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1 **Liquid–Liquid Biopolymers Aqueous Solution Segregative Phase Separation in**
2 **Food: From Fundamentals to Applications—A Review**

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19

20 **Abstract:** As a result of the spontaneous movement of molecules, liquid-liquid
21 biopolymer segregative phase separation takes place in an aqueous solution. The
22 efficacy of this type of separation can be optimized under conditions where variables
23 such as pH, temperature, and molecular concentrations have minimal impact on its
24 dynamics. Recently, interest in the applications of biopolymers and their segregative
25 phase separation-associated molecular stratification has increased, particularly in the
26 food industry, where these methods permit the purification of specific particles and the
27 embedding of microcapsules. The present review offers a comprehensive examination
28 of the theoretical mechanisms that regulate the liquid–liquid biopolymers aqueous
29 solution segregative phase separation, the factors that may exert an impact on this
30 procedure, and the importance of this particular separation method in the context of
31 food science. These discussion points also address existing difficulties and future
32 possibilities related to the use of segregative phase separation in food applications. This
33 highlights the potential for the design of novel functional foods and the enhancement
34 of food properties.

35 **Keywords:** Biopolymers, Aqueous solution, Segregative phase separation, Theoretical
36 basis, Influence factors.

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Primary factors contributing to macroscopic phase separation are thermodynamic
40 incompatibilities in aqueous biopolymer mixtures. The separation of two biopolymers
41 in a given liquid phase can be classified as either associative or segregative phase
42 separation, of which both are studied for their membrane-less compartmentalization
43 abilities [1, 2]. The food industry makes extensive use of phase separation, although the
44 majority of research conducted to date has focused on associative phase separation. In
45 this process, two solvents are applied so that both biopolymers of interest are ultimately
46 enriched in one of these separating phases whereas the other primarily contains solvent.
47 This method of phase separation is frequently used when dealing with mixtures of
48 biopolymers that have opposite charges [3, 4]. On the contrary, segregative phase
49 separation is common for mutually exclusive macromolecules, forming
50 macromolecules that are enriched in each of the two phases. Although associative phase
51 separation and segregative phase separation are driven by different factors, they can
52 occur simultaneously under certain conditions. However, there have been limited
53 investigations thus far on the segregative phase separation of natural polymers. This
54 highlights the need to focus on the mechanisms that govern this important process.

55 Thermodynamic incompatibility is another term used to describe the process of
56 segregative phase separation in aqueous biopolymer systems [5]. At the molecular level,
57 immiscibility between macromolecular biopolymers and a thermodynamically
58 incompatible system typically results from structural and/or chemical property
59 differences among the biopolymers. Phase separation is enhanced when molecular

60 size and conformation are increased, and it is inhibited when molecular size and
61 conformation are decreased, due to inherent differences in these properties across
62 natural biopolymers [6, 7]. Segregative phase separation causes molecular fractionation,
63 which can change the characteristics of natural polymers in a particular system [8].

64 In comparison to synthetic polymers, natural polymers are typically more complex
65 and are often used in a relatively crude state without thorough characterization, making
66 it difficult to accurately describe and comprehend their behavior. An understanding of
67 the phase behaviors and structural characteristics of these natural polymers is crucial
68 for the formulation, design, and manufacture of food and household products. It also
69 plays a significant role in shaping the physical properties and stability of the final
70 products [9-11].

71 In the last 15 years, there has been a growing focus of research interest in phase
72 separation. This is due to advancements in compounding technologies, which have
73 opened up new possibilities for designing innovative food additives. One such approach
74 involves combining two or more natural polymers, based on numerous reports. Major
75 research topics in this field include the identification of foods that can undergo phase
76 separation, the factors that contribute to phase separation-related molecular
77 fractionation, and the potential changes in biological activities resulting from this
78 process. Remarkably, Brangwynne et al. [12] observed a comparable occurrence of
79 phase separation in the nucleolus. Furthermore, a group of biochemists and structural
80 biologists were able to replicate this phenomenon *in vitro*, demonstrating that weak
81 forces played a role in the formation of small droplets or spherical jelly-like spots by

82 biological macromolecules within test tubes [13, 14]. This shows that basic biochemical
83 approaches can replicate the phase separation process *in vitro*, and the findings have
84 been hailed as a breakthrough in this field of study. Since then, more research has been
85 devoted to phase separation and its potential applications in the context of the
86 microstructural design of cosmetics [15, 16], improved emulsion stability [17],
87 generation of complex emulsions in microfluids using aqueous phase separation [18],
88 aqueous phase separation in biomedical applications (include design of artificial cells
89 and to-mimetic materials within water–water(w/w) droplets, synthesis of biomaterials
90 from w/w droplet templates, ATPS-based cell micropatterning and 3D bioprinting, as
91 well as separation of cells and biomolecules in microfluidic channels) [19],
92 microencapsulation [20], and protein separation and purification [21-23].

93 Extensive research has been conducted thus far on phase separation, including an
94 examination of the biomacromolecules that are conducive to this process, the factors
95 that influence the separation mechanism, and the consequences of phase separation on
96 the biomacromolecules [24, 25]. Further research into the chemical characteristics of
97 phase-separated molecules, as well as any corresponding alterations in their biological
98 roles, is of continued interest. The present review provides an overview of the
99 theoretical basis for segregative phase separation, the mechanisms that govern this
100 process, the factors that influence its incidence, and the potential applications of it in
101 the food industry. A summary of current challenges and prospects in this field is also
102 provided.

103

104 **2. Theoretical basis for segregative phase separation**

105 **2.1 Gibbs free energy**

106 A mixed state is more likely to persist when the Gibbs free energy of mixing two
107 solutes in a solution is negative. Conversely, phase separation is more likely to occur
108 when the free energy of mixing is positive [26, 27]. The Gibbs free energy of mixing
109 values are calculated using the mixing enthalpy and entropy:

$$110 \Delta G_{\text{mix}} = \Delta H_{\text{mix}} - T\Delta S_{\text{mix}}$$

111 where ΔH_{mix} represents mixing enthalpy, ΔS_{mix} represents mixing entropy, and T
112 corresponds to the absolute temperature during mixing.

