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1 Machine learning for temperature prediction in food pallet

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3 experimental training dataset

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10 Abstract

Real-time prediction of product temperature is a challenge for cold chain monitoring. The use 11 of machine learning methods, especially neural networks, has been suggested as a possible 12 approach. However, their training requires a large amount of good quality data. We found that 13 14 experimental data leads to better results (by 20 to 40% compared with synthetic data) but require material investment, while synthetic data generated from thermal model is plentiful but tends 15 to cause overfitting and overestimation of prediction performance (up to 150%). Our study 16 shows that increasing the amount of synthetic data only decreases the variance, but not the mean 17 error. The best strategy is to improve the thermal model used. As for experimental data, it is 18 more useful to find an optimal position of the sensor in the pallet than using ever increasing 19 realistic scenarios. Overall, even with imperfect predictions, machine learning models are able 20 to predict temperature in real time thus enabling to take preventive measures when needed. 21

Keywords: Temperature prediction, machine learning, synthetic data, experimental data, cold chain,
 temperature abuse

24 **1. Introduction**

Food cold chain is composed of different stages: production (or harvest), product handling, 25 processing, distribution, and consumption. Temperature control along the cold chain is essential 26 to provide consumers with safe food of high organoleptic quality. Worldwide, it has been 27 estimated that 40% of food products require refrigeration (James and James 2010), and in 28 developed countries, 12% of losses of perishable foods is due to a lack of refrigeration (IIR 29 2021). A review of Ndraha et al. (2018) identified cold chain breaks in numerous studies. For 30 example, a field study in France showed that around 12% products in transport and distribution 31 32 had an average temperature above the recommended value (Derens et al. 2006). The recent development of wireless temperature sensors at affordable prices enables real-time temperature 33 measurement along the cold chain (Bouzembrak et al. 2019). 34

Measuring and predicting the products' temperature in real-time are essential to detect cold 35 chain breaks and to estimate their impact on product quality. In practice, temperature sensors 36 such as Radio Frequency IDentification (RFID) tags are placed in the food stack to measure the 37 38 air temperature. One of the limitation in the use of such wireless sensors is that the temperature is measured at one (or only at a few) position(s) in a pallet while products temperature is 39 heterogeneous (Laguerre et al. 2013). Hence, the measured temperature is not representative of 40 the full load. The temperature heterogeneity presents an issue when it comes about cold chain 41 break detection (Loisel et al. 2021). For example, a detection system may alert operators about 42 a cold chain break while products are not affected. Inversely, it may not detect and not alert the 43 44 operators while a corrective action would be necessary. Thus, the development of a model for

45 products' temperature prediction from measurement by few sensors located in a pallet is46 appealing since it makes possible the detection of cold chain breaks.

In order to predict in real-time load temperature in refrigerating equipment from one or few 47 sensors, Badia-Melis et al. (2016) used thermodynamics based approaches such as kriging or 48 capacitive heat transfer models as well as machine learning methods. The authors showed that 49 predictions by physical based models were less precise in transitionary state heat transfer than 50 in stationary state, which is an issue when detecting cold chain breaks. Overall, machine 51 learning models such as neural networks were more precise than physical based models and 52 have proved their performance in several other studies (Nunes et al. 2014; Hoang et al. 2021; 53 Mellouli et al. 2019; Mercier and Uysal 2018; Xiao et al. 2016). 54

Temperature data are necessary to train machine learning models for temperature prediction. 55 As discussed in Loisel et al. (2021), different sources of data are available: experimental data 56 (collected on field and in laboratory) and synthetic data (generated from simulation using 57 thermal models). However, field data are often incomplete (e.g., unknown environmental 58 conditions, few measured products), thus the options for different machine learning tasks are 59 limited. As alternatives, experimental data generated in laboratory and synthetic data generated 60 by thermal model are more robust to build a training dataset for machine learning models. 61 Indeed, all the temperatures at various locations on a pallet can be measured and calculated. 62 These two types of data involve different costs, different uncertainties, and different times. 63 Experimental data generation requires a controlled temperature test room, an experimental 64 device, a product to be tested and time to conduct the experiment (Duret et al. 2014). However, 65 this data can be assumed as representative of field data if physical properties such as ambient 66 air temperature or velocity are reproduced in the experimental room. Synthetic data generation 67 is less time consuming but it requires the use of thermal models, which can be obtained from 68 literature and from a specific development (Ambaw et al. 2021). As with all thermal models, 69

the uncertainty of temperature prediction is a common issue. The data uncertainty, related to

