

Spherification Techniques in Biotechnology: Innovative Applications and Benefits

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Abstract

Spherification, a culinary technique from molecular gastronomy, is finding innovative applications in biotechnology. Originally used to create semi-solid spheres with liquid interiors for gourmet dishes, spherification involves sodium alginate and calcium ions to form a gel-like membrane around a liquid center. This technique has promising uses in drug delivery, where encapsulating medications within gel spheres allows for controlled release and targeted treatment. For tissue engineering, spherification can encapsulate cells, providing protection and controlled integration into tissues, useful in pharmaceutical and medical domains. Additionally, biocatalysis benefits from encapsulating enzymes or microorganisms, enhancing their activity and stability for industrial processes. In food biotechnology, spherification improves the stability and bioavailability of nutrients, creating functional foods with health benefits. Despite challenges in stability and scalability, spherification offers precise control and versatility, making it a valuable tool in modern biotechnology.

Keywords: biotechnology, spherification, alginate.

1. Introduction

The culinary technique known as spherification – widely adopted in molecular gastronomy – has transcended its gastronomic origins to emerge as a promising strategy in biotechnology. Initially presented by chefs seeking novel textures, spherification produces semi-solid spheres by dropping a liquid into a calcium-salt bath or vice-versa, thereby inducing gelation of Sodium alginate via Calcium ion cross-linking. At the chemical core, the alginate polymer, composed of β -D-mannuronic (M) and α -L-guluronic (G) acid residues, binds divalent calcium ions to form an “egg-box” network that solidifies the outer shell around a liquid core. This mechanism has been

extensively elucidated, e.g., in reviews of metal-ion induced alginate gelation [1]

In a biotechnological context, the same gelation principle enables encapsulation of active materials – ranging from small-molecule drugs to living cells or enzymes – within biocompatible alginate spheres, offering controlled release, protection from external stresses, and tunable micro-environments. Such properties make alginate-based spherification techniques highly relevant to areas including drug delivery, tissue engineering and enzyme immobilization. For example, recent reviews emphasize alginate’s use in drug-delivery microspheres, scaffolds for cell culture, and functional food encapsulates [2-5].

Despite these advantages, significant challenges remain before spherification-derived systems can be widely implemented in biotechnology. Many studies highlight issues of scale-up, reproducibility of sphere size and shell thickness, long-term mechanical and chemical stability, and

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predictable release profiles under physiological or industrial conditions. For instance, recent work on calcium-alginate hydrogels indicates sensitivity of gel properties to ion concentration, pH and inclusion of fillers, which complicates translation to larger-scale or clinical settings [6,7].

Thus, while the precise control and versatility of the alginate–calcium gelation system are clear, a gap remains in consistent scalability and stability for biotechnological deployment.

1. Principles and mechanisms of spherification

The phenomenon of spherification fundamentally relies on the ionic gelation of sodium alginate in the presence of divalent calcium ions. Sodium alginate is a linear copolymer composed of β -D-mannuronic acid (M) and α -L-guluronic acid (G) residues arranged in blocks of varying M/G ratios [8].

In aqueous solution, the carboxylate groups on these monomer units can coordinate with divalent cations, most notably Ca^{2+} , leading to formation of a three-dimensional network commonly described by the “egg-box” model: the G-blocks of adjacent alginate chains coordinate calcium ions and stack like eggs in a box, thereby forming ionic “bridges” that rigidify the gel matrix [9].

The chemistry of alginate– Ca^{2+} gelation

When sodium alginate solution is introduced into a calcium-rich environment (or vice versa, depending on method), Ca^{2+} ions displace Na^+ ions and bind to the carboxylate groups of the alginate chains. This process results in instantaneous cross-linking of the polymer chains:



Within the egg-box model framework, the G-blocks (and to some extent alternating M-G blocks) form cavities that host calcium ions, thereby facilitating network formation and gel stiffening [10].

The kinetics and distribution of cross-linking depend on calcium concentration, alginate concentration, the G/M block content (higher G-block content tends to yield stronger gels), and diffusion of ions into the alginate medium [11].