113 A positive ΔH_{mix} value is indicative of a preference for the separation of two solutes
114 in a mixed solution. However, in the case of low molecular weight solutes, the ΔS_{mix}
115 values are typically substantial and positive enough for the mixing of these two solutes.
116 However, this does not apply to polymeric solutes that have significantly smaller ΔS_{mix}
117 values, as the ΔH_{mix} term takes precedence in such cases. For these reasons, two
118 polymeric solutes in a shared solvent are more likely to undergo separation, as it is rare
119 for ΔH_{mix} to be sufficiently favorable for the formation of a monophasic system without
120 being sufficiently strong that the two polymers complex with one another.

121 Most biopolymers possess a backbone composed of charged groups where the
122 directionality and degree of charge for two polymers in a solution will often determine
123 whether they interact favorably or unfavorably. If these polymers are similarly charged
124 or uncharged, they will prefer to form a distinct two-phase system. However, if they
125 have opposite charges, they will significantly interact with one other, resulting in the

126 formation of a complex that will either precipitate or develop a separate phase [28, 29].
127 Uncharged polymers rarely exhibit beneficial interactions with each other to form
128 complexes, however, this phenomenon may occur in some instances.

129 **2.2 Flory-Huggins theory**

130 A lattice model, the Flory-Huggins solution theory computes the distributions of
131 molecules on a mean lattice field [3, 30]. The first iteration of this model was used to
132 describe the distribution of one polymer in a given solution, but more recent extensions
133 of it have been employed to describe the distributions of multiple polymer species
134 within a solution. This model assumes that each site in the lattice is occupied by either
135 a solvent molecule or a polymer segment, that polymers are flexible, and that all
136 interactions within the lattice are limited to nearest-neighbor pair interactions [31]. To
137 gain physical insight into the numerous factors that govern the phase behavior of
138 polymers, the Flory-Huggins theory is quite helpful.

139 The Flory-Huggins mean-field lattice model [32, 33] defines pair interaction
140 parameters according to the following formula:

$$141 \chi_{ij} = (z/kT)[w_{ij} - (w_{ii} + w_{jj})/2]$$

142 where z denotes the number of nearest neighbors adjacent to a given lattice site, T is
143 absolute temperature, k is the gas constant, and w values represent the free energy of
144 interaction between the segments of species i and j when occupying neighboring
145 positions within the modeled lattice. The free energy of mixing is used to calculate the
146 phase diagram. In multi-component systems that include polymers and solvents, the
147 Gibbs free energy of mixing A_{mix} per lattice site is represented by the following formula:

148 $\Delta G_{\text{mix}}/kT = \sum_i (\phi_i/V_i) \ln \phi_i + (1/2) \sum_i \sum_j X_{ij} \phi_i \phi_j$

149 where T is absolute temperature, k is the gas constant, ϕ_i represents the volume
150 fraction for component i, V_i represents the volume of component i, and X_{ij} is the Flory-
151 Huggins pair interaction parameter, which is determined by the energies of the
152 component segments i and j that occupy adjacent lattice positions. This interaction
153 parameter has an inverse relationship with temperature when the system is fully
154 entropic. The initial component in the equation for $\Delta G_{\text{mix}}/RT$ corresponds to
155 combinatorial entropy, while the second component relates to the interaction. A binary
156 mixture phase separates if X_{ij} exceeds the critical value.

157 **2.3 Depletion**

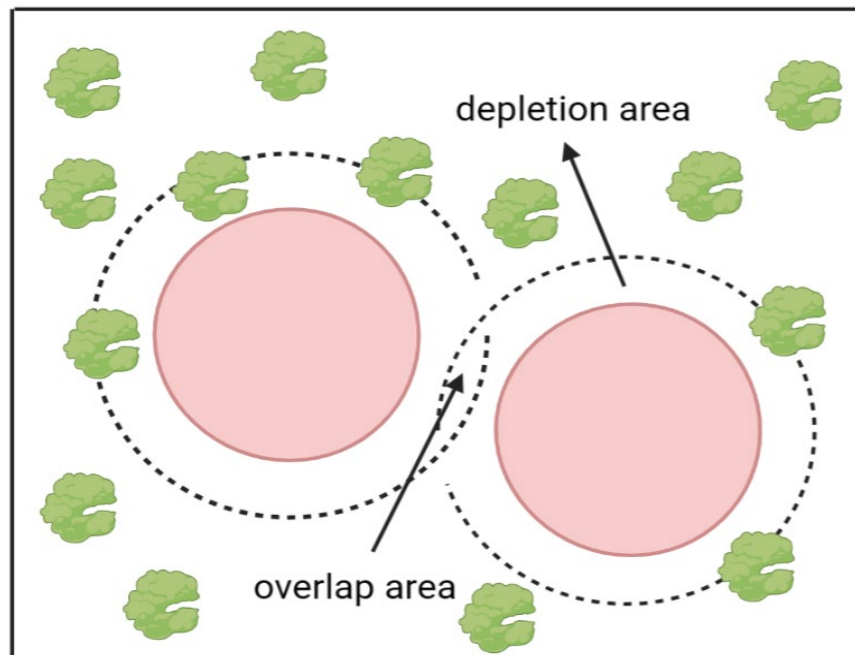
158 The depletion force, commonly referred to as the entropy force, is a significant factor
159 that regulates interactions within a colloidal system [34]. The repelling volume
160 approach was initially introduced by Asakura and Oosawa during the 1950s to explain
161 the polymer-induced attractive depletion interactions among colloidal globules [35]. In
162 this system, polymers in a solution are regarded as small balls capable of penetrating
163 one another while interactions between colloidal balls and these polymer balls are
164 referred to as hard-sphere interactions. The principle of hard-sphere interactions states
165 that there is no mutual attraction between particles. When the distance between two
166 hard-sphere particles is more than their diameter, the interaction is zero. Conversely,
167 when the distance is smaller than the diameter, the interaction is infinite. Gum Arabic,
168 pectin, gelatin, and other natural polymers are frequently employed in food science.
169 These spherical colloidal particles can also be regarded as a system of nearly hard

170 spheres. Real colloidal molecules have both repulsive and attractive interactions, with
171 repulsive interactions being more prominent at shorter distances and attractive
172 interactions prevailing at longer distances. The repulsive interaction exhibits an abrupt
173 increase as the distance decreases, therefore making it possible to substitute it with a
174 hard-sphere potential. The interactions between hard spheres are strongly associated
175 with the molecular motion in phase separation. The calculation of density levels for
176 depletion interactions between mixtures can be performed using models of hard-sphere
177 interactions. This provides a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms
178 that regulate phase separation.

