

Sustainable Food Technology

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Sustainability spotlight

This study enhances sustainable food manufacturing by introducing a non-destructive, AI-driven framework for real-time starch gelatinization monitoring. Replacing traditional invasive sampling with an automated detection approach, it prevents sample loss and cuts down on raw material waste. Its high accuracy allows for more precise process control, optimizing energy consumption during heating and reducing batch failures. Ultimately, this affordable and accessible technology promotes smarter, resource-efficient manufacturing, aiding the industry's shift to automated, zero-waste processes.



1 **A novel, non-destructive approach for real-time detection of starch**
2 **gelatinization using YOLO-based deep learning models**

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27 **Abstract:** This research proposes a novel, non-destructive, vision-based approach for real-time
28 detection and confirmation of starch gelatinization using the state-of-the-art YOLO (You Only
29 Look Once) deep learning models to overcome the limitations of traditional methods, which are
30 manual and subjective for industrial control. The primary contribution of this work is twofold: it
31 introduces a novel image-based framework for starch gelatinization detection and, under
32 controlled laboratory conditions, demonstrates the potential of YOLO models as an accurate tool
33 for automated, non-contact process monitoring. A custom dataset was developed by capturing
34 temporal images of a heated potato starch solution, with each frame annotated as “Non-
35 Gelatinized” or “Gelatinized”. Four YOLO architectures (v8, v9, v11, v12) were trained and
36 evaluated on the developed dataset. All models demonstrated exceptional and nearly identical
37 performance, achieving maximum precision, recall, and F1-scores (1.0), alongside a high mean
38 Average Precision (mAP@0.5 of 0.995). They also achieved perfect recall (100%) in localizing
39 the reaction zone and converged to very low final losses (around 0.1). While all models excelled,
40 YOLOv8 achieved the highest precision (99.97%) and fastest training time, whereas YOLOv12
41 showed superior initial learning stability over 20 epochs. The models were successfully validated
42 on a continuous video stream, accurately identifying the gelatinization onset in real-time.

43 **Keywords:** Gelatinization detection, image processing, AI application in food, real-time
44 monitoring, vision-based system, non-destructive approach.

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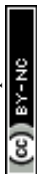
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52 1. Introduction

53 Starch is a natural, renewable biopolymer that plays a crucial role in food and material sciences. It
54 is the primary glycemic carbohydrate found in cereals, roots, and tubers, and it functions as a key
55 energy source for humans and animals. Structurally, it is a complex polymer composed of α -D-
56 glucose, consisting mainly of two polysaccharides: mostly linear amylose and highly branched
57 amylopectin.¹ It can be extracted from a wide variety of sources, including cereals, seeds, fruits,
58 pulps, tubers, and culms. Conventional sources include cassava, yams, and potatoes, while recent
59 studies have identified novel starches derived from fruit wastes such as avocado, banana, jackfruit,
60 mango, and pineapple.^{2,3} Each starch source exhibits distinct molecular architecture and
61 physicochemical characteristics, making starch highly versatile across applications ranging from
62 food formulation to biodegradable materials.³ In the food industry, starch is used as a thickener,
63 stabilizer, binder, adhesive, and gelling or film-forming agent.⁴ Beyond culinary functions, starch
64 is also promising for biodegradable packaging films due to its plasticizing and gelatinization
65 properties.³ In packaging, starch offers biocompatibility and biodegradability, making it a
66 sustainable alternative to petroleum plastics.¹

67 During cooking and industrial processing, starch undergoes gelatinization — a fundamental
68 physicochemical transformation in which native semi-crystalline granules convert into an
69 amorphous form upon heating in water.⁴ The gelatinization degree (DG) reflects the extent of this
70 transformation and influences the texture, digestibility, and functional performance of starchy
71 foods.⁵ As the temperature rises, hydrogen bonds within the crystalline regions break, permitting
72 water penetration and granule swelling, which ultimately disrupts the molecular order.⁶ This
73 transition alters the mechanical, thermal, and rheological properties of starch, directly impacting
74 product texture, stability, and digestibility.⁷ Because DG modulates nutritional and sensory
75 characteristics, controlling it is essential to achieve consistent quality in processing and
76 manufacturing.⁸ Over- or under-gelatinization leads to undesirable product texture, process
77 variability, and wastage. Consequently, developing rapid, accurate, and real-time techniques for
78 monitoring gelatinization is a major focus of current research. Proper detection of starch
79 gelatinization and gelation behaviors is crucial for manipulating the textural attributes of starch-
80 based food and industrial products.⁹



81 Various techniques like polarizing microscopy (PLM), small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS), X-
82 ray diffraction (XRD), differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), and the rapid visco analyzer
83 (RVA) have been developed to study starch gelatinization.⁷ DSC accurately measures temperature
84 and enthalpy changes, but is less reliable for multi-component systems due to overlapping peaks.
85 The amylose–iodine method is simple but inconsistent across sources, while enzymatic hydrolysis
86 is accurate but slow.⁵ Most methods are offline and need specialized equipment, which is rarely
87 available in laboratory or industrial settings.⁷ Microscopy with hot stage is a popular, simple
88 method for evaluating gelatinization features by monitoring morphological changes in starch
89 granules during heating.⁶ Chen et al.¹⁰ used the ‘Gun Image Manipulation Program’ to track starch
90 granule diameter changes at different amylose contents and temperatures. Since birefringence
91 indicates molecular order, its loss is a reliable gelatinization marker. Niu et al.¹¹ improved this by
92 using an automated deep learning (DL) pipeline to quantify granule swelling and DG via
93 birefringence. Wu et al.⁶ proposed combining artificial neural networks (ANNs), computer vision,
94 and fuzzy logic for real-time characterization. However, these methods are limited by reliance on
95 batch sampling, manual supervision, or high-resolution optical setups, restricting industrial
96 scalability.

97 All these methods usually involve endpoint or batch measurements, which require withdrawing
98 samples, stopping reactions, or waiting for steady states. They are not ideal for in-line, real-time
99 monitoring in a continuous production environment. Hence, the development of a feasible method
100 of evaluating starch gelatinization using simple operations and equipment would greatly help in
101 controlling the functionalities of starch-based foods or materials.⁷ However, some recent studies
102 took part in this challenge. Researchers have recently begun integrating image processing,
103 spectroscopy, and machine learning (ML) for real-time detection of starch gelatinization. Zhong
104 et al.¹² used a Mask R-CNN model on 884 microscopy images to classify granules into four
105 gelatinization stages based on birefringence loss, achieving 96.5% accuracy, and correlating DG
106 with DSC data in less than a second – advancing automated, real-time starch monitoring. Similarly,
107 Chi et al.⁷ showed that light transmittance at 620 nm, measured with a simple spectrophotometer,
108 reliably tracks gelatinization, with increased transmittance indicating crystalline order loss.
109 Gelatinization typically begins between 56–58°C, offering a low-cost alternative to complex tools.
110 Techniques like time-resolved NMR and digital image analysis explore swelling kinetics and



111 molecular mobility.¹³⁻¹⁵ Advanced sensors like focused beam reflectance measurement (FBRM)
112 have been proposed for real-time particle monitoring.¹⁶ However, these methods often need
113 frequent calibration, are susceptible to fouling, and cannot capture spatial heterogeneity or
114 microscopic changes.

115 Given the limitations of existing offline and sensor-based methods, there is a pressing need for
116 non-invasive, real-time, and image-driven approaches that can be seamlessly integrated into food
117 production lines. A reliable system should be capable of continuously observing gelatinization
118 phenomena – such as granule swelling, birefringence loss, and translucency changes – without
119 interrupting or damaging the sample.¹⁷ Such a method would not only enhance process control but
120 also serve as a diagnostic tool for assessing physicochemical and digestibility characteristics of
121 starchy products.⁵

122 Birefringence and color change are two critical visual phenomena associated with starch
123 gelatinization. The semi-crystalline granule structure exhibits birefringence, which diminishes as
124 hydrogen bonds break and crystalline order collapses during heating. The disappearance of
125 birefringence marks the onset of gelatinization.⁴ Alongside this optical shift, color evolution
126 provides another real-time visual cue of the progress of gelatinization. Sayar et al.¹⁸ observed an
127 opaque-yellow zone around gelatinized chickpea starch, linking the color change to gelatinization.
128 Lamberts et al.¹⁹ found a strong linear correlation ($r = 0.85$) between color difference (ΔE) and
129 gelatinization in parboiled rice. Taghinezhad et al.²⁰ reported ΔE increased with gelatinization
130 ($R^2 \approx 0.87$). Abhiram and Amarathunga²¹ confirmed optical differences evolve with gelatinization,
131 not after. These results show color change and optical shifts occur during gelatinization, as
132 crystalline granules disrupt and amylose leaches, altering light scattering and absorption, shifting
133 from white to translucent or yellow. Browning or pigment migration happen after complete
134 gelatinization. Monitoring optical cues offers a feasible way for real-time, image-based detection.

135 In recent years, computer vision and DL have become powerful tools for industrial monitoring,
136 quality control, and autonomous inspection. Particularly in food processing, imaging-based
137 methods utilize visible or near-infrared changes (such as color, opacity, and structural features) to
138 infer physico-chemical alterations.²² Among DL models, object detection networks like the YOLO
139 (You Only Look Once) family have gained popularity for their real-time inference and ability to



140 detect spatial features in scenes. YOLO models offer a single-pass prediction mechanism
141 (bounding boxes + class scores), which contrasts with multi-stage detectors (e.g., R-CNN variants)
142 and thereby reduces latency and computational overhead.²³ YOLO divides an image into a grid
143 and predicts bounding boxes for each cell. It predicts class probability and confidence score for
144 each box. It also improves accuracy using anchor boxes, predefined boxes of various sizes and
145 aspect ratios, associated with each cell to predict object size and shape.²⁴

146 Within the field of food and ingredient imaging, YOLO-based methods have been used to detect
147 and classify food items, ingredients, and even portions in real time. Recent work employing YOLO
148 algorithms in this area shows promise beyond typical object-detection tasks, including pest and
149 disease detection, vehicle detection, fruit detection, medical imaging, fire and smoke detection,
150 defect detection, and more. Examples include verifying the authenticity of food products,²⁵
151 digitizing and managing chemical laboratory operations by recognizing glassware and
152 experimental actions,²⁶⁻²⁷ detecting cancer at early stage,²⁸ enforcing food quality control through
153 automated damage detection,²⁹ monitoring and classifying microalgae species for environmental
154 protection against harmful algal blooms,³⁰ improving domestic safety with real-time sensing of
155 cooktops and kitchen objects,³¹ quantifying bubbles on electrode surfaces,³² estimating calorie
156 content of food on plates,³³ and detecting microbial growth on food surfaces.³⁴ These examples
157 demonstrate YOLO's versatility in handling complex, domain-specific imagery that demands
158 precision, real-time processing, and contextual understanding rather than just basic visual labeling.
159 Although limited exploration of the algorithm's limitations, these studies collectively indicate a
160 trend toward using YOLO as an intelligent perception core for automation, analytics, and scientific
161 research, extending well beyond its original focus on conventional object detection.

162 The potential benefits of applying YOLO-based models to detect starch gelatinization are
163 significant: a vision-based system could non-invasively monitor gelatinization in real time, enable
164 closed-loop control, and decrease dependence on invasive sensor probes. In this work, we aim to
165 develop and validate YOLO-based (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12) DL approaches for real-time
166 detection of potato starch gelatinization under controlled heating conditions. Our approach
167 connects process sensing and computer vision in an innovative way. The key contributions of this
168 work are:



- 169 1. Building a novel dataset that includes the two stages – before gelatinization/non-gelatinized
170 and gelatinized states of potato starch solution in laboratory settings.
- 171 2. A never-tried-before approach of using DL models to capture the phase change of a
172 solution.
- 173 3. Reducing the reliance on human observation of the no-to-gelatinized transition of starch
174 solutions during processing.
- 175 4. Developing and evaluating trained YOLO models to facilitate future research in the
176 detection of starch gelatinization process in processing and manufacturing operations.

