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Running title: Recent research in meat quality detection

A review on meat quality evaluation methods based on non-destructive computer vision and artificial intelligence technologies

Abstract: Increasing meat demand in terms of both quality and quantity in conjunction with feeding 13 14 a growing population has resulted in regulatory agencies imposing stringent guidelines on meat 15 quality and safety. Objective and accurate rapid non-destructive detection methods and evaluation 16 techniques based on artificial intelligence have become the research hotspot in recent years and have been widely applied in the meat industry. Therefore, this review surveyed the key technologies 17 18 of non-destructive detection for meat quality, mainly including ultrasonic technology, machine 19 (computer) vision technology, near-infrared spectroscopy technology, hyperspectral technology, 20 Raman spectra technology, and electronic nose/tongue. The technical characteristics and 21 evaluation methods were compared and analyzed; the practical applications of non-destructive 22 detection technologies in meat quality assessment were explored; and the current challenges and 23 future research directions were discussed. The literature presented in this review clearly demonstrate that previous research on non-destructive technologies are of great significance to 24 ensure consumers' urgent demand for high-quality meat by promoting automatic, real-time 25 26 inspection and quality control in meat production. In the near future, with ever-growing application 27 requirements and research developments, it is a trend to integrate such systems to provide effective 28 solutions for various grain quality evaluation applications.

Keywords: Meat quality; Non-destructive detection; Key technology; Grading assessment;
Industrial application

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32 **1. Introduction**

Meat is the main source of protein and has great physiological value for people. Meat (beef, 33 poultry, pork, and lamb) consumption keeps increasing every year around the world (Smet and 34 35 Vossen, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)'s 2017 report, the average meat consumption per person is expected to 36 37 increase to 35.5 kg (78.3 lb) globally by 2024 (OECD, 2017). With meat consumption growing, 38 quality is becoming more and more important to consumer's purchase decision (Wei et al., 2019). 39 And research shows that meat quality is the most important purchase parameter affecting a 40 consumer's decision (Kamruzzaman et al., 2016a; Barbon et al., 2017).

41 Meat quality assessments have two major measurement methods, subjective and objective (Li

42 et al., 2018). Subjective methods for meat quality assessment usually depend on sensory evaluation, 43 which involve visual and eating experiences. The disadvantage of subjective assessment methods is 44 that they are highly dependent on particular experience of evaluators, poor repeatability, and can be 45 difficult to quantify (Andersen et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2017a). Objective evaluation methods have 46 historically been laboratory tests evaluating the physical and chemical properties of and the 47 microorganisms present in meat (Kamruzzaman et al., 2015). Which produces accurate results, but 48 the meat product is damaged or destroyed, and the detection procedure is cumbersome. Inherently, 49 objective evaluation method is time-consuming and high-cost, resulting in difficulty meeting the 50 demand of automated processing for modern meat production companies (Chen et al., 2016). 51 Countries around the world urgently need a fast, accurate, and non-destructive online detection 52 technology for consistently evaluating meat to promote the healthy and stable development of food 53 safety and quality (Qu et al., 2012).

54 Artificial intelligence (AI) technology is one of the most popular topics and is becoming an 55 essential part of industries all over the world. Many industries in our lives have been permeated by AI technology, including auto-pilot vehicles (Yan, 2017), medical science (Salman et al., 2017), 56 57 agricultural science (Gan et al., 2011), and food engineering (Barbri et al., 2014). Relevant to this review, AI technology has become important in the application of non-destructive prediction of meat 58 59 quality, providing indispensable technical support for online meat grading and evaluation (Cheng et 60 al., 2017b; Davies, 2009). In food science, AI technology that combines sensors, processors 61 (computers), and other components allow for non-destructive evaluation of products, which result in the original shape, state, and nature of the sample being maintained (Wang et al., 2017). This 62 technology uses the mechanics, optics, acoustics, electricity, and other pertinent information of the 63 measured object to evaluate the physical characteristics, chemical composition, structural 64 characteristics, and other data (Su et al., 2017), so as to achieve non-destructive and accurate 65 66 evaluation of food quality.

67 In recent years, with the improvement of people's awareness of food safety and the 68 advancement of computer technology, non-destructive evaluation technology has been applied more 69 and more widely in the field of meat quality testing (Chen et al., 2013), including ultrasonic 70 technology (Liu et al., 2016), machine vision technology (Sun et al., 2016), spectral technology 71 (Muhammad et al., 2018), and sensor technology (Li et al., 2016). At present, scholars around the 72 world have done a lot of in-depth research on the application of AI technology in meat quality testing, 73 such as sensory quality evaluation (meat freshness, tenderness, color and texture) (Cheng et al., 74 2018). The prediction of physical and chemical indicators of meat quality (meat pH, shear force, 75 water retention, moisture content, protein) (Pang et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2014) and the analysis of 76 meat varieties, metamorphism mechanisms, and adulteration identification (Feng et al., 2018) have 77 also been researched fairly extensively.

78 This review introduces the common AI technologies used for non-destructive evaluation of
79 meat quality attributes in recent years including computer vision system (CVS), near-infrared (NIR)

spectroscopy, hyperspectral imaging (HSI), Raman spectrometry (RS), ultrasonic imaging, and electronic nose/tongue technologies. The principle characteristics and application status of AI technologies in meat quality testing, grading, and evaluation are explained. In addition, current challenges and future development directions are also discussed in this review, so as to create a comprehensive knowledge base including essential theoretical basis and technical references for AI technologies used to improve human food quality and safety.

86

87 2. Non-destructive detection methods used with meat

88 With the increasing concern and attention of consumers, businesses and government 89 departments, food quality and safety have been continuously studied in depth for long-term by 90 domestic and foreign food scientists, and the non-destructive detection technology for meat quality 91 has achieved a lot stage achievement (Chen et al., 2013). Commonly used non-destructive detection 92 methods for meat quality are mainly focused on CVS, NIR, HSI, RS, ultrasonic monitoring, and 93 electronic nose/tongue detection technologies.

94 2.1 Computer vision system

95 Computer vision technology, also known as machine vision technology that obtains target 96 image information through image sensors instead of human eyes, and applies computer technology 97 to analyze and process bionic human brains to convert image into digital information, and then to 98 identify, track, and detect target objects (Girolami et al., 2013). A common machine vision detection 99 system is shown in Figure 1 (Ma et al., 2016), which mainly includes a computer, an industry camera, an illumination system, and an image processing software system (Taheri-Garavand et al., 2019b).

101 **Figure 1** A common machine vision detection system

102 Due to the rapid advancement in computer technologies, the development of image processing technology and the machine vision based non-destructive detection systems have been widely used 103 104 in extracting image-based features and feature recognition related to detecting meat quality. Sun et 105 al. (2016; 2018) developed a CVS for objective measurement of pork loin quality. Color features 106 (L*, a*, and b*) and marble patterns in the region of interest in an image of a meat cut were extracted. 107 Subsequently, an artificial intelligence prediction model (support vector machine (SVM)) was 108 developed for determining pork color and marbling quality grades with a highest prediction 109 accuracy of 92.5% and 75.0%, respectively. Liu et al. (2018b) investigated the ability of CVS to 110 predict pork intramuscular fat percentage (IMF%) coupled with the development of stepwise 111 regression and SVM models. Arsalane et al. (2018) applied an embedded machine vision system based on digital signal processing (DSP) to evaluate beef freshness. Results showed perfect 112 prediction (classification and identification 100%) accuracies with new unknown samples using 113 both principal component analysis (PCA) and SVM. 114

In addition, some studies have been attempted for the application of CVS to monitor meat
defects. Chmiel et al. (2012) evaluated the potential of CVS to detect DFD (dark, firm, and dry)
beef. A significant relationship was found among L*, a*, and b* color components with pH, which

is an indicator to detect DFD beef. Chmiel and Słowiński (2016b) determined the effectiveness of
a CVS in measuring meat color to detect meat defects of *m. longissimus lumborum (LL)* in industrial
settings. They reported that the CVS showed a strong promise to detect PSE (pale, soft, exudative)
and DFD and to classify meat into quality groups.