71	the applied assumptions, may affect the performance of a machine learning model trained with
72	those data.
73	The machine learning models used to predict product temperature in the cold chain reported by
74	several studies are based on both experimental (Badia-Melis et al. 2016) and synthetic data
75	(Mercier and Uysal 2018). However, to our knowledge, the precision of prediction by machine
76	learning models trained by these types of data were not compared in these studies.
77	This study aims to compare the use of experimental and of synthetic training data for machine
78	learning approaches using neural network (NN) models to predict product temperature
79	distribution in a pallet. The following questions are addressed:
80	• What is the impact of the sensor position on temperature prediction accuracy?
81	• Between experimental and synthetic data, which one allows obtaining the best
82	performance using machine learning models?
83	• Which strategies can be implemented to optimize the performances of the machine
84	learning models when only synthetic data is available?
85	

2. Material and methods

70

87 2.1. Overview of the methodology

Figure 1 presents the overview of the methodology developed in this study. First, the data sources are presented: namely an experimental set-up description (section 2.2.1) and the heat balance equations for the developed thermal model (section 2.2.2). The data generated by experiment and by thermal model according to different cold chain scenarios are presented (sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2). Then, the machine learning models trained on these two data sources are described (section 2.4). Finally, their performances evaluated by using Root Mean Square
Error (RMSE) as criteria (section 2.5) are reported and compared (section 3).

95

96 **2.2. Data sources**

97 2.2.1 Experimentation

An experimental set-up (Figure 2) representing a level of a pallet (1.2m long, 1m wide and 0.1m 98 high) was installed inside a controlled-temperature test room of 29 m³ (3.4m long, 3.4m wide 99 100 and 2.5m high). Eight crates were filled with 28 apples each (sp. Rubinette Rosso, mass of an apple = 120 g, diameter = 0.064 m). Two polystyrene plates (5 cm thickness) were placed at 101 the top and the bottom of the device to represent an intermediate level in a pallet. Air was sucked 102 through the device by 3 fans located at the exit enabling stable one-directional airflow. Air 103 velocity was fixed at 0.2 m.s⁻¹ at the entrance of the pallet to represent the pallet located in clam 104 air. Air flowed only through the space over the crates since the sidewalls were closed. The inlet 105 air temperature could be changed instantaneously by switching a shutter at different moments 106 to alternate between the cold air (of the test room) and warm air (previously flowing through a 107 heat resistance). Hence, different inlet air temperature profiles could be generated. 108

Temperatures were measured with T-type thermocouples previously calibrated at 0°C, 10°C, 20°C, 30°C and 40°C (precision +/-0.2°C). These thermocouples were placed at the core and the neighboring air of 16 apples (2 apples/crate, Figure 2b). In addition, a thermocouple was placed at the entrance of the device to measure the inlet air temperature. In each experiment, the product initial temperature was considered as homogeneous while it was different in 10 studied scenario (see section 2.3). Temperatures were recorded every 20s for 12h.

116 **2.2.2 Thermal model**

A thermal model was developed to predict air and product temperatures at different positions in a pallet using the inlet air temperature profile as input parameter. These predicted temperatures are called synthetic data.

The model was based on a zonal approach. The model considers that a crate is composed of 2 zones, one near the side and one near the center of a pallet. Each zone is characterized by one air and one core temperatures. Thus, a pallet level is composed of 16 zones.

As air flows through a pallet, it exchanges heat first with products upstream of the pallet. 123 124 Consequently, upstream products are more susceptible to variations in temperature as a result of changes in ambient temperature. For this reason, temperature heterogeneity can be observed 125 in a pallet of product (Duret et al. 2014). The Biot number ($Bi = hR/\lambda$, ratio between internal 126 and external heat transfer resistances) of product is about 0.4 (where R= 0.032 m, λ =0.39 W.m⁻ 127 1 .K⁻¹ and h=5 W.m⁻².C⁻¹). Thus, the internal heat transfer resistance due to conduction inside 128 the apple is on the same order of magnitude as the convection and cannot be ignored. 129 In order to generate synthetic data, the numerical model used in this study used a zonal approach 130

to describe the evolution of air temperature through a pallet coupled with a 1D thermal modelto predict the product core temperature in each zone.

Assuming that in a zone, product temperature was homogeneous. Moreover, the heat transferby radiation was considered as negligible in this study.