In practical spherification, the formation of a gelled membrane around a liquid core arises when a droplet of one phase (alginate solution or calcium containing solution) is immersed in the complementary ionic bath [12]. At the droplet-bath interface, Ca^{2+} ions diffuse inward and initiate gelation, forming a thin shell. Over time

the shell thickness may grow as additional ions diffuse and further cross-link the interior. The result is a semi-solid sphere with a liquid centre enclosed by an alginate–calcium “skin”.

Types of spherification: direct vs reverse

Two main spherification approaches are typically distinguished [9,13]: direct (or basic) spherification and reverse (or inverse) spherification (figure 1).

• *In direct spherification:* an

alginate-containing liquid (i.e., the core liquid is pre-mixed with sodium alginate) is dripped into a bath of Ca^{2+} solution. The

droplet sinks (or floats depending on density) into the calcium bath, a shell forms by ion exchange at the interface, and the sphere is formed.

Over time the shell may thicken from continued diffusion of calcium into the interior of the droplet [14].

• *In reverse spherification:* the core liquid already contains calcium ions (e.g., via adding calcium salt), and this liquid is dropped into a bath of sodium alginate. The gelation initiates from the bath outward as alginate diffuses towards the calcium-rich droplet and crosslinking occurs at the interface. This method often yields more stable spheres (since the droplet already has Ca^{2+} inside and the shell formation can be controlled) and allows for use of liquids containing calcium or alcohol that may complicate direct spherification [15,16].

These two methods lead to different diffusion profiles, shell thickness evolutions, and internal liquid retention behaviour. In direct spherification, the continuing diffusion of Ca^{2+} can lead to progressive gelling of the entire droplet, thus limiting shelf-life of truly liquid centre spheres; reverse spherification often better preserves a liquid core [17].

Factors affecting gel stability

Several physicochemical parameters influence the stability and performance of the alginate–calcium gel spheres – key among them:

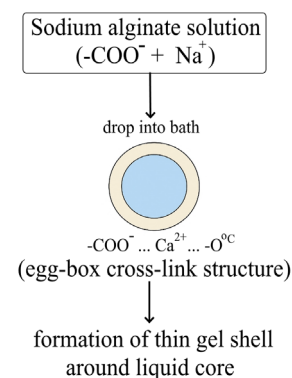


Figure 1. Direct /reverse spherification: droplet of alginate into Ca^{2+} bath (direct) vs droplet of Ca^{2+} -loaded liquid into alginate bath (reverse)

- *pH*: The carboxylate groups in alginate must be in deprotonated form ($-\text{COO}^-$) for effective binding of Ca^{2+} . Lower pH may reduce deprotonation, weaken crosslinking, or lead to structural collapse. Furthermore, pH can also influence dissolution of the shell (via protonation or exchange of Ca^{2+} with other ions).

- *Ionic strength / presence of competing ions*: High concentrations of monovalent ions (e.g., Na^+ , K^+) or other divalent/trivalent ions (Mg^{2+} , Sr^{2+} , Fe^{3+}) can interfere with Ca^{2+} binding or displace Ca^{2+} , thereby altering gel integrity. For instance, studies have shown that alginate gels crosslinked with other metal ions behave differently in mechanical strength and ion exchange stability [18, 19].

- *Temperature*: Elevated temperatures can increase ion mobility and diffusion rate, accelerate degradation or swelling of the gel, and modify mechanical properties (e.g., softening). For biotechnological uses, thermostability is important where applications involve physiological or process temperatures [20].

- *Alginate concentration and block composition*: Higher polymer concentration or higher G-block content yields stronger gels with denser crosslinking; conversely, low concentration or high M-block content yields softer, more permeable gels [20,21].

- *Calcium concentration and cross-linking time*: The Ca^{2+} concentration in the bath (or droplet for reverse method) and the duration of exposure determine shell thickness, crosslink density, and gradient of ion penetration. Often a trade-off exists: too rapid or too high Ca^{2+} may form a thick but brittle shell; too low may yield a weak shell prone to rupture.

- *Presence of co-polymers or additives*: Composite formulations (e.g., alginate combined with gelatin, xanthan gum, agar, or nanocellulose) modify mechanical stability, permeability, and degradation behaviour of the spheres. For example, incorporation of xanthan gum into calcium–alginate spheres reduced weight loss and slowed release in storage experiments [22].