177 **2. Materials and methods**

178 **2.1 Problem Formulation**

179 Conventional methods for identifying the gelatinization point and tracking its progress, such as
180 visual observation of bubble formation, viscometry, and DSC, are inherently manual, invasive,
181 and subjective. These techniques have significant limitations for real-time process control because
182 they depend on expert judgment, cause operational delays, and are not easily scalable for industrial
183 automation. As a result, there is a crucial technological gap for a non-contact, rapid, and objective
184 system capable of classifying the state transitions of starch solutions. This research aims to address
185 the following problems:

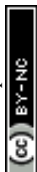
186 *Problem 1 (Dataset development):* To develop a novel, curated image dataset capturing the
187 temporal evolution of potato starch solution from a non-gelatinized to a gelatinized state under
188 controlled laboratory conditions.

189 *Problem 2 (Model development):* To develop and adapt state-of-the-art YOLO models to reliably
190 distinguish between the non-gelatinized and gelatinized states of starch from image data.

191 **2.2 Proposed Framework**

192 To address the above challenges, a comprehensive framework was proposed, as illustrated in Fig.
193 1. The process is explained in sequential phases:

194 **2.2.1 Experimental Setup and Data Acquisition**



195 A 5% (w/w) potato starch (Sigma-Aldrich Chemie GmbH, Germany) solution was prepared using
196 deionized water in a 250 mL beaker. The beaker was subsequently placed on a magnetic hotplate
197 stirrer (MS7-H550-S, OniLab, China), and the mixture was heated to 80°C for a duration of 30
198 minutes with constant stirring maintained at 400 rpm.³⁵ A light source was placed just behind the
199 beaker to facilitate image capturing. This controlled environment, depicted in Fig. 1(a), ensures
200 consistent and reproducible gelatinization kinetics.

201 **2.2.2 Temporal Image Capturing**

202 To document the gelatinization process, a high-resolution digital camera (Canon EOS M50, 15-
203 45mm lens) was employed to capture images of the starch solution at fixed 5-second intervals from
204 the initiation of heating. This procedure yielded a temporal image series chronicling the solution's
205 visual evolution from an initial non-gelatinized state, through the gelatinization transition, to a
206 final fully gelatinized state.

207 **2.2.3 Dataset Construction and Annotation**

208 The captured image sequence was transferred to a computing system for curation. A novel dataset
209 was constructed by manually annotating each image frame with one of two class labels: Non-
210 Gelatinized or Gelatinized. This annotated dataset serves as the fundamental ground truth for
211 supervised model training.

212 **2.2.4 Model Development and Comparative Analysis**

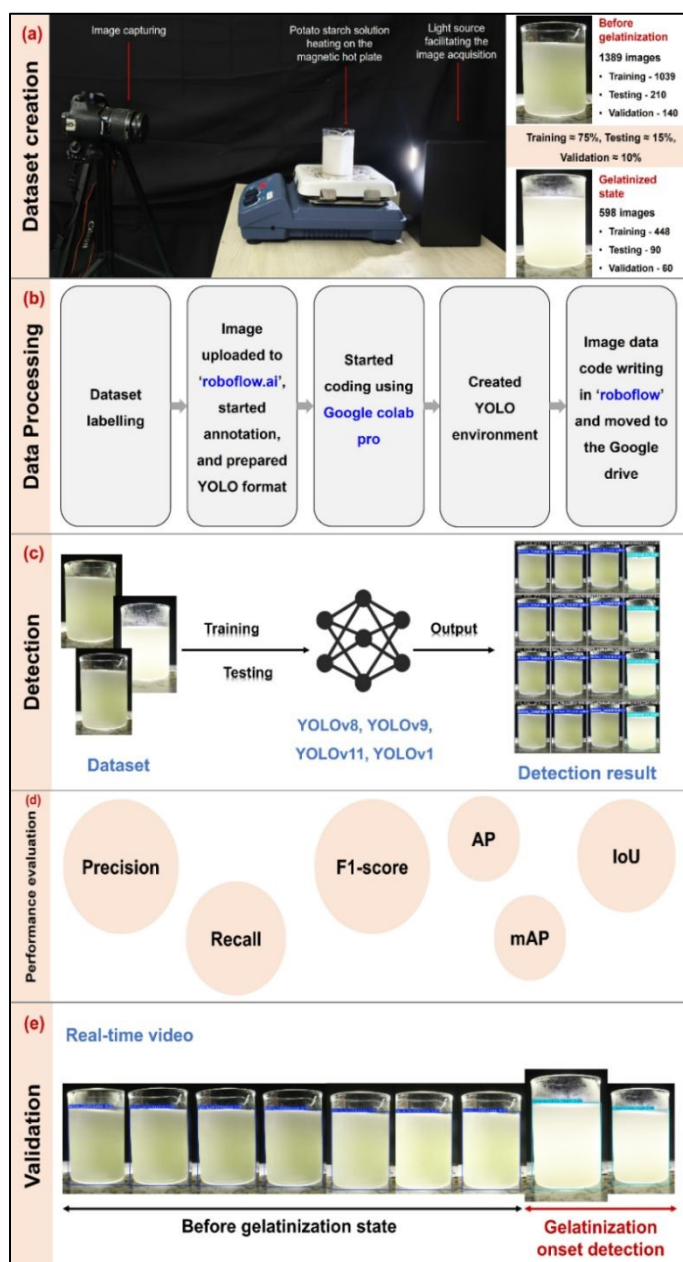
213 The annotated dataset was partitioned and used to train four advanced YOLO object detection
214 architectures: YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12. The objective of this training phase, conceptualized in
215 Fig. 1(b,c), was for each model to autonomously learn the discriminative visual features that
216 characterize the two distinct states of the starch solution.

217 **2.2.5 Performance Evaluation and Cross-Validation**

218 The performance of the trained models was quantitatively compared using standard detection
219 metrics, including precision, recall, and mean average precision (mAP). To assess model
220 robustness and generalizability, the top-performing model was further validated on an
221 independent, unseen dataset featuring corn starch gelatinization, captured via a smartphone-based

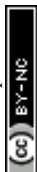


222 video system to emulate a practical monitoring scenario. The model's successful application in
223 classifying a frame from this new data is shown in Fig. 1(d,e).



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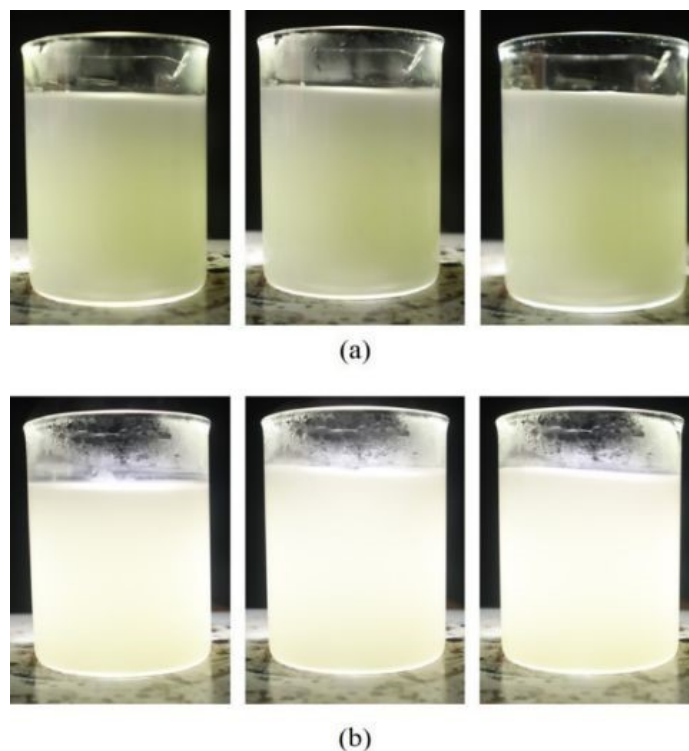
225 **Fig. 1** Framework of the proposed study for the determination of starch gelatinization using the
226 YOLO models. a) Laboratory environment for the creation of the dataset and the dataset details,
227 b) data processing workflow, c) real-time detection using the dataset, d) performance evaluation
228 of the used YOLO models, and e) process validation through real-time video monitoring
229 employing the YOLO models.



230 2.3 Image-Based Dataset Development

231 The research complied with all relevant regulations and protocols during the experiments. Initially,
232 10 g of potato starch powder was weighed and dissolved in 200 mL of deionized water (5% starch
233 solution) in a 250 mL glass beaker. The 5% starch solution was placed on the magnetic hotplate,
234 400 rpm was set, and heating was started. From the first minute, the images were captured using
235 a pre-arranged set-up. The resolution was 2656×3984 pixels (f/7.1, 1/125s, ISO 3200, 45mm). The
236 camera was held steady on a tripod. The images were categorized into two classes: 1. From starting
237 to gelatinization (before gelatinization), 2. Gelatinization onset state (Fig. 2). A total of 1987
238 images were collected to create a dataset for this study. Of these, 300 images (about 15%) were
239 randomly selected to form a test dataset for model evaluation, and 200 images (about 10%) were
240 selected for a validation set. The remaining 1487 (about 75%) images were used to prepare the
241 training set. To prevent data leakage and ensure model generalizability, image acquisition timing
242 was carefully controlled, and all frames were systematically organized into distinct folders by
243 experimental run. The division into train, validation, and test sets (75%/15%/10%) was performed
244 at the run level, ensuring that all frames from a given heating process were allocated to a single
245 subset. This ensures that temporally adjacent or process-correlated frames never appear across
246 different splits, preserving statistical independence and preventing performance inflation.
247 Additionally, the training pipeline employed online data augmentation, including mosaic and
248 mixup techniques, which synthesized new training samples by combining image fragments. This
249 expanded the feature space for the 'Gelatinization_Start' class, ensuring that the final detection
250 performance remained unbiased. Since the dataset images were not uniform, a preprocessing step
251 was performed to normalize and resize all images to a consistent resolution of 640 × 640 pixels.
252 For manual annotation, the Roboflow.ai platform was used to label all images in the training set.
253 The Smart Polygon tool was employed to annotate the affected areas, and each region was assigned
254 its respective class. After completion, Roboflow automatically generated and exported the
255 annotated dataset in YOLO-compatible format, including the image files, class labels, and
256 corresponding annotation text files. The dataset is accessible for viewing, and the complete
257 information is available in the [supplementary data](#) section.



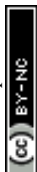


258

259 **Fig. 2** 5% starch solution in their two different stages, which are also categories of the study's
260 dataset class: a) Before gelatinization and b) Gelatinization onset state.

261 2.4 Model Training

262 The YOLO models (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12) were trained using the Ultralytics YOLO
263 framework in Google Colab. To ensure reproducibility, we fixed the random seed for training at
264 seed = 0 for all models. Data augmentation was applied during training and included random
265 scaling, cropping, flipping, and color jitter. The optimizer used for training was SGD by default,
266 with an initial learning rate of 0.01 and weight decay set to 0.005. For inference, we set the
267 confidence threshold to 0.25 and the Intersection over Union (IoU) threshold to 0.7 to filter out
268 weak predictions and ensure higher localization accuracy. Each version was installed directly
269 through the Ultralytics package, removing the need for manual cloning from GitHub as in older
270 versions like YOLOv7. The installation automatically configured the necessary directory structure,
271 including folders for datasets, model configurations, and weight files. After installation, model
272 training was initiated using the yolo train command, which stores the training outputs (weights,
273 logs, and results) in a new experiment folder at dataset/runs/detect/train5/weights/last.pt. The
274 training used pre-trained weights supplied by Ultralytics, and parameters were configured based



275 on the dataset configuration file (data.yaml). The paths for training and validation data, the number
276 of classes, and the class names were specified in this YAML file.

277 Training configuration details are as follows:

- 278 • Image size: 640×640
- 279 • Batch size: 32
- 280 • Epochs: 20
- 281 • Data configuration: data.yaml (contains paths, class count, and class names)
- 282 • Model configuration: selected from YOLOv8–YOLOv12 versions(yolov8s.pt, yolov9s.pt,
283 yolo11s.pt, yolo12s.pt)

284 During the training process, data was collected, the loss was examined, and the model weights
285 were saved at each epoch using the Tensorboard visualization tool. The following desktop
286 computer specifications (Table 1) were utilized for training and testing with the PyTorch DL
287 framework.