135

136 Air temperature calculation

Only convective heat exchange between air and product was considered. At the time *t*, the inlet air of temperature $T_{inlet,t}^{air}$ exchanges with product in the zone 1 (with convective heat transfer

coefficient *h*), this gives the air outlet of $T_{1,1,t}^{air}$, which is the inlet air of the zone 5 and so on. The generalization of the balance equation over 16 zones is presented as follows:

141
$$\dot{m} \times Cp^{air} \times \left(T_{i,j,t}^{air} - T_{i-1,j,t}^{air}\right) + h \times S \times \left(T_{i,j,t}^{air} - T_{i,j,t}^{prod,s}\right) = 0 \quad (1)$$

With \dot{m} , the air mass flow rate (kg.s⁻¹), Cp^{air} the air heat capacity (J.kg⁻¹.°C⁻¹), $T_{i,j,t}^{prod,s}$ the 142 product surface temperature (°C), S the product surface area (m^2) and h the convective heat 143 transfer coefficient between air and product surface was considered as constant in all 16 zones. 144 Both free and forced convection can be considered for low air velocity used in our study (0.2 145 m.s⁻¹). The corresponding convective heat coefficient h = 5 W.m⁻².C⁻¹ was obtained by fitting 146 product core temperature change with time during a cooling from 20°C to 4°C (independent 147 scenario from all scenarios presented next in this work). This value in the condition of our study 148 corresponds to mixed convection (Richardson number = $Gr/_{Re^2} \sim 0.8$) and is in agreement with 149 previous values observed in pallets in the literature (min=2 W.m⁻².C⁻¹ and max=20 W.m⁻².C⁻¹; 150 Duret et al. 2014, Laguerre et al. 2014). 151

152 **Product temperature calculation**

For simplification, an apple was considered as a sphere with no heat generation and constant thermal diffusivity α ($\alpha = 1.1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$). Inside a product, conduction only in radial direction was considered (1D model). The transient heat conduction equation in spherical coordinates is:

157
$$\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right) \quad (2)$$

Symmetry and convective boundary conditions were considered in product core and surface,respectively:

160
$$\left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right|_{r=0} = 0 \quad (3)$$

161
$$-\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\Big|_{r=R} = h \left(T^{air} - T^{prod,S} \right)$$
(4)

162 At t = 0, $T_{i,j,t}^{prod} = T_0$ (homogeneous product initial temperature in all zones).

This equation was solved using FTCS (Forward Time Centered Space) method (Thibault et al. 164 1987). At the top and the bottom of the experimental device, adiabatic walls are considered to 165 represent an intermediate layer in a pallet.

166 **2.3. Data generation from different cold chain scenarios**

167 **2.3.1. Experimental dataset**

Ten profiles of the inlet air temperature (T_{inlet}^{air}) were created using the experimental device to 168 represent 10 cold chain scenarios for a fixed duration of 12h each (Figure 3 A & B). These 169 scenarios were built by combining cooling and warming events at the inlet air temperature to 170 represent the ones observed in real situations, e.g. products loading/unloading in a cold 171 equipment, temperature fluctuations due to on/off cycles of compressor, defrosting during 172 which compressor is turned off, product transferred from one to another cold equipment in 173 which the set temperatures are different...). The mean and standard deviation of the inlet air 174 temperature in these scenarios were different in order to represent as much as possible real 175 conditions. It is to be emphasized that for one scenario, a core and an air temperature in 16 176 zones in the experimental set-up were generated. 177

178 **2.3.2. Synthetic dataset**

The air inlet temperature profiles, used as inputs of thermal model for synthetic data generation (Figure 3 C & D), were obtained by applying a moving average smoothing method on the experimental profiles. In this manner, noiseless data was generated from the same 10 scenarios. 182 Similarly to the experimental dataset, each scenario generated a core and an air temperatures in183 the 16 zones.

184 **2.4 Machine learning models**

Numerous machine learning models exist in the literature. Only the results obtained with neural networks are reported in this work. Neural networks are representative of machine learning methods with the same issue of generalizing from data while avoiding overfitting. In addition, we obtained better results with neural networks than with ensemble methods such as Random Forests and Adaboost, as well as linear methods such as Linear Regression, Lasso, and SVM. Therefore, results obtained with neural networks are indicative of what one can hope for using the best machine learning method to date on that type of learning task.

The conclusions we reached in our experimental study would remain qualitatively the same if we had used other machine learning methods, but with inferior performance. Since we are comparing synthetic and experimental data, neural networks were selected to alter their architecture. This was done to see if the difference between the two training datasets was the same for different architectures.