Physical properties relevant to biotechnological uses

From a biotechnology perspective (drug delivery, cell encapsulation, enzyme immobilisation, functional foods), the following physical properties of alginate–calcium spheres are especially pertinent:

- *Permeability and diffusion*: The gel membrane allows selective diffusion of solutes (nutrients, metabolites, drugs) across the shell. The diffusion coefficient of Ca^{2+} (and likewise of drugs or nutrients) within the gel has been experimentally measured – for small beads in the gastronomy context, values in the order of 10^{-8} m^2/s were reported [23]. The permeability depends on shell thickness, mesh-size of the gel network (which is influenced by crosslink density), and environmental conditions (temperature, ionic strength). For biotechnological applications, controlling permeability allows tuning of release kinetics or nutrient exchange for encapsulated cells.

- *Mechanical integrity and degradation rate*: In biomedicine or industry, the spheres must maintain integrity for the desired time period. Degradation may occur via ion exchange (Ca^{2+} exchanged for Na^+), chelation by phosphate or citrate in physiological media, or hydrolysis and enzymatic breakdown of alginate. Reviews highlight degradability of alginate hydrogels under physiological conditions [23].

A robust shell supports handling, injection, or implantation, whereas too brittle or rapidly degrading shells may release contents prematurely.

- *Shell thickness uniformity and size distribution*: For reproducible performance (e.g., drug release profiles, cell survival), spheres need consistent size and shell thickness. The diffusion of Ca^{2+} into the alginate, and conversely of alginate into the droplet (in reverse spherification) creates radial gradients; controlling those gradients by adjusting droplet size, stirring, or using microfluidic droplet generation improves uniformity [15, 16]. For instance, some recent studies address thick dense shell formation for improved stability of core beads [23].

- *Biocompatibility and cell-friendly environment*: For tissue engineering or cell encapsulation, the gel should provide minimal cytotoxicity, suitable porosity for nutrient/waste exchange, and a mechanical environment conducive to cell survival or differentiation. Alginate is widely regarded for such use and has been reviewed in the context of cell transplantation [17,24].

Thus, the mechanism of spherification hinges on the rapid formation of an alginate–calcium ionic gel shell, whose properties (thickness, permeability, mechanical strength, stability, degradation) are highly tunable via formulation and process parameters [23].

Understanding these mechanisms and factors is critical when translating a technique originally developed for culinary use into biotechnological applications such as controlled drug release, cell encapsulation, enzyme immobilisation, or nutrient fortification [25].

3. Applications in Biotechnology

3.1 Drug delivery

The encapsulation capability inherent in the spherification technique offers compelling advantages for controlled and targeted pharmaceutical delivery. By entrapping drugs within semi-solid alginate–calcium gel beads, the system may moderate release kinetics, protect labile molecules, and localize delivery to specific sites [18, 26]. Natural polysaccharide matrices such as alginate are especially attractive due to biocompatibility, mild gelation conditions, and tunable degradation, as reviewed in-depth by Hariyadi et al. (2020) on alginate in drug delivery systems [3].

More recently, Lai et al. (2024) summarised advances in alginate-based encapsulation for oral, transdermal and intravenous routes, noting microparticles, microgels and composite formulations combining alginate with other polymers or nanomaterials [4].

Specifically, calcium-alginate microspheres have been shown to regulate release of small molecules, peptides or proteins via diffusion through the gel shell, by modulating shell thickness, cross-link density and bead diameter [18]. For example, a 2024 article reports that calcium-alginate microspheres achieved extended release of gliclazide in diabetic rat models – slowing peak blood-glucose drop and prolonging effect compared to free drug [24].

The most important benefits include [21, 26, 27]:

- *Protection of payloads from degradation* (e.g., enzymatic, acidic gastric environment) as the gel shell acts as barrier.

- *Controlled diffusion/release* by adjusting bead size, shell thickness, Ca^{2+} concentration and presence of co-polymers.

