, and each hidden state at every time step got revised.

### 340 3.2.3. Convolutional neural networks (CNN)

341 The CNN is a special kind of neural network used to process data with grid-like topology. In particular, image and  
342 spectra data come as two important means of the effective prediction of shelf life. With the ability to detect significant  
343 features from raw input data using a convolutional filter, CNNs do an extremely good job in the identification of  
344 spatial patterns such as edges, textures, and shapes in images, hence being very powerful in performing tasks which  
345 concern visual data (Shi et al., 2023; Cui et al., 2023). While traditional feed-forward neural networks form the basis  
346 for a CNN, the convolutional layer applies a set of filters to the input data. For that reason, the researchers applied  
347 ANN, FNN, and CNN and then selected the best topology for use in their model to predict shelf life (Wu et al., 2022;  
348 Nayak et al., 2020; Goyal et al., 2024). CNN consists of an element-wise product of a filter with a portion of the input  
349 data, followed by a sum of products. Each filter then slides over the input data detecting specific features such as  
350 edges, corners, and textures. This process is repeated as the filter moves across the entirety of the input, thus creating  
351 a feature.

352 Figure2 illustrated a comparison of the architectures of classical ML and DL, with the main methods in both. In  
353 Figure2a, the procedure of regression by SVM was presented, where a hyperplane could optimally predict with regard  
354 to features for a certain item. Critical data points near the decision boundary in that hyperplane were marked as support  
355 vectors. Single DT model represents the split of data at each internal node based on features, tracing down the tree  
356 through branches to leaves, and giving the final output of regression by majority voting or averaging, whichever

357 applies (Figure2b). This concept is extended in Figure 2.c to an ensemble of such trees, where multiple trees are  
 358 making independent estimates for a dataset, the final prediction being given by majority vote among the results of  
 359 these individual trees, further enhancing robustness (Lin et al., 2023). Figure 2d depicts an RNN with an input  $x < t >$   
 360 as a time-series flowing into time-step-dependent hidden layers to model in temporal relationships (Dhiman et al.,  
 361 2021). Figure 2.e shows a feedforward neural network architecture with input, hidden, and output layers was defined;  
 362 neurons will be interconnected and process inputs via weighted summation and activation functions. Figure 2.f shoes  
 363 spectral-spatial feature learning in CNN - based models, for hyperspectral image analysis (Wang et al., 2024). Features  
 364 were first extracted by convolutional filters in the layers and then the attention mechanisms sharpen both the spatial  
 365 and spectral representations. These subfigures together present the evolution from the classical ML model to state-of-  
 366 the-art deep learning architectures. These are suited to different levels of complexity and types of data.



367  
 368 Figure2. Comparison of Classical Machine Learning and Deep Learning Architectures: (a) Support Vector Machine  
 369 (SVM) classifier illustrating decision boundary and support vectors; (b) Decision Tree model with hierarchical data  
 370 splits; (c) Random Forest ensemble model combining multiple decision trees for robust prediction (Reproduced from  
 371 Lin et al., 2023); (d) Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) for sequential data processing (Reproduced from Dhiman et

372 al., 2021); (e) Feedforward Neural Network with multiple hidden layers; (f) Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)  
373 (Reproduced from Wang et al., 2024).

#### 374 3.2.4. Transfer learning (TL)

375 TL involves transferring knowledge gained from a source task to a new target task where limited data and  
376 computational resources exist. In fact, it aims at exploiting a model already developed for a particular task in  
377 performing well on another related but different task (Deng et al., 2024). This would be really useful in applications  
378 because training a deep neural network right from scratch would be computationally prohibitively expensive, or even  
379 impossible, given that there is no large labeled dataset available. Similar transfer learning was done by Kim et al.  
380 (2022) and Razavi et al. (2024) for predicting the shelf life and quality of egg and rice, respectively. They explained  
381 that through transfer learning, pre-trained models allow the reuse of features and representations previously learned,  
382 hence enhancing performance while reducing training times and data size.

383

#### 384 3.2.5. Hybrid models

385 In addition to MLP, RNN, CNN, and transfer learning, which are widely used, other identified ANN architectures  
386 include radial basis function neural networks, autoencoders, and generative adversarial networks, all of which have  
387 great potential for application in predicting product quality and shelf life. These algorithms may provide higher  
388 prediction accuracy and faster convergence in predications regarding the shelf life of food (Haghbin et al., 2023; W.  
389 Huang et al., 2023). Hybrid models generally refer to the integration of two or more different algorithms into ML; in  
390 this way, the strengths developed with one approach complement the weaknesses found in another, and a more robust  
391 system is achieved. Hybrid models come into play especially when the performance by mono-models turns out to be  
392 unsatisfactory. Hybrid models combine algorithms in both parallel and/or sequential ways (Huang et al., 2023).

### 393 **4. Data processing and model development**

#### 394 4.1. Data Collection and Processing

395 Data collection and exploratory data analysis are the first step of any ML model development aimed at shelf life  
396 prediction, as they have an impact on the further quality and relevance of data input for model training and  
397 optimisation. Some ML methods may also require different types of input data, such as historical shelf life,  
398 environmental factors, intrinsic product characteristics, and conditions of packaging (Wang et al., 2022; Lin et al.,  
399 2023). It is observed from the literature that in traditional ML, data collection mostly focuses on key predictive features  
400 such as time-temperature abuse and microbial counts obtained from experimental studies and controlled laboratory  
401 conditions (Gonzalez Viejo et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2022; Ren et al., 2023; Yıkmış et al., 2024). Furthermore,  
402 Yudhistira et al. (2024), Liao et al. (2023), Cui et al. (2024), and Esposito et al. (2024) applied preprocessing methods  
403 including feature standardization or normalization to ensure that all features were on a comparable scale, making them  
404 suitable for models sensitive to feature scale.

405 Advanced ML techniques, such as neural networks and ensemble methods, require more sophisticated data quality  
406 and preprocessing since they are able to process complex nonlinear relationships among the input data (Ma et al.,  
407 2024). Most researchers outlook for capturing such subtle patterns, which could not be identified with simple models,  
408 these advanced ML algorithms had to be fed with large datasets. It was the sensor and IoT-generated data that provided  
409 real-time updates on the existing storage conditions and spoilage indicators(Nayak et al.,2020; Bhagya Raj and Dash,  
410 2022; Shi et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2024). Further, it was the resultant sensor and IoT-generated data which provide real-  
411 time updates regarding existing storage conditions and spoilage indicators. Wu et al. (2022) applied convolution neural  
412 network combines with long short-term memory NN methods for predicting the shelf life of salmon with fluctuating  
413 temperature. Current microbial kinetic equations could predict freshness for certain conditions where temperature was  
414 fixed; once the temperature fluctuated, they became ineffective. They employed deep learning to determine the  
415 inherent relationship of variable temperature during storage and proposed a new model called CNN\_LSTM. Overall,  
416 every ML technique therefore demands a specific process for data collection and treatment pertinent to their specific  
417 requirements as documented in the literature (Ropelewska and Noutfia, 2024; Pieczywek et al., 2024; Cheng et al.,  
418 2025; Francis et al., 2025). Using preprocessed, engineered, and augmented data, researchers were confident that  
419 robust models of shelf life prediction emerged on a variety of food products and diverse storage environments could  
420 be achieved.

#### 421 4.2. Model training and validation

422 Model training and validation include some of the key steps involved in the process when a ML model is developed  
423 to create an effective prediction model for food shelf life. Data partitioning, hyper-parameters tuning, and model  
424 performance evaluation are required for model reliability and generalizability (Lin et al., 2023). linear regression,  
425 DTs, and SVR perform training, usually by the selection of the most informative features from those that best correlate  
426 with shelf life, and optimization of model parameters in order to minimize the prediction errors ( Huang et al., 2023;  
427 Rong et al., 2024; Liao et al. 2023; Gonzales Viejo and Fuentes). Harris et al. (2023) tried hyperparameter tuning  
428 with the purpose of making sure that the model was well-calibrated against the datasets by using methodologies such  
429 as a Grid Search or a Random Search.