197 2.4.1 Inputs and output of the Neural Network (NN)

The objective of a NN is to predict the products' core temperatures in each 16 zones from an air temperature measurement, as in field practice. Hence, the NNs were trained to predict the 16 apples' core temperature at time $t(T_{i,j,t}^{core})$ knowing the air temperature inside the pallet at the previous time steps $(T_{i,j,t-\lambda\Delta t}^{air}, T_{i,j,t-(\lambda-1)\Delta t}^{air}, \dots, T_{i,j,t-\Delta t}^{air})$ (Figure 4). In each of the 16 zones, indices *i* and *j* = [1,..4] represent the coordinates of the position of the zone in the experimental set-up (Figure 2.b), $\lambda\Delta t$ the time delay between the last measurement (at $t = t - \Delta T$) and the

oldest measurement (at $t = t - \lambda \Delta T$) used as input of the NN, Δt the time step between two measurements. According to our preliminary study, $\lambda = 50$ is an optimal value.

206 2.4.2 Tested NN architectures

207 The type of NN used is the Multilayer Perceptron Regressor (MLP), that uses back propagation and stochastic gradient descent to optimize the squared loss. The activation function for the 208 hidden layers was the Rectified Linear Unit function (RELU). For all tested NNs, the 209 hyperparameters (e.g. α : L2 penalty parameter) were set at the default values of the library 210 scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al. 2011). In this case, the multi-output version of the MLP was 211 implemented: the output layer's size is 16, corresponding to the 16 apple core temperatures. 212 The objective of this work is not to find the best model, but to compare the quality of the training 213 data. Tests were performed on various NN architectures, from 1 hidden layer to 3 hidden layers 214 to evaluate the impact of different strategies (noise addition, data augmentation). The different 215 sizes of the hidden layers were chosen according to preliminary simulations. Finally, 5 different 216 hidden layer architectures were presented in this work: 217

- 1-hidden layer architectures: 5 and 15
- 2-hidden layers: (10, 4)
- 3-hidden layers: (5, 5, 5) and (24, 12, 4)

221 **2.5 Performance evaluation**

The models were trained and tested through a *leave-one out* (LOO) cross-validation procedure. This procedure evaluates the model's capacity to predict the target on an unknown profile. In our case, a dataset includes 10 temperature scenarios (16 air temperatures and 16 core temperatures in each). A model was trained on 9 scenarios (scenarios 2 to 10) then tested on the remaining scenario (scenario 1- see Figure 5). This process was repeated 10 times. In the

second step, scenario 2 is used for the test, in third step, scenarios 3 is used for the test and so
on. The LOO cross-validation procedure enables estimating the performance of the model when
generalizing to an independent real scenario.

It is of major importance to emphasize here that the scenario used for the test are always experimental. Even when NNs are trained with synthetic data, the performance is evaluated by testing in comparison with experimental data. In this way, the NN models trained with the experimental and synthetic datasets are evaluated on the same data and their performance comparison is possible. Moreover, it corresponds to the field operational conditions as these NNs are meant to predict temperature from a wireless sensor placed in a pallet.

The chosen performance criteria was the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) since it is appropriate for numerical predictions:

238
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta t}{N_{zone} \times t_{max}}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{zone}} \sum_{t=0}^{\frac{t_{max}}{\Delta t}} \left(\hat{T}_{n,t}^{core} - T_{n,t}^{core} \right)^2 (3)$$

With the number of zones $N_{zone} = 16$, the time step $\Delta t = 60s$, $t_{max} = 12x3600s$. $T_{n,t}^{core}$ and $\hat{T}_{n,t}^{core}$ are respectively the measured and predicted (by the NN) core temperatures of the apple of the zone *n* at time *t*.

Furthermore, NN training uses pseudo-random numbers generated from a random seed. The same model trained on the same data with different random seeds will not give us the same results. The random seed has an impact on how the NN weights are initialized.

245 Depending on the analysis provided, some specifications of the RMSE calculation are given:

245 2.5.1. Performance over the 10 scenarios. In sections 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3, the *RMSEs* is used. **247** *RMSEs* is based on *RMSE* defined in (3). In the LOO cross validation process (Figure 5.A), for **248** each of the 10 training and testing steps *s*, a total of 50 iterations with different random seeds are processed, resulting in 50 $RMSE_{s,i}$. Then, the average value is calculated ($RMSE_s$) and presented by boxplots describing the distribution of the 10 $RMSE_s$. In other words, these boxplots represent the performances distribution according to the 10 temperature scenarios. This allows us to present results that are independent from the random seed and hence independent from the NN initialization.