288 **Table 1.** Hardware and Software details used for the study

Processor	Intel Core i7-13620H 13 Gen
Operating system	Windows 11 64-bit operating system
RAM	16GB 2x DDR5 SO-DIMM 5600MHz
Programming language	Python 3.12.12
GPU	NVIDIA A100-SXM4-40GB, 40507MiB
Software	Ultralytics YOLO (8.3.214–v12), PyTorch 2.8.0 + CUDA 12.6 + cuDNN 9.6, OpenCV 4.5, Python 3.12.12, TensorBoard, Roboflow, Google Colab, and Visual Studio Code

289 2.5 Model Development

290 The starch gelatinization was modeled as a visual state-change detection task: subtle, time-
291 dependent shifts in hue, saturation, and micro-texture within a designated beaker region. All



YOLO variants were employed in single-stage detection mode to (i) locate the reaction area (bounding box around the working fluid and meniscus) and (ii) determine its state ('pre-gelatinized' vs. 'gelatinized'). The selection of YOLO-based architectures over standard CNN or color thresholding was driven by three primary factors: spatial heterogeneity, robustness to environmental noise, and industrial scalability. While the transition of a starch solution involves a color shift, this reaction is often non-uniform (heterogeneous), with gelatinization occurring at different rates within the vessel due to localized heat distribution. Unlike a standard CNN, which classifies an entire image and can be misled by background pixels, YOLO architectures perform simultaneous localization and classification.²³ By dynamically 'bounding' the reaction zone, the models ignore irrelevant spatial noise, ensuring that the classification score is derived exclusively from the fluid itself. The following subsections describe the architectures and mechanisms of YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12, focusing specifically on their features relevant to this precise visual recognition challenge.

2.5.1 YOLOv8

YOLOv8, developed by Ultralytics on 10 January 2023, represents a state-of-the-art single-stage object detection model optimized for real-time performance.³⁶ Its architecture (Fig. 3) comprises a CSPDarknet-53 backbone, a Path Aggregation Network–Feature Pyramid Network (PAN-FPN) neck, and a decoupled detection head.³⁷ This variant eliminates the need for pre-defined anchor boxes, simplifying the training pipeline and reducing model complexity. For the task of color-shift detection, where solution containers may be present at various scales and orientations, this anchor-free approach improves the model's flexibility to localize regions of interest without anchor-induced bias. The YOLOv8 model uses a new anchor alignment metric. The anchor alignment metric is computed by multiplying the class score by the IoU between the predicted and ground truth frames.³⁸ Let the input image $I \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ represent the captured solution. The backbone extracts multi-scale feature maps through successive convolutional and activation operations defined as:

$$F_l = \sigma (W_l * F_{l-1} + b_l), \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, L \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where, * denotes convolution operation, W_l and b_l are layer weights and biases, and $\sigma(\cdot)$ represents the SiLU activation function. The CSPDarknet53 backbone partitions gradient flow for efficient



321 feature reuse, while the SPPF (Spatial Pyramid Pooling–Fast) module enhances receptive field
322 aggregation.

323 Bounding box prediction follows an anchor-free formulation:

$$324 \quad B = (\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{w}, \hat{h}) = \text{Sigmoid}(\mathbf{P}) \odot \mathbf{S} \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

325 Where P is the raw output vector and S represents the stride scale.

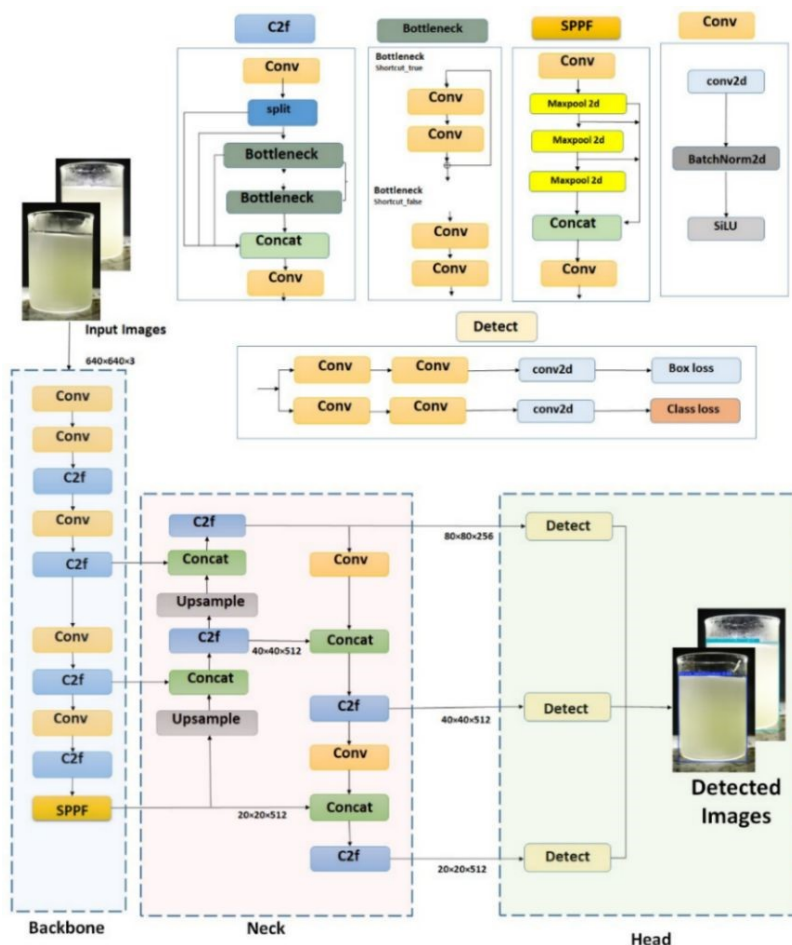
326 The loss function, L_{v8} , is a composite of three components, guiding the model to localize and
327 classify the gelatinization state accurately:

$$328 \quad L_{v8} = \lambda_{\text{box}} L_{\text{CIoU}} + \lambda_{\text{cls}} L_{\text{BCE}} + \lambda_{\text{df}} L_{\text{DFL}} \quad \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

329 Where L_{CIoU} is the complete IoU loss, which regresses the bounding box coordinates by
330 considering overlap, center distance, and aspect ratio,³⁹ L_{BCE} is the Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE)
331 loss for class probability distribution, and L_{DFL} is the Distribution Focal Loss, which focuses on
332 learning a more accurate bounding box distribution by sharpening the probabilities around the
333 target values.⁴⁰

334 In color change detection, YOLOv8's high-resolution PAN-FPN improves sensitivity to small
335 pixel-level differences, enabling it to detect subtle color transitions within the solution area. The
336 C2f modules and PANet neck are highly effective at capturing the subtle color gradients and
337 textures associated with starch gelatinization.³⁸ The decoupled head and high-resolution PAN/FPN
338 features assist in distinguishing localization from class prediction: the regressor precisely fits the
339 boundary of the beaker or fluid, while the classifier focuses on chroma or texture cues within that
340 area. TAL decreases misclassification when color changes are subtle (borderline positives),
341 enhancing early detection of slight hue variations.





342

343 **Fig. 3** YOLOv8 architecture for the detection of starch gelatinization.344 **2.5.2 YOLOv9**

345 YOLOv9 introduces the Programmable Gradient Information (PGI) flow and Generalized
 346 Efficient Layer Aggregation Network (GELAN), offering adaptive gradient propagation and
 347 structural optimization (Fig. 4). The model enhances small-object detection using hybrid
 348 convolutional and transformer modules, which improve the representation of subtle hue
 349 gradients.⁴¹ The main innovation of YOLOv9 is the PGI, which produces reliable gradients to
 350 update the weights of shallow layers, ensuring that features crucial for the final task are preserved
 351 from input to output. This is achieved through an auxiliary reversible branch that provides extra
 352 supervision. The GELAN backbone replaces YOLOv8's CSPDarknet with CSP-ELAN modules,
 353 enabling flexible computational blocks for optimized parameter utilization. It aggregates layers



354 via planned gradient paths, retaining complete input information across depths. For feature
 355 extraction, convolutional operations follow $F_{\text{out}} = \sum W_i * F_{\text{in}} + b_i$, with CSP splitting to reduce
 356 redundancy. The PAN-FPN neck facilitates multi-scale fusion, benefiting from GELAN's
 357 optimized inputs. The anchor-free decoupled head predicts bounding boxes and confidence scores
 358 using CIoU for regression and BCE/Focal loss for objectness and classification.⁴¹

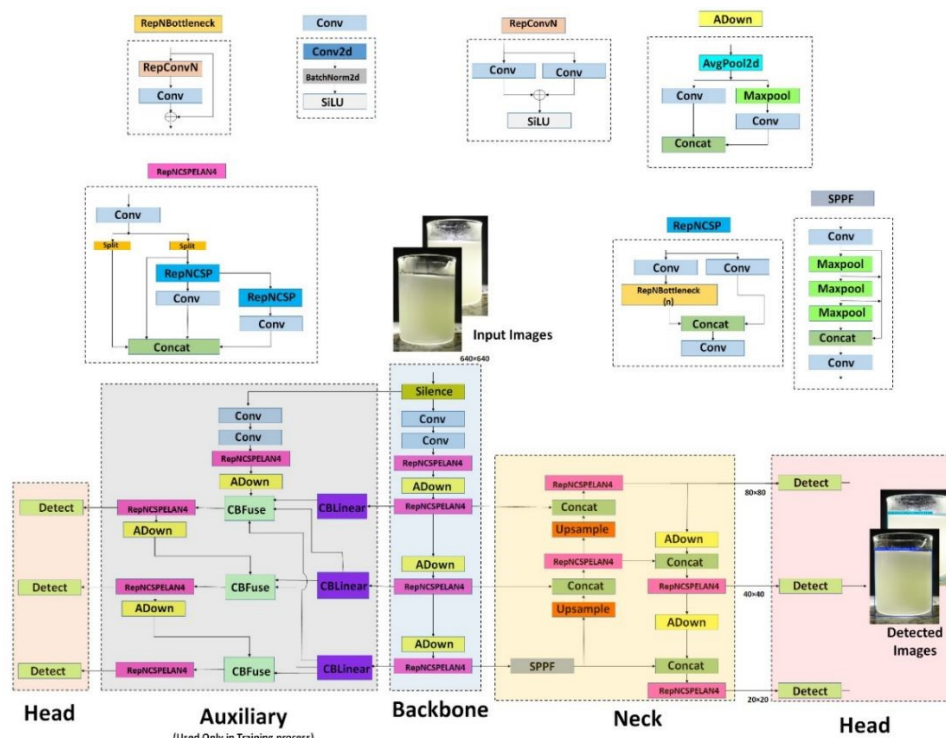
359 The PGI mechanism ensures that the input information, such as the specific hue and saturation
 360 values indicating the onset of gelatinization, is programmable and can be propagated deeply
 361 without loss. This is formulated by introducing an auxiliary loss that guides the feature extraction
 362 process:

$$363 \quad L_{\text{v9}} = L_{\text{main}} + \alpha L_{\text{aux}} \quad \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

364 Where L_{main} is the standard YOLO detection loss (e.g., CIoU and classification loss) from the
 365 main branch, and L_{aux} is the auxiliary loss from the reversible branch that reinforces gradient flow.

366 In the context of starch gelatinization, the initial color change is a key visual indicator. YOLOv9's
 367 PGI is highly effective at transmitting the specific hue and saturation values that signal the onset
 368 of gelatinization throughout the network without sacrificing quality. This creates a model that more
 369 accurately captures the entire gelatinization process, improving detection accuracy, especially in
 370 complex cases with subtle or early color changes.