179 The depletion model provides a thermodynamic depiction of the excluded volume-
180 based phase separation of colloids and non-adsorbing polymers [36]. A model of this
181 process is shown in Fig. 1. The depletion area surrounding colloid particles refers to the
182 region from which polymer centroids are expelled. When polymers are larger in
183 diameter than the distance between two colloids, polymers in the overlapping region
184 will either be consumed or expelled from this area, imposing surface osmotic pressure
185 on these colloids. Osmotic pressure in colloids results in the formation of an attractive
186 force between the colloidal particles, causing the volume of the polymer to increase as
187 the overlapping region expands. The increase in the overlap region leads to a decrease
188 in the free energy ΔG of the system. This depletion model provides a theoretical basis
189 for hybrid systems to move from a phase-separated state to a phase-equilibrium state.

190 Fig. 1 illustrates a situation in which colloidal particles are larger than polymer chains;
191 however, this model has also been applied to phase situations in which the opposite is

192 true [37].



193

194

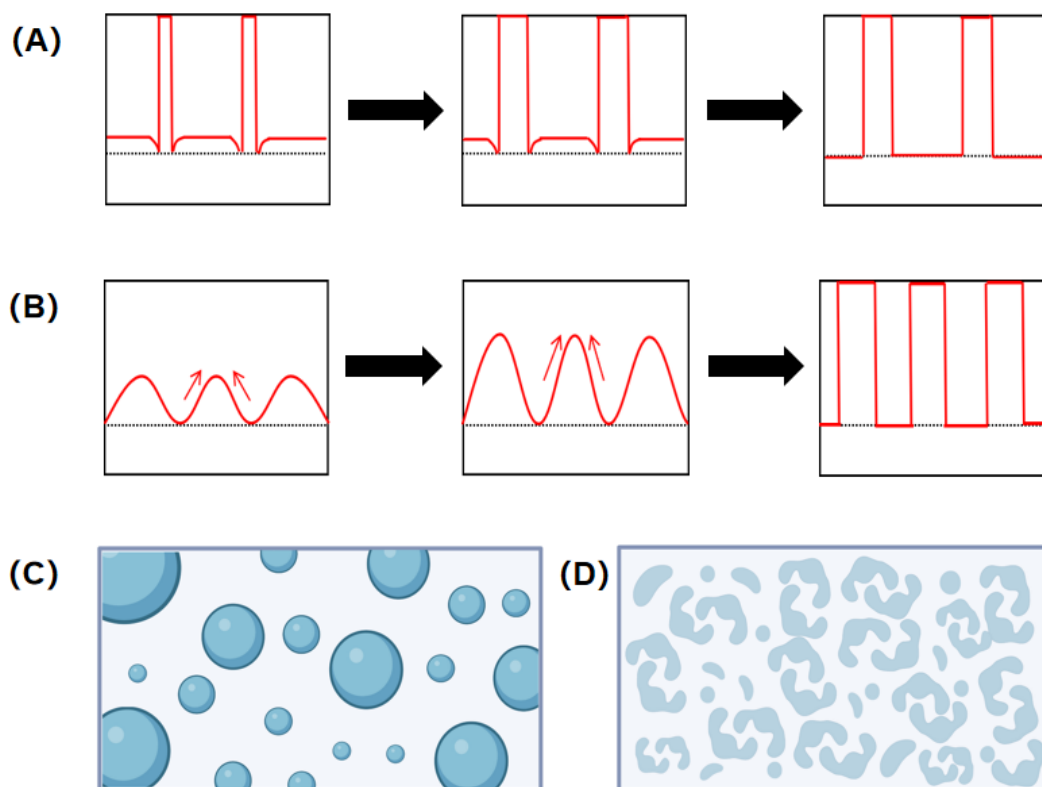
Fig. 1. Depletion interaction mechanisms

195 **2.4 Nucleation, growth, and spinodal decomposition**

196 Phase separation is a frequently observed phenomenon in high molecular-weight
197 polymers [38]. The mixing of two separate high molecular polymers will lead to the
198 transfer of the components of one polymer to the other polymer, frequently causing
199 changes in the characteristics of these polymers during the procedure. Several
200 applications in the food industry take advantage of this phase separation-related shift in
201 polymer behaviors [39].

202 The first stages of phase separation can be described by kinetic models such as the
203 nucleation and growth model and the spinodal decomposition model [40, 41].
204 Nucleation and growth (NG) lead to the production of random polydispersed droplet
205 arrays distinguished by sharp interfaces, whereas spinodal decomposition (SD) is
206 characterized by droplets or other continuous morphological features [42]. NG is

207 characterized by short-range/strong-amplitude concentration fluctuations, whereas SD
208 is formed by long-range/small-amplitude fluctuations. As shown in Fig. 2, they lead to
209 different initial geometries due to different mechanisms. During NG, the nucleus
210 components remain unchanged and increase in size, eventually forming a series of
211 random polydisperse spherical droplets dispersed in a continuous phase, comparable to
212 a "island." During SD, the components grow but the volume remains constant, resulting
213 in a microscopic droplet or bicontinuous geometry with a more homogenous phase
214 structure. Initial kinetic modelling of phase separation is generally described in terms
215 of the NG mechanism and the SD mechanism. In the subsequent stages of the phase
216 separation, the coarsening of the microstructure is influenced by two processes:
217 Ostwald ripening and droplet coalescence. The latter of which results from collisions
218 and coalescence between droplets [43]. Ostwald ripening refers to the continuous
219 growth of larger droplets and the redissolution of smaller droplets. If a system continues
220 in a permanently liquid condition, bulk phase separation will inevitably occur over time.



