

1 **Visualizing Food Traceability Systems: A novel system architecture for** 2 **mapping material and information flow**

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9 **Abstract**

10 **Background:** Traceability of food products, ingredients and associated operations are
11 important requirements for improving food safety and consumer confidence. Food traceability
12 systems (FTSs) often suffer from inefficiency in either material or information flow within an
13 enterprise or between supply chain partners. Modelling of system architecture is a visualisation
14 approach that allows multiple parties to collaborate in a system design process, identify its
15 inefficiencies and propose improvements. However, there is little academic research on the
16 ability to use a standard visualisation tool that supports collaborative design and considers both
17 material and information flow for a given food traceability system.

18 **Scope & Approach:** The aim of this research is to propose a new visualisation approach
19 that allows supply chain operators to collaborate effectively in the design process of FTSs
20 capable of maintaining streamlined information flow, minimising information loss, and
21 improving supply chain performance.

22 **Key findings & Conclusion:** Food traceability systems are complex, encompassing
23 processes, material flow, information flow, techniques, infrastructure, people and control
24 strategies. Screening of literature demonstrates that model-based system engineering (MBSE)
25 offers a sound way for visualisation of such complex systems. However, in the food traceability
26 literature, an MBSE-based standardised traceability system modelling approach is absent. This

27 study makes a strong contribution to existing literature by proposing a novel, material and
28 information flow modelling technique (MIFMT), to visualise FTS architecture. MIFMT can
29 support common understanding and iterative implementation of effective FTSs that
30 contextualise food supply chains at multiple levels and provides opportunity to identify points
31 at where inefficiencies can occur so that actions can be taken to mitigate them.

32 **1 Introduction**

33 Traceability is the ability to follow the movement of food products throughout food supply
34 chains (ISO, 2005). Efficient traceability is a high priority in global food supply chains where
35 food fraud and safety crises not only hamper consumers well-being and trust, but also cause
36 significant economic loss (Pearson et al., 2019). A food traceability system is a specific setting
37 of data accumulation and data storage enabled by discrete operations that together are capable
38 of maintaining and safeguarding desired product information through all stages of the food
39 supply chain (World Economic Forum, 2019). FTS implementation is influenced by a
40 combination of different drivers including legislation, food safety, sustainability, and/or
41 consumer satisfaction (Islam & Cullen, 2021). For example, following the worldwide outbreak
42 of Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE), animal FTSs were enacted by legislations in
43 different regions e.g., the European Union (EU), United Kingdom (UK) and Canada
44 (Charlebois, Sterling, Haratifar, & Naing, 2014).

45 FTSs deliver value to a range of stakeholders through their wider collation of data which
46 can be used for cold chain environment monitoring (Alfian et al., 2017), brand protection
47 (Patterson, Cardwell, Keeton, & Yelick, 2019), verification of sustainability claims (Norton et
48 al., 2014) and competitive advantage via customer communications (George, Harsh, Ray, &
49 Babu, 2019). Though the fundamentals of FTSs are generic, the product descriptors in
50 individual FTSs may vary. For example, an FTS for decaffeinated coffee would need to
51 communicate specific processing information while recording of price and terms of trade
52 would be mandatory for fair-trade coffee (Olsen & Aschan, 2010; Golan et al., 2004).

53 Traceability can encompass internal traceability i.e., recording of product descriptors
54 within a single food business operator (FBO), through to external traceability enabled by
55 transmission of information to other organisations in the chain (Moe, 1998). To execute
56 internal traceability, raw materials and products are grouped as batches or lots and assigned

57 discrete identifiers (Olsen & Borit, 2018). The batches or lots, conceptually defined as traceable
58 resource unit (TRU) (Moe, 1998), go through various transformations involving mixing or
59 splitting e.g., beef segmentation or wheat flour packaging (Fan et al., 2019). FBOs use TRU
60 identifiers to record the product characteristics, the associated transformations and related meta
61 data (e.g., time/location of transformation, environmental parameters) at key information
62 collection points. All or part of the recorded information in individual FBOs, is then transferred
63 to the next link. This creates information trails that assist following product movement within
64 a given FBO and throughout a food supply chain. Eventually, the information is situated with
65 the finished product, enabling full external traceability along the food supply chain.

66 Though manual paper-based traceability systems are still widely used, the rapid
67 development of information and communication technologies influences extensive use of
68 digital FTSs (Islam, Manning & Cullen, forthcoming). This evolution is driven by the use of
69 radio frequency identifications (RFIDs) and near field communications (NFCs), which provide
70 higher storage capacity, reading speed and accuracy compared to traditional barcodes (Badia-
71 Melis, Mishra, & Ruiz-García, 2015). These technologies when integrated with electronic
72 product code information service (EPCIS) standards, enable efficient data transfer (Mainetti,
73 Patrono, Stefanizzi, & Vergallo, 2013). If wireless sensors are embedded in internet of things
74 (IoT) systems, this enables real-time product quality monitoring (Thakur & Forås, 2015; Alfian
75 et al., 2020). Moreover, blockchain and smart contract technologies, activating transparency
76 and tamperproof record keeping, are gaining popularity across the world (Pearson et al., 2019).

77 Despite this emergence of revolutionary technologies, in practice recurrent food crises
78 reveal information loss in FTSs (Badia-Melis et al., 2015; Duan, Miao, Wang, Fu, & Xu, 2017).
79 Information loss in FBOs' internal FTSs happens when the product information is not
80 systematically recorded or linked at the key information collection points (Zhang & Bhatt,
81 2014; Karlsen, Donnelly, & Olsen, 2011). This can happen as a result of failure in TRU

82 identification and transformation recording, incompetent recording techniques, absence of an
83 industry specific standard data list, and human error (Karlsen & Olsen, 2016; Zhang & Bhatt,
84 2014; Bertolini, Bevilacqua, & Massini, 2006). Furthermore, while many FBOs have effective
85 digital FTSs internally, due to the incompatibility and proprietary nature of the respective
86 internal systems, they may lack efficacy in information transmission with their trading partners
87 (Pizzuti, Mirabelli, Sanz-Bobi, & Gómez-González, 2014). This is especially common in
88 multi-tier global supply chains where although one partner may have company specific
89 traceability and data management software, others (e.g., small holders) depend totally on
90 inefficient paper-based FTSs (George et al., 2019; Charlebois et al., 2014). To reduce data loss,
91 supply chain partners are required to build agreements and coordinate in reengineering of FTSs.

92 However, reengineering to update existing FTSs presents barriers for FBOs (Hardt, Flett,
93 & Howell, 2017). A lack of understanding and expertise in traceability and technology
94 mechanisms hinders practitioners seeking to implement FTSs efficiently (Mattevi & Jones,
95 2016, Islam & Cullen, 2021). Furthermore, many FBOs perceive improved FTS as an added
96 cost in their production systems due to weak incentives, resource deficiencies and technology
97 scaling issues. Although whole chain traceability improvement presents a favourable cost
98 benefit solution for the overall supply chain (Fritz & Schiefer, 2009), FBOs with diversified
99 technologies, data requirements, interests and policy controls, cannot collaborate in delivering
100 a coherent solution. All these barriers impacting to various degrees for different FBOs, presents
101 a complex decision scenario (World Economic Forum, 2019; Charlebois et al., 2014; Fritz &
102 Schiefer, 2009). Therefore, a holistic approach at the overarching supply chain level is crucial
103 for developing an FTS that is an integration of FBOs, material flow, information flow,
104 techniques, people, capacity and regulatory controls.