430 Also, complex optimizers can be applied together with regularization techniques in the training process of deep models  
431 to avoid overfitting, according to Nayak et al. (2020), Dhiman et al. (2021), and Ma et al. (2024). K-fold cross-  
432 validation in this context was used quite a lot for performing both types of cross-validation in order to make sure each  
433 subset of data was used both as a train and a test set to make the model more generalizable by testing across a variety  
434 of parts of the data.

435 Performance metrics in general add up model structure and target objectives. When comparing this to the conventional  
436 ML model used by Liao et al. (2023), Yıkmiş et al. (2024), and Esposito et al. (2024), very simple-type metrics were  
437 measured in these approaches. Additional verification of predictive validity was also pursued inside the derived  
438 models in the literature regarding performance measures characterized by values like R-squared, precision and recall,  
439 and F1-score (Bhagya Raj and Dash, 2022; Ropelewska and Noutfia, 2024; Francis et al., 2025). The extant literature  
440 further tends to suggest that robust and transferable models must entirely exploit the available validation metrics and

441 techniques. In detail, training, tuning, and validation for each model type may provide the researchers with an ability  
442 to produce an accurate and robust model for shelf-life prediction suitable for a wide variety of foods and conditions.

## 443 **5. Intelligent systems**

### 444 5.1. Machine vision

445 Machine vision has been one of the most widely applied techniques to predict the shelf life of various food  
446 commodities, mainly based on changes in color, texture, shape, and surface of the commodity over time, as captured  
447 by any form of imaging technique. In meats and poultry products, machine vision displays color and surface texture  
448 changes that were associated with microbial growth and shelf life (Sánchez et al., 2023; Albano-Gaglio et al., 2025).  
449 It is possible for vision systems to detect parameters of shelf life for fruits and vegetables, including ripening, bruising,  
450 decaying, by imaging the external color shifts and surface deformation (Goyal et al., 2024; Shanthini et al., 2025). In  
451 the case of dairy products, machine vision helps monitor mold growth and discoloration (Bosakova-Ardenska, 2024;  
452 Loddo et al., 2025). These visual features, when processed through ML models, suggest effective non-destructive  
453 ways of predicting shelf life across a wide range of food categories as documented in scientific studies.

454 Applications of machine vision systems can be automated for many uses to realize high-throughput assessments in  
455 real-time environments like production lines in various food industries. However, these have been limited in real  
456 world application due to varied lighting conditions, noise in the background, and the complexity of product  
457 textures (Saeed et al., 2022; Oliveira Chaves et al., 2023; Peveler, 2024). The same type of food products comes in a  
458 variety of shape, size, and color, which introduce inconsistencies that have to be preprocessed extensively in order to  
459 calibrate the model for reliable results. Sánchez et al. (2023), Goyal et al. (2024) and Loddo et al. (2025) worked on  
460 the prediction of shelf life of beef, tomato and cheese, respectively and they identified inconsistencies problem with  
461 the computer vision system coupled ML. They indicated, that although machine vision worked quite well for external  
462 changes in quality, it was inadequate to point out internal spoilage indicators that did not show up as visual features,  
463 such as the chemical changes in the case of beef or even microbial growth in cheese, hence necessarily needing other  
464 complementary techniques such as spectroscopy for a more holistic prediction model.

### 465 5.2. Spectroscopy devices

466 Spectroscopic methodologies span a wide application domain in the prediction of the shelf life of food products,  
467 considering their measurement is based on changes in chemical and molecular composition related to spoilage. Near  
468 infrared spectroscopy (NIR) has been used for the detection of protein degradation, lipid oxidation, and microbial  
469 growth—all factors to explore food freshness and shelf-life determination (Gonzalez Viejo et al., 2018; Bisutti et al.,  
470 2024; Albano-Gaglio et al., 2025). While Raman spectroscopy is effective in monitoring the oxidation of lipids and  
471 degradation of proteins, measurement of acidity and sugar content increases, among other changes in compositions,  
472 can also indicate the shelf life status of foods. This makes it a versatile tool in several other food categories (Campos  
473 et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2025). Other spectroscopy methods such as Fourier Transform (Gao et al., 2024), Mid-  
474 Infrared (Lan et al., 2022), fluorescence (Venturini et al., 2024), ultraviolet (Joshi et al., 2022), electrical impedance

475 (Huang et al., 2023) and hyperspectral imaging (combining computer vision and spectra data) (Francis et al., 2025)  
476 has been coupled with ML to predict the shelf life of various products.

477 These methods have some drawbacks when it comes to food shelf life prediction. A major limitation that spectroscopy  
478 methods had in the past was the fact that they dealt with very complex data, requiring advanced preprocessing.  
479 Baseline correction, de-noising, and normalization were required for the removal of variabilities brought about either  
480 by sample variability and/or environmental conditions using techniques such as Savitzky Golay algorithm (SGA) and  
481 Standard normal variate (SNV) used by Lan et al. (2022), Bisutti et al.(2024), Venturini et al. (2024), and Zhao et al.  
482 (2025). In these regards, another important factor that influences the measurement outcomes is related to the fact that  
483 spectroscopic equipment is sensitive to changes in environmental conditions concerning temperature and moisture  
484 changes. The literature expressed that further improvement through the parallel development of both spectroscopic  
485 hardware and data treatment is needed as a way of developing technology that will be increasingly unobtrusive and  
486 easy to use for ordinary shelf-life prediction applications.

### 487 5.3. Miscellaneous sensors

488 Advanced sensing technologies along with different data integration approaches were used in the prediction of the  
489 shelf life of food products with very high accuracy. An electronic nose has been employed in the prediction of the  
490 shelf life of food products through the detection of volatile organic compounds released during spoilage of the food  
491 (Anwar et al., 2023).Gonzalez Viejo and Fuentes, (2020) and Wijaya et al. (2023) investigated the pattern of volatile  
492 organic compounds profiles of beer and seafood using machine learning algorithms and an electronic nose. Likewise,  
493 during microbial growth, specific gases such as carbon dioxide and ethylene were emitted, hence gas sensors had also  
494 been applied for the prediction of shelf life in some food products. It could provide data input for AI models by  
495 monitoring the gas sensors for concentration and rate of change of those gases associated with spoilage (Liang et al.,  
496 2024). The miscellaneous intelligent systems such as RGB-colourimetric resazurin assay (Thanasirikul et al., 2023),  
497 and DNA sensor array (Wang et al., 2025) have been improved food quality control thanks to better estimates of the  
498 residual shelf life due to fluctuating environmental and biological conditions.

499 Table 1 presents an overview of several ML models for a diverse range of sensors and imaging systems applied for  
500 the shelf-life prediction. Dts, SVM, NN, RF, and Linear Regression have been some of the models most generally in  
501 use, with optimized hyperparameters for the tasks at hand, such as kernel selection in the case of an SVR, or a limit  
502 on the depth of the decision tree. Data preprocessing techniques vary by sensor type, specifically image normalization  
503 and color channel separation for machine vision; spectral smoothing and SNV transformation for hyperspectral  
504 imaging; and baseline correction for spectroscopy-based systems. Each model-sensor combination suffers from  
505 limitations, mostly due to environmental and sample variability factors. For example, Sánchez et al. (2023) and Zhang  
506 et al. (2025) stated that good lighting was required in the precision of their models since the basis of machine vision  
507 system and hyperspectral imaging is sensitive under conditions related to lighting and sample variability. Other  
508 disadvantages include recalibration upon the use of different products (Goyal et al., 2024) whereas other problems  
509 regard low detectability of compositional changes of lower magnitude, in general, for fluorescence spectroscopy  
510 (Venturini et al., 2024). These references draw a comparative look whereby, advanced ML models are improving the

511 predictive accuracy of robust preprocessing, maintaining experimental conditions in such a manner as to reduce  
 512 possible limitations in different applications.