371

372 **Fig. 9** YOLOv9 architecture for the detection of starch gelatinization.373 **2.5.3 YOLOv11**

374 YOLOv11, the latest from Ultralytics, refines YOLOv9's design with enhanced backbone and neck
 375 architectures (Fig. 5). It enhances computational efficiency and feature abstraction using the
 376 Hybrid Transformer-CNN backbone and an Improved Bi-Directional Feature Pyramid Network
 377 (Bi-FPN). The model integrates Global Context Attention (GCA), enabling it to adaptively weight
 378 color and texture information – a vital factor for distinguishing subtle spectral shifts in chemical
 379 or biological solutions.⁴² The backbone builds on GELAN principles but incorporates optimized
 380 modules for efficiency, such as refined CSP-ELAN variants, and emphasizes hierarchical feature
 381 maps via convolutions: $y = W * x + b$. The neck features improved PAN/FPN fusion, with
 382 adaptations for better multi-scale integration and reduced computational cost.⁴³ The attention
 383 mechanism can be represented as applying weights α_i to feature maps F_i :

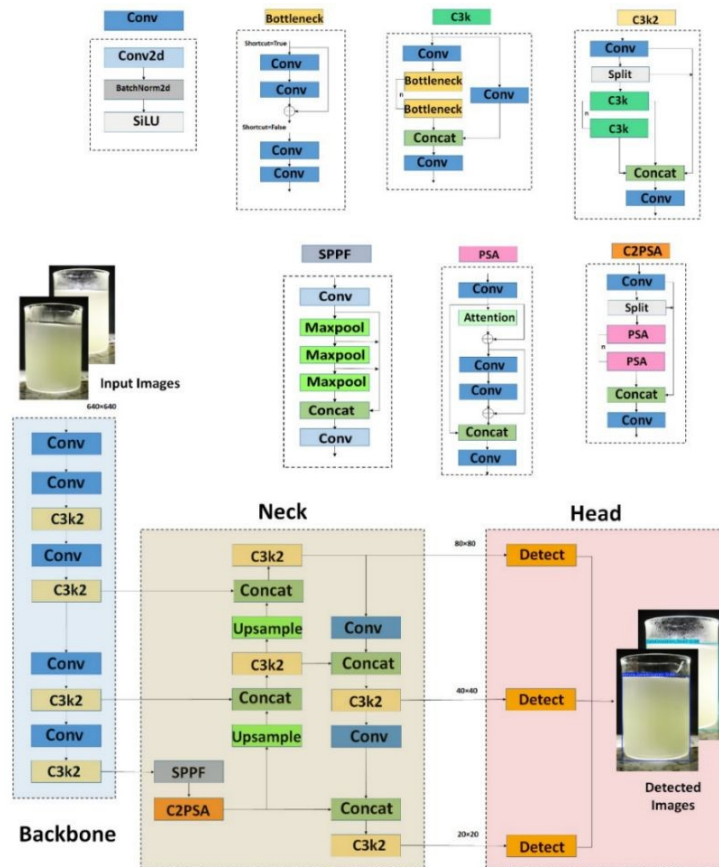
$$384 \quad F_{att} = \sum \alpha_i \cdot F_i \quad \dots \dots \dots (5)$$



385 Where α_i is computed to emphasize informative spatial regions and feature channels. This allows
 386 the model to focus on the specific area of the beaker where the reaction occurs and on the color
 387 channels most indicative of change. Head uses a refined anchor-free decoupled head, similar to
 388 YOLOv8, but with optimizations for faster computation and better feature alignment. The loss
 389 function incorporates a variant of focal loss to handle class imbalance and is defined as:

$$390 \quad L_{vll} = \lambda_{\text{box}} L_{\text{CIoU}} + \lambda_{\text{cls}} L_{\text{focal}} + \lambda_{\text{dff}} L_{\text{DFL}} \quad \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

391 Here, L_{focal} addresses the potential imbalance between easy background samples and the more
 392 challenging foreground (gelatinized starch) samples, ensuring the model remains focused on hard
 393 examples.⁴⁴ For color change detection in starch solutions, the enhanced feature extraction bolsters
 394 sensitivity to subtle variations, with multi-scale capabilities ensuring robust identification of
 395 gelatinized areas amid fluid dynamics.⁴⁵



396

397 **Fig. 5** YOLOv11 architecture for the detection of starch gelatinization.



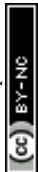
398 **2.5.4 YOLOv12**

399 YOLOv12 represents the latest evolution, featuring Dynamic Tokenized Vision Transformers
 400 (DTVT) and an Adaptive Query Head (AQH) for end-to-end detection (Fig. 6). It unifies local-
 401 global feature learning, offering superior generalization for fine-grained visual cues like color
 402 intensity variation in real-time solution monitoring.⁴⁶ The R-ELAN backbone fuses layers with
 403 residual connections, using 7×7 separable convolutions for spatial context: $F_{\text{out}} = \sum W_i * F_{\text{in}} + b_i$,
 404 reducing parameters while capturing intricate details. The neck employs area attention with
 405 FlashAttention, segmenting features for focused refinement: Attention $(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}$
 406 $(QK^T / \sqrt{d_k})V$, allowing the model to establish global relationships between pixels, and understand
 407 the context of the entire solution. The head employs a task-specific context module further to
 408 separate the feature spaces for classification and regression tasks.⁴⁷

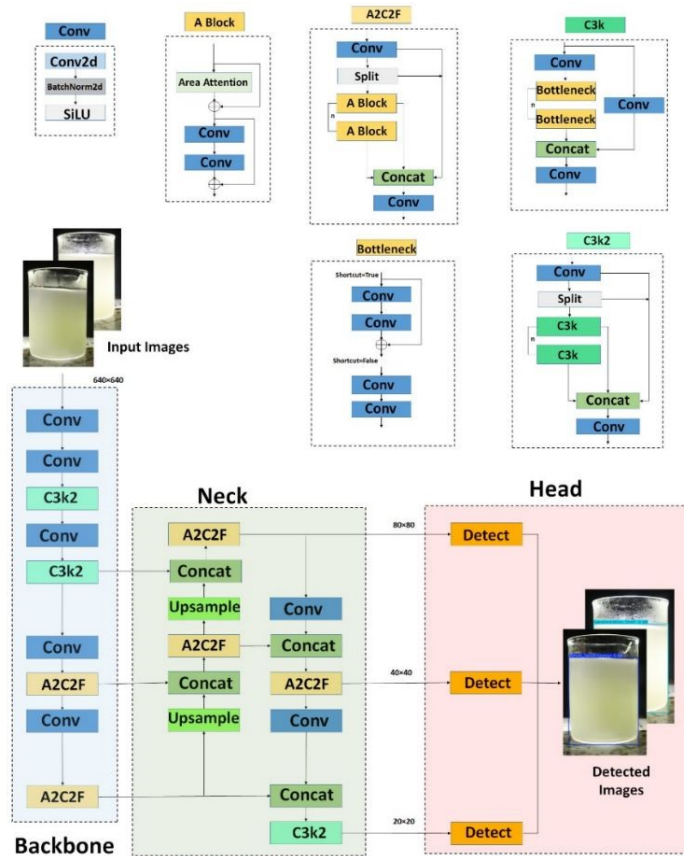
409 YOLOv12 uses attention for real-time object detection, bridging the gap between CNNs and
 410 attention-based models. Unlike earlier versions that relied mainly on CNNs, YOLOv12 adds
 411 attention without losing speed. This is achieved through three main architectural improvements:
 412 the A² Module, R-ELAN, and updates to the overall model structure, including Flash Attention
 413 and reduced computational overhead in the multi-layer perceptron (MLP).⁴² A significant
 414 advancement in YOLOv12 is the use of a dynamic label assignment strategy which dynamically
 415 selects positive samples during training based on both classification and regression quality. This
 416 leads to better-aligned training targets. The overall loss function is a carefully balanced
 417 combination:

$$418 \quad L_{v12} = \lambda_{\text{box}} L_{\text{EIou}} + \lambda_{\text{cls}} L_{\text{varifocal}} + \lambda_{\text{dfl}} L_{\text{DFL}} \quad \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

419 Where L_{EIou} is the Enhanced IoU loss that directly minimizes the disparity in width and height,
 420 and $L_{\text{varifocal}}$ is used to train a dense objectness predictor with an IOU-aware classification score.
 421 Unlike YOLOv11's general enhancements, YOLOv12's attention mechanisms and separable
 422 convolutions provide 25% parameter reduction with higher accuracy.⁴⁸ In detecting starch
 423 gelatinization, the area attention focuses on color-changing regions, improving robustness to
 424 occlusions and variations, while R-ELAN ensures precise feature capture for accurate real-time
 425 analysis. The hybridized structure allows YOLOv12 to detect minute color deviations even in



426 reflections or partially transparent liquids, offering real-time adaptability with minimal false
427 positives.



428

429 **Fig. 6** YOLOv12 architecture for the detection of starch gelatinization.

430 2.6 Evaluation Indicators

431 The experimental findings described four distinct outcomes: true positive (TP) indicating the
432 accurate detection of individually labeled starch solution; false positive (FP) denoting an object
433 wrongly identified as the starch solution; true negative (TN) representing negative samples
434 correctly predicted as such by the system; and false negative (FN) indicating the solution either
435 missed or undetected.²⁵ For evaluating the performance of the model, several evaluation metrics
436 are commonly used to gauge its accuracy and effectiveness, namely, precision, recall, accuracy,
437 F1-score, and confusion matrix. Key statistical metrics are computed using the following
438 equations.



$$439 \quad \text{Precision} = TP/(TP + FP) \quad \dots\dots\dots (8)$$

$$440 \quad \text{Recall} = TP/(TP + FN) \quad \dots\dots\dots (9)$$

$$441 \quad AP = 1/11 * \sum_{r \in (0,0.1,0.2, \dots, 1)} pinterp(r) \quad \dots\dots\dots (10)$$

$$442 \quad F1 - score = (2) / ((1/precision) + (1/recall)) \quad \dots\dots\dots (11)$$

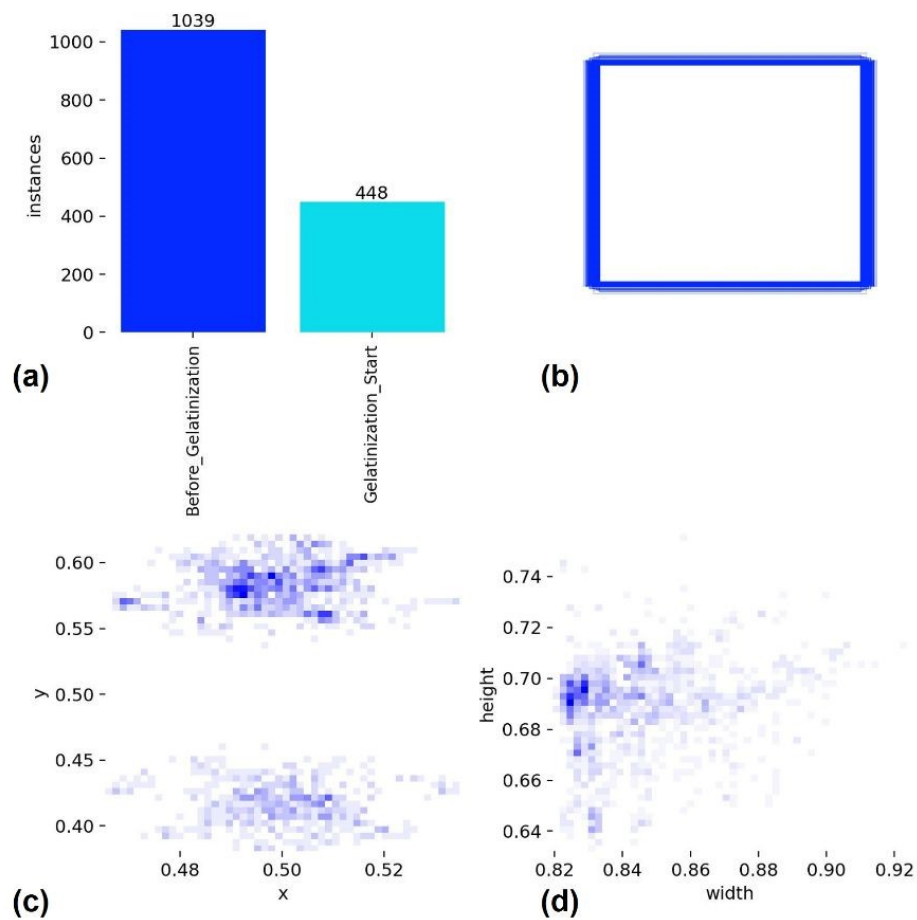
443 3. Experimental results

444 3.1 Image and Label Database

445 Fig. 7 shows the distribution and characteristics of the labeled data in the starch gelatinization
 446 dataset, which is essential for developing and evaluating YOLO models. Labeling was performed
 447 to annotate the ground-truth bounding boxes in the starch solution, which contained part of the
 448 beaker, from the images. Fig. 7a shows the total number of instances in the starch gelatinization
 449 dataset, which consists mainly of images of starch solutions in beakers. The dataset seems to have
 450 a fairly distributed set of object centers across the image, with no strong clustering observed (Fig.
 451 7c). This indicates a balanced distribution of object locations, which is beneficial for the
 452 generalization of YOLO models. Fig. 7d displays the locations and sizes of labels within the
 453 dataset images, revealing an uneven distribution skewed toward the middle left corner, likely due
 454 to the limited dataset size. The dataset, with accurately and evenly distributed annotated bounding
 455 boxes (Fig. 7b), presents size statistics of the image borders. Anchor boxes of different sizes,
 456 created by a clustering algorithm based on ground truth boxes,⁴⁹ ensure that all initial anchor box
 457 sizes used by the YOLO algorithm match the part of the starch solution within the full image. The
 458 distribution of bounding boxes plays an essential role in how well YOLO models detect objects,
 459 as YOLO relies on anchor boxes and their placement relative to the true bounding boxes.²⁵ These
 460 ground truth boxes, surrounding the solution part in the beaker, help YOLO models learn to
 461 recognize similar items in new images. Notably, all bounding boxes in Fig. 7b are positioned just
 462 outside the image center, indicating a regular spread of the starch solution and consistent physical
 463 and optical properties. While the bounding boxes encompass the visible fluid region, the YOLO
 464 algorithms use these coordinates to perform spatial feature gating. Unlike a whole-image classifier
 465 that produces a single feature map for the entire frame, the YOLO architecture uses bounding box
 466 regression to isolate the region of interest (ROI).^{36,38} This enables the model to learn localized



467 boundary coordinates that distinguish the meniscus and the fluid-glass interface from the
 468 surrounding hotplate and background. The analysis indicates that the dataset has a fairly uniform
 469 distribution regarding object sizes and locations, which should support YOLO's ability to detect
 470 objects effectively. However, the class imbalance (as shown in Fig. 7a) could impact detection
 471 performance for the minority class "Gelatinization_Start". The newer YOLO models (v8, v9, v11,
 472 v12) are expected to better handle the data distribution, especially with their improved features
 473 designed to enhance detection accuracy and efficiency.⁵⁰ In this study, the detection target was
 474 based on the color change in the same area throughout the process. That is why class imbalance
 475 did not affect the final detection. Another reason for the smaller dataset in the gelatinized state is
 476 that the time of image capturing was shorter than in the pre-gelatinization state.



