

KORESPONDENSI PAPER

JUDUL : Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D as Nutraceutical in Type 2 Diabetes: A Review

JURNAL : Open Access Macedonian Journal of Medical Sciences

STATUS : Scopus Q3 (0,26)

No	Aktivitas	Tanggal	Halaman
1	Submission Artikel	22 Maret 2022	2-11
2	Pengiriman Hasil Review	12 April 2022	12
3	Revisi Artikel	16 Mei 2022	13-33
4	Accepted Artikel	17 Mei 2022	34
5	Galley Proof	3 Juni 2022	35
6	Artikel Published	11 Juli 2022	36
7	Artikel Final	Vol.10, No.F(2022): 427-436	37-47

Submission Artikel

**Liprotides : Nanocarriers System for
Vitamin D3 as Nutraceutical ini Type 2 Diabetes**

Reza Achmad Maulana¹, Faizah Fulyani², Gemala Anjani^{1*}

¹ *Department of Nutrition Science, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Indonesia*

² *Department of Medicine, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Indonesia*

*Corresponding Author: Gemala Anjani

Reza Achmad Maulana; rezaamaulana13@gmail.com; ORCID 0000-0003-1404-8913

Faizah Fulyani; f.fulyani@fk.undip.ac.id; ORCID 0000-0003-3143-2941

Gemala Anjani; gemaanjani@gmail.com; ORCID 0000-0002-7774-7693

Funding: Indonesian Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology

Competing Interest: The authors have declared that no competing interest exist

Liprotides : Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D3 as Nutraceutical in Type 2 Diabetes

Abstract

Incidence of diabetes are common among population around the world. Diabetes may lead to other complication and increasing morbidity and mortality. Many ways have been done to treat and prevent the development of diabetes. In addition of conventional pharmacotherapy, therapeutic therapy shown good opportunity to maintain and improve diabetic conditions. Vitamin D3 is known as nutraceutical and has good opportunity to develop the medication of type 2 diabetes. In another way, vitamin D3 naturally easy to damage by environmental condition. To overcome this weakness, researcher around the world have developed the method for protecting unstable compound as vitamin D3 with encapsulation. Liprotide is one of the various materials which can be used for encapsulation. Combination of lipid and protein molecules is expected to be a carrier and protector of vitamin D3 in gastrointestinal system. Here we review the research advances of liprotide as nanocarriers and vitamin D3 as nutraceuticals to discuss in applied on type 2 diabetes.

Keyword : Liprotides, Vitamin D, Diabetes Mellitus, Encapsulation

Introduction

Diabetes is a major worldwide health problem that increasing every year. Data from International Diabetes Federation (IDF) in 2019 show 9,3% world population aged 20-79 years old had diabetes. Indonesia get 1st ranks country with diabetes in Southeast Asia with 10,7 million diabetic people [1]. The Indonesian Basic Health Research (RISKERDAS) in 2018 showed the prevalence of diabetes in Indonesia was 2% in the population aged >15years [2]. Increasing number of diabetes influenced by vitamin D deficiency. Vitamin D is known has positive effect in diabetes, but the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency shows the large number. Many countries around the world report the incidence of vitamin D deficiency. United States and Europe show 5,9% and 13% population has vitamin D deficiency [3]. In Indonesia 45,1% children aged 1-18 years and 82% productive age woman have vitamin D deficiency [4].

Vitamin D has significant role in diabetes to maintain blood glucose tolerance [5], decrease insulin resistance [6], and as a gene transcription factor [7]. These fat-soluble vitamins can be obtained from food intake and formed by the body but have low bioavailability. Food sources of vitamin D is not much and the vitamin D content in foodstuffs is low [8]. The nature of vitamin D is easily to damage by heat, light, oxidation, and acid. That thing made the bioavailability of consumed vitamin D is low [9,10]. One of the methods to maintain vitamin D bioavailability is encapsulation. The method has function as a carrier and protector agent of vitamin D in gastrointestinal tract.

There are various many ways in application of encapsulation method, one of which is using liprotides. Liprotides is a component that composed from complex molecule of lipid and proteins. This biomolecule has potential effect as a nanocarrier of nutrients as vitamin D. The structure of Liprotide consist of a core and a shell. Core structure of liprotide system composed by lipid molecule and the shell structure composed by protein molecules that partially denatured [11]. There is various biomolecules types of

lipid and protein to form lipotide system, but combination form of oleic acid and α -Lactalbumin (OA- α -La) and oleic acid and β -Lactoglobulin (OA- β -Lg) show high encapsulation efficiency [12]. Protein molecule of α -Lactalbumin binding vitamin D through hydrogen bonds, hydrophobic bonds, and van der Waals bonds [13]. β -Lactoglobulin molecules bind to fatty acid molecules through hydrogen and van der Waals bonds [14]. Oleic acid as lipid molecules can bind the vitamin D through hydrophobic bonds and bind lipid molecules through hydrogen and van der Waals bonds [15].

Characteristics of Gastrointestinal in Diabetes

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic disease characterized by disturbances in carbohydrate, fat and protein metabolism. Common symptoms of this disease are polydipsia, polyuria, polyphagia, and weight loss. This disease involves the endocrine hormones of the pancreas (insulin and glucagon) and is associated with impaired physiological function of insulin. There are two types of DM disease based on endogenous insulin secretion, Insulin Dependent Diabetes Mellitus (IDDM) or commonly known as type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) and Non-Insulin Dependent Diabetes Mellitus (NIDDM), commonly known as type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) [16]. In worldwide, 90-95% of diabetics people have T2DM. The increasing prevalence of T2DM going rapidly influenced by sedentary lifestyle such as low physical activity, high intake of fast food and sweet sugar beverage, and low intake of fruits and vegetables [1]. Overweight, obesity or central obesity, and hyperglycemia in pregnancy are factors that influence the incidence of insulin resistance in people with T2DM [17].