513 Table1. Overview of Machine Learning Models, Data Preprocessing Techniques, and System Limitations Across  
 514 Sensor-Based Analytical Applications

Smart systems and sensors	Utilized devices	Applied ML models	Hyper parameters and model settings	Data pre-processing	Limitation of applied system coupled ML models	References
Machine Vision	Sony DSC W830 (compensating the exposure brightness to +1.0 in all cases), two LED light, t keep the interior light of the booth constant at 640 lm	Decision tree, multivariate normal distribution, logistic regression	Color histogram bin count, resolution	Image normalization, color channel separation (RGB to grayscale)	Accuracy dependent on color uniformity and controlled lighting	Sánchez et al. (2023)
	One Plus AC2001 mobile camera, LED lights (9 W)	Support vector regression, decision tree, random forest, neural network,	SVR kernel, decision tree depth limit	Mean centering, standardization, principal component analysis	Susceptible to lighting variations, requires re-calibration for different produce	Goyal et al.(2024)
	Nikon D750	Neural network, support vector regression, random forest, multiple linear regression	Split criteria for decision tree, kernel selection for support vector regression	Image resizing, Gaussian noise filtering	Generalizability limited across product types; sensitive to light interference	Loddo et al. (2025)
Hyperspectral Imaging	ImSpector V10E, Specim (380–1030 nm), two 150w tungsten halogen lamps (Fiber-Lite DC950 Illuminator, Dolan Jenner Industries Inc, USA), a 12-bit CCD camera	Support vector regression, deep learning	Layer count, regularization	Savitzky-Golay smoothing, multiplicative scatter correction, standard normal variate, successive projections algorithm, competitive adaptive reweighting sampling, and iteratively retains	Sensitive to lighting and sample variability	Zhang et al. (2025)

				informative variables		
	Specim IQ camera (400–1000 nm)	Deep neural networks	Rank setting, layer configuration	Spectral smoothing, standard normal variate, principle component analysis	Sensitive to lighting, high computation for spatial variability	Francis et al. (2025)
	Spectronon, Resonon (wavelength range of 386–1015 nm, encompassing 300 wavebands at 2 nm intervals), Four 50 W tungsten-halogen lamps	Robust regression	Spectral bandwidth, calibration with standards	Spectral filtering , 1st and 2nd derivative preprocessing	Calibration needed across sources; limited in detecting subtle textural changes	Albano-Gaglio et al. (2025)
	HySpex-VNIR-1800 camera (00 nm to 1000 nm and a spectral sampling interval of 3.18 nm)	Support vector regression, neural network ,decision trees, random forest	Regularization Parameter, Kernel, n_neighbors, Max Depth, n_estimators	Spectral smoothing, standard normal variate, Mean centering	Sensitive to lighting; high computational power required	Shanthini et al. (2025)
	microPHAZIR™ RX Analyzer (1600–2396 nm)	Linear regression, neural network	Learning rate for neural network, feature standardization	Baseline correction, Savitzky-Golay filter	Limited for complex product, influenced by foam and turbidity variations	Gonzalez Viejo et al. (2018)
Multi spectroscopy	Bruker Optics® (12500 to 4000 cm <sup>-1</sup> ), horizontal attenuated total reflectance (4000 cm <sup>-1</sup> to 800 cm <sup>-1</sup> ), Confocal Raman Microscope Senterra II spectrometer (50 to 3650 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Linear regression	Number of components, spectral region selection	Spectral smoothing, Savitzky-Golay, principle component analysis	Limited in correlating complex textural traits; sensitive to sample preparation	Lan et al. (2022)
	NIR 256-2.5, Ocean Optic-QR400-7-VIS-BX	Support vector regression	Regularization parameter, kernel, degree	Standard Normal Variate, Multiplicative Scatter Correction , Savitzky Golay	Limited accuracy for high-variation samples,	Joshi et al. (2022)

				derivatives, principal component smoothing, and Gaussian smoothing.	affected by external lighting	
Infrared spectroscopy	MilkoScan FT6000 (5011 to 925 (cm <sup>-1</sup> ))	Random forest, deep learning	Number of latent variables, spectral resolution	Model's weights	Limited to specific minerals, impacted by milk quality variations	Bisutti et al. (2024)
Raman spectroscopy	Bruker RFS 100, Peltier-cooled CCD camera and coupled to a Leica Microscope (DM2500 M)	Linear regression	-	-	Less accurate for irregular shapes, sensitive to surface variations	Campos et al. (2024)
Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy	PerkinElmer Frontier Optical (5005–1000 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Linear regression	-	Fourier smoothing, principle component analysis	Limited to certain compounds of product	Gao et al. (2024)
Fluorescence spectroscopy	-	Linear regression, random Forest	Cluster count, number of estimators in random forest	background subtraction, spectral filtering	Limited in detecting subtle composition changes	Venturini et al. (2024)
Electrical impedance spectroscopy	TH2816A, Tonghui Electronic Co	Random forest, support vector regression	Number of estimators, discriminant function	Standardization, normalization	Limited in distinguishing close profiles, affected by sample consistency	Huang et al. (2023)
Electronic nose	MQ136, MQ137, MQ5, MQ8	Random forest	Number of estimators, max depth	Data augmentation	Sensor drift, influenced by environmental odors	Wijaya et al. (2023)
	Designed and fabricated by the authors	Neural network	Number of neurons, hidden layers, transfer function	Standardization, noise filtering, Gaussian smoothing	Limited in detecting subtle flavor compounds; sensor drift over time	Gonzalez Viejo and Fuentes, (2020)
Gas sensor	MQ136, MQ137, MQ138, TGS2612, TGS822, and TGS26006	Support vector regression, multiple regression	Feature selection, stacking layer settings	Spectral normalization, baseline correction	Susceptible to ambient odors, influenced by humidity	Liang et al. (2024)

RGB-colourimetric resazurin assay	ISL29125 colour sensor, SMD LED LiteOn LTW-150TK	Support vector regression	Kernel type	Mean centering, RGB to grayscale transformation	Sensitive to temperature, limited by colorimetric detection	Thanasirikul et al. (2023)
DNA sensor array	-	Multiple regression, neural network	Hidden layer configuration for multiple regression	Standardization, spectral smoothing	Limited by probe specificity; sensor sensitivity constraints	Wang et al. (2025)

515

516 **6. Case studies of AI in predicting shelf life**

517 6.1. Fruit and vegetables

518 Shelf-life prediction of fruits and vegetables has great potential to reduce food losses, ensure quality, and improve  
519 supply chain management. Such methods integrated multiple data sources including but not limited to visual  
520 appearance, physicochemical indicators, volatile composition, and environmental conditions. Using these state-of-  
521 the-art computational models, the main issues to be solved by researchers are non-destructive testing, speed  
522 classification, and resource efficiency; applications can reach both the industrial and consumer levels. These AI-driven  
523 applications, further, can analyze big datasets, anything from physical and chemical environmental parameters to those  
524 affecting ripeness and spoilage of the produce itself (Ren et al., 2023).