477
 478 **Fig. 7** Labels and label distribution of the YOLO models (YOLOv9, v10, v11, and v12). a) Number
 479 and class of labels in the starch gelatinization dataset, b) ground truth boxes, c) location distribution



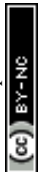
480 of the dataset target center point, where the x-axis represents the horizontal position ratio and the
481 y-axis represents the vertical position ratio, d) distribution of dataset target size.

482 3.2 Training Dynamics and Convergence

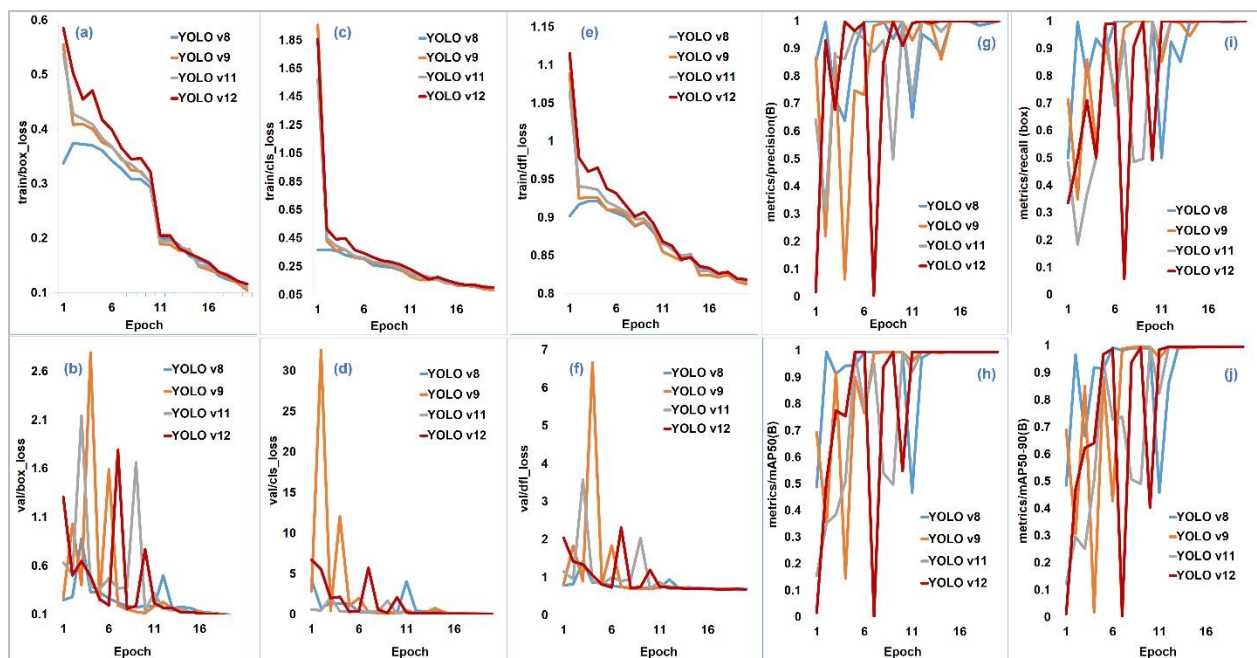
483 Fig. 8a, 8b, and 8c show that training is stable and effective for all models, with YOLOv9
484 exhibiting slightly higher initial losses but converging well. YOLOv8 displays the highest initial
485 loss but drops sharply across epochs, indicating fast convergence. YOLOv12 has the lowest
486 starting box loss, demonstrating the best performance at the outset (Fig. 8a). All models end with
487 a low loss of around 0.1. YOLOv12 maintains a lower and more consistent box loss than the other
488 models, confirming its robustness in generalizing to unseen data (Fig. 8c). All models start with
489 high loss and converge very closely to a very low value, approximately 0.05 by epoch 16,
490 indicating consistent classification learning. YOLOv12 performs reliably, with its box loss
491 remaining lower than that of other models (Fig. 8e). The ability of YOLOv12 to start with a lower
492 box loss and sustain it indicates better initial feature learning and quicker convergence. YOLOv8,
493 although slower at first, catches up as the training advances.

494 The object detection loss measures how well the model detects objects across the dataset. Fig. 8b
495 shows that YOLOv8 initially has the highest loss but improves steadily, while YOLOv12
496 maintains a significant advantage with a smoother loss decline. Validation loss is generally low,
497 indicating good generalization. All models exhibit low, similar final losses around 0.1, confirming
498 excellent localization on unseen data. YOLOv12 consistently maintains a lower object detection
499 loss compared to the others, especially YOLOv8, which still shows higher fluctuations (Fig. 8d).
500 The loss remains very low (< 5) and slightly noisy. All models achieve a very low final validation
501 classification loss, suggesting minimal overfitting in class separation. The validation loss for
502 bounding box refinement is low and similar across all models (around 1.0), confirming effective
503 boundary learning. Some high spikes occur in the early epochs (2-8) (Fig. 8f). YOLOv12
504 consistently outperforms other versions on object detection loss, suggesting it learns object-
505 specific features and generalizes them to unseen data. The fluctuations in YOLOv8's curve might
506 suggest that its learning rate or model configuration could be further optimized to improve
507 stability.⁵¹

508 All models reach maximum precision (1.0) very quickly (by epoch 5-8), confirming the near-zero
509 false positive rate observed in the precision-confidence curves (Fig. 8g). YOLOv12 attains the



510 highest Intersection over Union (IoU) early in training and sustains it, while YOLOv8 begins with
 511 a lower IoU but improves significantly, though not as much as YOLOv12. All models achieve
 512 maximum recall 1.0 rapidly (by epoch 5-8), confirming their ability to identify all true positives,
 513 as shown in the recall-confidence curves (Fig. 8i). Fig. 8h illustrates a similar trend, with
 514 YOLOv12 consistently outperforming other models, especially YOLOv9 and YOLOv8. All
 515 models quickly reach maximum mAP@0.5 (1.0), which is the gold standard for object detection
 516 and confirms the previously shown (0.995) map. High accuracy is maintained even at strict IoU
 517 thresholds (Fig. 8j). YOLOv8 and YOLOv9 show the most fluctuation in the loss and precision
 518 metrics, suggesting that their configurations may need additional tuning for optimal performance.



519
 520 **Fig. 8 (a-j)** Performance analysis graphs and magnitudes of the YOLO models (YOLOv8, v9, v11,
 521 and v12) varying with 20 epochs during the training and validation of the dataset.

522 3.3 Measure of Performance

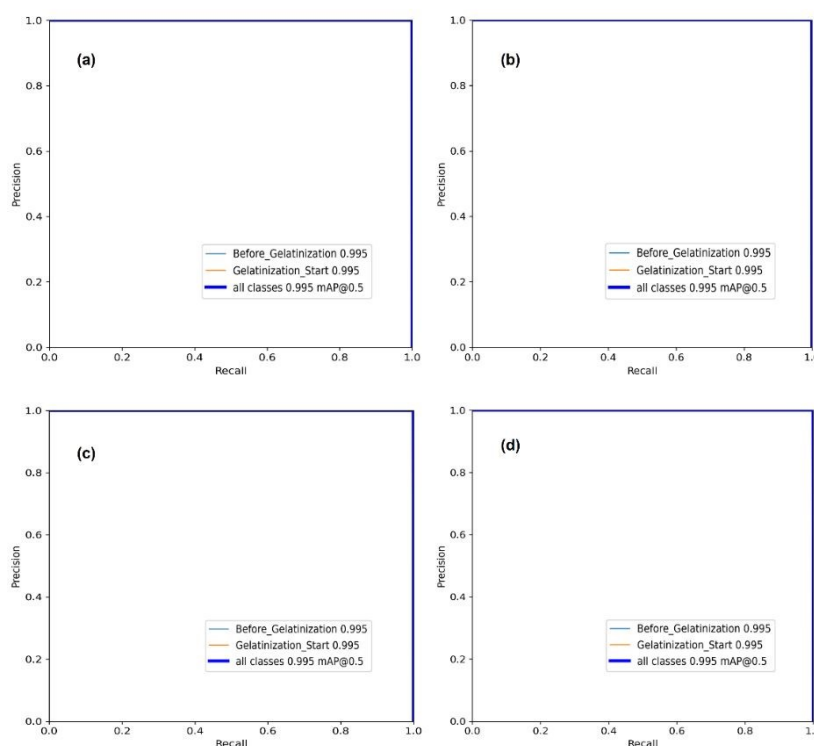
523 Supplementary curves were added to evaluate the model's performance, as shown in Fig. 9-12 and
 524 Fig. 13.

525 3.3.1 Precision-Recall Curves

526 The precision-recall curves illustrate the trade-off between precision and recall as the threshold
 527 varies. The models demonstrate high precision even at lower recall levels, indicating strong



528 specificity in object detection. All four YOLO versions achieve nearly 100% precision across
 529 almost the entire range of confidence and recall (Fig. 9). The very high precision indicates that the
 530 models produce almost no false alarms in this task. The precision-recall curves reach a recall of
 531 1.0 while maintaining maximum precision, showing that the models successfully detected nearly
 532 all actual instances of "Before_Gelatinization" and "Gelatinization_Start." mAP@0.5 of 0.995
 533 across all classes confirms the exceptional, near-perfect balance between precision and recall.
 534 YOLOv8 and YOLOv9 have almost identical curves, both displaying high precision even at very
 535 low recall values. YOLOv11 and YOLOv12 exhibit a slightly more gradual decline in precision
 536 as recall increases, indicating a minor trade-off between recall and precision compared to YOLOv8
 537 and YOLOv9 (Fig. 9).