- *Targeting potential via surface modification* of spheres or inclusion of ligands, or by using stimuli-responsive designs (pH, ion-exchange, temperature).

However, challenges remain: achieving homogeneous bead size and shell properties at scale; controlling shell integrity and biodegradation

in physiological fluids; ensuring payload stability during fabrication; and translating to clinical use (in vivo safety, regulatory issues). The literature emphasises that while alginate encapsulation for drug delivery is promising, more extensive in vivo evaluation is required [28].

In the context of spherification (the droplet–alginate/ calcium gel technique), the same principles apply: a liquid core containing drug can be encapsulated by a gel shell, enabling a “liquid centre – gel shell” architecture potentially useful for rapid release followed by a barrier phase. Such systems may be exploited for burst-release followed by sustained diffusion, or for layering multiple shells for sequential release.

3.2 Tissue engineering

The spherification strategy can also contribute significantly to tissue engineering by enabling encapsulation of living cells or progenitor populations within gel micro-environments. Encapsulated cells in alginate–calcium microbeads are sheltered from shear stress, immune attack (in some contexts), and can be delivered to damaged tissue sites where the bead acts as a scaffold/tissue proxy while cells proliferate or differentiate. Reviews of alginate and alginate composites for biomedical uses highlight this capacity [29, 30].

In practice, microbeads produced via droplet gelation (akin to spherification) encapsulate viable cells, support nutrient/waste diffusion through the gel shell, and can be tuned for pore size, stiffness and degradation to match the tissue microenvironment. For example, a 2021 study on calcium-alginate microspheres for probiotic bacteria (which by analogy apply to mammalian cells) correlated processing parameters (cross-linking time, Ca^{2+} concentration) to microstructure and viability [30,31].

Beyond cell delivery, such beads may serve as modular “building blocks” for larger constructs: spheroidal units could be assembled into macroscopic scaffolds, providing injectable or implantable formats. The benefits of spherification-style microbeads include ease of production, minimal invasive delivery (injectability), and uniform size enabling predictable diffusion profiles. Nonetheless, challenges include ensuring long-term viability of encapsulated cells, vascular integration after implantation, immunological compatibility

(especially in non-immune-privileged sites), mechanical integrity under physiological loads, and reliable large-scale manufacturing. Integration with 3D bioprinting, microfluidic bead generation, and composite materials could help bridge the gap from lab to clinic [32].

3.3 Biocatalysis and enzyme immobilization

In industrial biotechnology, the encapsulation of enzymes or whole microorganisms into stable, permeable beads is a classic strategy for enhancing catalytic stability, recyclability and operational lifetime. The spherification paradigm – forming alginate-calcium gel shells around liquids (or suspensions) containing biocatalysts – aligns naturally with this use case. For instance, a 2024 article examined alginate-based materials for enzyme encapsulation, reporting that alginate spheres improve enzyme stability under harsh conditions and ease reuse, while maintaining high activity [33].

Encapsulated enzymes within alginate-Ca beads benefit from:

- *Immobilization* in a biocompatible matrix that retains catalytic species while allowing substrate/product diffusion.
- *Protection* from proteolysis or shear forces in reactor systems.
- Potential for *modular reactor design*: beads as packed-bed units, fluidised systems, or in microreactors. In a spherification-style bead, the “core” could contain enzyme solution and the gel shell forms as barrier but also modulates substrate diffusion – useful for tuning reaction rates.

Applications include biotransformations, biosensors, bio-separations, and fermentation enhancements [34, 35]. However, scaling up requires control over bead size distribution, shell thickness, mass transfer limitations (diffusion resistance might reduce catalytic turnover), mechanical robustness for repeated use, and downstream integration (separation of beads, prevention of agglomeration). Research in alginate-Ca beads for biocatalysis is growing, suggesting promise for spherification-derived architectures but also pointing to the need for reactor engineering and economic viability analyses [].

3.4 Food biotechnology and functional foods

Thus, spherification has clear roots in food science and this connection extends into modern food biotechnology and functional food development.

Alginate–Ca gels are widely used for encapsulating nutrients, probiotics, vitamins, minerals or flavour compounds to enhance stability, mask taste, control release, and improve bioavailability. A scientific article published in 2021, deals with alginate in food applications and emphasizes that such encapsulation can protect bioactive compounds during processing, storage, and gastrointestinal transit [25].