525 Image-based machine learning applications have been inducted towards development of predictive systems which  
526 analyze appearance quality signals of fruits and vegetables. Adoption of several imaging techniques involving CCD  
527 camera (Knott et al., 2023; Han et al., 2022), hyperspectral (Logan et al., 2021; Shanthini et al., 2025), thermal imaging  
528 (Bhole and Kumar, 2021; Melesse et al., 2022), and Specialized modality like MRI (Yakatpure et al., 2022) . Knott et  
529 al. (2023) showed the great potential of pre-trained Vision Transformers, which could attain high classification  
530 accuracy with much smaller datasets on tasks such as apple defect detection and banana ripeness estimation. Similarly,  
531 Bhole and Kumar (2021) have highlighted the potential use of thermal imaging with CNN-based models for mango  
532 shelf-life prediction, which resulted in an accuracy above 98%. Likewise, thermal imaging has also been harnessed in  
533 creating a digital twin for bananas that provides optimum storage insight (Melesse et al., 2022). Logan et al. (2021)  
534 further made the comparison between traditional CCD camera and hyperspectral imaging and they revealed that  
535 hyperspectral imaging, when used as an input, outperforms the RGB method on freshness classification and age  
536 prediction of a number of products like potatoes and bananas. In contrast, Han et al. (2022) used only RGB datasets  
537 combined with ResNet and DenseNet architectures for freshness classification, with the results being robust,  
538 considering challenging factors such as data imbalance.

539 Non-destructive analytical methods have been widely applied in relation to machine learning for the shelf-life  
540 prediction of fruits and vegetables by measuring texture, color, chlorophyll content, and water loss without damaging  
541 the product (Ren et al., 2023). Hyperspectral imaging has been done to estimate biochemical changes such as sugar

542 levels and acidity in strawberries (Do et al., 2024) and mandarins (Zhang,et al., 2025) while the machine vision  
543 systems estimate visual cues of freshness in bananas (Kanjilal et al., 2025)and tomatoes (Goyal.et al., 2024). These  
544 non-invasive techniques enable real-time monitoring, thus offering good data for ML models to predict spoilage. On  
545 the other hand, destructive techniques include various chemical assays to observe ethylene output and organic acid  
546 levels of the commodity. These are really less suitable for continuous assessment. The potential integration of different  
547 non-destructive tools with AI fuels sustainability and improves precision in postharvest segments of the produce  
548 supply chain at all levels.

549 Various techniques, such as machine vision coupled with AI for color and texture analysis (Dhiman et al., 2021;  
550 Ropelewska and Noutfia, 2024; Palumbo et al., 2024), and spectroscopy for the detection of changes in the molecular  
551 composition (Xiao et al., 2024; Shanthini et al., 2025; Francis et al., 2025), detect changes in quality, including internal  
552 bruises that may cause further decay. Recently, Shanthini et al. (2025) and Zhang et al. (2025) used hyperspectral and  
553 NIR spectroscopy for the detection of internal biochemical changes in fruits like strawberries and mandarins by  
554 capturing spectral data about water content, sugar levels, acidity, and chlorophyll degradation. Mukhiddinov et al.  
555 (2022) extended the application of image-based models to classify fruits and vegetables as fresh or rotten by  
556 incorporating YOLOv4 with enhanced activation functions. Their system was designed for operation in various  
557 lighting conditions and targeted industrial applications, such as supermarkets, and assistive technologies, like smart  
558 glasses for visually impaired persons. Applications can also reach as far as real-world tools, for instance, the mobile  
559 application suggested by Tata et al. (2022) makes use of CNNs for quality grading. Using a dataset of 2000 images  
560 per category of produce, their system rapidly provides scalable analysis of fruits and vegetables in marketplaces for  
561 bridging gaps between producers and consumers, hence smoothing the quality assessment processes. However, these  
562 tools must be adapted to the specific target group in view of their particular needs and the usability and interface  
563 design requirements of the tools in question (Senge et al., 2025).

## 564 6.2. Meat and poultry

565 AI has refined the preciseness of the applications used in the prediction of the shelf life of meat, fish, and poultry in  
566 food quality control. Recently, huge datasets derived from sensory, microbial data, chemical, and environmental ones  
567 have been used to train models for AI applications with high accuracy regarding spoilage and freshness level  
568 predictions (Wu et al., 2022; Saeed et al., 2025). By applying this knowledge in real time from the conditions of  
569 storage-tasked parameters, such as gas composition, AI is capable of predicting how these variables will affect  
570 microbial proliferation and enclave chemical changes that may appear in products. Several researchers developed  
571 machine learning algorithms for color, texture, and volatile organic compounds among several other spoilage  
572 indicators for real-time assessment of meat quality (Gong et al., 2023; Cui et al., 2024; Esposito et al., 2024). AI-based  
573 shelf-life prediction is further applied for perishable seafood like Rainbow trout (Saeed et al., 2025), Salmon (Wu et  
574 al., 2022), Balsa fish (Cao et al., 2025), and pacific white shrimp, cuttlefish, squid, and octopus (Wijaya et al., 2023).

575 The methods for forecasting the shelf life of meat and poultry have both destructive and non-destructive techniques,  
576 which are now integrated with ML. Nondestructive tools include an electronic nose and hyperspectral imaging that  
577 have been applied on routine basis to detect the volatile compounds, color changes and surface texture-assumed as

578 vital signs from spoilage (Esposito et al., 2024). Electronic noses detect ammonia and carbon dioxide gases produced  
579 by spoilage in rainbow trout (Saeed et al., 2025), while hyperspectral imaging detects the change in composition of  
580 fat and protein in pork and beef (Sánchez et al., 2023; Albano-Gaglio et al., 2025). These were complemented by more  
581 accurate, yet destructive, approaches-microbial culturing and chemical analysis of lipid oxidation and protein  
582 degradation-provide high-accuracy data to train the ML models. While destructive tests are still indispensable in some  
583 applications, there is an increasing trend towards the non-destructive technique in the field of real-time and continuous  
584 monitoring due to the reduction in waste and efficiency improvement on predictability.

585 Some key parameters, as chemical indicators in estimating quality and shelf life with the help of digital technologies  
586 combined with ML are pH, water activity, lipid oxidation, or protein degradation. These were monitored with a high  
587 frequency to estimate spoilage processes for various items that were stored or shipped (Albano-Gaglio et al., 2025).  
588 On this aspect, microbial load, which expresses the presence and rate of development of spoilage organisms, has also  
589 been pointed out independently by Wu et al. (2022), Gong et al. (2023), and Luo et al. (2025) as another main factor  
590 in the determination of shelf life. For this reason, advanced sensors of environmental conditions like temperature and  
591 gas composition were used, while ML models against them were employed for the creation of smart monitoring  
592 (Esposito et al., 2024; Saeed et al., 2025; Cao et al., 2025). Digital imaging technologies determine colors, texture,  
593 and changes in the appearance of the products (Gong et al., 2023; Sánchez et al., 2023; Albano-Gaglio et al., 2025),  
594 while electronic noses detect volatile organic compounds released during spoilage (Wijaya et al., 2023, Cui et al.,  
595 2024). The data supplied through these sensors are then fed into ML models where, with the correlation of those  
596 parameters with the rate of spoilage, real-time prediction about shelf life is done. A combination of digital  
597 measurement technologies with machine learning forms a generic data-driven approach toward managing the quality  
598 of perishable meats.

### 599 6.3. Dairy products

600 AI models have been used to predict the shelf life of dairy products by analyzing microbial growth, storage conditions,  
601 and chemical composition to obtain a closer approximation of the product's longevity (Freire et al., 2024). Thus, ML  
602 algorithms use real-time data from temperature, humidity, and packaging to predict the rate of spoilage and the shelf  
603 life of varieties of cheese, milk, and yogurt (Bi et al., 2022; Golzarjalal et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2025).