221

222 **Fig. 2.** (A) Nucleation and growth. (B) Spinodal decomposition. (C) droplet, that is
 223 obtained via nucleation and growth and spinodal decomposition of mixtures. (D)
 224 bicontinuous, which is obtained via the spinodal decomposition of mixtures.

225

226 3. The mechanics of segregative phase separation

227 Molecules suspended within a droplet are in constant motion and frequently collide
 228 during the segregative phase separation process, which also coincides with changes in
 229 droplet morphology [44]. In this context, a comprehensive understanding of the
 230 characteristics of molecules contained within droplets can facilitate the enhanced
 231 implementation of segregative phase separation in the food industry. This, in turn, can
 232 support the development of more stable functional foods with superior taste and quality.

233 **3.1 Fusion and infiltration**

234 The process of segregative phase separation occurs in supersaturated solutions. The
235 molecules in the solution initially nucleate and expand to form droplets, which then
236 move freely through the solution until they achieve equilibrium. The microstructural
237 features of these droplets change due to Ostwald ripening and coalescence. Smaller
238 droplets fuse when they collide, whereas larger droplets split into smaller droplets due
239 to oscillation [45, 46]. The fusion and infiltration of these droplets are an important
240 aspect of the segregative phase separation process, and research focused on
241 understanding liquid droplet behaviors can thus allow for more effective
242 characterization of the phase separation process.

243 Butler et al. [40] investigated molecular conformational changes associated with the
244 segregative phase separation of solutions containing gelatin and maltodextrin/dextran.
245 When these systems were compared, distinct nucleation and growth mechanisms were
246 observed. When assessing the scattering structure, an initial monotonic function was
247 observed followed by movement to higher scattering vectors and a gradual S-shaped
248 growth in intensity. They further determined that the hydrodynamic effects of larger
249 droplet diameters affected coarsening rates consistent with droplet coalescence, thereby
250 preserving the fluidity of the system. Their findings provide an understanding of the
251 process by which droplets change from a state of freely moving equilibrium to Ostwald
252 ripening and coalescence during segregative phase separation.

253 **3.2 Molecule mobility within droplets**

254 The compounds contained in droplets are capable of unrestricted movement,

255 allowing for the exchange of molecules between these droplets and exterior ones. The
256 dynamic motion of these molecules can significantly influence the composition and
257 viscosity of droplets. By employing ultrafast scanning fluorescence correlation
258 spectroscopy, Wei et al. [47] evaluated the mobility of the *Caenorhabditis elegans*
259 protein (LAF-1), molecular interactions, and associated binodal coexistence curves
260 within droplets. The results of these analyses indicated that the quantities of LAF-1 in
261 droplets produced by the combined action of LAF-1 and poly-rA3k long-chain RNA
262 were considerably reduced in comparison to droplets containing only LAF-1. However,
263 a substantial increase in droplet viscosity was observed in response to this change.
264 These results are consistent with the ability of intrinsically disordered proteins to form
265 permeable low-density liquid structures with properties that impact biological functions.
266 Reichheld et al. [48] utilized NMR spectroscopy to assess the specific structural
267 features and dynamics of self-assembled elastin polypeptides during the self-assembly
268 process. They observed the mobility of elastin-like polypeptides (ELPs) during phase
269 separation and highlighted the structural alterations resulting from the continuous
270 movement of these molecules.

271 **3.3 Molecular permeability**

272 Molecules exhibiting non-specific permeating activity can penetrate droplets via
273 accessible pores, with the extent of such penetration being determined by molecule size.
274 In general, smaller molecules have a greater propensity to enter the interior of a droplet.
275 Droplet structure and viscosity can also be substantially impacted by the penetration of
276 these molecules [47].

277 Schuster et al. [49] conducted a study in which they mixed RGG-RGG (By multi-
278 merizing the RGG domain from LAF-1) protein droplets with small dextran molecules
279 of varying molecular weights and then analyzed droplet permeability based on
280 fluorescence microscopy-mediated assessments of solute partitioning. A negative
281 correlation was observed between molecular size and RGG-RGG droplet partitioning;
282 dextran particles labeled with rhodamine demonstrated escalating rates of droplet
283 exclusion as their size increased. The RGG-RGG droplets exhibited a marginal increase
284 in the concentration of the 30 kDa green fluorescent protein (GFP), which was
285 approximately 1.6-fold greater than the concentration of GFP in the continuous phase.
286 Conversely, the monomeric ~30 kDa red fluorescent protein was excluded from these
287 droplets, as was the ~55 kDa glutathione-transferase-fused red fluorescent protein
288 (RFP). An intermediate phenotype was identified for Texas Red-labeled bovine serum
289 albumin with a molecular weight of around 68 kDa. In this phenotype, the fluorescence
290 intensity was found to be similar in both the droplets and the continuous phase. These
291 results offer strong evidence that while molecular size is an important determinant of
292 permeability, other protein-specific properties also make their contributions.

293

294 **4. Factors that influence segregative phase separation**

295 Various factors can affect the process of segregative phase separation and molecular
296 fractionation, such as temperature, pH, ionic strength, mixing ratios, macromolecule
297 concentrations, and molecular weight. These factors have an impact on the properties
298 of functional food products that are made using this method [50-52]. Efforts to control

299 the phase separation process and to identify the most effective conditions under which
300 this process can occur will ultimately enable the more reliable preparation of improved
301 functional foods. The influencing factors of segregative phase separation are detailed
302 in Table 1.

303

Table 1: Summary of factors affecting segregative phase separation.