In a typical functional-food application, a liquid core may contain probiotic suspension, micronutrients or oil-soluble vitamins; through spherification the core is enveloped in an alginate–Ca shell to yield “beads” or “pearls” that can be incorporated into beverages, yogurts or gels. This allows for targeted release in the gastrointestinal tract (e.g., in the intestines), improved stability against heat or oxidation, and potentially improved sensory properties (texture, mouth-feel). Advantages in food biotechnology include:

- Encapsulation extends shelf-life and protects sensitive bioactives from heat, moisture or light.
- Modulated release permits targeted delivery (e.g., probiotic release in colon).
- Novel textural forms: “liquid pearls”, “caviar”-style beads delivering consumer novelty. Nevertheless, implementation at scale and in commercial food systems brings challenges: cost of production, reproducibility of bead size and shell uniformity, regulatory approvals (food grade materials, safety), organoleptic acceptance, integration into manufacturing lines, and controlling release kinetics in complex food matrices. Moreover, the bead’s mechanical and chemical stability during storage and ingestion must be confirmed [26].

By leveraging spherification-style encapsulation, food biotechnology can combine visual/texture innovation and functional health delivery, aligning consumer demand for “health plus experience” products.

4. Challenges and future directions

Despite the compelling opportunities presented by the spherification-style encapsulation of active agents in gelled alginate–calcium systems, several key challenges remain—and addressing them is critical if such systems are to move from bench-top demonstrations into scalable industrial or clinical applications.

4.1 Important challenges

a) *Reproducibility and scalability of fabrication*

One of the most persistent issues is the ability to produce spheres or beads with uniform size, shell thickness, and composition on a large scale. Small variations in droplet size, Ca^{2+} concentration, temperature or mixing conditions lead to meaningful differences in shell cross-linking density, diffusion gradients and eventual performance (release kinetics, stability, permeability). Although microfluidic droplet generation has been advanced to deliver highly monodisperse alginate beads, the translation into high throughput and cost-effective manufacturing remains non-trivial. Recent work on alginate bead generation highlights the need for robust, low-cost, reproducible fabrication platforms [26,27].

The second part of scalability involves the transition from lab-scale batch processes (droplet formation via hand pipetting, small baths) to continuous, industrial-scale production with control over cross-linking kinetics, automation, sterile environment (for biomedical uses) and regulatory-grade reproducibility.

b) *Mechanical and chemical stability over time*

For biotechnological applications – whether in vivo drug delivery, implanted cell-laden beads, enzyme reactors, or functional food systems – long-term stability of the gel shell is essential. Native alginate–calcium gels tend to suffer from ion exchange (e.g., Ca^{2+} replaced by monovalent ions in physiological fluids), dissolution in certain pH or ion-rich environments (such as phosphate in body fluids), and mechanical weakening over time. For example, one review of alginate hydrogels in biomedical applications notes that “low mechanical behavior and limited stability in aqueous environments” remain drawbacks [28].

In addition, beads or spheres intended for implantation or mechanical load conditions must resist deformation, fragmentation or swelling/shrinkage over time. The incorporation of composite materials or covalent cross-links is being explored, but often at the cost of added complexity, biocompatibility concerns or cost.

c) *Control over release kinetics and permeability under real-world conditions*

In drug delivery, enzyme immobilisation or food delivery systems, one often depends on a predictable diffusion profile (nutrients, substrate, drug) across the gel shell. Yet the dynamic

environment (body fluids, food matrices, bioreactor media) introduces variables such as ionic strength changes, pH fluctuations, shear stress, temperature, enzymatic degradation, or competitive ion exchange, all of which complicate modelling and reproducibility. While the gel network offers tunability in lab settings, scaling up to real conditions often results in altered permeability or unpredictable release. The recent review on hydrogels for advanced therapeutics emphasises that even sophisticated hydrogel systems face “burst release” or mismatch between in vitro and in vivo behavior [29].