105 Reengineering of complex systems are often considered in model-based system
106 engineering (MBSE) (Rodrigues Da Silva, 2015; Ramos, Ferreira, & Barceló, 2012). MBSE

107 enables successful realisation of an entire system; defines the required functionality; provides
108 means for documenting improvements; and allows design synthesis and system validation
109 while considering the complete problem. In MBSE, systems are often described using standard
110 graphical modelling languages demonstrating various perspectives e.g., people, process and
111 information. The selection of a specific graphical modelling language depends on the primary
112 perspective and characteristics of the system (Clarkson, Ward, Jun, Berman, & Goodman-
113 Deane, 2018). Despite some adoption of MBSE tools in the food traceability literature (Duan
114 et al., 2017; Karlsen, Dreyer, Olsen, & Elvevoll, 2013), neither of these studies has clearly
115 communicated the MBSE perspective in FTS design, nor do they perform a systematic
116 selection of MBSE techniques. As a result, the comprehensiveness and robustness of FTS
117 design methodologies are compromised and no common, repeatable framework has been
118 identified (Duan et al., 2017; Karlsen et al., 2013).

119 With these basic premises established, the aim of this research is to propose, a new
120 visualisation approach that allows supply chain operators to collaborate effectively in the
121 design process of an FTS capable of maintaining streamlined information flow, minimising
122 information loss, and improving supply chain performance. This work considers the MBSE
123 context of FTS and proposes a novel graphical tool for modelling FTS. The proposed tool has
124 been named the “Material and information flow modelling technique” (MIFMT). It has been
125 designed by modifying an existing approach, IDEF0, an acronym for "Icam DEFinition for
126 Function Modelling", where ICAM stands for "Integrated Computer Aided Manufacturing".
127 Being capable of showing multiple views of a system through a single model at any level of
128 detail, the MIFMT can present an overall FTS (both internal and external) via different levels
129 of supply chain processes with associated material flow, information flow, mechanisms,
130 resources and controls. In our proposed MIFMT, we have modified the basic IDEF0 so that it
131 can address the temporal relationship between functions and inter-enterprise interactions.

132 MIFMT can facilitate common understanding of how multifaceted FTSs components fit with
133 each other; identify inefficiencies and improvement needs; and perform further system
134 analyses. Thus, by building upon MIFMT, we may ascertain a unique approach leading to a
135 legitimate and recognised FTS implementation framework that can be globally adopted.

136 **2 Methodological approach**

137 The objectives of the research are to firstly examine the context of MBSE for an FTS
138 implementation; and then secondly to propose a single modelling technique for designing a
139 multi-faceted FTS. To that end, the search engines Google, Google scholar, iDiscover, and
140 Scopus were searched for relevant materials. The search strings include: ‘System’, ‘System
141 model’, ‘Design of multidisciplinary system’, ‘Model based system engineering’, ‘System
142 view’, ‘Food traceability model’, ‘Food traceability implementation’, ‘IDEF0’, ‘Process flow’,
143 ‘Information flow’ and ‘Resource flow’. We integrated the sets of literature relevant to our
144 research objectives. First, we examined literature to consider whether an MBSE approach
145 would be appropriate for FTSs implementation. Then, the state-of-the-art FTSs modelling
146 studies were drawn iteratively from the literature to identify the existing theoretical gaps in
147 defining the complex FTSs and were not designed to be an exhaustive review. This led us to
148 consider the characteristics and benefits of IDEF0 and how this technique has been adopted in
149 our proposed material and information flow modelling technique (MIFMT). Finally, our
150 proposed technique has been compared and contrasted with some well-established system flow
151 visualisation techniques. This is then supported with a critique of the use of this model in
152 developing effective FTSs.

153 **2.1 Model based engineering for FTS**

154 A system is an integrated composite of various components and processes which interact
155 with each other to satisfy a stated need or objective (Lightsey, 2001). The classical systems

156 (i.e., the system-as-machine paradigm) vary from small to large-scale and are relatively stable
157 and predictable without people as a component. However, classical system thinking has
158 evolved into consideration of complex systems-of-systems (SoS). SoS include both
159 technological and societal context, thereby incorporating an extensive set of challenging
160 requirements, viz. interoperability, flexibility, adaptability, expandability, reliability, usability,
161 and delivery of value at the same time (Ramos et al., 2012). An example of such a complex
162 system is an FTS comprising an ordered sequence of processes that interact via diversified
163 components, namely material, data, resources (e.g., people, techniques, infrastructures), and
164 various control strategies (e.g., legislation, regulations).

165 Despite being an integrated system, FTS design specifications vary across a food supply
166 chain because: food safety requirements are different throughout an FBO and across the chain;
167 multiple FBOs in a supply chain possess varied levels of resources, techniques, skills and
168 interests; and FTSs design is required to address diverse needs from a wide range of public and
169 private stakeholders (Duan et al., 2017). Due to sudden food recalls or with a view to increasing
170 competitiveness, FTS reengineering projects are carried out incrementally throughout the
171 enterprise lifetime (Wolfert et al., 2010). FTS implementations are cost intensive; and a flaw
172 in any component or system element can cause the entire FTS to fail to perform its required
173 functions (Madni & Sievers, 2018). Development of such complex integrated system
174 necessitates multi-level collaboration among system users such as, FBOs and system designers
175 e.g., software developers (Duan et al., 2017; Ramos et al., 2012; Wolfert, Verdouw, Verloop,
176 & Beulens, 2010).

177 Therefore, to engineer FTSs a cohesive holistic approach is required, that can enable:
178 collaboration among the multiple parties involved; mutual understanding of the inter-
179 organisational system needs early in the design stage and; maintaining of a rich source of

180 reference about FTS design requirements, that can be updated periodically, to enable
181 continuous improvement (Wolfert et al., 2010; Bechini, Cimino, Marcelloni, & Tomasi, 2008).

182 To engineer FTSs, a number of studies use as a starting point either the existing FTSs or
183 the related supply chains, and then identify the scope for improvements (Olsen & Aschan,
184 2010; Wolfert et al., 2010). These studies use interview, observation and document analysis on
185 the targeted supply chains and present the respective proposed FTSs artefacts in terms of a
186 narrative description (Shanahan et al., 2009; Regattieri, Gamberi, & Manzini, 2007). Variable
187 sets of technologies, data requirements and various combinations of drivers being narratively
188 described, results in different random approaches rather than a common FTS design framework
189 (Karlsen et al., 2013). This is because, narrative descriptions are partial where facts can be
190 omitted or forgotten and there are no preconditions to be satisfied for an acceptable description
191 of an FTS (Menzel, Mayer, & Edwards, 1991). To effectively engineer an FTS, that involves
192 multiple stakeholders, heterogenous components, and requires continuous improvements,
193 word-based documentation is inadequate and inconsistent in translating from a system
194 description (what?) to an implementation toolkit (how?) (Madni & Sievers, 2018). Therefore,
195 it is often recommended to use graphical tools for capturing FTSs description and identifying
196 their improvement needs (Chen, 2017; Thakur, Sørensen, Bjørnson, Forås, & Hurburgh, 2011;
197 Olsen & Aschan, 2010).

198 Process map, that visually displays a system's processes, are often recommended in various
199 FTS literature (Olsen & Aschan, 2010; Verdouw, Beulens, Trienekens, & Wolfert, 2010). The
200 method proposed by Olsen and Aschan (2010) consists of using a set of questionnaires to
201 capture data on food supply chain processes, material and information flows, but no specific
202 process mapping tool for presenting the data is recommended.