Factor	mechanism	Conclusions	Reference
Temperature	Gibbs free energy, etc.	The appropriate temperature promotes phase separation; too high or too low a temperature can inhibit phase separation.	[8, 53, 54]
pH	Electrostatic effect, etc.	In general, an increase in pH promotes phase separation.	[55-57]
Ionic strength	Electrostatic effect, etc.	Increased ionic strength is not generally conducive to phase separation.	[58, 59]
Mixing ratio and macromolecule concentrations	Flory-Huggins theory, etc.	Increased mixing ratios and macromolecule concentrations generally promote phase separation.	[58, 60]
Molecular weight	Flory-Huggins theory, etc.	Increased molecular weight generally promotes phase separation.	[61, 62]

306 4.1 Temperature

307 The temperature can significantly influence the phase separation, which is a result of
308 the impact of entropy on this process. Biomolecular phase separation is typically
309 accompanied by a reduction in the overall system's entropy. Increasing the temperature
310 of the system can be counterproductive as it hinders the progression of phase separation
311 and may negatively affect the structural characteristics of natural polymers at
312 excessively high temperatures [63-65].

313 When a multi-component polymer-containing system approaches the phase
314 separation critical point, it exhibits a high degree of sensitivity to temperature gradients.
315 The kinetic properties of polymer chain diffusion at this crucial point can cause
316 significant changes in the density distributions of system components, even with a
317 minor temperature gradient [53]. Hu et al. [8] analyzed the effects of temperature on
318 the phase separation of an aqueous mixture of gum Arabic (GA) and hyaluronan (HA).
319 The results indicated that variations in the temperature gradient affected the
320 concentration of arabinogalactan-protein (AGP) in the GA separation phase. In
321 particular, they discovered that at 40°C, where the highest AGP concentration was
322 detected, optimal fractionation was obtained. As temperatures were further increased to
323 80°C, each mixture exhibited a nearly 50% reduction in molecular weight, confirming
324 the absence of phase separation activity. As a result, the concentration of APG
325 decreased as temperatures rose within this elevated temperature range. Another study
326 looked at the effect of temperature on the atypical phase behavior of a quinoa protein
327 isolate (QPI) and maltodextrin mixture [54]. Almond proteins will still undergo

328 denaturation and aggregation to some extent when thermally treated at a moderate
329 temperature below the temperature at which denaturation occurs. At higher
330 temperatures above the denaturation temperature, almond protein will instead undergo
331 gelation. They discovered that to obtain better phase separation during QPI, it is
332 necessary to select an optimal intermediate preheating temperature based on the
333 reaction of almond proteins to thermal incubation.

334 **4.2 pH**

335 The pH of a solution can significantly affect the occurrence of phase separation,
336 causing certain natural polymers to be unable to form gels at low pH levels [66, 67].
337 When the pH of a solution containing polyelectrolytes like poly(acrylic acid) is higher
338 than the pKa, the carboxylate groups will become ionized, causing the polymer to
339 display polyelectrolyte characteristics. On the other hand, at lower pH levels, the
340 carboxyl groups will not be ionized, and the polymer will behave more like a neutral
341 macromolecule [68].

342 The protein charge and charge density are influenced by the extent of deviation
343 between the pH of a solution containing the protein and its isoelectric point (pI) value.
344 This, in turn, affects the interactions between proteins and other charged substances.
345 When the pH level is higher than the pI of a specific protein, the protein will have a net
346 negative charge. As a result, it will repel other macromolecules that also have a negative
347 charge. Conversely, when the pH is lower than the pI, the protein will carry a net
348 positive charge [55, 56]. Ji et al. [57] studied the impact of pH on the gelation of a
349 mixture of gelatin (G) and hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) in an aqueous

350 solution, and they determined that at a pH below 4.75, HPMC remained in a continuous
351 phase while G was distributed in small spheres throughout the HPMC matrix. When
352 the pH reached 4.75 or above, there was a reduction in the volume of G and the start of
353 phase separation, resulting in a drop in the ultimate volume of gelatin as the pH
354 increased. Thus, at a reduced pH, G and HPMC are compatible with one another.
355 Researchers observed that segregative phase separation was easily facilitated and all
356 acid residues were ionized at high pH levels in a solution of 1M NaCl containing
357 mixtures of poly(acrylic acid) and poly(styrene sulfonate) [3]. Conversely, at a lower
358 pH, the poly(acrylic acid) did not undergo ionization, resulting in the occurrence of
359 phase separation. Previous studies indicate that natural polymers, which have a mutual
360 repulsion, can undergo segregative phase separation. This separation is more likely to
361 occur at higher pH levels.

362 **4.3 Ionic strength**

363 Several investigations have recorded the impact of ionic strength on the segregative
364 phase separation of natural polymers. In this setting, salts are often distributed evenly
365 between phases to ensure a balanced chemical and electrical potential. Although not
366 universally applicable, it is worth noting that higher ionic strength in a mixture of
367 polyelectrolytes can mitigate electrostatic effects. Additionally, polyelectrolytes with
368 the same charge may experience diminished repulsion, resulting in decreased chances
369 of separation or an increased concentration threshold required for separation to take
370 place [59]. When polyelectrolytes and uncharged polymers are combined, the addition
371 of salts can help address problems associated with electroneutrality. This is because salt

372 ions can reduce the density of charges and weaken polymer-polymer interactions due
373 to the shielding of charged groups [69, 70].