The condition of diabetes affects various physiological functions of the body, including the digestive tract. Some problems in the digestive tract that are often found in patients with diabetes are a longer gastric emptying time to the accompanying diarrhea problem. The physiological functions of digestive tract, starts from the esophagus to the anus will changes in a person with diabetes. Vital function of the digestive tract to maintain life will be disrupted. The condition of diabetes will affect the ability of the gastrointestinal organs both directly and indirectly. Obstacles in the process of swallowing, movement of organs, breakdown and absorption of nutrients, to the process of removing residual waste will affect long-term health. Various digestive problems such as gastro-esophageal reflux (GERD), nausea, vomiting, bloating, diarrhea to constipation can accompany diabetic patients that will worsen the condition if not treated immediately [18]. By reducing the burden of the stomach and mild method of giving oral therapy, diabetics person will be easier to carry out consumption therapy. In addition, proper and efficient administration of nutraceuticals will reduce unwanted signs and symptoms in undergoing therapy.

Vehicles for Delivery Nanocarriers System

Liprotides are complex molecules composed from fat (lipid) molecules and protein molecules. Protein have a role as a shell while fat as a core. The core-shell structure formed from the lipotide complex can be used for encapsulate other molecules. The primary function of the protein coat is to increase the solubility of fatty acids. This ability makes liprotides potential to carry hydrophobic molecules in a hydrophilic environment. Another function of the protein coat is to carry and deliver fatty acids to target cells or hydrophobic surfaces. Liprotides can stabilize small aliphatic molecules such as retinol and tocopherols by inserting the molecules into the fatty acid core [19].

Liprotides can protect tocopherols better than tocopherol-binding proteins such as beta lactoglobulin and protein transfer α -tocopherol. Liprotides can be used to stabilize and deliver a wide variety of hydrophobic small molecules with potential health benefits [14]. In general, liprotides can increase the stability and solubility of molecules to be able to form complexes [20]. Liprotides can easily deliver the carried compound into the membrane target, but can decrease the stability of the complex matrix under various conditions. Liprotides consisting of α -lactalbumin and oleic acid can dissolve vitamin D, increasing vitamin D stability against UV rays by 9 times, and increase the stability of vitamin D at 37°C up to 1,000 times [20]. α -lactalbumin can interact strongly with monolayer oleic acid by diffusion and absorption on the surface, incorporation with films, and protein-lipid complexes between molecules by hydrophobic interactions [21]. Liprotides are able to release vitamin D by transferring vitamin D to phospholipid vesicles. Vitamin D encapsulated by liprotides using α -lactalbumin-oleic acid and β -lactoglobulin can increase the availability of vitamin D in clear beverage products with neutral pH [20].

α -lactalbumin

α -lactalbumin is one of the whey proteins in cow's milk that can be a good candidate for vitamin encapsulation. α -lactalbumin is able to bind hydrophobic ligands such as retinol and hydrophobic peptides. Bio macro-molecules such as proteins have potential opportunity for vitamin encapsulation. Based on research conducted by Delevari et al α -lactalbumin has one binding site for vitamin D3 [13]. When hydrophobic interactions formed, the conformation of the protein was changes and the hydrophobic surface of α -lactalbumin increases. The secondary structure of α -lactalbumin is changed in the presence of vitamin D3. α -lactalbumin is a small globular protein with 123 amino acids and molecular mass of 14.2 kDa. α -lactalbumin is the predominant protein in human milk. In cow's milk, the concentration of α -lactalbumin is 1-1.5 g/L (3.4% total protein). The natural structure of bovine α -lactalbumin consists of a large helical domain and a small beta layer domain, both of them are connected by a loop. α -lactalbumin has a hydrophobic site and made α -lactalbumin to have one binding site to bind other compounds, like vitamin D3 [13]. Solubility of α -lactalbumin can be affected by certain condition of pH, temperature, and ionic state [22]. α -lactalbumin is relatively resistant to protease digestive enzymes (pepsin and trypsin) because of the globular and dense structure [23]. Whey protein isolate contains 17% of α -lactalbumin and α -lactalbumin contains 48 mg of tryptophan and 48 mg of cysteine per gram of protein [24]. Tryptophan in α -lactalbumin can increase the tryptophan levels in the blood that can help synthesis and increase the availability of serotonin in the brain. α -lactalbumin also accelerate wound healing [25], for recovery from various types of sports [26].

β -lactoglobulin

β -lactoglobulin is a component that found in milk whey and soluble in salt solutions. β -lactoglobulin belongs to the lipocalin protein group [27] and has been shown to bind various hydrophobic molecules like fatty acids [28], retinol, and vitamin D [29]. β -lactoglobulin can bind fatty acids such as oleic acid and linoleic acid. The research

showed that the complex of β -lactoglobulin and oleic acid could increase the tertiary structure. β -lactoglobulins has more binding sites for oleic acid more than linoleic acid that interacting with van der Waals bonds and hydrogen bonds [14]. Encapsulation of vitamin D₃ with β -lactoglobulin with lysozyme modification could increasing the bioavailability, resistance to pH, and solubility [30]. β -lactoglobulin has 162 amino acid residues and molecular weight 18.4 kDa. β -lactoglobulin is the main component of whey protein in milk that can freeze and denature when milk was boils. After denaturation, β -lactoglobulin forms a film layer on the milk surface. It happen because β -lactoglobulin protein molecule can form a transparent gel when heated for a long time at low pH and low ionic strength [30]. β -lactoglobulin is known as an allergen, the manufacturers need to prove the presence or absence of β -lactoglobulin content to ensure that the labeling meets the requirements. Food testing laboratories can use enzyme immunosorbent assay methods to identify and measure β -lactoglobulin in food products. Polymerization of β -lactoglobulin by microbial transglutaminase reduces its allergenicity in children and adults with immunoglobulin E (IgE)-mediated cow's milk allergy [31].