203 Some studies (e.g., Karlsen et al., 2011; Karlsen & Olsen, 2011; Karlsen, Olsen, &
204 Donnelly, 2010) adopt similar data collection methodology and organise FTS-centred

205 knowledge by using combinations of narrative description and graphical methods. In these
206 studies, product flows and tracing data loss points are usually shown via random graphical
207 notations while the detail of the process flows, information flows, operators and techniques are
208 only described via text. FTSs descriptions of this nature, captured by non-uniform informal
209 graphics, lack the standardised semantics and logical constructs, and become incompatible with
210 allowing common understanding of FTS design requirements (Madni & Sievers, 2018).

211 These problems can be solved by an MBSE approach that enables coherent communication
212 of a system description by using a standard graphical model i.e., a simplified visual
213 representation of a given real-world system (Rodrigues Da Silva, 2015; Menzel et al., 1991;
214 Ramos et al., 2012). This allows multiple parties to easily understand how a system works,
215 identify its critical risk factors and clearly document design requirements (Simsekler, Ward, &
216 Clarkson, 2018). This approach is predominantly used for designing complex multidisciplinary
217 systems, such as defence systems (Ramos et al., 2012), space systems (Lee, 2015), information
218 systems (Rodrigues Da Silva, 2015), and healthcare systems (Clarkson, 2018). Therefore, when
219 engineering or redesigning a complex whole chain FTS, the model-based approach is useful to
220 specify its structure and behaviour as well as to document the decisions taken throughout the
221 development lifecycle.

222 According to MBSE literature (Rodrigues Da Silva, 2015), a successful model has to fulfil
223 these requirements: the object or original phenomenon (of the system) that is represented in
224 the model must be identifiable; the model must be a simplified version of the original; and the
225 model should be able to replace the original for certain purposes. Some specific requirements
226 for FTS models have also been proposed (Bechini et al., 2008; Fritz & Schiefer, 2009), namely:
227 FTS models must be generic enough to represent any product; encompass univocal presentation
228 of products, information, operations, and their relations; provide full comprehension of what
229 happens as the products move along food supply chains; allow the display of flow of products

230 and flow of information; and build upon models of enterprise internal activities and inter-
231 enterprise communication.

232 **2.2 State-of-the-art FTS models**

233 To visualise architectural blueprints of FTSs, food traceability studies use several existing
234 standard graphical modelling techniques e.g., Unified Modelling Language (UML), entity
235 relationship diagram (ERD) and event-driven process chain (EPC). UML, a developmental
236 modelling language, comprising a set of diagrammatic techniques, provides a standard way to
237 model multiple views of a system (Madni & Sievers, 2018). EPC is used for visualising system
238 processes sequentially (Bevilacqua, Ciarapica, & Giacchetta, 2009) while ERD shows the
239 conceptual databases (Bechini et al., 2008). The range of diagrammatic approaches used for
240 FTS modelling in the literature considered in this research are briefly discussed below and
241 described in Table 1:

242 **Take in Table 1**

243 Bechini et al., (2008) introduce the use of various UML notations for illustrating generic
244 FTS phenomena: information model and supply chain partners' information exchange.
245 However, FTS modelling approaches become clearer and more comprehensive in the study
246 conducted by Thakur and Hurburgh (2009), who use a combination of standardised and
247 unstandardised illustrative graphics to design usage requirements and information flow in a
248 bulk grain FTS. Whereas Bevilacqua et al. (2009) adopt EPC based process flow diagrams
249 (PFD) to illustrate an existing and prospective FTS. However, the detailed visualisation of
250 internal traceability information is absent in these studies.

251 Thakur & Donnelly (2010) fill this gap in their soybean FTS case study, where supply chain
252 PFD accompanies tables containing internal FTS data lists. An UML class diagram is adopted
253 for presenting generic internal information systems while information losses are shown in bar

254 charts. A more systematic approach for PFD is used by Thakur et al., (2011) for mackerel and
255 corn supply chains, where processes are modelled in UML state charts. However, none of these
256 studies use any modelling approach for showing the technologies used for recording the data.

257 Hu et al. (2013) model a prospective vegetable FTS using a series of UML diagrams e.g.,
258 a communication diagram for FBOs interaction; a class diagram for an internal traceability data
259 model; and an UML deployment diagram for topology of hardware components. To model a
260 beef FTS, Feng et al., (2013) use: an UML activity diagram for process flow; a use case
261 diagram for interactions between actors and processes; and an ERD for a farm internal
262 database. However, they use only a formulary description for illustrating traceability
263 information transmission. Chen (2017) presents a generic model for a blockchain based FTS
264 using a combination of some informal illustrations and an UML state chart. Salah et al. (2019)
265 redesign another model for soybean FTS where they use an ERD, an UML sequence diagram
266 and multiple conceptual graphics without formal notations.

267 Overall, in these studies multiple FTS viewpoints namely, process, information, material
268 and actors are presented using combinations of standard and random-design approaches which
269 have weaknesses due to two reasons. First, UML, the mostly used language in these studies,
270 provides suitable and widely used modelling constructs for developing IT systems, but food
271 traceability projects are more broadly scoped than IT system engineering and require solutions
272 to present operations, people and policy controls with associated IT components (Duan et al.,
273 2017; Kim, Weston, Hodgson, & Lee, 2003; Wolfert et al., 2010). Second, when system models
274 from different viewpoints are built independently, various problems may occur (Cheng-Leong,
275 Pheng, & Leng, 1999) such as, repeated capture of the same information; difficulty in model
276 maintenance due to incompatibility between the different but interrelated models; and finally,
277 the difficulty for multiple system users and system developers with different purposes and
278 backgrounds to communicate and work together. Therefore, effective FTSs development

279 requires a structured modelling approach, that allows breaking of complex systems into a series
280 of interconnected smaller modules presenting detailed system components while ensuring
281 easier model maintenance (Shen, Wall, Zaremba, Chen, & Browne, 2004). Structured
282 approach-based FTS design can be highly effective for uncovering interconnected processes
283 with corresponding material and information flows which is currently absent from the
284 literature, demonstrating thereby the novelty of this study.

285 **2.3 Applying the material and information flow modelling technique (MIFMT)**

286 We propose a material and information flow modelling technique (MIFMT) that is based
287 on a formal structured modelling method, IDEF0 that can provide the means of modelling FTSs
288 encompassing both internal and external in their entirety. IDEF0 is a functional modelling
289 method that is designed to develop, reengineer or integrate the functions (e.g., processes,
290 actions, and activities) of an existing or prospective system (Feldmann, 2013; Lightsey, 2001).
291 Comprising a hierarchical set of diagrams, the model helps to visualise any complex system
292 and its components e.g., material, information, resources and control strategies at any level of
293 detail. The language of IDEF0 is well-defined and well-structured with standardised syntax
294 and semantics; and can be easily extended to various situations and conditions (Waissi, Demir,
295 Humble, & Lev, 2015; Povetkin & Isaac, 2020). IDEF0 has been used for various system-
296 based studies e.g., process modelling (Eyers & Potter, 2017), waste management (Povetkin &
297 Isaac, 2020), risk assessment (Kikuchi & Hirao, 2009) and system architecture alignment
298 (Rouhani, Mahrin, Nikpay, Ahmad, & Nikfard, 2015).