374 Bahraseman et al. [58] examined the correlation between the ionic strength and the
375 process of phase separation between gelatin (G) and tragacanth gum (TG). Significant
376 alterations in the performance of the G-TG system were detected in their assay system
377 when NaCl was introduced; this led to a substantial expansion of the two-phase regions.
378 Under these conditions, the TG-containing solution had a low volume fraction and
379 settled at the bottom of the test tubes, but the gelatin-containing solution had a higher
380 volume fraction and remained at the top of the tube. The presence of NaCl in this system
381 is believed to be responsible for the screening effects of the salt ions on the TG
382 backbone. As a result of this charge screening, the interactions between G-TG become
383 more dominant compared to the interactions between TG and water. This leads to a
384 decrease in the quality of the solvent, producing conditions that promote phase
385 separation. According to Yang et al. [71] lower salt concentrations hinder the process
386 of associative phase separation due to intermolecular repulsion and the resulting
387 elongation of chains. Other studies have also shown that the addition of small amounts
388 of salt can assist in balancing molecular complexes that lack electrical neutrality,
389 thereby partially facilitating electrostatic recombination and associative phase
390 separation [72]. According to a study, the existence of NaCl was enough to modify the
391 intramolecular electrostatic forces linked to β -lactoglobulin [73]. NaCl in this system
392 demonstrated charge-shielding properties that inhibited interactions between the
393 protein and oppositely charged dextran sulfate while promoting stronger molecular

394 associations between β -lactoglobulin molecules through charge and hydrophobic
395 interactions. Higher concentrations of NaCl in this system led to accelerated β -
396 lactoglobulin aggregation and phase separation. Several reports have demonstrated that
397 raising the salt concentration in a given system can reduce the strength of electrostatic
398 interactions. Therefore, higher salt concentrations usually do not promote phase
399 separation, except in situations where hydrophobic interactions are the main factor
400 influencing protein interactions between molecules [74, 75].

401 **4.4 Mixing ratio and macromolecule concentrations**

402 Segregative phase separation can be significantly affected by changes in mixing
403 ratios or macromolecule concentrations. A change in the mixing ratio can affect the
404 structures of complexes in a solution, the bonding between those complexes, and the
405 overall viscosity of the solution [76]. Phase separation is more likely to occur at unequal
406 mixing ratios and there is a positive correlation between macromolecule concentrations
407 and the incidence of phase separation [77, 78].

408 Antonov & Gonçalves [79] investigated the phase separation properties of gelatin (G)
409 and k-carrageenan. They found that the two biopolymers were compatible when the
410 total biopolymer concentration was below 0.2% (w/w). However, as the total
411 biopolymer concentration increased, they formed an increasingly water-insoluble
412 mixture. The extent to which charge is redundant in this particular context is ultimately
413 determined by complex mixture ratio values. The volume fraction of each phase
414 following the completion of phase separation can also be used to assess the results [60].

415 Bahraseman et al. [58] analyzed the phase separation of gelatin (G) and tragacanth gum

416 (TG). They found that after initially combining equal volumes of TG and G at various
417 mixing ratios, the volume fractions of the separated biopolymers were not equal. In
418 particular, the volume of the G-enriched phase was found to be greater than that of the
419 TG-enriched phase. This disparity in volume was observed to increase as the initial TG
420 concentration decreased, while the G concentration remained constant. Phase
421 separation occurs when the solvent is redistributed between biopolymers, and a higher
422 volume fraction is generally observed due to increased solvent absorption caused by
423 enhanced hydrophilicity. Segregative phase separation is typically favored by higher
424 polymer concentrations, although this is not always true because increased solution
425 viscosity might hinder this process. Thus, viscosity and thermodynamic forces must
426 both be considered when assessing the phase separation process. Concentrations that
427 accelerate phase separation emphasize the importance of thermodynamic forces above
428 viscosity-related forces. The decrease in the occurrence of phase separation, despite
429 increasing concentrations, can be attributed to the predominance of viscosity-related
430 forces [80, 81].

431 **4.5 Molecular weight**

432 The molecular weight directly influences the process of segregative phase separation.
433 The relative molecular weights of the polymers are considered to be an essential factor
434 in the thermodynamics, kinetics, and morphology of polymer blends [82]. Jiang et al.
435 investigated the impact of molecular weight on the kinetics of phase separation in Poly
436 (methyl methacrylate) (PMMA)/Poly (styrene-co-acrylonitrile) (SAN) copolymers
437 [62]. It was observed that an increase in the molecular weight of PMMA corresponds

438 to a decrease in miscibility and an acceleration of the phase separation phenomenon. A
439 study conducted by Ott et al. examined the impact of molecular weight on the phase
440 separation behavior of the poly(vinyl alcohol)/poly(4-styrene sulfonic acid) system [61].
441 It was discovered that increasing the molecular weight of the polymers, while keeping
442 a constant ratio between the monomers of polymer A and polymer B, leads to phase
443 separation in smaller particles with a more prominent effect. It has been extensively
444 documented that an increase in molecular weight favors the occurrence of segregative
445 phase separation.

446

447 **5 Applications**

448 After the incidence of segregative phase separation, the resultant individual phases
449 are enriched for particular macromolecules while containing low levels of other
450 macromolecules. By modulating the mixing ratio of the utilized natural polymers, it is
451 possible to control the degree of phase separation, yielding different upper and lower
452 phase volumes and altering the makeup of each phase to some degree. Substances with
453 a greater molecular weight tend to remain in one phase, whereas those with a reduced
454 molecular weight undergo molecular fractionation simultaneously with the segregative
455 phase separation process [39, 83]. The application of segregative phase separation is
456 detailed in Table 2.