Oleic Acid

Oleic acid is an unsaturated fatty acid that is easily obtained and can be extracted from several different sources, one of which is olive oil. Apart from olive oil (55-80%), these fatty acids are also contained in industrial waste from palm oil, sunflower oil, rapeseed oil, and grape seed oil. The availability of oleic acid in nature is very abundant and is commonly used in the manufacture of surfactants, soaps, plasticizers, and food and drug emulsifiers [32]. This acid is composed of 18 C atoms with one double bond between the 9th and 10th C atoms. The oleic acid structure has two functional groups, alkenes and carboxylic acids. Presence of alkenes with Z isomer, the bond between oleic acid molecules becomes stronger and made oleic acid is in liquid phase at room temperature. In polar solvents, oleic acid forms a bilayer structure [32]. Oleic acid, as part of liposomes, has limitations in its use due to the tendency to break down and causing release. One method to increase its stability is by coating with protein to form a complex called a lipotide [33].

Vitamin D3 as Nutraceutical in Diabetes

Vitamin D is a non-essential fat-soluble vitamin that has a huge and important role in calcium homeostasis [34,35]. Structurally, vitamin D is a derivative of steroid compounds in the body [36]. Vitamin D can be obtained from food intake and supplementation. It can be activated through exposure to sunlight in the form of vitamin D₃. However, the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency worldwide is still high [1]. Vitamin D supplementation can be a solution to sufficient vitamin D requirement, but it still does not cover a wide population. Vitamin D fortification is an alternative to reduce vitamin D deficiency that has potential affect to cover a wider population and potentially increase vitamin D intake. The form of vitamin D used for fortification is vitamin D₂ or vitamin D₃ [37]. Fortification of the active form of vitamin D (vitamin D₃) is considered efficient in the supplying requirement of vitamin D. Addition of vitamin D₃ to food has shown an improvement of blood glucose and insulin status in diabetes mellitus [38]. Vitamin D deficiency has been associated with decreasing of insulin release, increasing of insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Vitamin D deficiency

causes dysregulation of glucose metabolism by interfering with glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in the hyperglycemic phase [39]. Vitamin D intake has an effect on insulin resistance and positively correlated with insulin secretion in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. Supplementation of orally high-dose cholecalciferol (10,000 IU per day for 4 weeks) as a replacement dose showed an increase insulin sensitivity of 37% in subjects with fasting blood glucose disorder [40]. Study in diabetic wistar rats was proven that fortification of vitamin D3 in foodstuffs can significantly reduce blood sugar levels [38]. This thing was happened because increasing of serum vitamin D concentration has a positive effect on insulin homeostasis [41].

Systemic inflammation is one of the causes of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and insulin resistance occurs in it. Vitamin D has an anti-inflammatory effect and it is useful to overcome the inflammation. In the metabolic process, vitamin D3 plays a role in preventing and improving the status of diabetes mellitus. Vitamin D can provide benefits for several disease prevention, such as in multiple sclerosis, cancer, bacterial infections [42], and diabetes [40]. Vitamin D is maintaining glucose tolerance through insulin secretion and sensitivity [5]. Vitamin D3 has function in insulin synthesis and secretion by modulating the intracellular calcium homeostatic system. Vitamin D is protective against insulin resistance because it has anti-inflammatory effects. Pancreatic beta cells have a specific receptor for 1,25(OH)₂D that regulates insulin secretion. Vitamin D also stimulate insulin receptor expression and trigger insulin response to glucose. In other way, vitamin D provide sufficient intracellular cytosolic calcium for insulin secretion through regulation of calcium flux in cell membrane [6]. The metabolism can be concluded that vitamin D has a positive effect on insulin resistance [43].

Future Perspective

Design and development of nanoparticle-based nutraceuticals therapy as an alternative treatment for degenerative diseases has shown good results. Vitamin D is known have a positive effect to improving diabetes status and used for the alternative therapies for diabetic patients. However, there are many obstacles, both in terms of absorption and bioavailability of Vitamin D. The nano-encapsulation method has a chance to increase the bioavailability of vitamin D. Nutraceuticals therapy using vitamin D3 encapsulated with lipotide could be a new alternative in oral therapy of diabetes type 2.

References

1. IDF Diabetes Atlas [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2021 Apr 25]. Available from: <https://idf.org/e-library/epidemiology-research/diabetes-atlas.html>
2. Riskesdas K. Main Results of Basic Health Research (RISKESDAS). Vol. 44, Indonesian Health Ministry. 2018.
3. Amrein K, Scherkl M, Hoffmann M, Neuwersch-Sommeregger S, Köstenberger M, Tmava Berisha A, et al. Vitamin D deficiency 2.0: an update on the current status worldwide. *Eur J Clin Nutr* [Internet]. 2020 Jan 20; Available from: <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41430-020-0558-y>
4. Divakar U, Sathish T, Soljak M, Bajpai R, Dunleavy G, Visvalingam N, et al. Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency and its associated work-related factors among indoor workers in a multi-ethnic southeast asian country. *Int J Environ Res Public*

Health. 2020;17(1):1–10.