299 IDEF0 has also been recommended for modelling traceability systems of various products
300 (Kuo, Hsu, Huang, & Gong, 2014; Dai, Ge, & Zhou 2015; Marconi, Marilungo, Papetti, &
301 Germani, 2017). However, for FTSs IDEF0 has been found to capture the implementation
302 procedure rather than modelling the traceability system itself (Qian et al., 2020). The reasons
303 why IDEF0 is not used for FTS modelling are: it cannot represent the temporal relationships

304 between functions (Thakur & Hurburgh, 2009); and it normally does not cover inter-enterprise
305 interactions (Shunk, Kim, & Nam, 2003).

306 An FTS is enabled by the recording of relevant information during material flow through
307 various food supply chain processes. These processes can be decomposed into functions and
308 presented by our IDEF0 based MIFMT with the associated material and information flows,
309 control elements (e.g., regulations or legislations) and mechanisms (e.g., people, infrastructure,
310 technology). Using the approach of Shunk et al., (2003), IDEF0 is extended syntactically in
311 the MIFMT to illustrate the external FTS i.e., material and information flow between
312 enterprises. Moreover, the limitations of IDEF0 to present the temporal relationships between
313 processes is resolved by adopting approaches from Cheng-Leong et al. (1999) that helps to
314 uncover the sequential processes corresponds to an FBO's internal FTS. In the next section of
315 the paper, we discuss different standard forms of flow visualisation techniques for other
316 systems and how our proposed MIFMT can be compared with them.

317 **2.4 Flow visualisation approaches for other systems**

318 Various well-established flow visualisation techniques for other systems are considered to
319 justify the rationale of adopting MIFMT for visualisation of FTSs. A standard process flow
320 diagram (PFD) is commonly used to describe the general flow of material through plant
321 processes and equipment in industrial systems to enable their coherent understanding,
322 standardisation, communication and improvements (Michalakakis, Cullen,
323 Gonzalez Hernandez, & Hallmark, 2019). Piping and instrumentation diagrams (P&IDs) are
324 used for more detailed design and maintenance of industrial systems (Hassim et al., 2010),
325 highlighting major and minor flows with complete instrumentation.

326 A similar level of abstraction is also necessary for another class of representations where
327 flows are normally invisible e.g., electricity and information flows. An electrical circuit
328 diagram (ECD) graphically represents electrical flows through simple images of components

329 and interconnections (Tuna & Fidan, 2016). These are used for the design, construction and
330 maintenance of electrical and electronic systems. Information flow diagrams (IFDs) are used
331 to illustrate internal information flows within an organisation and/or external information flows
332 between organisations (Stapel & Schneider, 2014). An example of IFD is the data flow diagram
333 (DFD), which uses hierarchical models to show data inputs, outputs, storage points and the
334 routes between destinations (Chong & Diamantopoulos, 2020).

335 More simplified forms, material flow diagrams (MFDs) illustrate both visible and invisible
336 flows e.g., material and energy flows. They are applied to trace resource flow to identify
337 inefficiencies, implement increased resource efficiency and improve supply chain planning
338 (Gao & You, 2018; Cullen & Allwood, 2010; Cullen, Allwood, & Bambach, 2012). The flow
339 visualisation techniques discussed above and our proposed MIFMT are compared and rated as
340 *High, Medium* and *Low* for various attributes in Table 2.

341 **Take in Table 2**

342 MIFMT can provide a standard way for system communication and analysis as is offered
343 by PFD and IFD. System technical components visualisation is less detailed in MIFMT than
344 P&ID and ECD. MIFMT offers the hierarchical decomposition of complex systems that is also
345 provided by DFD. PFD and MFD are highly suitable for flow inefficiency identification and
346 MIFMT also suits that purpose. The visualisation techniques discussed in this section are only
347 able to show a single type of flow, whereas the MIFMT is able to depict multiple flows in a
348 single diagram. This capability makes it appropriate for FTS visualisation that requires the
349 ability to consider both material and information flows; because information loss occurs when
350 there is inefficiency in handling material flow (e.g., transformation of a TRU) or information
351 recording (Olsen & Aschan, 2010). Therefore, the MIFMT provides a suitable means for
352 visualising FTSs.

353 **2.5 Summary**

354 Standard model-based system engineering provides the potential to define the multifaceted
355 design requirements of FTSs. Although, a number of studies identified in the FTS literature
356 adopt some system engineering modelling tools with other informal graphics, none of them
357 conceptualise the system approach to FTS design well enough. FTSs are complex constructs
358 and modelling with a combination of formal and informal tools poses difficulties of model
359 compatibility, model maintenance and limited understanding. To fill up these gaps, we propose
360 the MIFMT that can present an entire FTS through sequential functions, material and
361 information flow, resources, and controls at any level of detail. The MIFMT offers various
362 properties and benefits similar to other systems flow visualisation techniques; and supersedes
363 them in enabling visualisation of FTSs. Thus, MIFMT can help practitioners to collaborate
364 more effectively in overall FTSs design and supply chain performance improvement. In the
365 next section, we have explained the proposed MIFMT in detail with a case study.

366 **3 Applying the Material and information flow modelling technique (MIFMT) to** 367 **develop food traceability systems (FTSs)**

368 A basic IDEF0 building block comprises a function box and interface arrows (Figure 1a).
369 A function box is assigned an active verb or verb phrase to present the function which can be
370 an activity, task, process or operation e.g., receiving goods, mixing or being in storage. An
371 interface may be an input, an output, a control, or a mechanism, and is assigned a descriptive
372 noun phrase. Inputs enter the box from the left, are transformed by the function, and exit the
373 box to the right as an output. The input and output from a function can be either information,
374 material or an object. A control enters the top of the box which guides, regulates or constrains
375 the function such as: business logic, rules, legislation, resource constraints etc. A mechanism
376 enters the bottom of the box which can be the physical resource (facility, equipment etc.), or
377 the human resource (experience, skills or knowledge) required for performing the function.

378 **Take in Figure 1**

379 An entire system is represented via a set of basic IDEF0 building blocks in a 0-level
380 diagram while each box on the diagram is decomposed into lower levels of details. For
381 example, the A0 function of Level 0 diagram(Figure 1a) can be decomposed into A1, A2 and
382 A3 functions at level 1 and A2 function can be further decomposed into A21, A22 and A23 in
383 level 2 diagram and so on (Kusiak et al., 1994).

384 In our proposed MIFMT, the 0-level IDEF0 diagram has been used to visualise the inter-
385 enterprise material and traceability information flow i.e., the external traceability system. Each
386 function box in the 0-level diagram represents an FBO. Every function box can be decomposed
387 into lower-level diagrams to visualise material and traceability information flow within an FBO
388 i.e., the internal traceability system of the respective FBO. The generic building block of the
389 proposed extended IDEF0 modelling for visualising traceability systems has been shown in
390 Figure 1b. The basic elements of this model are defined below:

391 The Function box presents the function performed by an FBO. Every operator in a supply
392 chain performs a core function and the 0-level diagram comprises these core functions. For
393 example, the 0-level diagram of the soybean supply chain presented in Thakur & Donnelly
394 (2010) can consist of three function boxes: farming, handling and processing. The number of
395 boxes in the 0-level diagram is equal to the number of FBOs considered for the intended study
396 and the diagram portrays the material and information flow between these operators. The core
397 functions are then decomposed into sub-functions in lower-level diagrams. For example, the
398 farming function box in the aforementioned example can be decomposed into multiple function
399 boxes such as ‘receive raw materials’, ‘plant seed’, ‘add chemicals’, ‘harvest’, ‘transport to
400 storage’, ‘store’ and ‘transport to elevator’. The functional decomposition continues until the
401 required detail of material and information flows are obtained. Each function box is assigned
402 with a reference number at its lower right corner to uniquely identify that box within the
403 diagram.