122 Table 1 lists the typical applications of machine vision technologies as non-destructive 123 detection methods for meat quality attributes during the recent years. These literatures have revealed 124 that the current applications of CVS in meat quality inspection have been using the external features 125 such as color or texture-based features extracted from the images acquired in visible region of the 126 spectrum and combed with the stoichiometric methods for qualitative or quantitative analysis. 127 However, the CVS method was found unable to express the characteristics of the internal 128 components of the meat samples. The CVS is mainly used to detect external properties such as meat 129 color, marbling pattern, tenderness, freshness, and fat content in one hand. On the other hand, CVS is unable to measure the internal characters such as moisture content, and protein content (Taheri-130 131 Garavand et al., 2019b; Brosnan and Sun, 2004).

Table 1 Typical applications of machine vision technologies

133 2.2. Near-infrared spectroscopy technique

Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIR) is an electromagnetic radiation wave with a wavelength 134 135 range of 780-2526 nm between visible and mid-infrared light and referred as the first non-visible 136 spectral region found in the absorption spectrum (Wang et al., 2015). And the spectral curves displayed by different chemicals in the near-infrared region are different (Cai et al., 2011; Wang, 137 2012b). Therefore, the correlation between the original spectral data of the samples in the full 138 139 wavelength range and the corresponding physical and chemical index values (function relationship) can be used to analyze (identify and quantify) the chemicals and their constituents (ElMasry et al., 140 141 2011; Alexandrakis et al., 2012). As a result, it can be perceived that based on the basic principles 142 of NIR spectroscopy and the NIR detection system as shown in Figure 2 (Xiong et al., 2015b), the 143 degree of putrefaction in meat storage and the physical-chemical properties and parameters (such 144 as moisture, protein, fat, water retention, gravy loss, etc.) during processing can be detected (Collell 145 et al., 2011).

146 Figure 2 Basic principles of NIR spectroscopy and the NIR detection system

147 Deterioration, spoilage, and decreased freshness of meat are closely related to moisture, protein, and fat content. The NIR spectroscopy can objectively reflect these changes of organic components 148 such as fat and protein in fresh meat (Jiang et al., 2017a). Liu et al. (2009) detected fat, protein, and 149 150 water by visible and NIR (Vis-NIR) transmittance spectroscopy in chilled pork. They found that the 151 performance of evaluation model was hopeful, and the correlation coefficients were 0.95 and 0.92 for fat, 0.71 and 0.46 for protein, and 0.94 and 0.91 for water respectively. Liao et al. (2010) used 152 Vis/NIR spectroscopy to predict quality attributes of fresh pork (content of intramuscular fat, protein 153 154 and water, pH, and shear force values) on-line. Results showed that the prediction models yielded

high coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.757 or more for all traits except for the prediction of 155 shear force values. Guy et al. (2011) assessed the feasibility of NIR spectroscopy for predicting 156 157 lamb meat fatty acid composition and demonstrated the accuracy of the prediction models through analyzing and comparing the measured reflectance spectrum of Longissimus lumborum muscle. 158 159 Tian et al. (2013a) studied the on-line detection and classification models of multi-quality 160 parameters for fresh beef based on Vis/NIR reflectance spectroscopy. The prediction model showed 161 a better performance with the correlation coefficient of 0.91 for beef tenderness, 0.89 for L^* , 0.93 162 for a^* , 0.85 for cooking loss with a highest classification accuracy of 93.5% for beef tenderness.

163 In recent years, scholars worldwide have conducted many studies on the freshness detection of 164 fresh meat using Vis/NIR spectroscopy technique particularly to predict total volatile basic nitrogen 165 (TVB-N) and microbes as indicators. Wang et al. (2015) applied Vis/NIR spectroscopy to quantitatively evaluate pork TVB-N. The correlation coefficient was 0.98, which demonstrated the 166 huge potential for Vis/NIR spectroscopy application to analyze pork freshness. Cai et al. (2009) 167 168 applied NIR (1100-2500 nm) spectroscopy to detect the TVB-N content in pork and used synergy interval partial least squares (siPLS) algorithm for building the calibration model of TVB-N content. 169 170 Guo et al. (2014) used near-infrared hyperspectral imaging (NIR-HSI: 900-1700 nm) technology to detect the TVC on chilled mutton surface to indicate the degree of contamination and degradation 171 172 of meat. The corresponding correlation coefficient and the root mean square error of prediction 173 (RMSEP) were 0.99 and 0.25, respectively.

Table 2 shows the extensive application of NIR spectroscopy in the field of rapid non-174 destructive detection for meat quality in the past years. It can be seen that the current research on 175 176 the detection of meat nutrient components based on NIR spectroscopy is relatively mature. Typically, 177 the spectral data is a reflection of the internal chemical constituents in meat specimens, which is 178 mostly used for meat identification, recognition and classification, while ignoring the influence of 179 external attribute characteristics on meat quality changes (Zhu et al., 2019). The prediction accuracy 180 of NIR technique for predicting sensory quality of meat is not high enough, which is in sharp 181 contrast with machine vision technology (Dixit et al., 2017).

Table 2 Application of NIR spectroscopy in the field

In addition, a single indicator can only describe one aspect of the characteristics of meat quality changes, which is another limitation of this method (Wiedemair et al., 2018). Therefore, it is necessary to find an innovative and advanced technology that can simultaneously possess the technical feature of NIR spectroscopy and CVS technology, taking into account the characteristics of internal components and external attributes of meat samples (He et al., 2019), so that make the meat quality detection become more comprehensive, accurate, stable, and sustainable.

189 **2.3.** Hyperspectral imaging technique

Hyperspectral imaging (HSI) technology is a derivative spectral detection technique based on
hyperspectral remote sensing imaging technology. The spectral band of HSI covers all continuous
bands in ultraviolet, visible, near-infrared, mid-infrared, far-infrared, and thermal infrared regions.

193 HSI technology is an emerging and rapidly developing photoelectric detection fusion technology 194 (Li et al., 2018; Xiong et al., 2015b) that combined the spectral detection technology with digital 195 computer vision technology (two-dimensional imaging technology) and facilitated the integration 196 of the spectral resolution and image resolution. Spectral information reflects the internal properties 197 (mainly constituents) of the samples, and image information reflects the external features. When 198 acquiring sample composition index retains its original physical and chemical properties, achieving 199 rapid, accurate, and non-destructive detection of the samples (He and Sun, 2015; Liu et al., 2018a). 200 HSI techniques can be divided into visible/near-infrared hyperspectral imaging techniques (Vis-201 NIR-HSI: 400-1000 nm) and near-infrared hyperspectral imaging techniques (NIR-HSI: 900-1700 202 nm) according to the covered wavelength range of the electromagnetic spectrum. Compared to NIR, 203 hyperspectral imaging techniques integrates near-infrared spectroscopy and high-resolution 204 imaging technology, which can acquire both spectral and image information in real time and 205 simultaneously.