Moreover, when beads are densely packed (e.g., in a bioreactor), mass-transfer limitations may dominate: inner cores may become nutrient- or oxygen-starved, or release may be diffusion-limited, reducing overall performance.

d) *Biocompatibility, biodegradability and regulatory hurdles.*

Particularly for clinical drug delivery or tissue engineering applications, alginate–calcium systems must satisfy stringent biocompatibility (non-toxicity, immunogenicity), sterility and regulatory requirements. The alginate source (marine algae, extraction/ purification), residues (heavy metals, endotoxins), degradation products (e.g., alginate fragments, guluronic/mannuronic fragments) and ionic cross-linker residues must all be controlled [30]. Some modifications (e.g., covalent cross-links, composite nanoparticles) raise further regulatory questions. While reviews of alginate biomaterials cover these issues broadly, translating into approved products remains rare [31, 32].

For food applications, while alginate is generally regarded as safe (GRAS) in many jurisdictions, the use of “liquid centre” beads at scale in beverages or functional foods poses manufacturing, sensory, shelf-life and regulatory challenges (especially if encapsulating live probiotics or bioactives) [33].

4.2 Future directions

Given these challenges, several pathways forward are particularly promising:

a) *Advanced materials and hybrid systems*

As the recent literature shows, chemical modification of alginate (e.g., grafting with functional groups, covalent cross-linking, incorporation of nanocomposites) can substantially improve mechanical strength, degradation control, and tailored permeability. For

example, chemically modified alginate matrices have been reviewed for improved functionality in drug-delivery systems [23,28].

Hybrid beads combining alginate with gelatin, nanocellulose, or synthetic polymers may offer better tunability without sacrificing biocompatibility.

b) Integration with microfluidic and automated manufacturing

Microfluidic droplet generation, continuous flow synthesis and 3D printing of bead arrays or scaffolds can improve reproducibility, achieve tight size distribution, and scale up manufacturing. The ultra low-cost microfluidic method for homogeneous alginate microspheres is a recent example [27].

Automation and in-line monitoring (shell thickness, bead size, mechanical integrity) could support regulatory compliance.

c) Stimuli-responsive and programmable release systems

Embedding responsive elements into the gel shell (pH-sensitive bonds, temperature-responsive segments, enzyme-degradable linkers) could allow “smart” release profiles synchronised with physiological or process triggers. Reviews of hydrogel systems as responsive platforms indicate this is a major trend in the field [24,34].

For example, a bead might release its cargo only in the presence of a particular metabolite or at a pH specific to the target tissue or digestive tract.

d) Modular and injectable delivery formats

For tissue engineering, spherification-style beads may serve as injectable “microtissue” units or scaffolding modules that align or assemble in situ. The ability to inject cell-laden microbeads rather than large scaffolds offers minimally invasive delivery. Scaling this into clinical workflows will require compatibility with sterilisation, imaging, and integration with host tissue.

e) Up-scaling for industrial and commercial deployment

Bringing spherification-derived systems into commercial food or industrial biocatalysis settings requires cost-effective production of beads, consistent performance under storage or process conditions, long shelf-life, easy downstream separation (e.g., for enzyme beads) and compatibility with regulatory frameworks. Efforts to design bead systems with “drop-in” compatibility for food manufacturing or bioprocessing could accelerate translation.

f) Lifecycle, sustainability and sourcing

An often-overlooked but increasingly important aspect is the sustainability of alginate sourcing (marine biomass), lifecycle of beads (recycling/biodegradation), and overall cost-effectiveness. Researchers are exploring alternative alginate sources (microalgae, bacterial alginates), lower-energy production methods, and “green” manufacturing for bead production [34].

4.3 Overall perspective and emerging trends

In essence, the transition of spherification-style alginate–calcium encapsulation systems from elegant proof-of-concepts to robust tools across drug delivery, tissue engineering, biocatalysis, and food biotechnology depends on bridging the gap between precision laboratory control and industrial or clinical robustness. The fine control of shell structure, permeability, and release kinetics – hallmarks of spherification in gastronomy – must be retained while achieving high throughput, reproducibility, stability, and regulatory compliance [35, 36].