404 Three types of input flows may enter into a function box: the material flows which can be
405 main products, its ingredients or any supplemental items (e.g., packaging material); intangible
406 information flow e.g., oral information flow between two functions or information created at
407 one function captured at another function; and tangible information flow through carriers e.g.,
408 RFID tags, bar code labels or paper forms. To facilitate clear visualisation, material flows are
409 presented via thick lines while dotted thin lines and solid thin lines are used for showing
410 intangible information and information carrier flows respectively.

411 Three types of output flows may come out of a function box which are: material flow,
412 intangible information flow and tangible information carrier flow. The output flow depends on
413 the function and its input flow. For example, in the aforementioned soybean supply chain, let
414 us consider the 'receive raw material' function box accepts seed package in the farm and
415 records its packaging information in a receipt form. Hence, the input material flow 'seed' enters
416 to the 'receive raw material' function box and come out as two output flows: 'seed' and 'receipt
417 form'. If more detailed visualisation on the information is required, all data elements (e.g., seed
418 name, supplier ID, lot ID) could be shown on a intangible dotted line coming out of 'receive
419 raw material' function box and entering as an input to another function box named 'record
420 information' whose output could be 'receipt form'. Two different colours can be used to
421 differentiate between input and output flows. It is also considered that the input or output flows
422 can join or split as is found in the basic IDEF0 modelling approach (IEEE, 1998) (see Table
423 3).

424 Mechanisms are the resources e.g., actors, facilities, equipment, techniques, knowledge or
425 experience that are required for execution of the function. There can be multiple mechanisms
426 for enabling execution of a function. In the above example, farmer, farm and receipt form are
427 the mechanisms. Presenting mechanisms in the diagram helps to visualise the available
428 resources or capacity and identify resource gaps or bottle necks.

429 Various control elements of an FTS include legislation, regulation, standards, certification
430 which outline the requirements for recording of product/process data throughout the food
431 supply chain e.g., EU Food Law 178/2002, ISO 22005:2007, the Codex Alimentarius
432 requirements associated with the application of hazard analysis and critical control point
433 (HACCP), and standards that inform quality testing. A control element in a higher-level
434 diagram can be shown as a function in a lower-level diagram. For example, if ‘quality testing’
435 is a control element (arrow entering top of the box) for ‘receive raw material’ function, the
436 ‘receive raw material’ function box can further be decomposed into two function boxes: ‘obtain
437 raw material’ and ‘test raw material quality’.

438 In our proposed methodology, the preceding function/s are also considered as control
439 elements for succeeding function/s. The preceding relationships have been modelled as
440 proposed by Cheng-Leong et al. (1999). An output arrow from the preceding function enters
441 as a control arrow to the subsequent function to show the sequence between these two
442 functions. To present a temporal relationship between more than one preceding function, three
443 types of junction boxes: AND (&), OR (OR), and Exclusive OR (XOR) (see Table 3) are used.
444 Multiple processes converge through an AND (&) junction box and connect as a control
445 element with a subsequent process if all of the former processes must finish before starting the
446 subsequent process and vice versa. When processes have a synchronicity relationship, a
447 synchronous AND junction box is used. When alternative processes have to finish before
448 converging to the subsequent process or vice versa, an OR (OR) or an exclusive OR(OR)
449 junction box is used. This removes the limitation of basic IDEF0 in modelling temporal
450 relationships between processes. All types of junctions or links are discussed in Table 3.

451 **Take in Table 3**

452 To explain the proposed modelling technique, the cattle/beef traceability system described
453 in Feng et al. (2013) has been redesigned using our proposed MIFMT. The cattle/beef supply

454 chain in the study consists of two links: the cattle breeding process and the beef slaughter and
455 beef processing process. The A0 diagram consists of two function boxes (Figure 2). Breeding
456 is the core function of the cattle breeding process, so the first function box is named as
457 'Breeding'. Similarly, 'Processing' is used for the beef slaughter and processing link. The A0
458 diagram (Figure 2) shows the material flow and information flow between its two links of the
459 supply chain. The critical traceability information requirement is driven by the Livestock and
460 Poultry Management Legislation Decree No 67(2006) by the Ministry of Agriculture of the
461 People's Republic of China (MOA, 2006). This legislation is the control element for both the
462 links in the A0 diagram. The 'Breeding function' comprises processes e.g., purchasing calves,
463 feeding, immunisation, disinfection, inspection, quarantine, treatment and transfer to slaughter
464 and associated information management activities. An individual animal is the TRU throughout
465 the entire 'Breeding' function and various input, mechanism, control and output elements are
466 associated with that TRU when it is passed through the 'Breeding' function box. 'Calf', 'Feed'
467 and 'Drug' are the inputs for purchasing calf, feeding and the disinfection/treatment processes
468 and are shown as thick solid line arrows entering the 'Breeding' function box.

469 **Take in Figure 2**

470 We consider that the information about these input materials is received at the 'Breeding'
471 function box as intangible information i.e., in oral form, as no related data is found in Feng et
472 al. (2013). Hence, this input is shown as dotted line arrows. High frequency (HF) RFID ear
473 tags are used for cattle identification and data recording throughout the 'Breeding' function, so
474 the HF RFID ear tag data carrier has also been shown as an input flow. The mechanisms to
475 perform the 'Breeding' function include farm actors (e.g., herd keeper, veterinarian), the farm
476 facility and the equipment used in the breeding function. Furthermore, the personal digital
477 assistant (PDA) as the ear tag reader, the computer platform and the farm database management
478 system (DBMS) are also mechanisms associated with the breeding function. The output of the

479 'Breeding' function is 'cattle' and its accompanied RFID ear tag that carries the cattle's
480 information stored throughout the breeding function. Both of these outputs are then input to
481 the 'Processing' function box and the TRU during this transfer is still a single animal. Other
482 than the animal and its ear tag, some other RFID tags are shown as inputs to the 'Processing'
483 function box for carrying beef information through subsequent processes. The 'Processing'
484 function consists of slaughtering, acid decomposition, segmentation and packaging. During
485 these processes the individual animal is split into different parts, so the TRU size changes as
486 different processes occur. The information is transferred from tag to tag to carry the information
487 from the original animal to the final beef product(s).

488 The 'Processing' function (A2) is further decomposed in Figure 3 into twelve sub-functions
489 which are: receive cattle, load data contained in ear tag, slaughter cattle, transfer data to dyad
490 tag, perform acid decomposition, transfer data to tetrad tag, segment beef, transfer data to
491 segment tag, transfer beef through packing line, update segment tag, package beef and transfer
492 data to package barcode. We consider that the control elements shown in top level diagram in
493 Figure 2 is also active in all the subsequent bottom level diagrams, so we do not show the
494 Livestock and Poultry Management Legislation control in Figure 3.