Figure 3 Hyperspectral image is a three-dimensional data cube

The technical principle of hyperspectral imaging is to use the traditional integrated hardware 207 208 and software platform of two-dimensional imaging and spectroscopy to obtain both spatial and spectral information of each pixel of the object. Then, conduct qualitative and quantitative analysis 209 210 on the obtained data through stoichiometry, so as to reflect the comprehensive properties and characteristics of the object to be measured (Cheng et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017). HSI is a three-211 212 dimensional data cube in which spectral images composed of spectral data in hundreds of consecutive bands are arranged in a spectral order, called a hypercube or a spectral cube (x, y, λ) , as 213 214 shown in Figure 3, where (x, y) is x, y coordinate value of the pixel in two-dimensional image, and the third dimension is the wavelength λ coordinate value, which representing the one-dimensional 215 spectral dimension. Seeing from the one-dimensional dimension (λ), the HSI is a two-dimensional 216 217 (x, y) image (Fig. 3a), and from the two-dimensional (x, y), the HSI is a strip of spectral lines (Fig. 3b) (Cheng et al., 2017a; Piqueras et al., 2012). Therefore, the two-dimensional image information 218 219 of a certain wavelength point of the sample from the hyperspectral data cube can be extracted, and 220 the absorbance value of a certain point or a certain region of the sample at each wavelength point 221 can also be extracted, that is the spectral information at each point of the samples (Elmasry et al., 222 2012; Abasia et al., 2018).

223 Generally, HSI technique combines the advantages of spectral analysis and image processing 224 technology, and can rapidly and non-destructively extract the chemical composition, physical 225 properties, and other related indicators of samples. Liu et al. (2014) investigated the utility of HSI 226 techniques (400-1000 nm) for predicting the color and pH of salted porcine meat. The model predicted L*, a*, and pH values with coefficients of determination of 0.72, 0.73, and 0.86, 227 respectively, using small. Kamruzzaman et al. (2011; 2012) explored the potential of NIR-HSI in 228 229 combination with multivariate analysis for the prediction of some quality attributes of lamb meat. 230 The PLSR models performed well for predicting pH, color, and drip loss with the R² of 0.65, 0.91

231 and 0.77, respectively. Furthermore, HSI technique is widely used in the field of food quality and 232 safety, non-destructive testing, and has great potential for development of applications in the 233 detection and classification of meat quality. Barbin et al. (2013) developed a push-broom NIR HSI 234 (900-1700 nm) to determine the TVC and psychrotrophic plate count (PPC) in chilled pork during 235 storage, and best regressions were obtained with R^2 of 0.86 and 0.89 for TVC and PPC, respectively. Kamruzzaman et al. (2016b) investigated a hyperspectral real-time imaging system in the spectral 236 237 range of 400-1000 nm to monitor the changes of moisture content in red meat (beef, lamb, and pork). 238 Xiong et al. (2015a) evaluated the potential HSI technology to predict hydroxyproline content in 239 chicken meat. Their models yielded acceptable results with R² 0.87 in the prediction phase.

240 Table 3 lists the typical applications and achievements of HSI technology as non-destructive 241 detection methods for meat quality determination in recent years. It was observed that the research 242 based on HSI technology as the non-destructive detection methods for meat quality determination 243 mainly includes: evaluation of safety indicators such as surface contamination and TVC; evaluation 244 of sensory quality such as freshness, color and pH; detection of nutrient content such as meat 245 moisture, protein and fat; as well as the real-time monitoring of processing train and classification 246 of meat quality. Overall, HSI technology is recognized to be one of the fastest growing and most 247 widely used techniques for non-destructive testing of meat quality and safety in recent years.

Table 3 Lists the typical applications and achievements of HSI technology

249 2.4. Raman spectra technique

250 Raman spectroscopy is a spectral analysis technique developed based on Raman scattering effect. It is generated by the change of polarizability, caused by the vibration of sample molecules, 251 252 and can provide the vibration or rotation information of molecules (Li et al., 2019). Each functional group molecule in the meat has its own unique Raman spectral signal, which is mutually 253 254 complementary with the infrared spectrum in the analysis of the molecular structure (Chen et al., 255 2012; Liu et al., 2015b). Therefore, representative information in the Raman spectrum of meat can 256 be extracted with the method of chemometrics, the relationship between the molecular structure and 257 various radical groups in meat can be qualitatively analyzed, and then meat quality can be detected 258 and evaluated.

259 In recent years, Raman spectroscopy has been increasingly applied in meat quality. Fowler et 260 al. (2014) used a handheld Raman probe to predict the shear force (SF) of fresh lamb, the correlation 261 between tenderness and Raman data was established based on PLSR method, and the SF prediction 262 model was found to have good accuracy. Bauer et al. (2016) applied a portable 671 nm Raman 263 monitoring system to assess beef tenderness. SF measurements were performed and the results 264 showed that tough and tender samples could be discriminated with 70-88% and 59-80% accuracy, respectively. Wang et al. (2012c) developed a Raman spectroscopic method to evaluate and predict 265 the sensory attributes (tenderness, juiciness, and chewiness) of fresh, uncooked pork loins. The 266 267 SVM method were able to differentiate and classify the pork loins into quality grades ("good" and "bad" in terms of tenderness and chewiness) with a prediction accuracy of > 83 % in comparison to 268

sensory panel results.

In addition, semi-quantitative analysis can be performed according to the proportional 270 relationship between the peak intensity of Raman spectrum and the concentration of measured 271 272 substance. Han et al. (2014b) investigated the effect of NaCl concentration on the functional 273 characteristics of pork myofibrillar protein (PMP) heat-induced gelation by textural analysis and 274 Raman spectroscopy. Results indicated obvious changes of hardness and Raman spectroscopy of 275 the PMP gel occurred with the increasing NaCl level. Xu et al. (2011) also appraised the use of 276 Raman spectroscopy to study structural changes, textural properties and their relationships in PMP, 277 combined with texture profile analysis (TPA) and PCA. With scholars' deepening research on 278 Raman spectroscopy, the application of Raman spectroscopy in meat processing and production is 279 also gradually increasing. Zhang et al. (2015b) applied Raman spectroscopy to investigate the effects 280 of high-pressure (100-500 MPa) on chemical forces and water holding capacity (WHC) of heat-281 induced myofibrillar protein (MP) gel. Pedersen et al. (2003) revealed a high correlation between 282 the WHC of meat and the Raman spectrum using PLSR. They found that region 1800-1900cm⁻¹ contains the best predictive information that responded to WHC of the porcine meat. Scheier et al. 283 284 (2014) performed a mobile Raman system to measure and predict important meat quality traits under 285 real-life conditions of an abattoir using pig's semimembranosus muscles. The traits of pH values, 286 CIE L*a*b*, drip loss, and SF after 24 and 72 h were measured as reference and correlated with the Raman spectra using PLSR. Fowler et al. (2015a) conducted the complementary studies to evaluate 287 288 the potential for a Raman spectroscopic device to predict the quality traits of fresh lamb m. semimembranosus after ageing and freezing/thawing. 289

290 Also, the chemical structure of functional group molecules can be detected using Raman 291 spectroscopy, and thus identifies meat quality. Boyaci et al. (2014) applied Raman spectroscopy and chemometric method (PCA) to rapidly differentiate the origin of the meat based on their extracted 292 293 fat samples. Collected Raman data were analyzed with a four-stage PCA method, and seven meat 294 species (cattle, sheep, pig, fish, poultry, goat, and buffalo) were successfully differentiated from 295 each other according to their origin. Zajac et al. (2014) proposed a new method based on FT-Raman 296 measurements to determine the content of horse meat in its mixture with beef. The reasonable results 297 showed good fitting between the spectroscopic parameters and chemical content of the studied 298 samples, and analytical equations between these parameters have been proposed.