254 **2.5.2. Performance over time.** In Figure 7 (section 3.2), the evolution of the NN performance 255 over time is studied, this is represented by a $RMSE_t$:

256
$$RMSE_{t} = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta t}{N_{zone} \times t_{max}}} \sum_{n=1}^{N_{zone}} \sum_{u=0}^{\frac{t}{\Delta t}} \left(\hat{T}_{n,u}^{core} - T_{n,u}^{core}\right)^{2} (4)$$

With *t* the time at which the $RMSE_t$ is calculated. For example, at time t = 2h, the $RMSE_t$ from time u = 0h to u = 2h is calculated.

2.5.3. Average performance over 50 different weight initializations. In section 3.4 (Impact 259 of additional synthetic data), the $RMSE_i$ is used. $RMSE_i$ is also based on the RMSE (see 260 equation 3). The LOO cross validation (Figure 5.A) is processed for a given seed for the 10 261 steps s, resulting in 10 $RMSE_{s,i}$ (Figure 5.B) which are averaged. This process is conducted 50 262 times with 50 different random seeds (i.e., NN initializations, data shuffle ...) resulting in 50 263 $RMSE_i$. The corresponding results are presented using boxplots describing the distribution of 264 the 50 $RMSE_i$ of each iteration *i* (seed setting); in other words, the model performance 265 according to 50 different NN initializations. 266

267

268 **3. Results & Discussion**

3.1. Position of the temperature sensor in the pallet.

270 All sensors' positions were tested, but only two results with sensors placed at the front and at the back are presented. Figure 6 shows the $RMSE_s$ distribution according to the sensor's 271 position in the pallet and the architecture of the tested NN. Among the different proposed NNs 272 (number of hidden layers, hidden layer size), none of the architectures showed consistently 273 better performances. In single-sensor configurations, the NN performances are better when the 274 sensor is placed at the back ($RMSE_i = 0.95$; downstream airflow) than at the front of the pallet 275 $(RMSE_i = 1.41; upstream airflow)$. Results agree with similar studies in the literature (Badia-276 Melis et al. 2016; Mercier and Uysal 2018). Indeed, the air temperature (measured by the 277 sensor) in the back depends on the air and product temperatures located at the upstream 278 positions in the pallet. In other words, the evolution of the air temperature at the back contains 279 information about the air and product temperatures of the previous zones. The air temperature 280 at the front, on the other hand, depends mostly on the external ambient air. In field conditions, 281 it is difficult to control the airflow direction around a pallet. Moreover, the pallet position in an 282 equipment can change through the cold chain, e.g. a crate at the back (downstream airflow) in 283 a specific equipment can become the crate at the front (upstream airflow) in another equipment. 284 Taking into consideration this fact, when only one sensor is available, it should be placed at the 285 center of the pallet: either at the two opposite sides in a pallet (Mercier and Uysal 2018). These 286 two sensor positions would allow more robust results ($RMSE_i = 0.65$), but at a higher cost. A 287 cost analysis should take into consideration the performance of the cold chain break detection 288 system, its implementation cost (linked to the number sensors), product economical value and 289 cost of product losses following cold chain break. This analysis would help the decision-making 290 of the most appropriate solution for a given product. 291

292

3.2. Evolution of model performance over time

The core temperature evolutions (average value of 16 measurements) and the predicted ones 294 (by NN) are presented in Figure 7.A, and the comparison of $RMSE_t$ evolution for the NN 295 296 trained with experimental and synthetic data presented in Figure 7.B. It is obvious that the core temperature is poorly predicted during the first hour ($RMSE_t > 2$), then, the 297 $RMSE_t$ decreases rapidly over time ($RMSE_t < 1$). This can be explained by the fact that at 298 time t = 0, the NN does not have the data of the initial product temperature. Indeed, in 299 practice, the sensor is placed in the pallet and measures the air temperature, no data of product 300 temperature provided to the NN. The precision of prediction increases with time, this can be 301 explained by the fact that the product measured and predicted temperatures (by NN) reach 302 progressively the inlet air temperature. In practice, in order to avoid false or undetected cold 303 chain breaks, the sensor should be placed in the pallet long time before shipping. In this 304 manner, the NN will be able to determine a product temperature in controlled conditions and 305 then to predict the product temperature correctly after shipping. 306