495 **Take in Figure 3**

496 To illustrate the components and flows of a subfunction, the close-up view of the 'Slaughter
497 cattle' function box has been shown below in the left of Figure 3. Two preceding functions,
498 'Receive cattle' and 'Load data in ear tag' presents two control arrows those are joined by an
499 AND junction box and enters to the top of the 'Slaughter cattle' function box. The mechanisms
500 for this function are veterinary, slaughterer, slaughterhouse, PDA and processing equipment.
501 The cattle and its HF RFID ear tag entering as input flows to this function box are shown as
502 two solid lines. This function converts the cattle into two dyads, produces slaughter data and
503 transmits data from cattle ear tag to the next function 'Transfer data to dyad tag' (zoomed in

504 the top right corner). No detailed data element has been shown in Figure 3 as this information
505 is not available in Feng et al. (2013). However, showing the detailed data elements e.g., carcass
506 number, processing ID, slaughter date, weight etc. on the output dotted information line of
507 ‘Slaughter cattle’ function box would make this figure more useful, than just saying slaughter
508 data. Similar way, the ‘breeding’ function of Figure 2 can be decomposed to visualise the
509 detailed material and information flow in the cattle breeding.

510 **4 Discussion**

511 Design of complex systems requires all system operators and designers to collaborate
512 effectively in the design process and this is often supported by MBSE tools in various
513 disciplines. However, in FTS literature the concept of MBSE has neither been clearly
514 explained, nor has a single standardised design tool been proposed for effective collaboration.
515 This paper discusses the MBSE approach in FTS design and proposes a novel technique
516 MIFMT. Further, it is used to model the architecture of a cattle/beef traceability system in
517 Figure 2 and 3. As is seen from these figures, MIFMT offers standardised visualisation for an
518 FTS including both internal and external in its entirety through interconnected diagrams, and
519 hence, it can support effective collaboration in FTSs design process.

520 Adopting the approach of Shunk et al. (2003), IDEF0 is extended syntactically in the
521 MIFMT to illustrate an external FTS i.e., material and information flow between enterprises,
522 while the limitations of IDEF0 in presenting sequential processes in an internal FTS is resolved
523 by adopting the approach of Cheng-Leong et al. (1999). As a result, the MIFMT complies with
524 the traceability model requirements proposed by Bechini et al. (2008) and Schiefer (2009).
525 Moreover, the FTS models produced by MIFMT in Figure 2 and 3 demonstrates its
526 compatibility with the standard characteristics proposed in the literature (Rodrigues Da Silva,
527 2015). Firstly, MIFMT can depict the original FTS phenomena, internal data recording and
528 external data transmission e.g., recording of slaughter data as the cattle (TRU) moves through

529 a supply chain process (or function) “Slaughter cattle” (Figure 3) or transfer of breeding data
530 with cattle from “Breeding” to “Processing” (Figure 2). Secondly, the system architecture
531 created is a simplified version of the complex FTS. Thirdly, the models can be highly useful
532 for multiple purposes for food supply chain practitioners, which are elaborated in the following
533 paragraphs.

534 Information loss point identification in existing FTSs is a necessary element of FTS
535 reengineering (Karlsen & Olsen, 2016; Bertolini et al., 2006). Information loss can happen
536 through any inefficiency in either material or information flow (Olsen & Aschan, 2010).
537 MIFMT, enabling detailed visualisation of these flows in FTSs, offers practitioners a more
538 systematic methodology for identifying information loss compared to the existing methods
539 based on narrative description and informal graphics (Karlsen et al., 2011; Karlsen & Olsen,
540 2011).

541 MIFMT, producing interconnected FTSs diagrams, can help practitioners to build a clear
542 understanding of the relationships between their internal and external FTSs. This enables
543 visualisation of techniques and data sets associated with data capture and integration points
544 and informs improvement scopes in data format, identification or communication technologies
545 to increase interoperability of internal and external FTSs (Bosona & Gebresenbet, 2013; Hu et
546 al., 2013; Donnelly et al., 2012; Bertolini et al., 2006).

547 Process maps are commonly used for strategic decision making and quality control
548 activities by FBOs ranging from advanced technology users to paper-based small holders. The
549 system model developed by MIFMT can standardise process mapping practices for FBOs. The
550 ability to map current resource levels e.g., existing infrastructure or knowledge levels as
551 mechanisms in MIFMT will allow practitioners to identify the disparity throughout food supply
552 chains and make further decision on resource allocation, capacity building or upgrading of
553 technologies. MIFMT can also help in HACCP implementation by providing the ability to

554 identify where in a food supply chain processes, significant chemical, biological or physical
555 contaminants could occur, establish critical control points and plan preventive measures. The
556 produced model can further be used to verify whether all critical testing data are recorded at
557 the relevant control points of the supply chains to ensure compliance and drive continuous
558 improvement (Tian, 2017).

559 The MIFMT can help practitioners and public authorities to design a prospective FTS for
560 any particular food supply chain with improved material and information flow, technologies,
561 and future regulations underpinning these changes. This will help to identify what further
562 course of actions could be taken either by the government or the FBOs and inform future
563 policies. Policy intervention e.g., regulations, incentives, information schemes and the
564 provision of infrastructure can strengthen the capacity of FTSs (Charlebois et al., 2014). For
565 example, small and medium scale farmers in developing countries can be supported with
566 incentives for advanced technology adoption (World Economic Forum, 2019).

567 IDEFO is used for benefit and uncertainty calculation of prospective systems which can
568 also be applied to proposed FTSs with MIFMT (Saltini & Akkerman, 2012; Bjorkman, Sarkani,
569 & Mazzuchi, 2012; IEEE, 1998). MIFMT can also be used in scoring schemes that informs
570 comparison and benchmarking of multiple FTSs at the same time (Charlebois et al., 2014).

571 **5 Conclusion**

572 The aim of this research is to propose a new visualisation approach to allow supply chain
573 operators to collaborate effectively in the design process of FTSs that enable streamlined
574 information flow, reduce information loss, and improve supply chain performance. The study
575 discusses the context of MBSE in FTSs implementation and proposes a novel modelling
576 technique MIFMT to visualise the material and information flow with resources, techniques
577 and control strategies within an FTS architecture. MIFMT can support practitioners in common
578 understanding of FTSs design requirements; identification of information loss points, critical

579 control points, current resource and knowledge levels; new policy development; and iterative
580 system improvement. With a standard design approach, it might be possible to eventually
581 devise a standard FTS implementation framework. In this paper we only discuss the basic
582 modelling of FTS using MIFMT for an existing case study. The lack of detailed information
583 elements in the case study did limit its explanation and is a limitation of this study.

584 Our future empirical research will explore the use of MIFMT for a primary case study with
585 detailed information elements and more in-depth FTS analysis. Another interesting research
586 approach would be to perform market study and identify distribution channels to
587 commercialize the collaborative design tool, MIFMT for practitioners ranging from large scale
588 FBOs to small holders. Whilst FTS have been the focus of the research described herein, the
589 reengineering of FTSs through evolving design requirements such as traceability from field to
590 fork, greater data sharing, development of data trusts and data governance systems means that
591 this modelling approach could have wider implications and benefits for the entire food supply
592 chains. This too is worthy of further empirical exploration.