Recently, the application of Raman spectroscopy in the field of meat detection is more and more extensive and comprehensive. Table 4 lists the research on the detection of meat quality using Raman spectroscopy in the past 5 years. It can be seen that exploring quality change law in meat processing and evaluating meat safety mechanism are still the focus and direction of Raman spectroscopy in meat science research and industrial production applications.

Table 4 Lists the research on the detection of meat quality

305 2.5. Ultrasonic imaging technique

- 306
- Ultrasonic can be divided into two types in practical applications, namely power ultrasonic

307 waves and detection ultrasonic waves. The ultrasonic generated by power ultrasonic is of low-308 frequency and high-energy, which is usually used in food processing, such as food sterilization, 309 thawing, drying, filtration, and homogenization. The ultrasonic produced by detection ultrasonic is of high-frequency and low-energy and commonly used to analyze and detect food quality (Wang et 310 311 al., 2019). Ultrasonic techniques for detecting meat quality is based on the analysis of changes in 312 acoustic characteristic parameters for predicting meat composition, muscle thickness, fat thickness, 313 etc. Rapid and non-destructive detection and grading evaluation for meat quality are achieved 314 without changing the internal traits of meat (Soria and Villamiel, 2010; Zhang et al., 2018).

315 Benedito et al. (2001) evaluated the changes in ultrasonic velocity to detect the composition of 316 meat mixture. Fat, moisture, and protein can be determined by measuring the ultrasonic velocity in 317 the mixtures using a semi-empirical equation. Li (2013) used ultrasonic imaging technique to identify the fat content of pork loin by analyzing B-mode ultrasound images. The SVM classifier 318 319 combined with BPANN algorithm was designed to detect and classify the fat content with a 320 classification accuracy of 94.9%. Fukuda et al. (2013) developed an image recognition method using 321 a neural network to accurately estimate the beef marbling standard (BMS) number of live cattle 322 using ultrasound echo imaging, and the results confirmed that the correlation coefficient between the actual and the estimated values was 0.70 (p < 0.01). Prados et al. (2015) researched the feasibility 323 324 of using low-intensity ultrasound (US) technology to predict the salt content in brined Biceps 325 femoris (BF) and Longissimus dorsi (LD) pork muscles. Results obtained significant linear relationships between the US velocity and both factors ($R^2 > 0.77$). Ayuso et al. (2013) assessed the 326 use of ultrasound measurements in live animals to predict carcass composition, ham, foreleg weights, 327 and lean meat yields of Iberian pigs. All the results showed high correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.84$) 328 329 between measured and predicted attributes.

The research on ultrasonic detection technology applied in the field of non-destructive testing 330 331 for meat quality started earlier. It was mainly used to detect the content of moisture, fat, protein, and 332 other components of meat as well as online detection and classification for pork carcasses. There 333 have been some ultrasonic carcass grading systems for commercial applications abroad such as the UltraFom 300 and AutoFom in Denmark and CVT-2 in the United States (Fortin et al., 2004). 334 However, ultrasonic detection is susceptible to the irregularities of the tested meat, the uneven 335 336 distribution of fat and lean meat, the measurement site, the ultrasonic frequency, etc., will cause 337 large measurement errors (Jiang et al., 2017b). In recent years, ultrasonic technology has been mainly applied in food processing, which is reflected in the sterilization, pickling, tenderization, 338 thawing, freezing, etc. of meat, as well as the use of ultrasonic assisted extraction of components in 339 food, improvement of meat quality, etc. (Fu et al., 2017; Ojha et al., 2017; Pérez et al., 2018; Suo et 340 341 al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zou et al., 2018).

342

343 **2.6.** Electronic nose/tongue sensor technique

344 Odor has always been an important indicator to judge the meat grade when consumers perceive

the meat quality with their senses. During meat storage, with the decrease of freshness, the proteins, fats, and carbohydrates will be decomposed successively under the action of enzymes and bacteria, and thus, the smell of spoiled meat will become more and more intense (Kizil et al., 2015). Coincidentally, electronic nose is a kind of gas-sensitive sensor that is sensitive to various chemical substances and simulates the olfactory function of human nose, also known as artificial olfaction. It is an intelligent system that can sense and identify volatile gases, used to conduct odor detection and deterioration degree evaluation (Jia et al., 2018).

352 Many scholars at home and abroad have used the electronic nose technology to detect the 353 change of meat odor, so as to judge the freshness of meat, and predict the shelf life of storage. Xiao 354 and Xie (2010) and Li et al. (2016) both used electronic nose (E-nose) technology to detect changes 355 in volatile components of chilled pork at different storage temperatures and periods, so as to assess 356 the freshness of chilled pork. PCA method and discriminate factorial analysis (DFA) was used to analyze the E-nose signals by combining the changes of physical chemistry index such as TVC and 357 358 TVB-N. Wang et al. (2012a) used an E-nose together with SVM to predict the TVC in chilled pork. The correlation between E-nose signal responses and bacterial numbers was established using the 359 360 SVM combined with PLS. Jia et al. (2011) discussed the feasibility of meat adulteration recognition based on E-nose that used to analyze yak meat, beef, and pork, and the results indicated that E-nose 361 362 could recognize yak meat, beef, and pork, and could recognize yak meat and beef samples at 363 different growing locations.

At the same time, as the meat is spoiled, this condition changes the conductivity, and electronic 364 tongue (E-tongue) which is an electronic circuit used to measure this conductivity (Wang et al., 365 2016). The E-tongue is an intelligent detection system composed of a taste sensor array and a pattern 366 367 recognition system that can imitate the function of human taste system. In the application of meat 368 quality detection, E-tongue sensor acquires the signal of the taste substance, and the computer uses 369 the pattern recognition algorithm to analyze and identify the meat composition and metamorphic degree, as well as distinguish different meats (Tian et al., 2013b). Wang et al. (2012d) used the 370 371 multi-frequency pulse E-tongue system to discriminate chicken meat quality. Results suggested that 372 significantly different E-tongue sensor signals were observed for raw breast and leg samples from the same chicken breed. Similarly, Gil et al. (2011) also used E-tongues to describe the correlation 373 374 found between potentiometric measurements and the variation in certain physicochemical, 375 microbial, and biochemical parameters measured on a whole piece of pork loin stored in a 376 refrigerator. Ultimately, they found a remarkable correlation between pH, so-called K-index, and 377 the potentiometric data.