307

308 3.3. Influence of data source on NN model performance

309

310 3.3.1 Comparison of model performances

The performances of the NNs trained with two data sources (experimental and synthetic) are shown in Figure 8 for two sensor positions (back and front). For all tested NNs, the *RMSEs* of the NNs trained with experimental data are lower than the *RMSEs* of the NNs trained with synthetic data. These results were expected as the calculation of the *RMSEs* for the data sources are performed on experimental data. Moreover, this is also due to the uncertainty of the synthetic data as this dataset was generated from a numerical model with its own uncertainty. However, the difference of the performances between the two types of data is lower when the

sensor is located at the back of the pallet (up to 0.2 °C corresponding to 20%; Figure 7.A) than 318 when the sensor is placed at the front (up to 0.6 °C corresponding to 40%; Figure 7.B). Although 319 NNs trained with experimental data show better performances, their generation has constraints. 320

321

3.3.2 Estimation of the model performance without experimental data 322

323 Although it is possible to train NNs with synthetic data, the evaluation of an NN performances without any experimental or field data is more complex. When no experimental data is 324 325 available, one would have to train NNs on synthetic data. In this case, the LOO cross-validation process would be conducted using also synthetic data as test data. However, as observed in 326 Figure 9, the *RMSE*_s estimated using synthetic noiseless data as test data $(0.7 \pm 0.35^{\circ}C)$ are 327 lower than the *RMSE*_s calculated using experimental data (1.22 \pm 0.47 °C), leading to an 328 overestimation of the NN performances (up to 150%). This observation could be explained by 329 the fact that the NN are trained using noiseless synthetic data. Indeed, the noise of the measured 330 data is mainly due to the uncertainty of the thermocouple (+/- 0.2°C). To limit the 331 underestimation of the RMSE of NN trained with synthetic data and tested on synthetic data, 332 different noise levels were added to the synthetic test data. However, in all tested cases, the 333 RMSE_s were underestimated in comparison to the RMSEs calculated on experimental data 334 (Figure 9). 335

336

3.4. Impact of additional synthetic data 337

Previously, NN models were trained with experimental and synthetic datasets generated from 338 10 cold chain scenarios. Now a question is: what is the impact of the choice of the scenarios? 339 Can the model train on synthetic data be improved by adding some random scenarios? 340

In order to answer this question, 50 additionnal random scenarios were generated and used as input to the thermal model to generate synthetic data. It should be remined that realistic scenarios require field studies.

344

345 **3.4.1 Impact of scenarios used for training**

The performance of NN trained with the synthetic data described in section 2.3.2 are compared 346 with the performances of NN trained with synthetic data of scenarios generated randomly with 347 the thermal model by varying the time-temperature evolution of inlet air temperature. The 348 results are presented in the Figure 10 and showed that NNs trained on synthetic data generated 349 from random scenarios performed similarly to NNs trained on realistic scenarios. This 350 observation is of interest as it implies that NN can be trained without accurate information of 351 the given cold chain. Thus, to implement product temperature prediction using wireless 352 temperature sensor and NN, it is not necessary to conduct a complete field study to identify 353 representative scenario. 354

355

356 3.4.2 Impact of increasing the dataset's size

Once a thermal model is developed, it is easy to generate large synthetic datasets from numerous synthetic cold chain scenarios. This represents the main advantage of synthetic data in comparison to the generation of experimental data. With a large dataset, it is expected that the NN performance would improve significantly, allowing one to achieve the performance of an NN trained on experimental data. In Figure 11, the impact of the number of random scenarios added to the original dataset on the $RMSE_i$ is presented, compared to $RMSE_i$ obtained from NN trained on experimental data. Overall, the average $RMSE_i$ is similar for all tested cases (from 0

to 50 scenarios added to the original dataset). Adding more synthetic scenarios will not suffice 364 to overcome the drawbacks of synthetic data. However, the variance of the $RMSE_i$ decreases 365 as the number of added scenarios to the training increases. Hence, while the number of scenarios 366 does not impact the overall performance of the $RMSE_i$, it helps reducing the impact of the 367 weights' initialization, thus reducing the variance of the final model. Precautions need to be 368 taken on the development of NN when little data is used for trained as the NN is sensitive to 369 the weights' initialization. In this case, additional scenarios could help reducing the model 370 variance, thus, reducing false or non-undetected cold chain breaks. 371