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Table 1. Diagrammatic approaches used for FTSs in literature

Author	Study	System phenomena	Modelling language	Diagram
Bechini et al. (2008)	Modelling of generic FTS	Internal information model	UML	Class diagram Object diagram
		Information exchange in purchase	UML	Sequence diagram
		Lot transformation	UML	Activity diagram
		Actors' interactions with FTS	UML	Communication diagram
Thakur & Hurburgh (2009)	Modelling of bulk grain FTS	Actors' interactions with FTS	UML	Use case diagram
		Information flow among FSC partners	—	Informal diagram
		Information exchange in product recall	UML	Sequence diagram
		Internal information model	ERD	Entity relationship diagram
Bevilacqua, et al. (2009)	Reengineering of FSC and FTS	Process flow	EPC	Process flow diagram
Thakur & Donnelly (2010)	Modelling of soybean FTS	Process flow	—	Informal diagram
		Process information elements	—	Table
		Internal information model	UML	Class diagram
		Information loss	—	Bar chart
Thakur et al. (2011)	Modelling of mackarel and corn FTS	Process flow	UML	State transition diagram
		Process information elements	—	Table

Hu et al. (2013)	Modelling of vegetable FTS	Actors interaction in business activity	UML	Communication diagram
		Process flow	UML	Activity diagram
		Actor's interactions with FTSS	UML	Use case diagram
		Internal information model; critical information	UML	Class diagram
		Topology of hardware components	UML	Deployment diagram
Feng, Fu, Wang, Xu, & Zhang (2013)	Designing RFID based beef FTS	Process flow	UML	Activity diagram
		Actors interaction with FSC processes	UML	Use case diagram
		Internal information model	ERD	Entity relationship diagram
		Information transmission	—	Formulary description
Chen (2017)	Modelling generic blockchain based FTS	Generic FTS components	—	Informal diagram
		Topology of hardware components	—	Informal diagram
		Actors interaction with FTS	—	Informal diagram
		Key data collection point	UML	State transition diagram
Salah et al. (2019)	Modelling blockchain based soybean FTS	Product flow in FSC	—	Informal diagram
		User interaction with smart contract	—	Informal diagram
		Chain FTS information model	ERD	Entity relationship diagram

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854 **Table 2. Comparison of MIFMT with flow visualization techniques for other systems**

Technique	PFD	P&ID	ECD	DFD	MFD	MIFMT
Attributes						
Process flow visualization	✓✓✓	✓✓✓				✓✓✓
Material flow visualization	✓✓	✓✓✓			✓✓	✓✓
Information flow visualization				✓✓✓		✓✓✓
Energy flow visualization			✓✓✓		✓✓✓	
Technical component visualization	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓			✓
Social component visualization						✓✓
System communication	✓✓	✓	✓			✓✓✓
Standard notation	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓
Hierarchical system decomposition				✓✓✓		✓✓✓

855 **Note:** Rating for system visualization techniques for various attributes: High✓✓✓ Medium✓✓ Low✓

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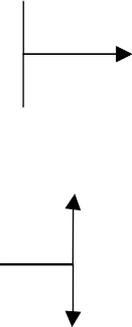
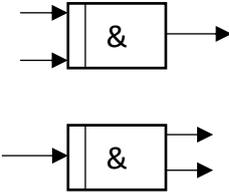
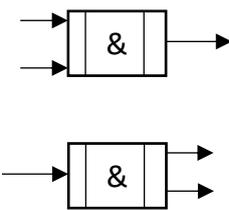
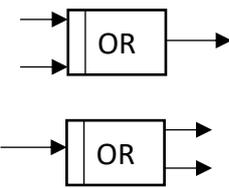
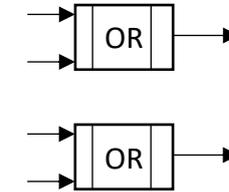
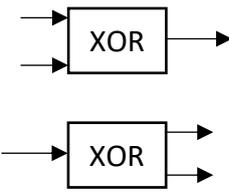
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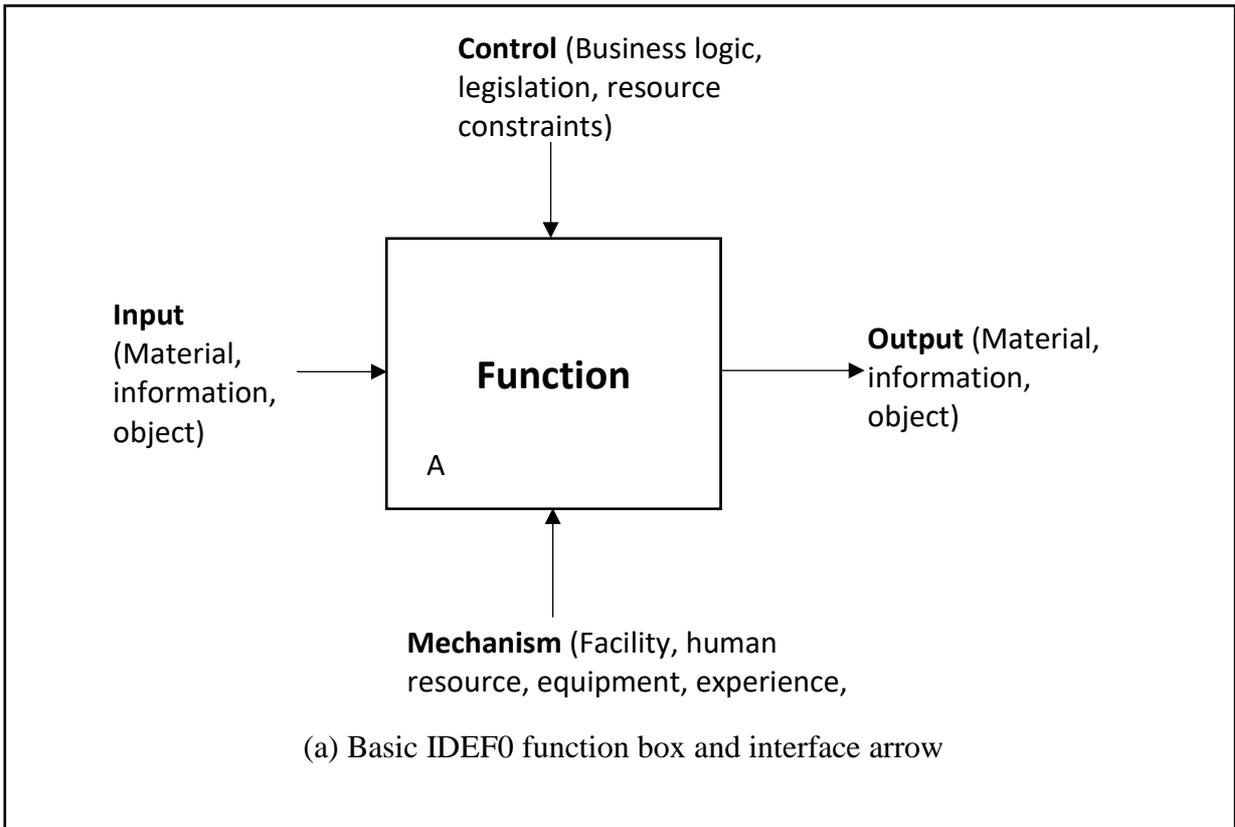
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861 **Table 3. Junction type, representation and description for extended IDEF0**