Generally, it was observed that the E-nose/E-tongue sensing technology mainly achieves the evaluation of meat freshness, the identification of meat varieties and quality, and the judgement of spoilage level and storage time based on the smell or taste. The test requirement of collection environment is relatively high, and the detection index is relatively simple and single, which cannot satisfy the requirement of multi-index comprehensive evaluation for meat quality (Han et al., 2014a).

384 2.7. Other meat quality detection techniques

With the rapid development of artificial intelligence in the field of meat quality detection and in addition to the above-mentioned commonly used non-destructive testing technology, following non-destructive detection techniques for meat quality have emerged:

388 Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) is based on the principle of energy exchange 389 between a magnetic nucleus and a radio frequency magnetic field to detect the structure of various 390 organic or inorganic compounds. The technology has been widely used in medicine and achieved 391 great success (Damez and Clerjon, 2013), afterwards, some scholars have applied it to the detection 392 of internal ingredients in food. Shaarani et al. (2006) demonstrated the usage of a combination of 393 bulk NMR and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) measurements of the T2-values of water protons 394 to determine the heat-induced changes in the structure and moisture content of fresh chicken meat. 395 Graham et al. (2010) combined the data generated by NMR spectroscopy with chemometrics to 396 determine the changes in polar metabolite concentrations in beef longissimus dorsi stored for 397 different periods postmortem. Findings demonstrated the potential of this novel approach of using 398 high resolution NMR spectrometry to be used as a suitable method for profiling meat samples. Liu 399 et al. (2013) investigated the influence of age on the chemical composition of duck meat using the 400 ¹H NMR spectroscopy. Their results contribute to be used to help assess the quality of duck meat as 401 a food. Xiao et al. (2019) characterized the effect of the process (washing, boiling 1 h with salt, deep frying, and boiling 2 h) on the water-soluble low molecular weight (WLOM) compound profiles of 402 products using proton NMR spectroscopy, and the fatty acid composition of products was analyzed 403 using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. However, in terms of food science, NMR is mainly 404 used for the analysis and detection of water, protein, fat, carbohydrate, and some trace elements, 405 through analyzing the changes of chemical substances in meat to explore the change mechanism 406 407 and causes of flavor, color, and tenderness (Yang et al., 2012).

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Bioimpedance is a basic physical parameter of biological tissue, mainly reflects the complex 409 410 dielectric properties of biological tissues, organs, cells or whole biological organisms. The measuring principle of this technique is to input tiny alternating current (or voltage) on the surface 411 412 of the test object through electrodes, then obtaining the physiological or pathological information 413 based on the changes in dielectric properties in terms of potential difference (Peng et al., 2011). 414 Fang et al. (2008) investigated the variations and mutual relationships between bio-impedance 415 values, pH value, and water loss rate of bovine muscles near freezing point. The results revealed that the correlation between bio-impedance and pH, and water loss rate are significant ($P \ge 0.05$). 416 417 Yang et al. (2013) used bioelectrical impedance spectroscopy to measure moisture content in porcine meat, and forty-four pieces of porcine longissimus dorsi muscle (LDM) were evaluated with a four-418 419 terminal electrode in a portable bioimpedance spectroscopy system. Xie et al. (2016) established a method for rapidly detecting the freshness of chilled pork based on bioimpedance technology. The 420

TVB-N content, impedance, and phase angle of 20 samples were measured and evaluated for their bioimpedance characteristics. Li et al. (2014) studied electric impedance magnitude and phase properties of unfrozen and frozen-thawed chicken breasts subjected to different thawing times to explore the impedance detection ability for frozen-thawed meat. Radial basis function (RBF) neural network was used to extract the impedance and amplitude information. It is observed that, in recent years, bioimpedance analysis has been widely used to predict the pH value, fat content, water activity, etc., as well as to determine the freshness and maturity of meat.

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429 X-rays have the characteristics of penetrating power, diffractive action, and excitation 430 fluorescence. This is done by capturing the difference of attenuation degree occurring after the 431 interacting with atoms of different substances. When X-ray penetrating, the transmission images 432 and tomographic images of samples can be obtained for further analysis of internal structure (Karoui 433 and Blecker, 2011), so as to enable virtual segmentation of the carcass for grading. Nassy (2015) 434 studied X-ray tomography to measure and evaluate porcine carcass composition and quality traits. 435 The proportion of three main tissues, fat, lean, and bones were determined by X-ray computed 436 tomography (CT), and then the carcass was well graded according to the thickness of the fat and 437 lean. Tao and Ibarra (2000) proposed a new method to compensate for x-ray absorption variations 438 to detect the bone fragments in poultry meat with uneven thickness. Experimental results 439 demonstrated that the proposed imaging method eliminated the false patterns and enhanced the sensitivity of X-ray in bone fragment detection. Chen et al. (2017) analyzed the physical 440 characteristics of Sanhuang chicken carcass based on CT image technique (X-ray scanning 441 442 technique), and the experiment results showed that the relative position of the heart, lung, muscle, 443 stomach, and kidney could be clearly determined based on the horizontal and vertical cross-sectional CT images of the carcass. Liu et al. (2015a) studied the value of application in predicting the 444 445 intramuscular fat (IMF) content and other nutrition in sheep carcass with dual-energy X-rays, and 446 the results proved the necessary basis for the application of dual-energy X-ray in the prediction and 447 evaluation of meat quality. In addition, Furnols et al. (2009) used CT technique coupled with PLS 448 regression to estimate the lean meat percentage (LMP) in pig carcass, indicated that for CT scanning 449 data achieved a good prediction of the LMP of the whole carcass.

450

451 **3. Applications**

In recent years, with the increasing attention and continuous development of artificial intelligence, additionally, the growing demand for high-quality and safe meat paired with increasing population, various non-destructive detection technologies have become more and more widely used in the field of meat quality testing (Chen et al., 2013). Throughout the existing research achievements on non-destructive detection for meat quality (Table 1-Table 4), the studies on meat quality mainly focuses on the four categories of beef (Wei et al., 2019), pork (Sun et al., 2018), lamb (Zheng et al., 2019), and poultry (chicken) (Jiang et al., 2017a), including the evaluation of sensory characteristics, detection of nutrient components, identification of physical-chemical properties,
discrimination of processing quality (quantitative analysis) and judgement of safety quality
(qualitative analysis) (Taheri-Garavand et al., 2019b).

462 Sensory quality directly affects consumer's desire to purchase, which reflects the commodity 463 value of meat. It is generally evaluated from the aspects of meat color, marbling, freshness, tenderness, flavor, and juiciness. Among them, the meat flavor is closely related to the nutrients 464 465 such as amino and fatty acids, and the juiciness is closely related to the fat and moisture content in 466 meat. Sun et al. (2016) utilized a CVS to predict pork color attributes. A CVS developed for meat 467 marbling classification resulted in accuracy values of 81.59 % for bovine and 76.14 % for swine. 468 Wei et al. (2019) proposed a method for detecting beef freshness based on multi-spectral diffuse 469 reflectance technique coupled with a LS-SVM for establishing a freshness prediction model, which 470 yielded a correlation coefficient greater than 0.85. Bauer et al. (2016) evaluated a portable 671 nm 471 Raman system to assess the tenderness of aged bovine gluteus medius muscles, and established a 472 prediction model for beef tenderness by PLSR method that obtained 88% accuracy. Zhang et al. (2019) studied the effect of ultrasound technology on the tenderness of goose breast meat. Zhao et 473 474 al. (2018) developed a rapid analytical technique to predict beef flavor using RS and to investigate 475 correlations between sensory attributes of young dairy bull beef using chemometric method.