604 Precise prediction of shelf life of milk products is highly important for such extremely perishable products, due to  
605 susceptibility to microbial growth and changes caused by enzymatic and chemical activity (Mhapsekar et al., 2024;  
606 Sunithamani et al., 2024). Therefore, various new-generational technologies have been coupled with ML for the  
607 current study, including matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry (Zhang et al.,  
608 2022), Fourier-transformed MIR spectroscopy (Bisutti et al., 2024), electrical impedance spectroscopy (Huang et al.,  
609 2023), and a colorimetric device (Thanasirikul et al., 2023). AI could, therefore, predict, based on the microbial data  
610 analysis, when the bacterial levels will reach spoilage thresholds, enabling the accurate estimation of remaining shelf  
611 life. With ML, the real-time prediction is dynamic, improving the quality of the product through optimization of  
612 production with shelf-life forecasting, thus making it indispensable in the AI of perishable milk.

613 The same applies to the dairy sector, which has applied a mix of non-destructive and destructive methods coupled  
614 with ML in order to predict shelf life. Examples of such non-destructive methods are FTIR spectroscopy and electrical  
615 impedance spectroscopy. Indeed, both are among the most popular techniques to analyze changes in pH, protein  
616 degradation, and mineral content in milk and cheese (High et al., 2021; Bisutti et al., 2024). In general, instruments  
617 based on this principle will provide a rapid, nondestructive test for indicators of spoilage. Other destructive methods  
618 of microbial enumeration or chemical analysis of the proteolysis have been used in the prediction of spoilage of  
619 Mozzarella and Cheddar cheese (Golzarjalal et al., 2024). For example, though destructive, Thanasirikul et al. (2023)  
620 reported RGB-colorimetric assays yield more accurate microbial data which the ML models can utilize for dynamic  
621 predictions of shelf-life. Coupling AI with nondestructive tools has proved to offer sustainable monitoring of spoilage  
622 in real time with reduced loss during testing of the product.

623 AI also predicted the shelf life of a variety of cheeses by analyzing their complex physical and chemical properties,  
624 including pH, salt concentration, and microbial activity (Rocha et al., 2020; Chaturvedi et al., 2020; High et al., 2021;  
625 Loddo et al., 2022). Rocha et al. (2020) have applied ML models to process large datasets of both historical and real-  
626 time data. They explained how those factors affect the growth of spoilage organisms and associated biochemical  
627 changes, including breakdowns of proteins and fat in minas cheese. Further, Golzarjalal et al. (2024) applied ML  
628 modeling to develop a relationship between proteolysis and observed spoilage rates of Mozzarella and Cheddar cheese,  
629 and finally, AI might give exact predictions for the shelf life of the cheese. Besides, sensory data such as color, texture,  
630 and odor changes were combined with chemical markers like levels of proteolysis to fine-tune predictions (High et  
631 al., 2021; Loddo et al., 2022). Literature indicated that the AI approach provides quality assurance in the dairy industry  
632 for optimized conditions of processes and storage with improved product shelf-life management.

#### 633 6.4. Soft drink and beverages

634 AI transforms the beverage industry by making several improvements to the production process for greater customer  
635 satisfaction. Shelf-life forecasting of vegetable fruit beverages is one of the most complex challenges facing repetitive  
636 formula adjustments and continuous process optimization that impede rapid intervention. These diversified beverage  
637 demands are stretching the traditionally employed research and development methods to high costs and long  
638 development cycles. Researchers have been addressing the development of models for the integration of novel sensors  
639 with machine learning with the aim of predicting the shelf life and processing parameters of vegetable-fruit  
640 beverages (Liu et al., 2022; Ren et al., 2023; Liao et al., 2023; Yıkımsı et al., 2024). Advanced data processing  
641 techniques, such as data fusion and imputation further increase the possibility of analysis by the model. For example,  
642 Ren et al. (2023) used RF and deep neural networks while predicting processes and shelf life based on the electronic  
643 sensing technologies for sea buckthorn-passion fruit juice beverages. They suggested that in future research, one might  
644 investigate the process of transfer learning, where parameters of a trained model can be transferred into new models,  
645 which then make it easier to predict processes for other kinds of beverage processes, such as fermentation.

646 Fermentation levels and periods that the juice will survive are interlinked as it may generally impact its stability,  
647 safety, and quality over time. In non-pasteurized or poorly stored juices, fermentation can occur so rapidly that  
648 spoilage occurs, thereby reducing the product's shelf life, whereas, for pasteurized juices, this may not be the case

649 (Niu et al., 2024). Liao et al. (2023) and Zou et al. (2024) investigated the fermentation characteristics of blueberry  
650 and pomegranate juices, respectively, using regression modeling and ML optimization to predict the shelf life of these  
651 products. To investigate the relationship between fermentation characteristics and juice shelf life, 9 machine learning  
652 models were used to develop regression models. The linear models considered in this case included linear regression  
653 and ridge regression, with comparison to other non-linear models consisting of k-nearest neighbor, SVR, RF, adaptive  
654 boosting, gradient boosting, bootstrap aggregating, and ANN (Zou et al., 2024). Similarly, Liao et al. (2023) illustrated  
655 that ML was able to predict the blueberry juice shelf life based on the presence of *S. thermophilus* with *L. fermentum*  
656 or *L. plantarum*, along with total phenolic content. Further, ML has been used to predict the impact of non-thermal  
657 treatments such as ultrasound (Yıkımsı et al., 2024) and high-pressure processing (Liu et al., 2022) on the quality of  
658 juice and, thus, its shelf life. The bioactive compounds and treatment parameters in both the referred studies were  
659 optimized using various ML techniques such as ANFIS and BPNN. The results showed that there was a high  
660 correlation between the empirical data and the predictions of the ML models, with residual values being very small.  
661 These ML models have also been efficient in predicting the shelf life and characteristics, such as bioactive and volatile  
662 compounds, of other beverages like beer and wine (Gonzalez Viejo et al., 2018; Gonzalez Viejo et al., 2020; Harris et  
663 al., 2023; Gao et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024).

664 Quality attributes and shelf-life evaluation in wine is usually an expensive and time-consuming process as it is majorly  
665 carried out in a well-equipped laboratory containing several complex chemical and sensory analyses. Harris et al.  
666 (2023) assessed Shiraz wine for shelf life using NIR spectroscopy with an integrated low-cost electronic nose  
667 combined with ML models. The developed ML approach predicts wine shelf life with good accuracy while detecting  
668 specific flavor compounds in wine samples. In a similar direction, Gao et al. (2024) and Zhou et al. (2024) suggested  
669 that beer shelf life is related to its volatile compounds quantification through FTIR and multi-spectroscopies  
670 techniques such as Raman and NIR combined into ML approaches. Three different modelling methodologies  
671 consisting of partial least squares, least squares SVM, and ANNs were applied to divided datasets. These studies  
672 conclude that the use of spectroscopic methods coupled with ML models provides a quick and low-cost way of  
673 predicting the shelf life of beers. In any case, one of the main challenges for these models is the development of  
674 representative databases. The researchers consequently suggested increasing the sample size and enhancing the  
675 algorithms, while applying developed models to other food products (Gonzalez Viejo et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2024;  
676 Zhou et al., 2024).