372

373 **3.5. General discussion.**

The main issue to develop machine learning models to predict product temperature is to collect 374 the training data. This data may come from several sources: field measurement, experiments 375 in laboratory, or synthetic from more or less complex thermal models (Loisel et al. 2021). In 376 this study, the impact of experimental and synthetic data on the performance of machine 377 learning model was conducted. While NNs trained with experimental data showed better 378 performances, this kind of data require material investment. To be able to predict product 379 temperatures under various conditions (air velocity, product and pallet geometries...), the use 380 of physical based thermal model to generate synthetic data is promising. NNs trained on 381 experimental data performed better (RMSE 10% lower in average) than NNs trained on 382 synthetic data. In addition, even though one can use only synthetic data of various 383 configurations to train NNs, the main issue concerns the method of evaluating the NN 384 performance. As seen in section 3.3. the use of synthetic data as test data leads to an 385 overestimation of the model performances. Furthermore, noise addition during testing is not 386 enough to overcome this issue. Measurement data (issued from laboratory experiments or 387

ideally from field data) should be used as test data to evaluate properly performances of NNs 388 trained with synthetic data. In other words, synthetic data can be used to train NNs but 389 experimental measurements should be used as test data. It should be noted that the results and 390 conclusions of this study are not generalizable to other applications or models with different 391 uncertainties. Results obtained with models with lower uncertainty (e.g. models taking into 392 account more detailed hydrodynamics effects) might be different from this study. There is a 393 need for further study of the effect of uncertainty on NN performances. In the view of the 394 development of more flexible predictive tool able to describe the high variability of 395 configurations encountered in the cold chain, without a tremendous work on model 396 development or experimental data generation, transfer learning methodology might be of 397 interest. The increasing availability of powerful machine learning methods that are efficient in 398 the large and highly variable set of situations encountered in the cold chain, is accompanied by 399 a growing demand for learning data. But, given the difficulty of producing experimental data, 400 it might be worth considering the use of transfer learning where one starts with a previously 401 learned model with similar data in order to learn a model for a new task, thus reducing the need 402 for new training data. 403

It is to be emphasized that the RMSE was calculated including data measured before the first 404 405 2h. The *RMSE* presented throughout this paper would have been lower if our experiments were conducted on 24h or 48h. For this reason, the comparison of the performances with other similar 406 studies is not possible. The RMSE_s could have been calculated omitting for example the first 407 two or three hours, in order to provide the information to the NN about the initial product 408 temperature. However, this would have been difficult to justify and in addition, there was not 409 sufficient information to set an appropriate cut-off time. Further work could be conducted on 410 defining an appropriate evaluation metric. 411

In order to improve the performances of machine learning models trained with synthetic data, 412 several studies added noise to the training data. Indeed, contrary to the experimental data, the 413 synthetic data is noiseless. Adding noise to the synthetic data could describe more accurately 414 the experimental data. To evaluate the noise impact on performance, a comparison between 415 noiseless synthetic data, synthetic data with standard deviation of $0.1^{\circ}C$ (corresponding to \pm 416 0.2° C uncertainty of the sensor used in the experimentation, 95% of Confidence Interval), 0.2° C 417 and 0.5°C was conducted. However, no difference was found in terms of performances (results 418 not shown). Further work needs to be conducted in order to improve models trained with 419 420 synthetic data.

There are many types of NNs. In this study, Mulit-Layer Perceptrons were used. This choice 421 was made since our configuration was simple (one level of a pallet) and our preliminary tests 422 showed good results using them. The comparison of different types of NN was out of the scope 423 of this study. In further studies, focusing on more complex configurations (pallet, equipment, 424 ...), other types of NNs could be used such as RNN that are better adapted to temporal data 425 (Jaeger 2002), Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) that are better adapted to spatial data (Le 426 Cun et al. 1990), or other methods combining both (Convolutional Recurrent Neural Networks 427 - CRNN) (Zuo et al. 2015). 428

Finally, such models to predict in real time the temperature could be associated with anomaly detection algorithms in order to alert operators when cold chain breaks occur or are about to occur. This would allow operators to prevent cold chain breaks by implementing corrective measures to reduce the food quality degradation, ensure food safety and reducing waste (Achenchabe et al. 2021).