476 Nutritional components reflect the edible value of meat, which mainly refers to the monitoring 477 and analysis of meat moisture, protein, fat, vitamins, and minerals. Peng et al. (2018) designed and 478 developed an on-line detection and grading system for pork moisture based on NIR spectroscopy modeled with the PLSR technique for predicting and grading of pork moisture. Liu et al. (2009) 479 480 determined the fat, protein, and water in chilled pork using Vis-NIR transmittance spectroscopy 481 coupled with PLS model. This result showed that the Vis-NIR method could measure the fat and water contents in chilled pork well, however, not found suitable for protein. Liu et al. (2018b) 482 483 investigated the ability of CVS to predict pork intramuscular fat percentage (IMF %). The accuracy rates for regression models were 0.63 for stepwise and 0.75 for SVM. For better predicting 484 485 intramuscular fat contents in pork muscles using hyperspectral imaging, Ma et al. (2018) employed 486 a novel correlation-optimized warping (COW) technique with the first derivative on the full spectra 487 and the feature wavelengths selected by successive projections algorithm.

488 Physical-chemical properties are the inherent characteristics of meat. Therefore, the non-489 destructive detection technology is primarily applied for the prediction and evaluation of the 490 microbial, pH, TVC, and TVB-N content of meat (He and Sun, 2015). Barbin et al. (2013) exploited 491 another push-broom NIR-HSI (900-1700 nm) to study the undesirable microbial growths (TVC and 492 PPC) caused by temperature fluctuation during chilled pork storage. Results were encouraging and 493 showed the promise of hyperspectral technology for detecting bacterial spoilage in pork. Nache et 494 al. (2016) presented a new approach to predict the pH values as quality indicator to assess porcine 495 meat quality by combining Raman spectroscopy with the ACO metaheuristics. Yang et al. (2017a) investigated the feasibility of an HSI technique to determine the (TVC) of cooked beef during 496

storage for evaluating the freshness state. The developed LS-SVM classification models yielded a
high overall classification accuracy of 97.14%. Li et al. (2016) used E-nose to predict the TVC and
TVB-N in pork and assessed the freshness of chilled pork during refrigerated storage under different
packaging methods. Cheng et al. (2016) measured the biogenic amine index (BAI) in pork based on
HSI data combined with stoichiometric analysis to evaluate meat freshness and quality. The PLSR
technique showed an excellent prediction with a R² of 0.96.

503 Processing quality is an important reference for evaluating the meat processability. The 504 commonly used indicator for characterizing meat processing is hydraulic power, also referred as 505 drip loss or water retention, which is used to evaluate the ability of meat muscle tissue to retain 506 water. ElMasry et al. (2011) carried out the post-mortem non-destructive prediction of WHC in fresh 507 beef using NIR-HSI. The modeling of spectral data of beef samples to its real WHC estimated by 508 drip loss method resulted in a R² of 0.89. An image processing algorithm was then developed to 509 transfer the predicting model to each pixel in the image for visualizing drip loss in all portions of 510 the meat sample. Barbin et al. (2015) tested the NIR reflectance as a potential technique for predicting the WHC of chicken breast (Pectoralis major). Spectra in the wavelengths between 400 511 512 and 2500 nm were analyzed using the PCA method and quality attributes were predicted using the PLSR. Results showed that the WHC was the most challenging attribute to determine with R^2 of 513 514 0.70 and SECV of 2.40%.

515 Safety quality is an important content of meat safety testing including the identification of meat 516 varieties and origin, the recognition of components adulteration, and the qualification of corruption degree or shelf life. Chmiel and Słowiński (2016b) determined the effectiveness of a CVS to detect 517 meat defects of m. longissimus lumborum (LL) in industrial settings. It was found that it is possible 518 to employ the CVS to detect PSE (pale, soft, exudative) and DFD (dark, firm, dry) and to classify 519 meat into quality groups. Geronimo et al. (2019) studied to identify and classify chicken with 520 521 wooden breast (WB) using a CVS and spectral information from the NIR region by linear and nonlinear algorithms. A 91.8% of chicken breasts were correctly classified as WB or Normal (N), 522 and NIR spectral information showed an accuracy of 97.5%. Ropodi et al. (2017) investigated the 523 524 potential of multispectral imaging coupled with data analysis methods for the detection of minced 525 beef adulteration with horsemeat, as well as to explore model performance during storage in 526 refrigerated conditions, and the results showed that all pure and freshly-ground samples were 527 classified correctly. Zheng et al. (2019) described a rapid and non-destructive method based on Vis-NIR-HSI system (400-1000 nm) for detecting adulteration with duck meat in minced lamb. The 528 results indicated that the PLSR model with selected wavelengths achieved better results than others 529 with a R² 0.98. Xiao and Xie (2010) used E-nose technology to determine the freshness and shelf 530 531 life of chilled pork. Studies had shown that the shelf life of chilled pork stored at temperatures of 283K and 277K was 2 d and 5 d, respectively. 532

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534 4 Challenges and trends

It can be seen that with the popularization and development of artificial intelligence technology, through the unremitting efforts and pursuit of food scientists at home and abroad, non-destructive testing technology has achieved relatively desired research achievements in meat quality testing. However, most of the testing techniques adopt a single detection method for some specific detection index with acceptable predicting results, which cannot obtain multiple information to comprehensively evaluate the samples (Xiong et al., 2017).

541 Yet, meat quality is affected by many external factors, its contamination and deterioration are 542 complex change process, which are the result of joint action between its internal components and 543 external attributes. A single limited indicator can only describe one of the characteristics of quality 544 changes limiting to achieve a comprehensive evaluation of meat quality as a whole, and the test 545 results ultimately lack comprehensiveness, applicability and accuracy. Therefore, it is necessary to 546 synthesize multiple detection methods and indicators, and utilize fusion of data information to study 547 the comprehensive evaluation method for meat quality (Rosa et al., 2017). Geronimo et al. (2019) 548 combined both CVS and NIR spectroscopy to identify and classify chicken freshness, respectively, and performed physical and technical characterization. Huang et al. (2014) attempted to use multi-549 550 source information fusion technology to further improve the accuracy of non-destructive testing, and effectively integrated NIRS, CVS, and E-nose techniques to evaluate pork freshness. Compared 551 552 with single technique, integrating three techniques has its own superiority in improving the accuracy 553 and stability of the freshness prediction performance significantly. Lu et al. (2011) have studied the 554 complementary technologies of mid-infrared and Raman spectroscopy to rapidly differentiate and quantify the bacteria and microorganisms in meat with determinations taking less than an hour. 555 Pérez-Palacios et al. (2014) combined magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and CVS to forecast 556 557 quality traits of Iberian hams by using non-destructive analysis and data mining methods.