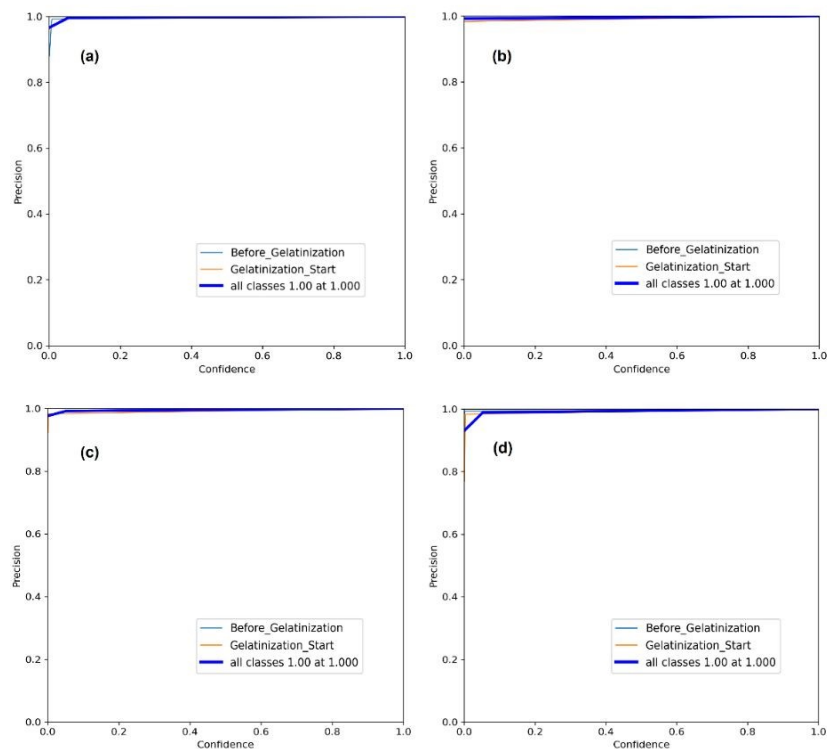
538
 539 **Fig. 9** Performance evaluation (precision-recall curves) of the YOLO models [(a) YOLOv8, (b)
 540 YOLOv9, (c) YOLOv11, and (d) YOLOv12] in the detection of starch gelatinization.

541 3.3.2 Precision-Confidence Curves

542 The precision-confidence curves provide insights into the models' ability to minimize false
 543 positives across different confidence levels. Precision improves as the confidence threshold



544 increases, indicating fewer false positives are identified. Fig. 10 shows that all YOLO models
 545 display nearly perfect precision, approaching the 1.0 mark across the entire confidence spectrum.
 546 This signifies an extremely low false positive rate for the gelatinization classification task. The
 547 models are very dependable; even at lower confidence levels, their predictions are likely accurate.
 548 Their performance remains highly consistent and is not markedly affected by the specific
 549 Confidence Threshold set for deployment. Visually, the curves for YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12 are
 550 almost indistinguishable, showing no clear advantage in precision for the newer versions on this
 551 particular dataset. YOLOv8 exhibits the highest precision at the highest confidence level, closely
 552 followed by YOLOv9, YOLOv11, and YOLOv12. This indicates that YOLOv8 is the most
 553 consistent at avoiding false positives at the highest confidence level. YOLOv12 shows slightly
 554 greater variability in precision as confidence increases compared to the other models, suggesting
 555 more inconsistent performance in avoiding false positives.



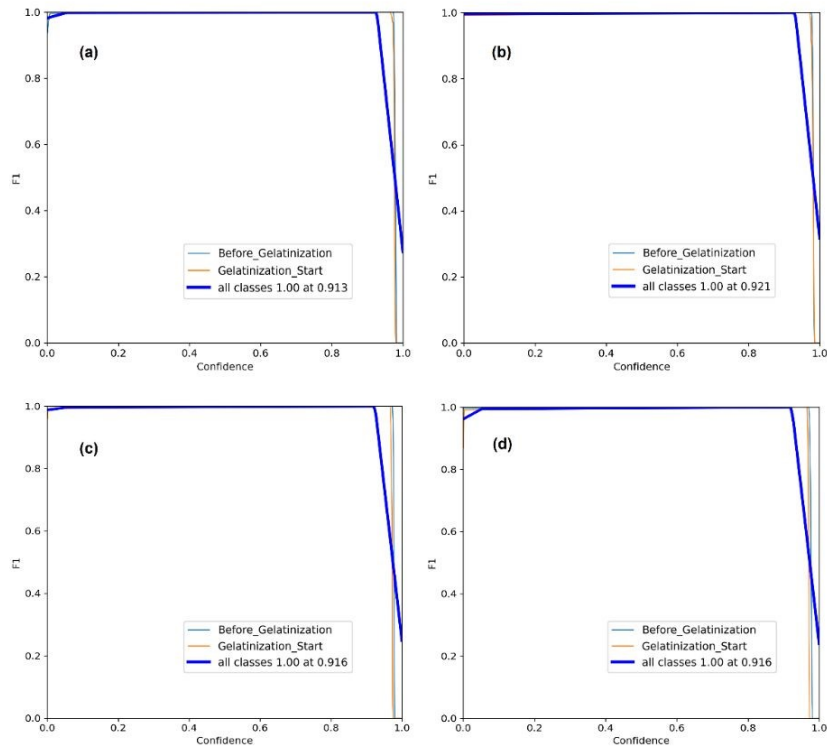
556
 557 **Fig. 10** Performance evaluation (precision-confidence curves) of the YOLO models [(a) YOLOv8,
 558 (b) YOLOv9, (c) YOLOv11, and (d) YOLOv12] in the detection of starch gelatinization.

559 3.3.3 F1-Confidence Curves



560 The F1-confidence curves (Fig. 11) illustrate the trade-off between precision and recall. The curves
561 for all models are again quite similar, showing a sharp rise in F1-scores at low confidence
562 thresholds, followed by stabilization as confidence increases. The F1-score reaches high levels
563 very quickly but subsequently plateaus. The similarity of the curves across all models indicates
564 that, once a certain confidence threshold is reached, the models effectively balance recall and
565 precision. All four YOLO models achieve a maximum F1 score of 1.00. This confirms that they
566 get a perfect balance of precision and recall at their optimal operating points. The F1 curve stays
567 near $F1 \sim 1.0$ over a wide range of confidence thresholds (from close to 0.0 up to 0.9). This shows
568 the models are highly robust and reliable. The point where the F1-score peaks at 1.00 occurs at a
569 high confidence threshold for each model: (a) YOLOv8: optimal threshold is 0.913; (b) YOLOv9:
570 optimal threshold is 0.921; (c) YOLOv11: optimal threshold is 0.916; (d) YOLOv12: optimal
571 threshold is 0.916 (Fig. 11). All four successive YOLO versions display virtually no practical
572 difference in their overall accuracy (F1-score) for this specific classification task. YOLOv9
573 appears to achieve the highest F1-score at the point where the curve stabilizes, indicating a slightly
574 better balance between precision and recall than the other models. YOLOv11 and YOLOv12 show
575 marginally lower but still competitive F1-scores, meaning they maintain a good balance of
576 precision and recall but are somewhat less effective than YOLOv9 in the mid to high confidence
577 ranges.





578

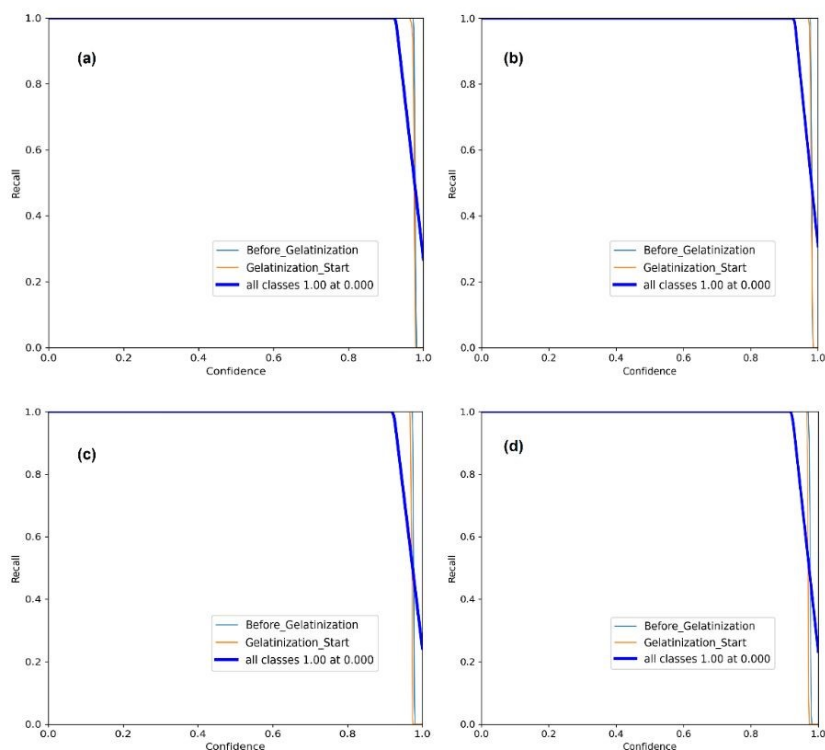
579 **Fig. 11** Performance evaluation (F1-confidence curves) of the YOLO models [(a) YOLOv8, (b)
580 YOLOv9, (c) YOLOv11, and (d) YOLOv12] in the detection of starch gelatinization.

581 3.3.4 Recall-Confidence Curves

582 The recall-confidence curves (Fig. 12) illustrate the recall values (sensitivity) at different
583 confidence thresholds. The curves for all the YOLO models are quite steep, indicating that the
584 models are very confident in their predictions as the confidence level rises. A high recall indicates
585 that the models detect most of the relevant objects. Across all models, the recall stays high at low
586 confidence thresholds but drops sharply as confidence increases. This suggests that the models
587 initially identify many objects, but as the confidence requirement grows, only the most confidently
588 detected objects are retained. All models maintain 100% recall when the confidence threshold is
589 set at 0.00. This means the models successfully detect all true instances of "Before_Gelatization"
590 and "Gelatinization_Start" when considering all predictions. Recall drops sharply only at very high
591 thresholds, which is expected because the model begins filtering out slightly uncertain but correct
592 predictions. Both YOLOv8 and v9 exhibit a similar trend with relatively high recall values,
593 indicating strong performance in detecting starch gelatinization before and after it begins. The
594 recall curves for YOLOv11 and v12 also follow the same pattern but appear to decline slightly



595 more slowly, suggesting better overall sensitivity in detecting starch gelatinization events across
596 various confidence thresholds.



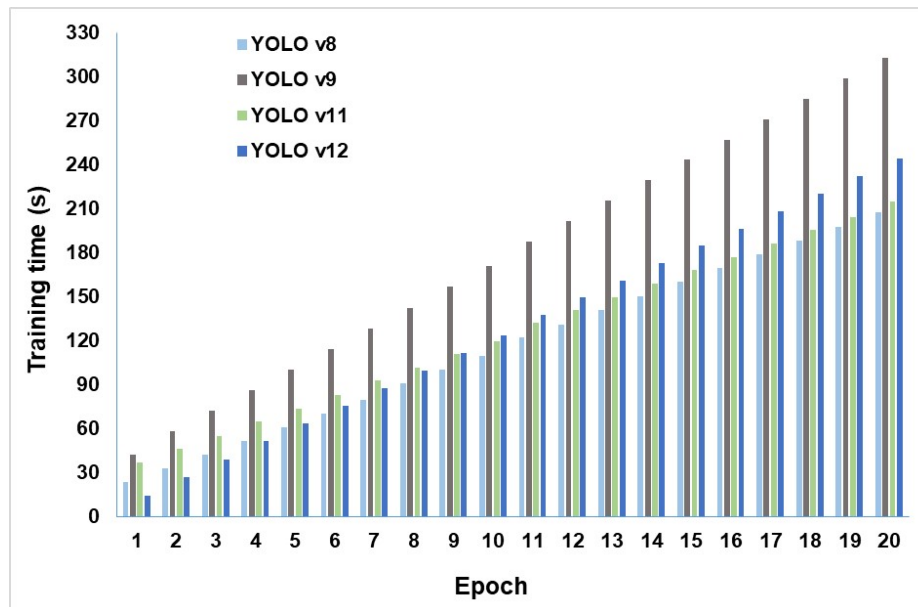
597
598 **Fig. 12** Performance evaluation (recall-confidence curves) of the YOLO models [(a) YOLOv8, (b)
599 YOLOv9, (c) YOLOv11, and (d) YOLOv12] in the detection of starch gelatinization.

600 3.4 Training Time

601 As the epoch count rises (0-20), the training time for all models increases gradually, which is
602 expected since training involves multiple passes through the data. However, there are differences
603 in how each model scales with increasing epochs. YOLOv9 consistently requires the longest
604 training time per epoch, taking up to 312 seconds by epoch 20. YOLOv8, YOLOv11, and
605 YOLOv12 generally have significantly faster training times than YOLOv9, requiring 208, 216,
606 and 245 seconds respectively by epoch 20 (Fig. 13). YOLOv8 has the shortest training time at
607 207.52 seconds, showing that it is the most efficient in terms of training duration. YOLOv9 takes
608 the longest at 312.44 seconds, which is significantly higher than the others, suggesting that the
609 increased complexity in YOLOv9 might lead to longer training times. YOLOv11 and YOLOv12



610 take 215.03 and 244.10 seconds, respectively, placing them between YOLOv8 and YOLOv9 in
611 efficiency (Fig. 13).