677 Literature diversifies AI into this area of shelf-life prediction by examining large datasets of sensory and chemical  
678 measurements that help identify spoilage markers or quality indicators. Applications of AI and sensor technology to  
679 predict the quality and shelf-life of various food products are presented in Table 2. It points out that tools such as e-  
680 noses, hyperspectral imaging, and FTIR spectroscopy, in combination with ML models ANN, SVR, and RF, enable  
681 successful prediction based on the estimation of properties such as moisture, gas levels, volatile compounds, etc. SVR  
682 and MLR were habitual in the case of continuous data, such as gas levels and pH, where quality parameters were  
683 quantified with high precision by Huang et al. (2023), Goyak et al. (2024), Kanjilal et al. (2025), and Francis et al.  
684 (2025). Deep learning neural network models can only consider large datasets with complex patterns, making them

685 ideal in wide ranges assessing both chemical and microbial properties (Ren.et al., 2023; Gong et al., 2023; Bisutti et  
 686 al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025). Additionally, decision tree-based models, such as RF and gradient boosting, are very  
 687 good at multi-feature analysis, thus being effective basically for all variants of food, whether fresh produce or  
 688 beverages (Ropelewska and Noutfia, 2024; Francis.et al., 2025; Zou et al., 2024). Therefore, AI has proved itself in  
 689 the integration of data emanating from a wide variety of sensors toward more robust and proactive shelf-life  
 690 management of the food industry.

691 Table2. Overview of ML models and sensor technologies for shelf life prediction in food products

Category	Products	Physicochemical parameters for Shelf Life prediction	Applied device and ML	ML Performance	Reference	
Fruit and vegetables	Fresh sea buckthorn, passion fruit	Chemical properties	E-nose and E-tongue; RF and DNN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.91, RMSE: 0.055, MAE: 0.031	Ren et al. (2023)	
	Tomato	texture, taste, nutritional content, defects, and ripeness	Machine vision; SVR,RF,DTs	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.73, RMSE: 1.14, MAE: 0.87, MSE: 1.3	Goyal et al. (2024)	
	Banana	CO <sub>2</sub> and O <sub>2</sub> gas levels	Gas sensor; MLR, RF, SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.958, RMSE: 0.206	Kanjilal et al. (2025)	
	Mandarin	anthracnose, black spot, decay, and scarring	Hyperspectral imaging; SVR and DNN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.929, RMSE: 0.377, RPD: 3.765	Zhang et al. (2025)	
	Strawberries	volatile organic compounds	Internal texture	Mass spectrometry; MLR, ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.984, RMSE: 0.390	Do et al. (2024)
			respiration rate	laser speckle imaging; DTs	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.801, RMSE: 0.249	Pieczywek et al. (2024)
	Grape	texture parameters of the fruit outer structure	Machine vision; MLR, RF	Overall accuracy: 0.91	Ropelewska and Noutfia (2024)	
	Potato	firmness, moisture content, and soluble solids content	Hyperspectral system; SVR	R <sup>2</sup> :0.897; RMSE: 0.036; RPD: 2.262	Xiao et al. (2024)	

	Watermelon	Soluble Solids Content	Hyperspectral system; SVR, MLR, DT, RF	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.982, RMSE: 0.132	Francis et al. (2025)
	Winter Jujube	Soluble Solids Content	Hyperspectral imaging; SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.837, RMSE: 0.810, RPD: 2.47	Shao et al. (2024)
	Date	Moisture content	Dielectric spectroscopy; SVR, MLR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.87, RMSE: 9.4	Karimi. (2025)
	Apple, Banana, Pear, Guava, Grape, Mango, Pomegranate, Orange and Tomato	Colour and texture	Machine vision; RNN	Overall accuracy: 0.98	Dhiman et al. (2021)
	Blueberry	Water loss rate, pH, and VC content	Gas and ethylene sensors; NN, RF, SVR	R <sup>2</sup> :0.994, <b>RMSE:0.035</b> , MAE: 4.51	Huang et al. (2023)
	Fresh cut Papaya	Weight loss and titratable acidity	E-nose and E-tongue; SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.991; RMSE: 0.13	Rong et al. (2024)
	Rocket leaves	Chlorophyll and ammonia content	Computer vision; MLR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.83; RMSE: 20.27	Palumbo et al. (2024)
Meat, fish and poultry	Marine fish species	Total volatile base nitrogen	E-nose; NN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.991, RMSE: 0.127; MSE: 0.016, MAE:0.096	Cui et al. (2024)
	Chicken	Nicotinamide, anserine, carnosine, and Biogenic amines	Analysis sensors; SVR	Overall accuracy: 0.96	Esposito et al. (2024)
	Rainbow trout	trimethylamine, ammonia, carbon dioxide	artificial sensory system, ANN	RMSE: 1.512, MSE: 2.29, MAE: 0.783	Saeed et al. (2025)
	Fish	Methacryloyl	Machine vision; DNN	Overall accuracy: 0.974	Gong et al. (2023)
	Salmon	Microbial parameters	Designed sensor; RNN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.99, RMSE: 0.1	Wu et al. (2022)
		Ammonia, formaldehyde, ethyl alcohol	Gas sensor; MLR and SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.966, MSE: 3.151	Liang et al. (2024)

	Beef	Color and texture	Machine vision; DTs	Overall accuracy: 0.98	Sánchez et al. (2023)
	Pork	Firmness, fatness, and compositional properties	Visible and near-infrared spectroscopy;	R <sup>2</sup> :0.90; RMSE: 4.37; RPD: 2.34	Albano-Gaglio et al. (2025)
		Microemulsions	Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy; NN	Overall accuracy: 0.913	Luo et al. (2025)
	Pacific white shrimp, cuttlefish, and squid, octopus	Microbial parameters	E-nose; RF, ANN and SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.995, RMSE: 0.03	Wijaya et al. (2023)
	Balsa fish	Color and texture	ATP/PI NFAs-based colorimetric sensor array;RF	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.966, RMSE: 0.859,RPD: 3.89	Cao et al. (2025)
Dairy Products	Milk	Peptidomic profiling	laser desorption time-of-flight mass spectrometry; SVR and RF	Overall accuracy: 0.97	Zhang et al. (2022)
		Mineral elements	Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy; RF and DNN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.78, RMSE: 7.38, RPD: 2.33	Bisutti et al. (2024)
		pH and total soluble solids	Electrical impedance spectroscopy; SVR and RF	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.88; RMSE: 0.3464	Huang et al. (2023)
		Microbial concentrations	RGB-colourimetric resazurin assay; SVR	Overall accuracy: 0.96	Thanasirikul et al. (2023)
		Foodborne pathogenic and spoilage bacteria	DNA sensor array; MLR, NN, SVR,RF	Overall accuracy: 0.984	Wang et al. (2025)
		Microbial concentrations	E-nose; SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.874	Cheng et al. (2025)

	Mozzarella and Cheddar cheese	Coagulating enzyme concentration and calcium content	The data was collected from literature; SVR,MLR and RF	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.92, RMSE: 0.08, MAE: 0.13	Golzarjalal et al. (2024)
	Pecorino cheese	Color and texture	Computer vision; DL	Overall accuracy: 0.964	Loddo et al. (2022)
	Indian Cheese	Biochemical content and microbial counts	Sensory instruments; ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.987, RMSE: 0.0091	Chaturvedi et al. (2020)
	Blue cheese	Volatile compounds	Mass spectrometry; MLR	Overall accuracy: 0.94	High et al. (2021)
	Fresh cheese	Texture features	Computer vision; SVR, RF and MLR	Overall accuracy: 0.99	Loddo et al. (2025)
	Yogurt	Sensory attributes	Sensory instruments; hybrid NN and SVR	Overall accuracy: acceptable	Bi et al. (2022)
Soft drink and Beverages	Gilaburu juice	Total monomeric anthocyanin content and Total flavonoid content	Sensory instruments; ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.998, RMSE: 0.004, MAE: 0.003	Yıkımsı et al. (2024)
	Blueberry juice	Total phenolic, ferulic acid, rutin	Sensory instruments; MLR	Overall accuracy: acceptable	Liao et al. (2023)
	Pomegranate juice	Chemical properties	Sensory instruments; SVR, RF and ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.912, MSE: 0.024, MAE: 0.123	Zou et al. (2024)
	Parsley Juice	Total chlorophyll and ascorbic acid	Sensory instruments; MLR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.99, RMSE: 1.11	Dulger Altiner et al. (2024)
	Beer	Physical Parameters	E-nose and near infrared spectroscopy; ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.95; MSE: 0.02	Gonzalez Viejo and Fuentes (2020)
		Total soluble solids, alcohol and pH	Near infrared spectroscopy; ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.93, RMSE: 5.05	Gonzalez Viejo et al. (2018)