The fusion of multi-source information will certainly bring great difficulties and challenges to 558 559 data processing and analysis. Additionally, a large number of redundant images and added data 560 information will call for higher requirements on the hardware performance of detection system. 561 Therefore, it warrants the necessity to extract the useful information for inspection indicators as few 562 and accurate as possible. Moreover, non-destructive testing is mostly indirect measurement that uses 563 the stoichiometric method to establish relationship models between detection data and quality 564 indicators through a certain number of test samples. The accuracy and reliability of the prediction 565 models depend on effective modeling methods and original samples. Therefore, on the basis of ensuring the hardware performance (such as computing performance, camera resolution, and 566 sharpness, etc.) of the detection system, it is urgent to optimize the statistical analysis methods to 567 reduce unnecessary and irrelevant data information (Chen et al., 2013). Therefore, to speed up the 568 569 system operation process, it is critical to establish more reasonable and improved regression 570 algorithm models (PLSR, SVM, ANN, etc.) and machine learning for further mining data information to facilitate improvement of the prediction accuracy, efficiency, and overall 571 performance (adaptability and robustness) of the meat quality detection system. 572

573 Furthermore, most of the current non-destructive testing methods for meat quality remain at 574 the experimental research stage, although it has been proved that the detection system can meet certain testing speed and precision. However, working performance of non-destructive technologies 575 and their effects have not been verified in the real-world meat processing production line. Therefore, 576 577 while strengthening the research intensity on detection methods, prediction models, and system 578 equipment, it is critically necessary to validate the performance of the testing equipment in the actual 579 production process and thus, to promote the demonstration application of detection system for meat 580 quality and intelligent development of meat processing industry. An appropriate automatic 581 commercial inspection system for meat quality testing can only be realized when a feedback on the 582 performance of non-destructive technologies in industrial settings (real-time meat processing 583 production line) are available.

584

585 **5 Conclusions**

586 In the event of continuously increasing people's demand for high-quality meat coupled with development of artificial intelligence including non-destructive testing technologies have been more 587 588 and more widely applied in meat quality detection. Machine vision, near-infrared spectroscopy, hyperspectral, Raman spectroscopy, electronic nose/tongue, and ultrasonic imaging technologies 589 590 have shown their respective unique technical characteristics when exposed to meat. Overtime, these 591 technologies have achieved gratifying research achievements for the detection, evaluation and 592 grading of sensory quality, nutritional quality, physical-chemical quality, processing and safe quality on the meat (beef, pork, lamb, poultry, and aquatic). 593

594 Nonetheless, machine vision technology is useful to obtain the appearance characteristics of meat such as color, surface morphology, etc., but, it is difficult to acquire the internal quality of meat 595 using CVS. In contrast, NIR can detect the changes in internal composition of meat, but incapable 596 597 of recognizing the external information such as meat color and odor. Unlike CVS and NIR, E-nose 598 technology is mainly used to monitor the volatile gases released from meat and cannot determine 599 the appearance color and internal composition changes of meat. The HSI technology integrates the 600 advantages of both CVS and NIR methods, which facilitates predicting both internal characteristic 601 information of the samples along with detecting the external basic spatial information. However, 602 most of the studies only make use of the single spectral information or image information in 603 hyperspectral data for modeling purpose. The characteristics of 'combination of spectrum and image' 604 of the hyperspectral imaging technology are not fully utilized yet in conducting quantitative analysis 605 and qualitative discrimination on comprehensive determination of meat quality parameters.

Therefore, multiple non-destructive testing technologies are organically integrated fully to obtain the multivariate data information of integrated sample that combined with the optimized and improved chemometric methods. Additionally, the digital image processing technology paired with artificial intelligence learning algorithms were used to construct quantitative prediction models and qualitative discrimination methods for meat quality. Furthermore, performing the comprehensive and entire evaluation of fresh meat from sensory characteristics, internal constituents and external
factors, and applying the developed high-performance quality detection systems to actual meat
processing production lines are all still the research focuses and development trends in meat quality
nondestructive testing, so as to strictly ensure the quality and safety of commercial market meat.
So, this review provided a comprehensive summary of the current challenges and future
research directions for meat quality detection tools based on the analysis, critical reviews, and
synthesizing the findings of the recent articles on non-destructive technologies.

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622 **Conflict of Interest**

623 All the authors declare no conflict of interest.

624 **Author Contributions**

Kin Sun conceived the idea and designed the study. Jennifer Young, David Newman and Eric
Berg performed the experiments and analyzed the data. Xiaochan Wang contributed to the design
and interpretation of the study. Yinyan Shi and Borhan Mohammad wrote the manuscript.

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1014	M., Wang Z. R., Liu S. H. 2019; Research progresses on application of near-infrared spectroscopy technology
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Tab.1 Recent studies on meat quality detection using computer vision system

Performance	References
Accuracy of 92.5%, 75.0%	(Sun et al., 2018)
Correlation coefficient of	(Taheri et al., 2019)
0.98734	
Correlation coefficient of	(Tappi et al., 2017)
0.926	
Accuracy of 81.7%	(Chmiel et al., 2016a, b)
Error of 7.8%	(Mortensen et al., 2016)

1022 variance (ANOVA), least significant difference (LSD), and multivariate linear regression (MLR).

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Tab.2 Recent studies on meat quality detection using near-infrared spectroscopy

Category	Measured	Analytical	Performance	References
Category	attribute	method	I er for mance	Kelerences
Chicken	Identification and	SVM	Accuracy of	(Geronimo et al., 2019)
Chicken	classification	5 V IVI	91.8%	(Geronnio et al., 2019)
	(Moisture, lipid		91.070	
	contents, protein			
	contents, water			
	holding capacity,			
	and shear force)			
Pork	Freshness	BP-AdaBoost	Correlation	$(\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}}) = (\mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{v}})$
PORK	Freshness	BP-AdaBoost	coefficient of	(Huang et al., 2015)
			0.8325	
Chicken	Watan haldina	PCA and PLSR	Correlation	(Darkin at al 2015)
Chicken	Water-holding	rCA allu rLSK	coefficient of	(Barbin et al., 2015)
	capacity		0.91	
Mutton	Disoriminating the	SVM	Accuracy of	(7hang at al 2015a)
WILLION	Discriminating the adulteration	S V IVI	90.38-99.07%	(Zhang et al., 2015a)
Pork	Moisture	PLSR	Correlation	(Peng et al., 2018)
FUIK	WOISture	TLSK	coefficient of	(1 elig et al., 2018)
			0.906	
Chicken breast	Protein	LDA and PLSR	Accuracy of 99.5-	(Wold et al., 2017)
Chicken breast	Tiotem	ED/Y and T ESIX	100%	(wold et al., 2017)
Fish	Microbial spoilage	PLSR and LS-	Correlation	(Cheng et al., 2015a)
1 1511	Wheroolar sponage	SVM	coefficient of	(Cheng et al., 2015a)
		5 1 11	0.93	
Rhubarb	Identification	PLS-DA, SIMCA,	Accuracy of	(Sun et al., 2017)
Induite		SVM and ANN	94.12%	(3 and 50 and, 2017)
Beef	Adulteration	AF	Correlation	(Chen et al., 2018)
			coefficient of	(,,,
			0.91	
Beef, chicken	Authentication and	SVM	Accuracy of	(Alfar et al., 2016)
and lard	classification		98.33%	
Turkey meat	Identification	PLS-DA	Correlation	(Alamprese et al., 2016)
•			coefficient >0.884	

1025Note: BP-AdaBoost, namely back propagation artificial neural network (BP-ANN) and adaptive boosting1026(AdaBoost), linear discriminant analysis (LDA), partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA), soft1027independent modeling of class analogies (SIMCA), least square support vector machines (LS-SVM), and artificial1028fish swarm algorithm (AF).