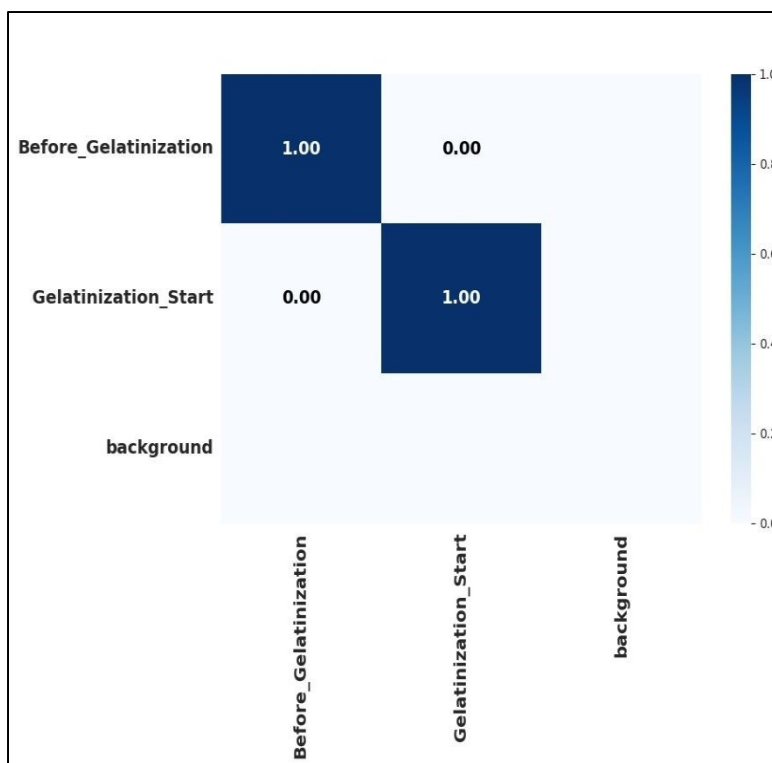
612
613 **Fig. 13** Comparison of training times for the YOLO models (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12) in the
614 detection of starch gelatinization state with 20 epoch.

615 3.5 Confusion Matrix

616 The illustration in Fig. 14 shows a normalized confusion matrix, comparing actual classifications
617 with predicted ones. It highlights cases where the model finds it difficult to classify or distinguish
618 between classes accurately. The YOLO models made zero classification errors between the two
619 main classes; all instances of gelatinization stages were correctly labelled. This matrix is a 2×2
620 representation, with one axis displaying actual (true) values and the other showing predicted values
621 by the model. Ideally, a diagonal line of 1.00 would run from the upper left to the lower right,
622 indicating perfect predictions. For instance, in the analysis of gelatinization starting point (Fig.
623 14), 100% of the time, the gelatinization starting point was correctly identified. The correct
624 classification percentages for the starch gelatinization detection task according to the model are as
625 follows:

- 626 • Before gelatinization state of the potato starch solution: 100%
- 627 • Gelatinization starting/gelatinized state of the potato starch solution: 100%

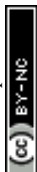




628

629 **Fig. 14** Confusion matrix normalized for all YOLO models (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12).630 **3.6 Model Comparison (Box Prediction)**

631 The YOLO model accurately identifies bounding boxes for the target objects in the starch
632 gelatinization detection task (Table 2). The models demonstrate very high precision, with
633 YOLOv8 slightly leading at 99.97%. Although small, these differences in precision suggest that
634 YOLOv8 has a slight advantage in predicting correct boxes compared to the others. The
635 performance remains remarkably consistent across all versions, indicating the stability of the
636 YOLO architecture in this specific object detection task. Recall measures the model's ability to
637 identify all relevant boxes, indicating how well it detects every object in the image. All four models
638 achieve a perfect recall rate of 100%, correctly identifying every relevant box. This shows that the
639 models are highly effective at detecting starch gelatinization features without overlooking any.
640 The slight differences in F1-score between YOLOv9, YOLOv11, and YOLOv12 indicate that all
641 three versions perform almost identically, with YOLOv12 experiencing a very small drop
642 (99.96%). This highlights that the models maintain a strong balance between detecting relevant
643 objects and minimizing false positives, with slight performance variation. The mAP metric
644 indicates that there is no significant difference in performance across object categories. While all



645 models show consistent results in terms of precision, recall, and F1-score, they also achieve the
646 same mAP score, further supporting the idea that the architectures are similarly optimized for this
647 specific task. The consistent performance of all YOLO models across evaluation indicators
648 suggests that the recent model versions (YOLOv9, YOLOv11, and YOLOv12) may offer
649 enhanced capabilities for other, more complex tasks. Still, for this specific application, the
650 improvements in newer versions are marginal.

651 **Table 2.** Comparison of evaluation indicators for box prediction features among the YOLO models
652 used for starch gelatinization detection after 20 epochs and 47 iterations.

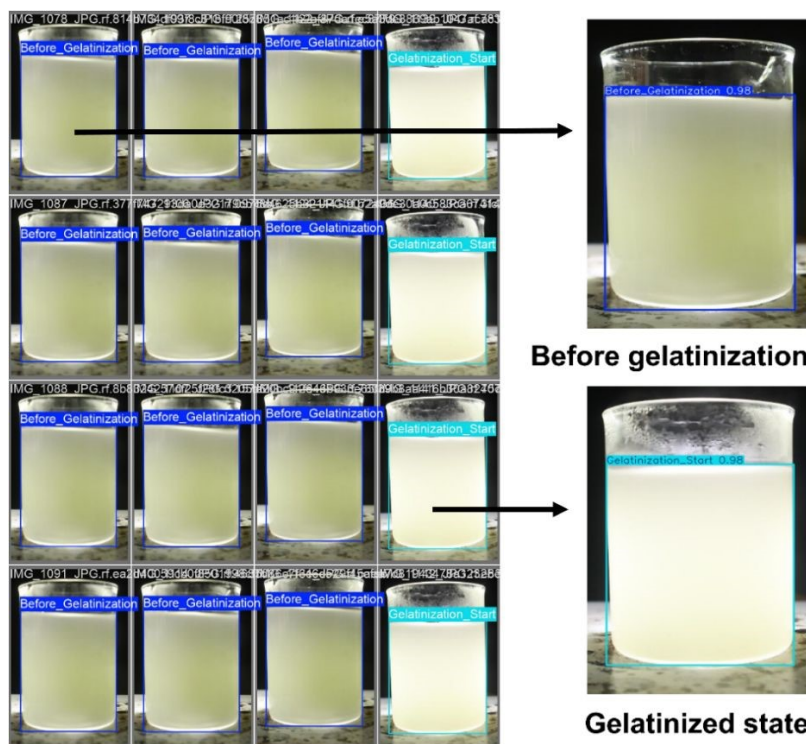
Evaluation indicators	YOLO models employed			
	YOLOv8	YOLOv9	YOLOv11	YOLOv12
Precision (%)	99.97	99.95	99.95	99.93
Recall (%)	100	100	100	100
F1-score (%)	99.98	99.97	99.97	99.96
mAP (%)	99.50	99.50	99.50	99.50
Training time (s)	207.52	312.44	215.03	244.10

653 4. Real-time application: visualization and validation

654 4.1 Visualization and Discussion

655 The visualization outcome of the starch gelatinization onset/state detection using the YOLO
656 algorithms (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12) are shown in Fig. 15. The bounding boxes around the
657 starch solution are usually used to detect the object that was at the non-gelatinized and gelatinized
658 stages throughout the entire process. Each bounding box includes a probability value representing
659 the likelihood of a specific item class within that region.⁵² In this study, the bounding boxes
660 effectively detect various stages of the starch gelatinization process. In this study, four versions of
661 YOLO models are used, namely YOLOv8, YOLOv9, YOLOv11, and YOLOv12.





662

663 **Fig. 15** The detection of the non-gelatinized and gelatinized states of the starch solution using the
 664 YOLO models. 'Before gelatinization' shows images with bounding boxes when the starch
 665 solution is heating on a magnetic hot plate in its normal state. 'Gelatinized state' shows images
 666 with bounding boxes when the starch solution begins to gelatinize.

667 This study successfully developed and validated a novel, image-based approach for real-time
 668 detection of starch gelatinization onset using four versions of the YOLO DL models (YOLOv8,
 669 v9, v11, and v12). The primary objective was to assess the feasibility of using these object
 670 detection models to identify visual changes indicative of the onset of gelatinization in a heated
 671 potato starch solution. Our key findings show that all YOLO models achieved outstanding
 672 performance, with nearly perfect precision, recall, F1-scores, and a mAP@0.5 of 0.995. The
 673 models accurately classified the "Before_Gelatinization" and "Gelatinization_Start" states with
 674 100% accuracy on the test set, as confirmed by the confusion matrices. While all models performed
 675 excellently, YOLOv8 had a slight edge in precision (99.97%), whereas YOLOv12 showed the
 676 most stable and efficient learning curves with lower initial losses.

677 The impressive performance of all YOLO variants can be credited to their ability to learn and
 678 generalize subtle visual cues, specifically, shifts in hue, saturation, and texture, which signal the



679 onset of gelatinization. The breakdown of the semi-crystalline granule structure and the subsequent
680 leaching of amylose cause changes in light scattering and absorption, leading to a visible shift from
681 an opaque, white suspension to a more translucent, yellowish gel.⁴ The YOLO models, especially
682 with their advanced feature extraction backbones and multi-scale fusion necks (e.g., PAN-FPN,
683 GELAN), proved highly sensitive to these pixel-level changes.⁵³

684 The slight performance differences among the models, though minor in this case, reveal their
685 architectural details. YOLOv8's top-tier accuracy indicates that its anchor-free, decoupled head
686 and streamlined CSPDarknet backbone are very well-suited for this specific, limited detection task,
687 where the object (the beaker's reaction zone) is always in the same spot. The better learning
688 stability and lower initial loss of YOLOv12 can be seen as advantages of its hybrid transformer-
689 CNN architecture and dynamic label assignment, which probably helped it learn more robust
690 features from the start.⁴⁶ The fact that the more complex models (v9, v11, v12) didn't significantly
691 outperform YOLOv8 suggests the visual task, while important, may not be complicated enough to
692 require advanced features like programmable gradient information (PGI) or global context
693 attention for a significant performance boost. Another possibility is that the high-quality, pre-
694 processed dataset and the clear visual difference between the two states allowed the models to
695 learn the task almost perfectly, leaving little room for measurable improvement. However, training
696 YOLO models on such a dataset may simplify more complex laboratory processes.

697 Despite the near-perfect precision, recall, and F1-score values obtained in this study, these results
698 should be interpreted as proof-of-concept performance under controlled laboratory conditions
699 rather than definitive evidence of universal generalizability. The setup used a fixed camera,
700 consistent beaker placement, controlled lighting, and a stable background. As a result, models may
701 have learned not only visual cues of gelatinization, such as changes in opacity, hue, saturation, and
702 texture, but also context-specific features, including background contrast, hotplate shape,
703 reflections, meniscus, shadows, and lighting. This is especially true since the object location was
704 consistent and the ROI was fixed. Therefore, high metrics may reflect overfitting to the laboratory
705 environment rather than generalizable features. However, several measures were implemented to
706 assess its generalizability. First, we carefully tracked the training and validation loss curves
707 throughout the optimization process; both curves showed steady declines and converged without
708 signs of divergence, indicating no evidence of overfitting during training. Second, we used the



709 trained YOLO model for real-time inference on live video feeds of previously unseen heating
710 processes, where it consistently demonstrated accurate and stable detection in the same controlled
711 environment.