	Total phenols and sugar	Raman and Near infrared spectroscopy; NN and SVR	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.998, RMSE: 0.862, RPD: 0.959	Zhou et al. (2024)
	Volatile compounds	Fourier-transform infrared; MLR	Overall accuracy: 0.998	Gao et al. (2024)
Wine	Physicochemical measurements	E-nose and near infrared spectroscopy; ANN	R <sup>2</sup> :0.99, MSE: 0.09	Harris et al. (2023)
	Physicochemical measurements	The data was collected from literature; SVR and ANN	R <sup>2</sup> : 0.779, RMSE: 0.267, MAE: 0.142	Dahal et al. (2021)

692 Note: RMSE, MAE, and MSE retain the same units as the predicted variable in each study (days for shelf life, % for moisture  
693 content, °C for temperature). R<sup>2</sup> and RPD are unitless indicators of model performance.

694 Table 2 in the manuscript shows that AI models achieve accuracies exceeding 90% in most cases, with some models  
695 reaching 95-99% accuracy (R<sup>2</sup> > 0.90, RMSE < 0.5, and MAE < 0.1 in several instances), which were significantly  
696 better than the 70-85% typical in conventional microbiological and chemical predictions of shelf-life (Bhagya Raj &  
697 Dash, 2022; Cui et al., 2023). It shows that AI-based models not just compete with, but even outperform conventional  
698 predictive performance. AI's performance surpasses conventional methods because it continuously tracks real-time  
699 factors such as biochemical transformation, microbiological growth, and environmental fluctuations compared to  
700 conventional methods that depend on periodic sampling and static parameters. Such findings confirm AI's potential  
701 to make food shelf-life estimation a more precise, scalable, and flexible tool to ensure food safety, reduce waste, and  
702 enhance supply chains.

### 703 7. Economical and sustainable impacts

704 AI-powered models in shelf-life forecasting provide value from an economic point of view (Krupitzer and Stein 2021)  
705 but, more importantly, contribute to sustainability by the reduced waste of end products within the meat and poultry  
706 industries since the models further streamline the supply chain. That would most likely be through proper spoilage  
707 rate forecasting through microbial growth, temperature, and pH. Besides, avoiding overproduction tendencies means  
708 the extension of freshness and a reduction in economic loss on account of expired stock (Grassi et al., 2023; Jia et al.,  
709 2023). Cui et al. (2023) and Viancy et al. (2024) have also identified that, through optimized logistics of storage and  
710 transportation strategies, energy was conserved due to reduced excessive refrigeration and, hence, the generation of  
711 greenhouse gas emissions from waste disposal. Yudhistira et al. (2023) investigated how the integration of AI with  
712 processing methods can further enhance process optimization, leading to additional reductions in energy consumption  
713 and greenhouse gas emissions. They proved that AI optimization in heat drying can save about 15-25% in energy,  
714 which translates to 0.6 to 1.0 tons of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent annually per ton of food processed. In further study by Yudhistira  
715 et al. (2024), the researchers claimed that AI, by enhancing the shelf-life predictions, would reduce food waste by 10-

716 20%. That is considerable since disposal of 1 ton of food waste results in about 2.5 tons of CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent emissions.

717 The better the AI forecasts the shelf life, the more value it will carry for sustainability by reducing the amount of meat  
718 that goes directly to trash, therefore reducing overall environmental impact arising from livestock production (Esposito  
719 et al., 2024).

720 AI will affect the economic and sustainability metrics linked to the fresh fruit and vegetable sector, as it hopefully will  
721 make highly accurate forecasts of spoilage and ripening rates to improve inventory management and reduce post-  
722 harvest losses (Li et al., 2024). AI models can be helpful in making decisions concerning supply chain (Krupitzer and  
723 Stein 2024), with variables such as ethylene production, humidity, temperature, and transport time, hence reducing  
724 waste and delivering only the supplies that match the demand (Pieczywek et al., 2024; Do et al., 2024; Kanjilal et al.,  
725 2025). Decrease in carbon dioxide emission and water use resulting from post-harvest processes through reducing  
726 economic costs caused by the spoilage of agricultural products. Besides this, AI-driven storage conditions insights  
727 support sustainable practices through extended resource use in the process of preservation and distribution because of  
728 reduced rates of spoilage (Lin et al., 2023; Opara et al., 2024; Noutfia and Ropelewska, 2024).

729 AI in the dairy industry also predicts the shelf life of products, and an important contribution is economic saving due  
730 to the avoidance of waste such as those products. It maintains inventories at an optimum level. Freire et al. (2024) has  
731 indicated that the AI model may analyze biochemical features that represent dairy sensitivity, such as fat and protein  
732 degradation and also with temperature and humidity factors that may have allowed producers to more precisely  
733 pinpoint the date of expiration (Zhang et al., 2022; Thanasirikul et al., 2023; Mhapsekar et al., 2024). It lessens  
734 financial losses by reason of wasted goods and ensures fresher products to the consumer. The energy and water  
735 footprint of dairy farming and processing is reduced greatly on account of less spoilage, thus making a path further  
736 toward the sustainability model of dairy production.

737 Applications of AI in forecasting shelf life for soft drinks and beverages have gone hand in hand economically,  
738 ensuring sustainability by extending product quality and improving storage practices. In the ML models, the inclusion  
739 of chemical variables such as rate of carbonation and efficiency of preservatives among others, added to environmental  
740 conditions, performs predictions of optimum shelf life and distribution guidance (Gonzalez Viejo and Fuentes, 2020;  
741 Gao et al., 2024). Such data might be included into approaches for digital physico-chemical twins (Krupitzer et al.  
742 2022; Henrichs et al. 2022). Correct projections of expiration dates translate directly into producers' reducing expired  
743 products, thereby reducing financial losses as well as resources spent on cooling and storing beverages. This further  
744 cuts the waste disposal impacts, and the beverage manufacturing industry is closer to attaining sustainable production  
745 and consumption of goods (Peveler, 2024; Kyaw et al., 2024).

## 746 **8. Challenges and limitations of AI in shelf life prediction**

747 Although AI coupled with new sensors has tremendous potential to improve the precision in the shelf-life prediction  
748 of food products, several technical, organizational, and economic challenges impede its complete deployment. The  
749 application of AI, machine vision, and spectroscopy to food products has been seriously challenged by their inherent  
750 complexity and variability (Wang et al., 2022). Each variety has specific physical, chemical, and microbial

751 characteristics that affect the rate of spoilage of each commodity, as modified by handling practices such as storage  
752 conditions, packaging, and distribution. Most of the literature reports that machine learning algorithms need large and  
753 varied datasets to make an accurate model of the spoilage dynamics (Lin et al., 2023; Chhetri, 2024; Peveler, 2024).  
754 On the other hand, it may be difficult to generalize across samples due to various environmental and product  
755 characteristic variabilities in some cases. Besides, the spoilage processes depend on complex interactions among  
756 various biochemical and microbial factors, it is often so little understood that the establishment of correct,  
757 comprehensive models is hard to achieve (Cui et al., 2023). From this viewpoint, this variability will make it necessary  
758 to carefully calibrate any AI model, and its transferability might be limited even across different food types or even  
759 batches within one type.