5. Ashraf A, Alvarez JA. Role of vitamin D in insulin secretion and insulin sensitivity for glucose homeostasis. *Int J Endocrinol*. 2010;2010(March 2009).
6. Joanna Mitri and Anastassios G. Pittas. Vitamin D and Diabetes. *Contemp Endocrinol*. 2018;43(1):135–49.
7. Christakos S, Dhawan P, Verstuyf A, Verlinden L, Carmeliet G. Vitamin D: Metabolism, molecular mechanism of action, and pleiotropic effects. *Physiol Rev*. 2015;96(1):365–408.
8. Cribb VL, Northstone K, Hopkins D, Emmett PM. Sources of vitamin D and calcium in the diets of preschool children in the UK and the theoretical effect of food fortification. *J Hum Nutr Diet*. 2015;28(6):583–92.
9. Carolyn D. Berdanier JZ. *Advanced Nutrition Macronutrients, Micronutrients, and Metabolism*. CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group; 1995.
10. Hasanvand E, Fathi M, Bassi A, Javanmard M AR. Food and Bioproducts Processing Novel Starch Based Nanocarrier for Vitamin D Fortification of Milk. *J Food Bioprod Process*. 2015;96:264–77.
11. Sørensen H V., Pedersen JN, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Tailoring thermal treatment to form lipotide complexes between oleic acid and different proteins. *Biochim Biophys Acta - Proteins Proteomics* [Internet]. 2017;1865(6):682–93. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbapap.2017.03.011>
12. Nareswara, A.R., Ayustaningwarno, F, Nur Afifah, D, Fulyani, F., Ohta, A. Anjani G. Encapsulation Efficiency of Vitamin D3 Encapsulated Lipotides In gastro Intestinal Model (Unpublished). *Food Res*. 2020;
13. Delavari B, Saboury AA, Atri MS, Ghasemi A, Bigdeli B, Khammari A, et al. Alpha-lactalbumin: A new carrier for vitamin D3 food enrichment. *Food Hydrocoll*. 2015;45:124–31.
14. B. Fang, M. Zhang, M. Tian FZR. Self-assembled β -lactoglobulin-oleic acid and β -lactoglobulin-linoleic acid complexes with antitumor activities.pdf. *J. Dairy Sci*; 2015. p. 1–10.
15. Frislev HS, Jessen CM, Oliveira CLP, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Lipotides made of α -lactalbumin and cis fatty acids form core-shell and multi-layer structures with a common membrane-targeting mechanism. *Biochim Biophys Acta - Proteins Proteomics*. 2016;1864(7):847–59.
16. Nugroho AE. Review : Animal Models Of Diabetes Mellitus : Pathology And Mechanism Of Some Diabetogenics. *Biodiversitas J Biol Divers*. 2006;7(4):378–82.
17. Diabetes Care. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* [Internet]. 2014;37(SUPPL.1):81–90. Available from: https://care.diabetesjournals.org/content/37/Supplement_1/S81
18. Chinmay S. Marathe, Christopher K. Rayner, Tongzhi Wu, Karen L. Jones MH. *Gastrointestinal Disorders in Diabetes - Endotext - NCBI Bookshelf* [Internet]. 2020 [cited 2021 Dec 13]. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK553219/>

19. Kaspersen JD, Pedersen JN, Hansted JG, Nielsen SB, Sakthivel S, Wilhelm K, et al. Generic structures of cytotoxic lipotides: Nano-sized complexes with oleic acid cores and shells of disordered proteins. *ChemBioChem*. 2014;15(18):2693–702.
20. Pedersen JN, Frislev HS, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Using protein-fatty acid complexes to improve vitamin D stability. *J Dairy Sci* [Internet]. 2016;99(10):7755–67. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.2016-11343>
21. Dopierała K, Krajewska M, Prochaska K. Binding of α -lactalbumin to oleic acid monolayer and its relevance to formation of HAMLET-like complexes. *Int Dairy J* [Internet]. 2019;89:96–104. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idairyj.2018.08.017>
22. Tavares T, Malcata FX. Whey and Whey Powders: Protein Concentrates and Fractions [Internet]. 1st ed. *Encyclopedia of Food and Health*. Elsevier Ltd.; 2015. 506–513 p. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384947-2.00748-0>
23. Kamau SM, Cheison SC, Chen W, Liu XM, Lu RR. Alpha-lactalbumin: Its production technologies and bioactive peptides. *Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf*. 2010;9(2):197–212.
24. Layman DK, Lönnerdal B, Fernstrom JD. Applications for α -lactalbumin in human nutrition. *Nutr Rev*. 2018;76(6):444–60.
25. Minet-Ringuet J, Le Ruyet PM, Tomé D, Even PC. A tryptophan-rich protein diet efficiently restores sleep after food deprivation in the rat. *Behav Brain Res*. 2004;152(2):335–40.
26. Jäger R, Kerksick CM, Campbell BI, Cribb PJ, Wells SD, Skwiat TM, et al. International Society of Sports Nutrition Position Stand: Protein and exercise. *J Int Soc Sports Nutr*. 2017;14(1):1–25.
27. Rovoli, Magda, Lindsay Sawyer GK. Non natural fatty acids binding affinity to bovine β -lactoglobulin: Crystallographic and thermodynamics studies. [Internet]. 2013. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/275230346_Non_natural_fatty_acids_binding_affinity_to_bovine_b-lactoglobulin_Crystallographic_and_thermodynamic_studies
28. Le Maux S, Bouhallab S, Giblin L, Brodkorb A, Croguennec T. Bovine β -lactoglobulin/fatty acid complexes: Binding, structural, and biological properties. Vol. 94, *Dairy Science and Technology*. 2014. p. 409–26.
29. Fatoumata Diarrassouba a, Ghislain Garrait b, Gabriel Remondetto c, Pedro Alvarez a, Eric Beyssac b MS. Increased stability and protease resistance of the β -lactoglobulin vitamin D3 complex.pdf. journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/foodchem Increased; 2013.
30. Abbasi A, Emam-Djomeh Z, Mousavi MAE, Davoodi D. Stability of vitamin D3 encapsulated in nanoparticles of whey protein isolate. *Food Chem* [Internet]. 2014;143:379–83. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.08.018>
31. Olivier CE, dos Santos Lima RP, Pinto DG, dos Santos RAPG, da Silva GKM, Lorena SLS, et al. In search of a tolerance-induction strategy for cow's milk allergies: Significant reduction of beta-lactoglobulin allergenicity via transglutaminase/cysteine polymerization. *Clinics*. 2012;67(10):1171–9.