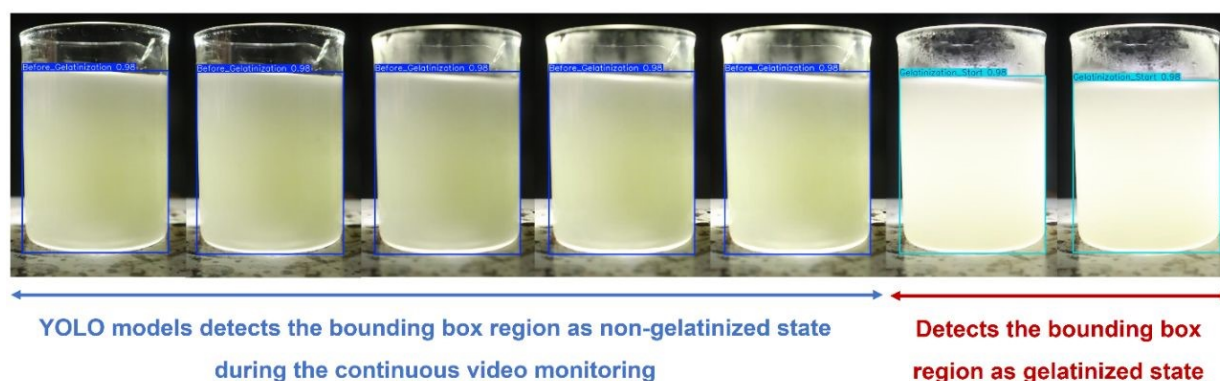
712 Our findings strongly align with and expand on the emerging trend of integrating computer vision
713 and deep learning into food science analytics. Previous studies have established the foundation by
714 using deep learning for detailed analysis, such as Zhong et al.,¹² who used Mask R-CNN to
715 segment and classify individual starch granules based on birefringence loss. Our study differs by
716 operating at a larger scale, showing that complex physicochemical transitions can be monitored
717 without high-resolution microscopy, using simple camera setups to observe bulk solution
718 properties. This method shows strong potential for scalability to industrial applications, but further
719 validation across diverse starch sources, process conditions, and environments is needed before
720 broader industrial deployment.

721 Furthermore, our results support the findings of Chi et al.⁷ who identified a link between optical
722 properties (light transmittance) and gelatinization. We expand on this by moving beyond
723 spectrophotometry to a spatial-vision-based method that can detect heterogeneity within the
724 sample. The successful use of YOLO models also aligns with their growing application in complex
725 food quality control tasks, such as real-time sensing of kitchen objects³¹ and automated damage
726 detection in food products.²⁹ Our work demonstrates the versatility of these models, broadening
727 their use from traditional object detection to the more detailed area of real-time process-state
728 monitoring. However, our study differs from some sensor-based approaches¹⁶ that require physical
729 probes. While those methods provide specific particle-size data, our vision-based approach is
730 completely non-invasive, reducing the risk of sensor fouling and process interruptions. This makes
731 our method a useful alternative or complement for environments where non-invasiveness and
732 spatial information are important. Additionally, the YOLO models' performance in this study
733 aligns with recent advances in object detection for specialized tasks. YOLO can classify complex
734 hyperspectral data, highlighting its ability to extract features from subtle visual cues.⁵⁴ Integrating
735 these models into real-time monitoring supports Industry 4.0. Automation in assembly lines
736 reduces human error and improves consistency.⁵⁵ Applying this to starch gelatinization, our system
737 replaces subjective manual observation with an automated, objective monitoring tool, bridging
738 traditional food science and modern manufacturing.



739 4.2 Validation

740 To move from image-based analysis to an actual real-time application, the trained YOLO models
 741 were tested using continuous video footage of the gelatinization process. This crucial step
 742 evaluated the model's robustness and its suitability for deployment in dynamic, real-world
 743 situations. For validation, instead of capturing still images at intervals, a continuous video stream
 744 was recorded throughout the entire process using the same camera, from the initial suspension of
 745 starch powder in deionized water to complete gelatinization. This video, recorded at 30 frames per
 746 second (fps), served as the unseen, dynamic data source for validation. The pre-trained YOLO
 747 models (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12) were then used to process this video stream. The video was
 748 fed into the model frame by frame, simulating a real-time monitoring setup. For each frame, the
 749 model performed inference, generating bounding boxes around the reaction zone and classifying
 750 its state as either "Before_Gelatinization" or "Gelatinization_Start." The timestamp of the frame
 751 where the model's classification first consistently switched to "Gelatinization_Start" was recorded
 752 as the detected gelatinization onset point (Fig. 16).



753
 754 **Fig. 16** The validation process for the YOLO models in detecting the starch gelatinization point
 755 during continuous video monitoring.

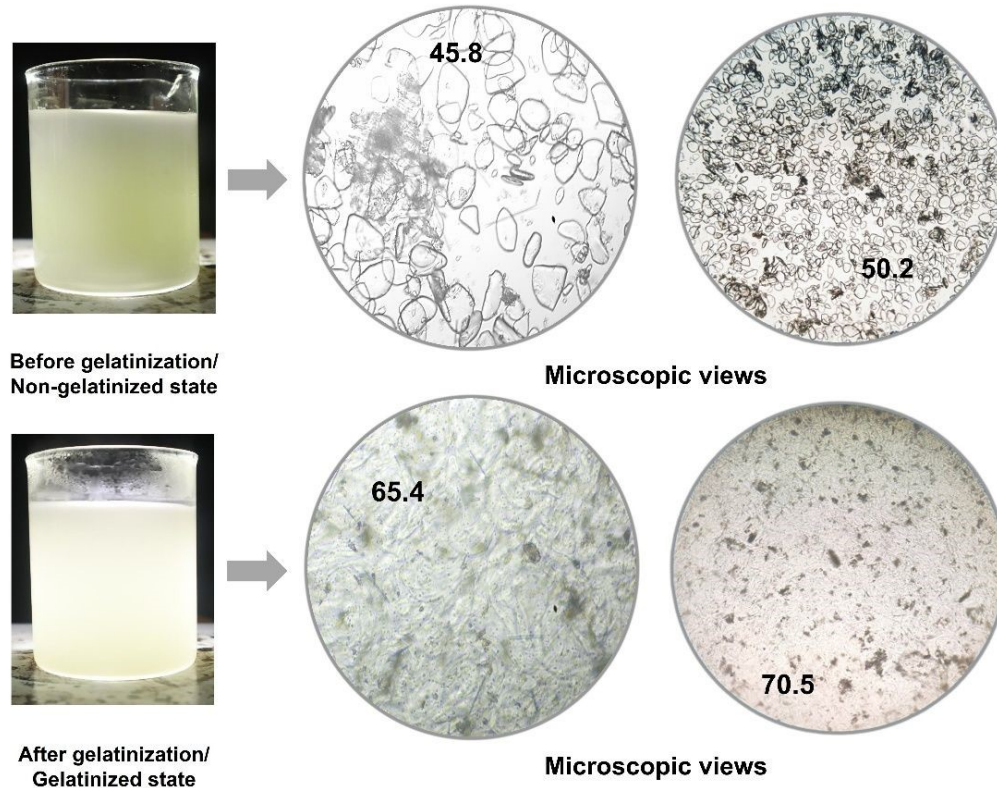
756 The results of this video validation were highly successful. All four YOLO models consistently
 757 and accurately identified the onset of gelatinization in the video stream. The transition in
 758 classification occurred within a narrow window of a few seconds, visually aligning with the point
 759 at which the solution began to show increased translucency and viscosity. No flickering was
 760 observed between classes before or after the transition, indicating strong model confidence and
 761 stability in its predictions. This shows that the features learned from the static image dataset



762 effectively generalized to the temporal domain of a video, capturing the key visual event without
763 being misled by minor frame-to-frame variations or motion artifacts. This video-based validation
764 overcomes a key limitation of many offline methods and confirms the practical viability of our
765 approach. It demonstrates that the system can analyze not only pre-selected still images but also
766 operate on a continuous feed, which is essential for in-line process control.

767 In addition, an additional validation study was conducted to confirm that the model detects true
768 physicochemical gelatinization rather than a subjective visual transition (Fig. 17). The heated
769 starch solution was examined by taking a drop from it under the microscope (B-159, Optika, Italy)
770 at 10x magnification four times, two from when the bounding box was presented
771 ‘Before_Gelatinization’ indication and two when the bounding box was presented with
772 ‘Gelatinization_Start’ indication during the video validation phase. The microscopic images (Fig.
773 17) show clear structural differences. In the non-gelatinized sample, starch granules remain
774 discrete, intact, and well defined.⁵⁶ The granules appear separated from one another, indicating
775 that the native granular organization is largely preserved. In contrast, the gelatinized sample
776 exhibits extensive swelling, distortion, and loss of individual granule identity.⁵⁴ The micrograph
777 is dominated by a continuous amorphous matrix with blurred boundaries and fused granular
778 remnants, indicating water absorption, granule rupture, and leaching of starch polymers. These
779 changes are characteristic of starch gelatinization, during which the native semicrystalline granule
780 structure is disrupted as found in several studies.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸





781

782 **Fig. 17** Microscopic images of starch solution in the non-gelatinized and gelatinized states. The
 783 numbers inside the microscopic images represent the corresponding heating temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

784 5. Limitations

785 While the results are highly promising, several limitations must be acknowledged. First, the study
 786 was conducted under highly controlled laboratory conditions with a single starch type (potato) and
 787 a fixed concentration (5%). The performance of the models on other starch sources (e.g., corn,
 788 wheat) with different gelatinization kinetics and visual characteristics, or under varying
 789 concentrations and stirring rates, remains to be fully validated. Second, the "ground truth" for
 790 gelatinization onset was based on a standardized heating protocol rather than simultaneous
 791 validation with a reference method like DSC for each experiment. Although the protocol is well-
 792 established,³⁵ this introduces a potential source of systematic error. Third, the dataset, while
 793 sufficient for this proof-of-concept, was relatively small and exhibited a class imbalance. Although
 794 the models handled this expertly, a larger and more balanced dataset encompassing a wider range
 795 of environmental and compositional variability would enhance model robustness and



796 generalizability. Finally, the study used a fixed imaging setup, including a fixed camera position,
797 consistent beaker placement, controlled illumination, and a relatively uniform background.
798 Although this setup enabled reproducible image acquisition, it also increased the likelihood that
799 the models learned laboratory-specific visual features alongside gelatinization-related
800 physicochemical cues. Therefore, the near-perfect precision, recall, and F1-score values should
801 not be interpreted as a complete elimination of overfitting risk. Instead, they indicate strong
802 performance within the experimental domain tested in this study.

803 **6. Conclusions**

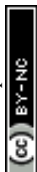
804 This research successfully developed and validated a novel, vision-based framework for real-time
805 detection of starch gelatinization using state-of-the-art YOLO deep learning models. The key
806 finding is that all evaluated YOLO architectures (YOLOv8, v9, v11, and v12) exhibited
807 exceptional and almost identical performance in this task, achieving near-perfect precision, recall,
808 and F1-scores (1.0), along with a high mean Average Precision (mAP@0.5 of 0.995). The models
809 demonstrated the ability to learn subtle visual cues, specifically changes in hue, saturation, and
810 texture, related to the phase transition from a non-gelatinized to a gelatinized state in a heated
811 potato starch solution. Validated successfully on a continuous video stream, this approach proves
812 practical for real-time, non-invasive monitoring, accurately identifying the start of gelatinization
813 without interrupting the process. This study conclusively shows that YOLO-based models provide
814 a highly accurate, automated alternative to subjective, manual methods, thereby reducing reliance
815 on human observation for process control. Additionally, it bridges the gap between process sensing
816 and computer vision, demonstrating the versatility of YOLO models for complex state-monitoring
817 tasks in food science and industrial automation.

818 **Data Availability**

819 The dataset is publicly available at Kaggle:

820 [https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/629a773e6383cd7b450a6f69e8c0cc0e32ec29e702bb8c1d0f8e8](https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/629a773e6383cd7b450a6f69e8c0cc0e32ec29e702bb8c1d0f8e8e7a6ae7fbel)
821 [e7a6ae7fbel](https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/629a773e6383cd7b450a6f69e8c0cc0e32ec29e702bb8c1d0f8e8e7a6ae7fbel)

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827 **Author contributions**

828 Md. Fahad Jubayer: Conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, resources,
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830 Mahmud Hasan and Md Khurram Monir Rabby: Methodology, investigation, visualization,
831 software, writing - original draft, writing - reviewing and editing; Md. Mozammel Hoque and Md.
832 Masudur Rahman: Resources, validation, writing - original draft, writing - reviewing and editing;
833 Md. Abdur Rashid Sarker: Conceptualization, methodology, validation, writing - original draft,
834 writing - reviewing and editing, funding acquisition, supervision.

835 **Data Availability**

836 Data will be made available upon reasonable request to the corresponding authors.

837 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

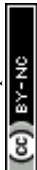
838 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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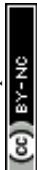
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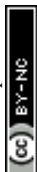
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Data availability statement

Data will be made available upon reasonable request to the corresponding authors.