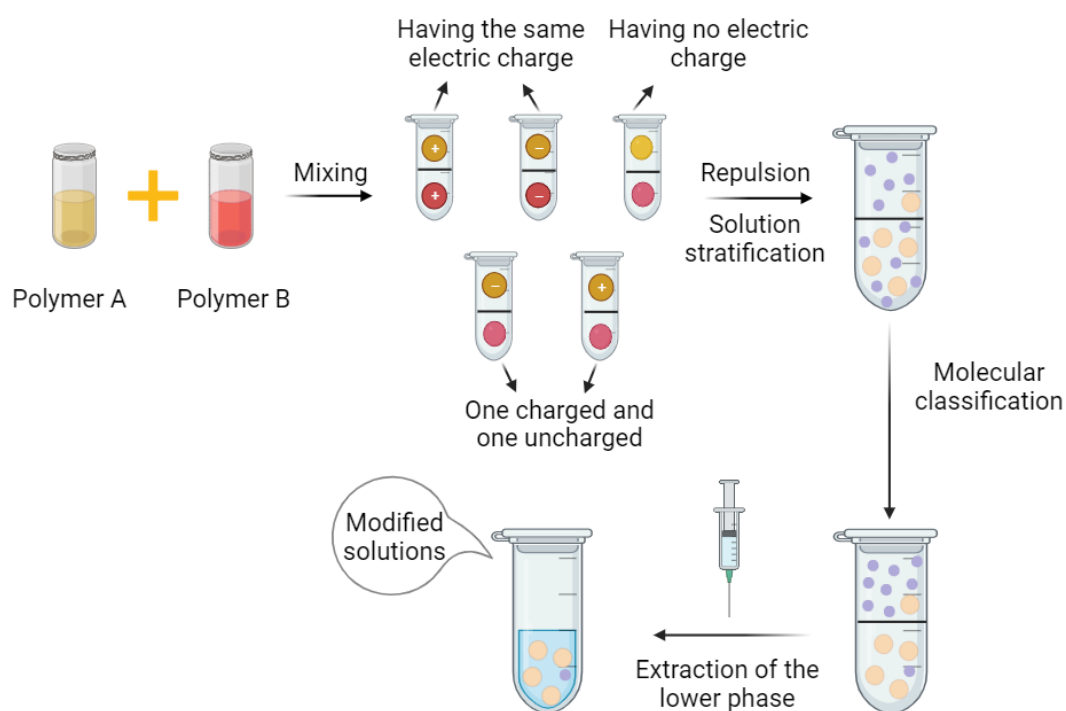
457

Table 2: Application Summary for segregative Phase Separatio.

Application	approach	Reference
Polymer separation and purification	As molecular grading occurs, small molecules move into another phase, while large molecules tend to remain in their phase. Segregative phase separation occurs as the molecules are separated and purified.	[54, 84, 85]
Design of food microstructural properties	Segregative phase separation between natural macromolecules and transformation of molecular conformations can enrich the structure of food systems	[86-88]
Improve food quality	The molecular grading induced by segregative phase separation can prolong the storage duration or enhance the emulsification and gel stability of a given food product.	[89, 90]

459 As illustrated in Fig. 3, thermodynamic immiscibility can be achieved by combining
460 two or more natural polymer solutions with comparable charge levels, no charge levels,
461 or one charged and one uncharged solutions. Repulsive forces will cause the solution
462 to separate into phases segregatively if the mixing concentration of the two solutions
463 exceeds their respective critical concentrations. Segregative phase separation-related
464 molecular fractionation causes smaller molecules in a given phase to move to a separate
465 phase while the larger molecules remain in the initial phase. The process of molecular
466 classification can modify the characteristics of natural polymer solutions, allowing for
467 the extraction of enhanced natural polymers that possess superior properties. These
468 modified polymers can be utilized in the advancement of the food industry [91, 92].

469 The food industry can benefit from the advantageous properties of segregative phase
470 separation to regulate the composition of food products and enhance their overall
471 quality[93, 94].



472

473 **Fig. 3.** An overview of segregative phase separation under repulsive forces.

474 5.1 Polymer separation and purification

475 Segregation phase separation often coincides with molecular fractionation. Different
476 polymers are ultimately enriched in distinct phases as a result of osmotic pressure-
477 induced phase transitions between molecules in a mixed solution. Specific substances
478 of interest can be efficiently separated and purified by employing this method [84].
479 After two solutions are combined, a layering phenomenon takes place, which is
480 subsequently influenced by segregative phase separation-induced molecular
481 fractionation. This modification impacts both the properties of the observed layer and
482 the entire mixed solution.

483 Applying segregative phase separation for the separation and purification of
484 particular substances in the food industry can improve the properties of associated
485 complexes, thereby yielding foods of superior quality. Mao et al. [85] examined the
486 process of segregative phase separation between gum arabic (GA) and sugar beet pectin
487 (SBP). They found that this process leads to the transfer of lower molecular weight
488 glycoprotein and arabinogalactan compounds from the GA phase to the SBP phase,
489 while higher molecular weight arabinogalactan-protein (AGP) remains in the GA phase.
490 AGP plays a crucial role in the process of emulsifying GA, leading to the formation of
491 GA with exceptional emulsification capabilities through a phase separation process. de
492 Amarante et al. [54] aimed to utilize molecular fractionation to modify the structural
493 characteristics of quinoa protein isolate (QPI) by combining QPI with maltodextrin.
494 Their objective was to establish effective methods for substituting animal protein with
495 QPI. However, the findings of these analyses indicate that developing plant-based
496 products with reliable properties may present other obstacles that need to be addressed.

497 **5.2 Design of food microstructural properties**

498 The process of segregative phase separation of natural biopolymers can significantly
499 influence the macroscopic structural properties of foods, hence affecting the taste,
500 sensory qualities, and overall quality of the food products. The phase separation
501 processes, influenced by the concentrations and ratios of natural polymers, will
502 ultimately affect the microstructure of the mixed system, resulting in foods with distinct
503 structural and nutritional properties [86].