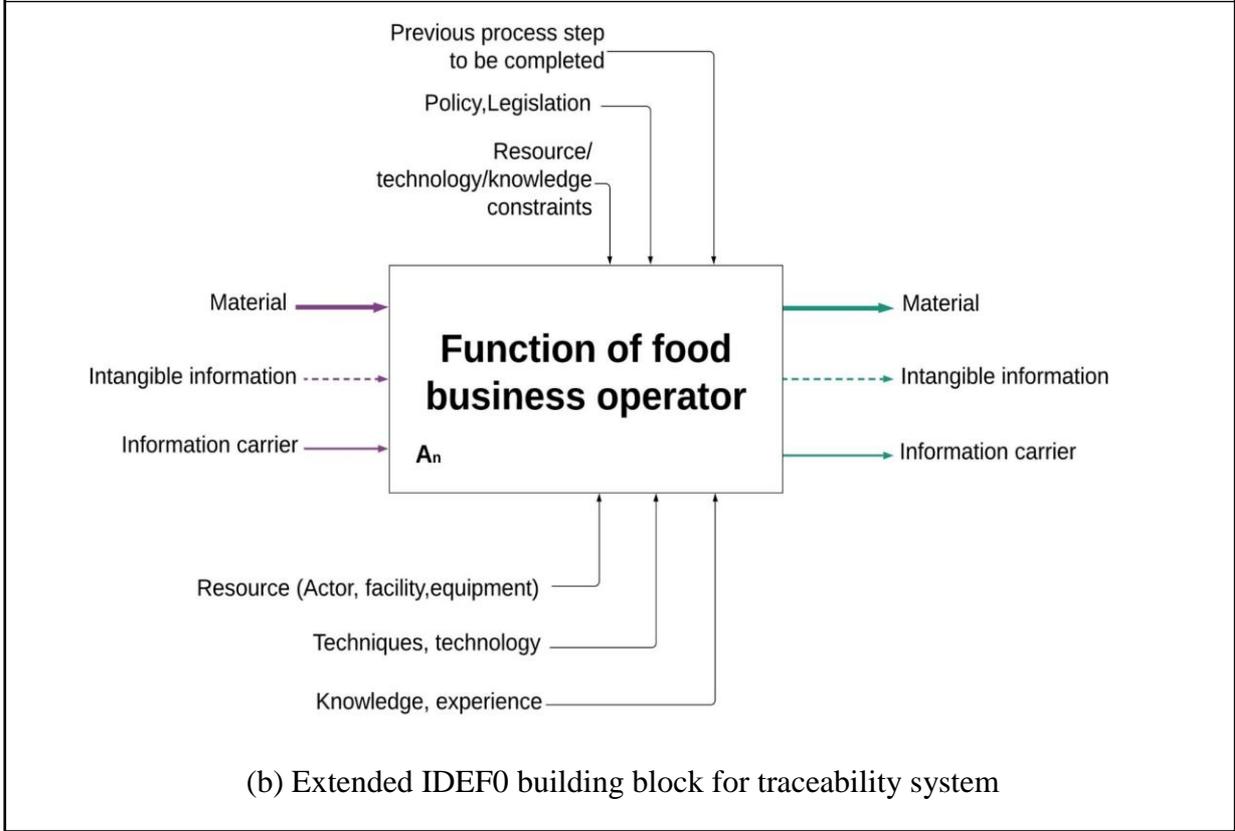
Junction type	Representation	Description
Normal join/branch without temporal relationship		<p>Join: Combines two or more flows into single flow. The meaning of the root segment is equivalent to the union of the meanings of all arrow segments that join it.</p> <p>Branch: Splits one flow into two or more flows. The meaning of the branch segments shall be equivalent to the meaning of the root segment.</p>
Join/branch with temporal relationship: AND		<p>Join: Input flows (arrows) come from different preceding processes which must be completed before preceding forward</p> <p>Branch: All following process must start</p>
Join/branch with temporal relationship: Synchronous AND		<p>Join: Input flows (arrows) come from different preceding processes which must be completed simultaneously</p> <p>Branch: All following processes must start simultaneously</p>
Join/branch with temporal relationship: OR		<p>Join: One or more of the preceding processes will complete before preceding forward.</p> <p>Branch: One or more of the following processes will start</p>
Join/branch with temporal relationship: Synchronous OR		<p>Join: One or more of the preceding processes will complete simultaneously.</p> <p>Branch: One or more of the following processes will start simultaneously</p>
Join/branch with Exclusive OR (XOR) operator		<p>Join: Exactly one of the preceding processes will complete</p> <p>Branch: Exactly one of the following processes will start</p>

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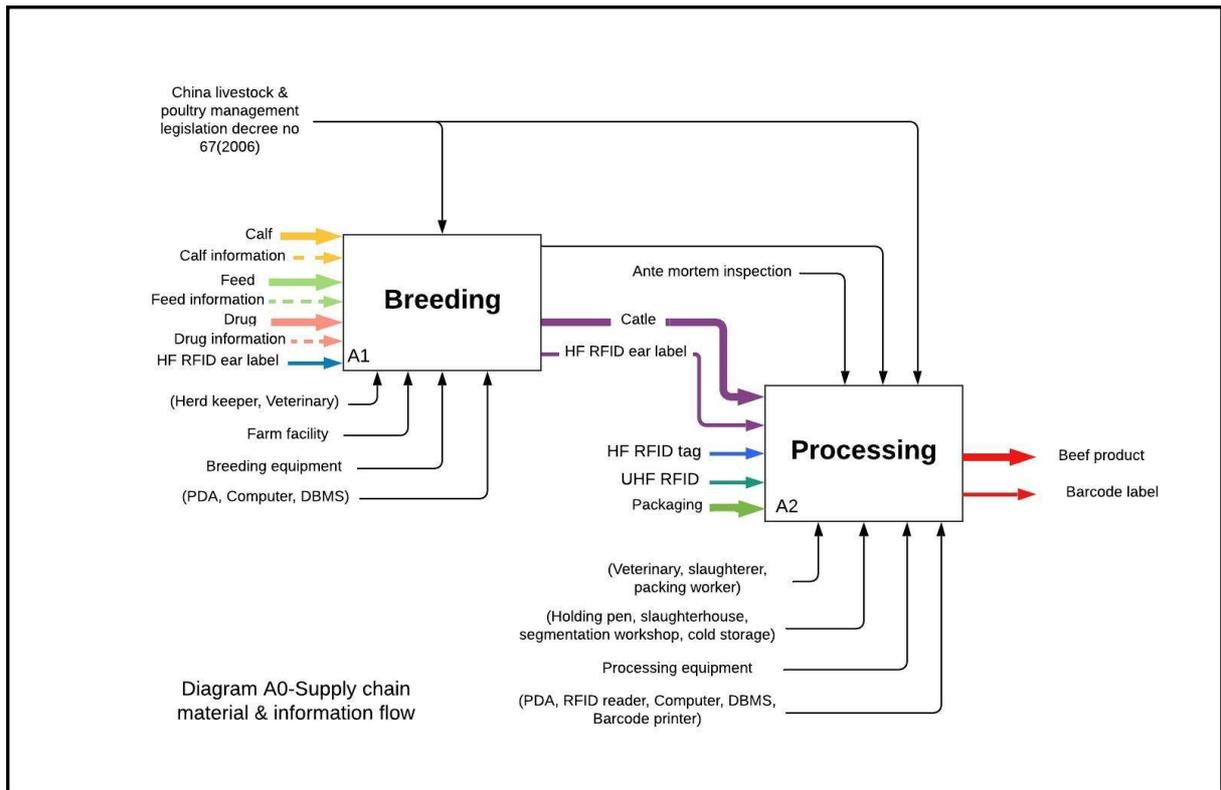
(a) Basic IDEF0 function box and interface arrow

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(b) Extended IDEF0 building block for traceability system

Figure 1. Basic IDEF0 building block and extended IDEF0 for food traceability



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878 **Figure 2. Material and information flow of beef supply chain in Feng et al. (2013)**

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