Tab.3 Recent studies on meat quality detection using hyperspectral imaging (HSI) technique

Category	Measured	Analytical method	Performance	References
8.	attribute			
Chicken meat	Texture	ACO-BPANN and PCA-BPANN	Correlation coefficient of 0.754	(Khulal et al., 2016)
Prawn	TVB-N (freshness)	PLSR, LS-SVM and BP-NN	Correlation coefficient of 0.9547	(Dai et al., 2016)
Beef	Total viable count (TVC) of bacteria (freshness)	PLS and LS-SVM	Accuracy of 97.14%	(Yang et al., 2017a)
Pork meat	Protein and TVB-N content	PLSR and LS-SVM	Correlation coefficient of 0.861	(Yang et al., 2017b)
Fish	Freshness	PCA and BP-ANN	Accuracy of 94.17%	(Huang et al., 2016)
Pork muscles	Intramuscular fat contents	SVM, SG, SNV, MSC and PLSR	Correlation coefficient of 0.9635	(Ma et al., 2018)
Frozen pork	Myofibrils cold structural deformation degrees	PLSR and SPA	Correlation coefficient of 0.896	(Cheng et al., 2018)
Lamb, beef, and pork	Adulteration	SVM and CNN	Accuracy of 94.4%	(Al-Sarayreh et al., 2018)
Beef	Adulteration	PLSR and SVM	Accuracy of 95.31%	(Ropodi et al., 2017)
Fish (grass carp)	Textural changes (Warner- Bratzler shear force, hardness, gumminess and chewiness)	PLSR	Correlation coefficient of 0.7982- Correlation coefficient of 0.8774	(Ma et al., 2017a)
Lamb meat	Adulteration	SPA and SG	Correlation coefficient above 0.99	(Zheng et al., 2019)
Pork	Intramuscular fat content	MLR	Correlation coefficient of 0.96	(Huang et al., 2017)
Pork <i>longissimus</i> dorsi muscles	Moisture content (MC)	PLSR	Correlation coefficient of 0.9489	(Ma et al., 2017b)
Grass carp (Ctenopharyngodon idella)	Moisture content	PLSR	Correlation coefficient of 0.9416	(Qu et al., 2017)
Lamb muscle	Discrimination	PCA, LMS, MLP-SCG, SVM, SMO and LR	Accuracy of 96.67%	(Sanz et al., 2016)
Beef	Adulteration	PLSR, SVM, ELM, CARS and GA	Correlation coefficient of 0.97	(Zhao et al., 2019)

Note: Principle component analysis (PCA), ant colony optimization (ACO), savitzky golay (SG)-smoothing,
standard normal variate (SNV), multiplicative scatter correction (MSC) and partial least squares regression (PLSR),
successive projections algorithm (SPA), convolution neural networks (CNN), artificial fish swarm algorithm (AF),
linear least mean squares (LMS), multilayer perceptron with scaled conjugate gradient (MLP-SCG), sequential
minimal optimization (SMO), logistic regression (LR), extreme learning machine (ELM), and competitive adaptive
reweighted sampling (CARS).

Tab.4 Recent studies on meat quality detection using Raman spectra technique

Category	Measured attribute	Raman frequency range	Analytical method	Performanc e	References
Grass carp surimi	Changes of protein structure and amino acid residue microenvironment	2900 cm ⁻¹	/	Effective	(Gao et al., 2018)
Bull beef	Sensory characteristics (flavour)	1300-2800 cm ⁻¹	PLSR	Correlation coefficient of 0.80-0.96	(Zhao et al., 2018)
Beef tallow, pork lard, chicken fat, duck oil	Adulteration (unsaturated fatty acids and total fatty acids)	700-1800 cm ⁻¹	Correlated linear	Correlation coefficient of 0.96674 and 0.97148	(Lee et al., 2018)
Chicken	Sodium chloride or sodium bicarbonate	$1659 \pm 0.58 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ to $1661 \pm 0.58 \text{ cm}^{-1}$	one-way ANOVA		(Zhu et al., 2018)
Bovine	Tenderness (shear force)	800-1550 cm ⁻¹	PLSR	Accuracy of 70-88%	(Bauer et al., 2016)
Lamb	Intramuscular fat content and major fatty acid groups	500-1800 cm ⁻¹	PLSR and linear regression	Correlation coefficient of 0.93	(Fowler et al., 2015b)
Bovine serum albumin	Orientation of Norfloxacin	300-1800 cm ⁻¹	/	1	(Lian et al., 2019)
Cooked meat	Endpoint temperature	1800-2000 cm ⁻¹	PLS-DA and PCA	Accuracy of 97.87%	(Berhe et al., 2015)
Beef lions	Eating quality traits (juiciness and tenderness)	671 nm	PLSR	/	(Fowler et al., 2018)
Porcine meat	рН	323-2105 cm ⁻¹	ACO	Correlation coefficient of 0.90	(Nache et al., 2016)

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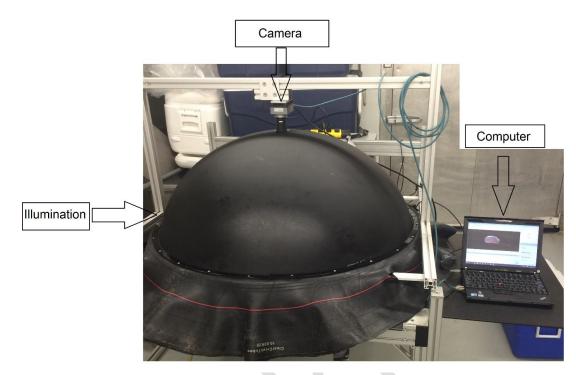


Fig. 1. Components of a meat computer vision system

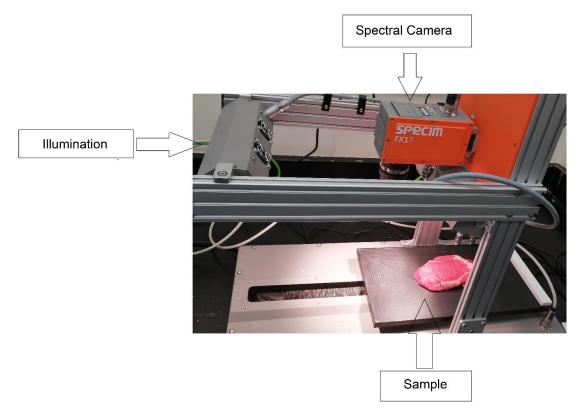
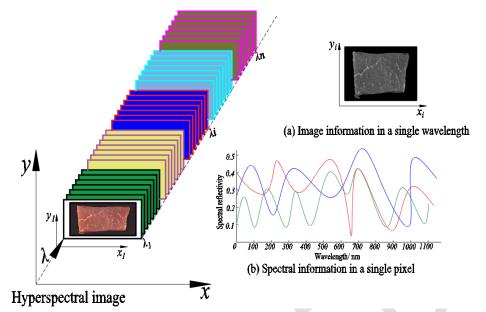


Fig. 2. Components of a meat spectral detection system



1056Hyperspectral image1057Fig. 3. Hypercube information diagram of hyperspectral image for meat detection