Emerging research trends point to a convergence of biomaterials science, biofabrication, and process engineering. Modified alginate derivatives with tailored crosslinking chemistry (e.g., covalent or hybrid ionic-covalent networks) are being developed to overcome ion-exchange degradation and extend stability under physiological or processing conditions. Simultaneously, microfluidic systems are being integrated with automated droplet generation to produce highly uniform alginate spheres, bridging the precision of microscale design with the scalability required for industrial production. These advances not only ensure control over bead morphology and size distribution but also reduce waste and process variability [23,26].

Another prominent direction is the design of “smart” or stimuli-responsive spherification systems. Embedding responsive polymers or nanoparticles within the alginate matrix allows for environmental sensing—triggering drug or nutrient release in response – to pH, temperature, or biochemical markers. This concept aligns with the broader movement toward personalized and adaptive therapeutic systems, where material performance dynamically responds to biological feedback [36,37]. At the same time, sustainability and life-cycle considerations are gaining importance. The biotechnological use of alginate relies heavily on natural sources, particularly brown seaweed; hence, sustainable harvesting and valorization of

marine biomass are crucial. Emerging work on microbial and synthetic alginates, as well as circular production chains that recover calcium or alginate components from waste streams, may reduce environmental impact and improve economic viability [38,39].

While significant challenges remain – particularly concerning mechanical robustness, mass transfer optimization, and scalability – the trajectory of innovation suggests a strong future for spherification as a core enabling technology in biotechnology. By combining insights from materials science, bioprocess engineering, and life-cycle design, spherification may evolve from an artisanal culinary method into a scalable, sustainable, and smart biotechnological platform capable of transforming multiple sectors—from pharmaceuticals and tissue regeneration to industrial catalysis and food systems [39,40].

5. Conclusions

Spherification, originally an innovation in molecular gastronomy, has evolved into a highly adaptable and scientifically valuable technique for biotechnology. At its core, the process harnesses the ionic crosslinking between sodium alginate and calcium ions to create semi-permeable hydrogel membranes capable of encapsulating a diverse range of substances. This simple yet elegant mechanism has proven applicable across multiple biotechnological domains—drug delivery, tissue engineering, biocatalysis, and functional food formulation—where precise control of encapsulation and release is critical.

In drug delivery, alginate–calcium spherification enables the controlled release of therapeutic agents while protecting sensitive molecules from degradation. The tunable mechanical strength and permeability of alginate gels offer possibilities for both immediate and sustained-release formulations, positioning spherification as a cost-effective and biocompatible alternative to synthetic microencapsulation methods. In tissue engineering, the ability to encapsulate living cells in a biocompatible and nutrient-permeable environment has opened pathways for injectable cell delivery systems and scaffold-free tissue formation. Such applications benefit from the gentle gelation process, which maintains cellular viability and functionality.

In biocatalysis, spherification provides a stable microenvironment for enzymes or microorganisms,

facilitating their reuse and improving process efficiency in continuous bioreactors. This immobilization approach minimizes enzyme denaturation, allows fine-tuning of substrate diffusion, and supports the design of modular bioprocess systems. Similarly, in food biotechnology, alginate-based spheres offer a powerful tool for enhancing the bioavailability and stability of nutrients, probiotics, and bioactives. The visual and textural novelty of spherification also enriches consumer experiences, aligning functional and sensory innovation.

However, key challenges persist—chiefly the scalability and long-term stability of alginate–calcium systems. Ion exchange, mechanical fragility, and variability in bead uniformity hinder industrial translation. Addressing these issues through composite material design, microfluidic fabrication, and hybrid crosslinking approaches is vital. Furthermore, sustainability concerns regarding alginate sourcing and process waste must be addressed through the use of microbial alginates and green manufacturing.

Overall, the convergence of materials engineering, biotechnology, and automation will likely propel spherification into the mainstream of applied biotechnologies. Its simplicity, versatility, and adaptability make it a cornerstone for developing next-generation encapsulation systems, spanning from therapeutic delivery and tissue regeneration to food innovation and sustainable bioprocessing. As interdisciplinary collaborations continue to refine the technique, spherification stands poised to become a transformative platform bridging culinary art and industrial biotechnology.

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