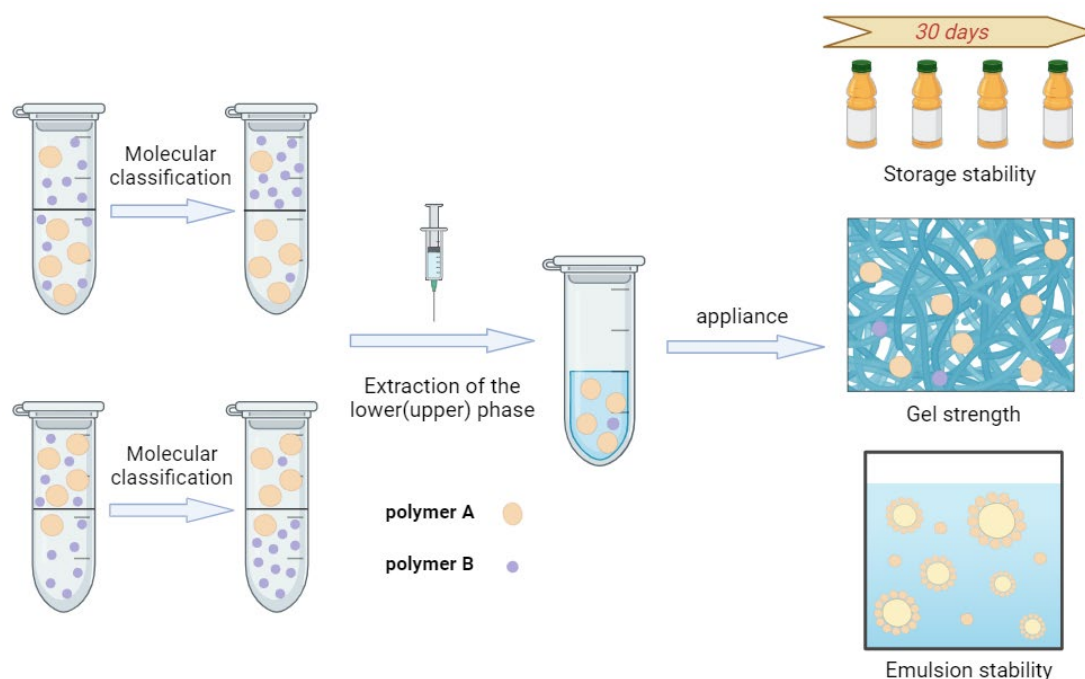
504 Wassén et al. [87] examined the combination of gellan gum and whey protein isolate

505 to assess how confinement affects the rate at which the compounds separate and the
506 structure of the resulting compounds. They discovered that changing the proportion of
507 these two polymers led to significant changes in the microstructural properties of the
508 resulting mixture. The microstructures found in large droplets were similar to those in
509 bulk materials, but a core-shell structure was detected in the microstructures of small
510 droplets. This highlights the impact of different levels of phase separation on the
511 properties of natural polymers. The phenomenon of phase separation frequently plays
512 a role in inducing diverse phase transitions and alterations in the molecular
513 conformations of these substances, including gelation and liquid crystal transitions [88,
514 95]. By coupling phase separation with these transitions, it is possible to enhance the
515 structural properties of food in a controlled manner, thereby facilitating the
516 development of a wider range of functional food products.

517 **5.3 Improve food quality**

518 Segregative phase separation, when appropriately applied, can extend the shelf life
519 or improve the emulsification and gel stability of a certain food product. Under acidic
520 conditions, the negatively charged groups of polysaccharides can interact with
521 positively charged residues of enzymes, causing the enzymes to undergo
522 conformational changes [90]. Many polysaccharides can operate as competitive
523 inhibitors of enzyme activity. The addition of ionic polymers can often deactivate
524 enzymes in food, hence extending its shelf life [89]. Fig. 4 provides a comprehensive
525 explanation of the procedure for enhancing the quality of food products via segregative
526 phase separation. As shown in the figure, molecular classification occurs after the

527 extraction of modified polymers, which have many applications in improving the
528 storage stability of food products, improving gel strength, and improving the stability
529 of emulsions.



530

531 **Fig. 4.** Schematic overview of the process of molecular classification.

532 The authors of a previous analysis on the phase separation of k-carrageenan and whey
533 protein isolate mixtures determined that the concentrations of salt and k-carrageenan
534 influenced the ultimate structure of the resulting gel. The products exhibited a range of
535 microstructural conformations, from granular to stranded [39]. Phase separation
536 contributed to increased local protein concentrations at low k-carrageenan
537 concentrations, which resulted in the dispersion of k-carrageenan-enriched droplets
538 within a continuous proteinaceous matrix. This property enhanced the rigidity and
539 strength of the resulting gel. However, as the concentration of k-carrageenan increased,
540 the resulting gel became more stiffer, less deformable, and weaker. This indicates that
541 phase separation could impact the structural characteristics of this prepared gel. Mao et

542 al. [85] reported comparable enhancements in emulsion stability by using gum Arabic
543 (GA) with segregative phase separation into an emulsion. The process of segregative
544 phase separation can significantly affect the texture of food, which has important
545 implications for the preparation of oil-free and low-calorie emulsions.

546

547 **6 Conclusions and Outlook**

548 Since the initial introduction of the concept of liquid-liquid phase separation for
549 biological macromolecules, this topic has attracted substantial research and industrial
550 interest. Phase separation effectively combines various physiological processes within
551 the context of the distinctive organizational characteristics of biopolymers, offering a
552 more comprehensive approach to investigating and implementing biological processes
553 of interest. Segregative phase separation is a common process found in natural polymers.
554 It leads to the formation of molecular classifications, which can be utilized to develop
555 well-designed food structures and produce high-quality functional foods with enhanced
556 flavor. This article offers a comprehensive explanation of the theoretical and
557 mechanical foundations underlying the occurrence of segregative phase separation. The
558 efficacy of this separation process can be influenced by various characteristics of the
559 mixed solution, such as its pH, ionic strength, molecular weight, and temperature.
560 Additionally, the mixing ratio and concentrations of natural polymers present in the
561 solution can also have an impact. Furthermore, it describes the application of
562 segregative phase separation in the food industry

563 Despite significant advancements in research concerning the application of

564 segregative phase separation in the food industry in recent years, there are still several
565 obstacles that necessitate further investigation. The separation process is significantly
566 impacted by alterations in internal parameters; therefore, it is critical to establish
567 particular conditions that permit the greatest molecular fractionation of the segregative
568 phase. Simultaneously, the degree and state of segregative phase separation that takes
569 place among various natural polymers differ, posing a challenge in identifying polymers
570 whose enhanced properties will contribute more value to the food industry.

571 The development and implementation of segregative phase separation have led to its
572 utilization in microencapsulation, emulsion use, and bio-cells, which warrant further
573 comprehensive investigation. Efforts to further apply segregative phase separation in
574 the food industry have the potential to enable the design of novel functional foods and
575 to further enhance the properties of extant foods, highlighting this as a major focus for
576 future research.

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584

585 **Conflict of Interest**

586 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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