32. Soriguer F, Esteve I, Rojo-Martínez G, Ruiz de Adana MS, Dobarganes MC, García-Almeida JM, et al. Oleic acid from cooking oils is associated with lower insulin resistance in the general population (Pizarra study). *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2004;150(1):33–9.
33. Casbarra A, Birolo L, Infusini G, Dal Piaz F, Svensson M, Pucci P, et al. Conformational analysis of HAMLET, the folding variant of human α -lactalbumin associated with apoptosis. *Protein Sci*. 2004;13(5):1322–30.
34. Anjani G, Ohta A, Yasuhara K, Asakawa T. Solubilization of genistein by caseinate micellar system. *J Oleo Sci*. 2014;63(4):413–22.
35. Mahmoodani F, Perera CO, Abernethy G, Fedrizzi B, Chen H. Lipid oxidation and vitamin D3 degradation in simulated whole milk powder as influenced by processing and storage. *Food Chem [Internet]*. 2018;261(March):149–56. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.04.043>
36. Zenebe T, Ahmed N, Kabeta T, Kebede G. Review on Medicinal and Nutritional Values of Goat Milk. *Acad J Nutr*. 2014;3(3):30–9.
37. Cashman KD. Vitamin D: Dietary requirements and food fortification as a means of helping achieve adequate vitamin D status. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*. 2015;148:19–26.
38. Maulana RA, Afifah DNUR, Rustanti N, Anjani G, Panunggal B. Effect of Goat Milk Kefir Fortified with Vitamin D3 on Blood Glucose and Insulin in Rats. 2019;13(4):1272–5.
39. Park S, Kim DS, Kang S. Vitamin D deficiency impairs glucose-stimulated insulin secretion and increases insulin resistance by reducing PPAR- γ expression in nonobese Type 2 diabetic rats. Vol. 27, *Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry*. 2016. p. 257–65.
40. Mathieu C, Badenhop K. Vitamin D and type 1 diabetes mellitus: State of the art. *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2005;16(6):261–6.
41. Cardoso-Sánchez LI, Gómez-Díaz RA, Wachter NH. Vitamin D intake associates with insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes, but not in latent autoimmune diabetes in adults. *Nutr Res [Internet]*. 2015;35(8):689–99. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nutres.2015.05.019>
42. White JH. Vitamin D signaling, infectious diseases, and regulation of innate immunity. *Infect Immun*. 2008;76(9):3837–43.
43. Jafari T, Faghihimani E, Feizi A, Iraj B, Javanmard SH, Esmailzadeh A, et al. Effects of vitamin D-fortified low fat yogurt on glycemic status, anthropometric indexes, inflammation, and bone turnover in diabetic postmenopausal women: A randomised controlled clinical trial. *Clin Nutr [Internet]*. 2016;35(1):67–76. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2015.02.014>

Hasil Review

Compose

Inbox182

Starred

Snoozed

Important

Sent

Drafts54

Categories

More

Labels

[imap]/Archive

[imap]/Drafts

Notes

BackArchiveSpamDeleteMark as unreadSnoozeAdd to tasksMove to InboxLabelsMore25 of many

[OAMJMS] Editor DecisionInbox x

Katerina Spiroska via SFS - Journals (Scientific Foundation SPIROSKI - Journals), Skopje, Re...to me, Reza, FaizahApr 12, 2022, 5:08 PM

Gemala Anjani, Reza Achmad Maulana, Faizah Fulyani (Author):

We have reached a decision regarding your submission to Open Access Macedonian Journal of Medical Sciences, "Liprotides : Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D3 as Nutraceutical ini Type 2 Diabetes", Manuscript ID = OJS9507.

Our decision is: Revise your manuscript until May 16, 2022 and submit on the OAMJMS website.

Sincerely,
Prof. Dr Mirko Spiroski,
Editor-in-Chief, OAMJMS

Reviewer A:
Recommendation: Resubmit for Review

**Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D as Nutraceutical in Type 2 Diabetes:
A Review**

Reza Achmad Maulana¹, Faizah Fulyani², Gemala Anjani^{1*}

¹ *Department of Nutrition Science, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Indonesia*

² *Department of Medicine, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Indonesia*

*Corresponding Author: Gemala Anjani

Reza Achmad Maulana; rezaamaulana13@gmail.com; ORCID 0000-0003-1404-8913

Faizah Fulyani; f.fulyani@fk.undip.ac.id; ORCID 0000-0003-3143-2941

Gemala Anjani; gemaanjani@gmail.com; ORCID 0000-0002-7774-7693

Funding: Indonesian Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology

Competing Interest: The authors have declared that no competing interest exists

Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D as Nutraceutical in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus: A Review

Abstract

Incidences of diabetes are common among populations around the world. Diabetes may lead to other complications and increased morbidity and mortality. Many ways have been done to treat and prevent the development of diabetes. In addition to conventional pharmacotherapy, therapeutic therapy has shown good opportunities to maintain and improve diabetic conditions. Vitamin D is known as a nutraceutical and has a good opportunity to develop the medication for type 2 diabetes. The application of nanocarriers as a delivery system increases the bioavailability of vitamins, escalate cellular delivery, and optimizes the vitamin effect. By utilizing nanotechnology-based dietary supplements, the problem of vitamin administration, vitamin stability, absorption, and bioavailability will be resolved. In this review, we would try to compare the most relevant aspect of nanocarrier for vitamin D as a nutraceutical in type 2 diabetes.