760 Traditional and hyper machine vision systems rely on surface-level indicators of spoilage, such as color change,  
761 surface mold, and variation in texture. However, this is a limited approach to the analysis of food products, in light of  
762 the fact that spoilage is often produced directly inside many food products or even at a microbial level that may not  
763 be well indicated until its development is quite advanced (Gong et al., 2023; Ropelewska and Noutfia, 2024). There  
764 are foods that spoil from the interior outwards, making it quite hard for normal machine vision to reveal early signs  
765 of spoilage. Besides, depending on lighting conditions, surface reflectance, and natural varieties in appearance, can  
766 add noise, making the analysis of images more difficult and thus probably leading to wrong predictions (Goyal et al.,  
767 2024). Also, the integration of machine vision systems within the food processing environment is a not-so-easy task  
768 from a technical point of view and can be pretty costly, especially for small and medium enterprises. Lastly, those  
769 techniques cannot support the analysis of foods in opaque packages, such as milk boxes or juice packages.

770 Using spectroscopy for the determination of the chemical composition, internal spoilage factors in foods, such as pH,  
771 water activity, and microbial growth in food, can be established. These methods may be vulnerable to a variety of  
772 ambient conditions, such as moisture content, particle size, and sample thickness, that will interfere with the accuracy  
773 and consistency of spectral readings. For instance, high moisture content in dairy or meat reduces the clarity or strength  
774 of the signal, while a high variation in the level of sugar or pigment gives inconsistent analysis in fruits (Cozzolino et  
775 al., 2024). Besides being expensive, spectroscopy equipment is also burdensome due to the lack of in-depth training  
776 in proper data analysis. These limitations suggest that while spectroscopy can be highly useful for detailed chemical  
777 analysis, the application to rapid, real-time shelf-life prediction may be more limited (Zhao and Xu, 2025; Francis et  
778 al., 2025).

779 The work flow integration of AI and equipment necessary for data intake in either food processing or food distribution  
780 is still very logistically and economically burdensome, especially when this needs to be done in real time. Many  
781 technologies require very expensive infrastructures, including high-quality cameras, spectral sensors, and computers  
782 with a high performance capacity for data processing. For many small-scale producers, initial costs, as well as later  
783 maintenance and calibration, are a significant barrier. Apart from that, the management and analysis of real-time multi-  
784 source data require complex systems in data integration (Henrichs and Krupitzer, 2022), which may be a bit hard to  
785 establish if there is no particular expertise. For businesses, balancing the benefits of these advanced methods with their

786 costs and operational impact remains a key limitation, particularly in cost-sensitive industries where traditional  
787 methods of shelf-life assessment are still the norm.

## 788 **9. Future directions and opportunities**

789 AI-based development in the prediction of food shelf life will be more closely interlinked with data and modeling  
790 techniques with increased accuracy in the future. These models will increasingly tie together data sources from a broad  
791 range, including environmental sensors, into one integrated real-time analysis of the factors that affect shelf life. While  
792 the prediction accuracy could be further improved by the identification of complex nonlinear patterns of multi-source  
793 data, deep learning and reinforcement learning-based emerging machine learning algorithms are conceptualized.  
794 Moreover, advances in IoT technology can enable continuous monitoring of storage and ambient conditions, and this  
795 can provide a real-time feedback loop that AI systems can use to dynamically update their shelf-life predictions. The  
796 integrated approach has the potential to further enhance the granularity of the predictions, thereby helping in the  
797 reduction of food waste and improvement in product quality. Especially, sensors integrated into packaging might  
798 support the dynamic analysis and determination of shelf life. Such concepts exist, e.g., Müller and Schmid (2019) or  
799 Henrichs et al. (2025). However, they have several open challenges, such as energy provision for the sensors, the  
800 required connection between sensors in packages for data collection and the computational devices for analysis, and  
801 the recycling of empty packages with sensors. Equally promising is developing non-destructive, real-time analysis  
802 techniques that can tell food freshness without affecting the product. In connection with this, new approaches using  
803 AI in combination with machine vision and spectroscopy are likely to be further refined so that one can have accurate  
804 internal quality evaluations based on actual internal rather than surface indices. Techniques like hyperspectral imaging,  
805 which identifies a wider range of wavelengths, will give increasingly detailed chemical profiles that enable AI models  
806 to identify early markers of spoilage on a molecular level. Improvement in portable spectroscopy devices and  
807 miniaturized sensors may even bring these technologies directly into retail and distribution environments for  
808 immediate shelf-life assessments for consumers and suppliers. Therefore, such innovation could accelerate the change  
809 to better, clearer expiry labeling, reducing the environmental impact of wasteful disposal of safe food.

810 The future of AI in food shelf-life prediction will be further ensured once these technologies become more attainable  
811 and reasonably priced for more food producers, at least for SMEs. Advancement and scaling of cloud-based AI  
812 solutions may even enable much smaller companies to tap the benefits of sophisticated algorithms and high-  
813 performance computing resources by paying for the usage of software and computational capacities, rather than  
814 owning it themselves. With AI systems also becoming easier to use with less specialized knowledge required for  
815 operating them, the rate of adoption is expected to go up at all levels of the food industry. Democratization of AI  
816 technology in shelf-life prediction could improve food sustainability and reduce waste across each stage of the food  
817 supply chain, starting from production to the consumer.

## 818 **10. Conclusion**

819 This review presents how AI is used in the prediction of shelf lives for food products, which represents a new but  
820 innovative approach to enhancing food safety, improving the quality control approach, and ensuring economic

821 viability within the food industry. Most traditional methods of estimating shelf life vary from microbial analysis to  
822 chemical and sensory evaluations and are usually labor-intensive, time-consuming, and limited in adaptability under  
823 variable conditions. Contrarily, AI-based models can process even highly complex datasets of biochemical,  
824 environmental, and microbial variables much more rapidly. AI-driven shelf-life prediction may completely  
825 revolutionize the food industry with real-time, nondestructive, and precise food-quality predictions of high accuracy  
826 for a wide category of products. Also, this innovation solves crucial challenges in the industry, reduction of food  
827 waste, optimization of supply chain efficiency, and a reduction in operational costs. In any case, when combined with  
828 advanced analysis devices such as spectroscopy, machine vision, and IoT-based sensors, AI will contribute to the shift  
829 away from these conventional, labor- and time-consuming approaches toward more adaptive and data-driven ones.  
830 The benefits of using such technologies will also include reduced spoilage and carbon emissions while offering a high  
831 level of consumer satisfaction related to improved food quality management.

832 AI could integrate these variables with a high degree of accuracy for predictions in real time with respect to spoilage  
833 dynamics, especially in conjunction with modern sensors and imaging systems. This synthesis of AI and sensor  
834 technology has been effective for various categories of foods, from meats to dairy, vegetables/fruits, and beverages,  
835 supporting major reductions in food waste and, therefore, greatly enhancing the food supply chain efficiency.  
836 Although there are certain drawbacks associated with data standardization, model transferability, and the costs of the  
837 technology, the future of AI for shelf life prediction is promising. In fact, the continuous development of IoT, data  
838 integration, and hybrid modeling certainly has the potential to support further refinement in predictive accuracy while  
839 maintaining the goal of overcoming current limitations and enabling scalable solution development for improving  
840 food quality management. In such a setting of challenging food industries that are increasingly adopting such advanced  
841 data-driven approaches, AI will lie at the core of underpinning sustainability to overcome global demands for safer,  
842 more durable foods.

#### 843 **Author contributions**

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#### 853 **Declaration of competing interest**

854 The authors declare no competing interest.

#### 855 **Rights Retention Statement**

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## 860 **Data availability**

861 No data was used for the research described in the article.

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