434

435 **4. Conclusion and perspectives**

436	An experimental set-up and a physical-based model were developed to generate two datasets of		
437	air and product temperatures in a pallet of apples. The objective of this study was to compare		
438	performances of neural networks trained with the experimental and synthetic dataset. The main		
439	conclusions are as follows:		
440	a) Neural networks trained with experimental dataset showed better performances (20 to		
441	40%) in comparison to the one trained with synthetic dataset.		
442	b) Sensor position inside the pallet is a determining factor to predict the product		
443	temperatures by neural networks.		
444	c) Similar results were obtained from models trained with synthetic data generated from		
445	realistic scenarios and from random scenarios.		
446	d) Increasing the synthetic training dataset with 10 to 50 additional scenarios did not		
447	significantly improve the model precision but reduced the model variance.		
448	e) Models' precision is increasing over measurement time. The uncertainty of the		
449	prediction during the first hours should be considered.		
450			
451	The implementation of such methodology in the cold chain permits to envision the preservation		

of food quality and safety and to reduce waste. The use of neural networks would allow, in real
time, the prediction of product temperatures in a cold chain using wireless sensors placed in the
pallets. This would help operators to detect and prevent cold chain breaks on time.

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550 Figure 1: Overview of the methodology processed to compare performances of machine

551 learning models trained with two types of datasets.





(a) Side view





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(b) Top view

Figure 2: Experimental set up. (a) Side view (sidewall open to show product arrangement
inside) (b) Top view. Red apples represent the instrumented product, the value over them
corresponds to the zone number. White circles are non-instrumented apples.





Figure 3: Inlet air temperature profiles of the studied cold chain scenarios: (A) and (B) Experimental profiles, (C) and (D) - Synthetic profiles (experimental profiles were
smoothed to obtain profiles of the thermal model input). Five profiles are plotted in each
graph for readability purpose.



Figure 4 : Schematic representation of a 1- hidden layer NN of size k with air temperature at one position from time $t - \lambda \Delta t$ to time t in the input layer and 16 product core temperatures at time t in the output layer.

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Figure 5: Method used to train (LOO process) and evaluate (RMSE) NN: (A) Method to
evaluate the model's performance according to various parameters (sensor, training data
type) (B) Method to evaluate the impact of the NN initialization on the NN performance

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Figure 6 : Impact of sensor's position on the distribution of the $RMSE_s$ for five NN models trained with experimental data. Boxplots represents the distribution of the 10 $RMSE_s$ resulting from the leave-one-out cross validation. White dots and black diamonds represent the average of the 10 RMSE and the outliers, respectively.



Figure 7 : (A) Temperature evolution over 12h of one cold chain scenario: Blue line - sensor measured air temperature (input of NN); Black line - experimental core temperature; Green line - core temperature predicted by NN trained with experimental data; Red line - core temperature predicted by NN trained with synthetic data. These core temperatures are the average value of 16 apples (B) Evolution of the $RMSE_t$ of the NN trained with experimental and synthetic data (green and red lines, respectively). Results obtained with the sensor at the back of the pallet with the NN (24,12,4).

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Figure 8: RMSE_s distribution of five NN trained with experimental and synthetic data. (A) Sensor measuring air temperature at the back (B) Sensor measuring air temperature at the front. Boxplots represents the distribution of the 10 RMSE_s resulting from the leaveone-out cross validation (see section 2.5 for further details on RMSE_s calculation). White dots and black diamonds represent the average of the 10 RMSE and the outliers, respectively.

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Figure 9: *RMSE*_s distribution of five NN trained with synthetic data and tested on experimental data, noiseless synthetic data and synthetic data with three different noise $(2x\sigma = 0.2^{\circ}C$ to represent thermocouple uncertainty). The sensor is placed at the back of the pallet. Boxplots represents the distribution of the 10 RMSEs resulting from the leave-one-out cross validation (see section 2.5 for further details on RMSEs calculation).



Figure 10: *RMSEs* distribution of five NN trained by synthetic data using the 10 scenarios described in section 2.3.2 (blue) and 10 scenarios generated randomly. Results presented with the sensor placed at the back of the pallet.



Training Dataset

Figure 11: Impact of the number of scenarios added to the original dataset on the *RMSE*_{*i*}

655 (criteria dependent of NN initialization – see section 2.5)

Highlight

- Product temperature in a pallet is predicted with neural networks trained on experimental and synthetic data
- Neural networks trained using experimental data give better performance
- Increasing the size of the synthetic dataset helps reducing the model's variance
- Noise addition to the synthetic dataset did not improve the model's performance
- Realistic time temperature scenarios based from field studies are not required to train machine learning model

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