Keywords: Nanocarriers, Vitamin D, Diabetes Mellitus, Encapsulation

Introduction

Diabetes is a major worldwide health problem that increasing every year. Data from International Diabetes Federation (IDF) in 2019 show that 9,3% world population aged 20-79 years old had diabetes. Indonesia gets 1st rank country with diabetes in Southeast Asia with 10,7 million diabetic people(1). The Indonesian Basic Health Research (RISKERDAS) in 2018 showed the prevalence of diabetes in Indonesia was 2% in the population aged >15years(2). The increasing number of diabetes is influenced by vitamin D deficiency. Patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) show lower levels of vitamin D compared with normal people(3). Vitamin D is known to have a positive effect on diabetes, but the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency shows a large number. Many countries around the world report the incidence of vitamin D deficiency. The United States and Europe show that 5,9% and 13% population have vitamin D deficiency(4). In Indonesia, 45,1% of children aged 1-18 years and 82% of productive-age women have vitamin D deficiency(5).

Vitamin D has a significant role in diabetes to maintain blood glucose tolerance(6), decrease insulin resistance(7), and as a gene transcription factor(8). This fat-soluble vitamin can be obtained from food intake and formed by the body but have low bioavailability. Food sources of vitamin D are not much and the vitamin D content in foodstuffs is low(9). The nature of vitamin D is easy to damage by heat, light, oxidation, and acid. That thing made the bioavailability of consumed vitamin D low(10,11). To overcome this issue, the application of nanotechnology-based dietary supplements

could be applied. Vitamin D encapsulation would maintain vitamin bioavailability. The encapsulation method has two functions, as a carrier and protector agent of vitamin D in the gastrointestinal tract.

The application of nanocarrier technology has provided many breakthroughs for the development of medicine around the world. When compared with the conventional method, the application of nanocarrier provides more advantages(12). Nanocarrier involved in drug and vitamin delivery show an increase in water solubility of water-insoluble substances, protecting against degradation from the environmental condition, and inactivation(13). The application of nanotechnology as a nanocarrier system must pay attention to many aspects. The nature and action of the carrier should be investigated when planning to apply as drug-delivery or vitamin delivery (14–16). The most important thing is the biocompatibility system of the nanocarrier. The system must be safe, non-toxic, and not trigger an immune reaction in the human body(17–19). The objective of this review is to highlight the recent update on the development of nanocarrier for vitamin D and the opportunity to be nutraceuticals in T2DM.

Diabetes Mellitus

Glucose is a product of carbohydrate metabolism. Blood glucose is a very important part of maintaining the body's physiological functions as a source of energy. Blood glucose levels rise after meals and are usually low in the morning and before meals. Blood glucose levels are maintained to maintain balance in the body. Blood glucose levels are regulated by the pancreas gland. When blood glucose levels drop, the pancreas releases glucagon, a hormone that targets liver cells, which are glycogen stores. With the help of the hormone glucagon, glycogen is converted into glucose in the liver (the process of glycogenolysis) and glucose is released into the bloodstream. In conditions of high blood glucose levels, the hormone insulin is released from the pancreas. The hormone insulin increases the transport of glucose from the circulation to the muscles and liver. In the liver, glucose is converted to glycogen (the process of glycogenesis). In normal conditions, the homeostasis of the blood glucose in circulation will be balanced, but it not going well in diabetes. In a diabetic person, the blood regulation will be disturbed and causing many defects in the body due to the complications.

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic disease characterized by disturbances in carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism. Common symptoms of this disease are polydipsia, polyuria, polyphagia, and weight loss. This disease involves the endocrine hormones of the pancreas (insulin and glucagon) and is associated with the impaired physiological function of insulin. There are two types of DM disease based on endogenous insulin secretion, Insulin Dependent Diabetes Mellitus (IDDM) or commonly known as type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), and Non-Insulin Dependent Diabetes Mellitus (NIDDM), commonly known as type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)(20). Worldwide, 90-95% of diabetics people have T2DM. The increasing prevalence of T2DM going rapidly influenced by sedentary lifestyles such as low physical activity, high intake of fast food and sweet sugar beverage, and low intake of fruits and vegetables(1,21). Overweight, obesity or central obesity, and hyperglycemia in

pregnancy are factors that influence the incidence of insulin resistance in people with T2DM(22).

Diabetes mellitus is a metabolic disease with the characteristic of insufficient insulin production or ineffective insulin physiological performance. Insulin is a key of the body to deliver blood glucose from circulation to the cell's target(1). T2DM is a metabolic disorder with the characteristic of insulin resistance, impaired insulin secretion, and increased glucose production. T2DM is preceded by abnormal sugar homeostases like impaired fasting glucose or impaired glucose tolerance(23). Insulin resistance (IR) is considered one of the mechanisms that developed T2DM. IR disrupts the glucose intake from blood circulation and is involved with the over-production of hepatic glucose(24). To lead to T2DM, the IR condition usually occurs over a long time. Due to the IR condition, the human body will compensate for homeostasis in the form of producing large amounts of insulin hormone. The long-term condition of insulin overproduction would lead to pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction due to systemic inflammation. The pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction is associated with beta-cell death(25).

The condition of diabetes affects various physiological functions of the body, including the digestive tract. Some problems in the digestive tract that are often found in patients with diabetes are a longer gastric emptying time to the accompanying diarrhea problem. The physiological functions of the digestive tract, starting from the esophagus to the anus will change in a person with diabetes. A vital function of the digestive tract to maintain life will be disrupted. The condition of diabetes will affect the ability of the gastrointestinal organs both directly and indirectly. Obstacles in the process of swallowing, movement of organs, breakdown and absorption of nutrients, to the process of removing residual waste will affect long-term health. Various digestive problems such as gastroesophageal reflux (GERD), nausea, vomiting, bloating, diarrhea to constipation can accompany diabetic patients which will worsen the condition if not treated immediately(26). By reducing the burden on the stomach and mild methods of giving oral therapy, diabetics person will be easier to carry out consumption therapy. In addition, proper and efficient administration of nutraceuticals will reduce unwanted signs and symptoms in undergoing therapy.

Vitamin D as Nutraceutical in Diabetes

Vitamin D is a non-essential fat-soluble vitamin that has a huge and important role in calcium homeostasis(27). Structurally, vitamin D is a derivative of steroid compounds in the body(28). Vitamin D can be obtained from food intake and supplementation. It can be activated through exposure to sunlight in the form of vitamin D3. The nature of vitamin D is easy to damage by heat, light, oxidation, and acid. That thing made the bioavailability of consumed vitamin D low(10,11). However, the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency worldwide is still high(1). Vitamin D supplementation can be a solution to sufficient vitamin D requirements, but it still does not cover a wide population. Vitamin D fortification is an alternative to reduce vitamin D deficiency that has the potential effect to cover a wider population and potentially increase vitamin D intake. The form of vitamin D used for fortification is vitamin D2 or vitamin D3(29). Fortification of the active form of vitamin D (vitamin D3) is considered efficient in the supplying

requirement of vitamin D. Addition of vitamin D3 to food has shown an improvement in blood glucose and insulin status in diabetes mellitus(30). Vitamin D deficiency has been associated with decreasing insulin release, increasing insulin resistance, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Vitamin D deficiency causes dysregulation of glucose metabolism by interfering with glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in the hyperglycemic phase(20). Vitamin D intake affects insulin resistance and is positively correlated with insulin secretion in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. Supplementation of orally high-dose cholecalciferol (10,000 IU per day for 4 weeks) as a replacement dose showed an increased insulin sensitivity of 37% in subjects with fasting blood glucose disorder(31). A study in diabetic Wistar rats has proven that fortification of vitamin D3 in foodstuffs can significantly reduce blood sugar levels(32). This thing happened because increasing serum vitamin D concentration has a positive effect on insulin homeostasis(33).

Systemic inflammation is one of the causes of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and insulin resistance occurs in it. Vitamin D has an anti-inflammatory effect and it is useful to overcome inflammation. In the metabolic process, vitamin D3 plays a role in preventing and improving the status of diabetes mellitus. Vitamin D can provide benefits for several disease prevention, such as multiple sclerosis, cancer, bacterial infections(34), and diabetes(35). Vitamin D is maintaining glucose tolerance through insulin secretion and sensitivity(6). Vitamin D3 has a function in insulin synthesis and secretion by modulating the intracellular calcium homeostatic system. Vitamin D is protective against insulin resistance because it has anti-inflammatory effects. Pancreatic beta cells have a specific receptor for 1,25(OH)₂D that regulates insulin secretion. Vitamin D also stimulates insulin receptor expression and triggers insulin response to glucose. In another way, vitamin D provides sufficient intracellular cytosolic calcium for insulin secretion through the regulation of calcium flux in the cell membrane(7). The metabolism can be concluded that vitamin D has a positive effect on insulin resistance(36).

Nanocarriers System

In simple terms, a nanocarrier is a nanoparticle that can be used as a transporter for therapeutic compounds or other compounds to their targets(37). The size of a nanocarrier compound has a diameter between 1-100 nanometers (nm)(38). In the application of nanocarriers for therapeutic substances, the nanoparticle size must be less than 200 nm because the microcapillaries in the human body are 200 nm(39). Nanocarrier in the therapeutic provides good biocompatibility as a safe medium for transporting the substance. The nanocarrier is inactive generally so it is regarded as a safe medium. The application of nanocarriers for drug transport shows that in circulation, nanocarriers have a long-term period and sustained release of drugs overcome the endosome-lysosome mechanism(40). The modification of the nanoparticle would affect the physicochemical properties of the nanocarriers like the surface, composition, as well as its shape, which can enhance their activity with decreased secondary effects(41). There are several unique features of the nanocarriers that have been known including Enhanced biodistribution and pharmacokinetics, enhanced stability, enhanced solubility, reduction in toxicity, and sustained-targeted drug delivery(42,43).

Encapsulation is a strategy that can be used to increase the bioavailability of a substance component. Encapsulation technology is carried out by packing solid, liquid, and gaseous materials in small closed capsules with a release that has been designed at a controlled rate within a certain period, through a trigger mechanism in the form of certain environmental factors such as temperature, enzymes, pH, or fermentation(44). The encapsulation technology coating a bioactive material is referred to as the core material or internal phase. The coating material is called the capsule or carrier material. Encapsulation not only helps protect the core material from damaging environmental conditions but also allows the passage of small amounts of material through the capsule walls. The interior (core side) of a nanocarrier system can be filled with nutraceutical or drug molecules. Nanocarriers such as polymer nanocarriers, nanocapsules, dendrimers, etc. can encapsulate the drug efficiently in its perforated cavity(45,46). The hydrophobic nature of the inner cavity (core side) of the nanocarrier system makes it possible to incorporate more hydrophobic molecules into the nanocarrier through hydrophobic interactions or hydrogen bonding. This encapsulation can also occur through physical interactions. The release of the molecule occurs through neutralization of the pH-prone or hydrolysis, thiolysis, and the mechanism of thermolysis(47). The materials that have the opportunity as a nanocarrier for vitamin D have been researched. Solid lipid, liposome, micelles, and lipotides are materials that have been observed for vitamin D encapsulation. Previous studies showing the application of using nanocarriers as encapsulation materials for vitamin D are shown in table 1.

Solid Lipid

The development of solid lipid as a nanocarrier has been used and developed a decade before the 2000s. At the time, the solid lipid nanocarriers are used as a suitable carrier for hydrophobic drugs(37). The special characteristic of solid lipid as nanocarriers make it have a big opportunity as a delivery system for parenteral and oral delivery. The usual major component of solid lipid as nanocarrier are triglycerides and saturated fatty acid as neutral solid lipid, for lipophilic emulsifiers polar phospholipid is used. Neutral lipids such as monoglycerides and diglycerides are naturally more polar than triglycerides and have different surface activities(48). The variety of lipid properties is affected by the fatty acid composition(49). In general, a lipid with long-chain saturated fatty acid is used as the components structure of nanocarrier. The unsaturated fatty acid and medium-chain fatty acid would be liquid lipids in the formulation of the nanocarrier(50,51).

The solid lipid nanocarriers are prepared through the dispersion of melted solid lipids in water and stabilized by way of giving emulsifiers through micro-emulsification or excessive pressure homogenization(52,53). The common materials for the preparation of solid lipid nanocarriers are usually formed from solid lipids like free fatty acid; steroid or waxes; and triglycerides(54). Based on the production circumstance and composition, the encapsulated molecules may be included in the matrix, shell, or core of the stable lipid. Nowadays the solid lipid nanocarrier may be used to comprise ionic and hydrophilic anticancer drug materials at the side of the lipophilic drug. The polymer-lipid nanocarrier was explored to be an effective material for drug delivery from oral intervention(55). The new generation of lipid-based nanocarrier was created

to develop drawbacks of the previous generation of the lipid nanocarrier. This new generation nanocarrier could be used for oral administration, parenteral intervention, and drug delivery through topical administration. Further development of lipid nanocarrier shows the opportunity as genes and nucleic delivery, controlled release of active agents(53), and targeted carrier of antitumor materials agent(56,57).

Liposome

Liposomes are bilayer vesicles formed from cholesterol and phospholipids and have a liquid core located between the layers of the lipid bilayer. Assembled using distinctive features of the self-company of phospholipids, liposomes can be defined as synthetic, small, spherical vesicles which can be each biodegradable and biocompatible. Phospholipids are amphipathic debris with a hydrophobic extension composed of two fatty acid sequences with several carbon atoms from 10 to 24, and a polar head that guarantees their hydrophilic characteristics. The desire for phospholipids is due to their bivalent shape since the formed bilayer can without problems modify its fluidity and influence the release ratio of the engulfed drug(58). liposomes are characterized by using their particular structure, defined by way of the bilayer structure of lipids. aside from phospholipids, cholesterol is another constituent that can be considered to obtain liposomes, because it guarantees more desirable stability of these structures(59,60).

Liposomes are widely used as drug carrier systems or other substances because they are compatible with a variety of bioactive peptides(61). This is due to the structure in which the liquid core is suitable for hydrophilic peptides and the interior of the bilayer is compatible with hydrophobic substances. Moreover, liposomes have a shape resembling a cell membrane, which helps protect polypeptides from enzymatic degradation and oxidation. Liposomes also have many other advantages; easy to prepare, absorbed directly through lymphocyte tissue, non-toxic, biodegradable, and non-immunogenic (62). Previous studies have proven the effectiveness of liposomes as encapsulation materials where the antioxidant capacity of genistein is more optimal by using liposomes than caseinate (63). Two methods possibly can integrate medicinal drugs or materials into liposomes: passive and active carrier techniques. The passive envelopment strategy means that the bioactive molecules are entrapped in nanocarrier for the duration of their assembly, in case of the active loading, the therapeutic materials are packed into the intact liposomes(64).

Micelles

Micelles are colloidal particles with nanosized diameters, and spherical shapes and have a non-polar nature interior with a polar outer surface(12). This system was introduced in 1913 as colloidal aggregates from detergent in a water mixture(37). The amphiphilic molecules formed from the hydrophobic tail that faces the center and the hydrophilic head on the surface. This type of nanocarrier could carry bioactive molecules agents either inside the hydrophobic side or sure covalently to the surface of micelles(65). The big gain of the micelles is composed in the truth that they may be designed and synthetic to hold fats-soluble medicinal drugs or materials right away. Simply above their threshold attention, micelles are built due to the self-aggregation of the amphiphiles in aqueous situations, consequently engulfing passively the fat-

soluble bioactive compound partitioning into the hydrophobic medium of the micelle core(66–68). The capabilities of micelles also are altered by utilizing the encompassing situations. as an instance, blood consists of particular compounds that could affect the potential chemical gradient created among monomeric fractions within the micelles and the surrounding aqueous section, therefore increasing the critical micelle awareness. As a result, the solid micelles in saline answer can also show to have a negative balance in the blood and purpose them to disperse and discharge the carried capsules earlier(69,70).

Liprotide

Liprotides are complex molecules composed of fat (lipid) molecules and protein molecules. Protein has a role as a shell while fat is a core. The core-shell structure formed from the liprotides complex can be used to encapsulate other molecules. The primary function of the protein coat is to increase the solubility of fatty acids. This ability makes liprotides the potential to carry hydrophobic molecules in a hydrophilic environment. Another function of the protein coat is to carry and deliver fatty acids to target cells or hydrophobic surfaces. Liprotides can stabilize small aliphatic molecules such as retinol and tocopherols by inserting the molecules into the fatty acid core(71). Liprotides can protect tocopherols better than tocopherol-binding proteins such as beta-lactoglobulin and protein transfer α -tocopherol. Liprotides can be used to stabilize and deliver a wide variety of hydrophobic small molecules with potential health benefits(72). In general, liprotides can increase the stability and solubility of molecules to be able to form complexes. Liprotides can easily deliver the carried compound into the membrane target but can decrease the stability of the complex matrix under various conditions. Liprotides consisting of α -lactalbumin and oleic acid can dissolve vitamin D, increasing vitamin D stability against UV rays by 9 times, and increasing the stability of vitamin D at 37°C up to 1,000 times(72,73). α -lactalbumin can interact strongly with monolayer oleic acid by diffusion and absorption on the surface, incorporation with films, and protein-lipid complexes between molecules by hydrophobic interactions(74). Liprotides can release vitamin D by transferring vitamin D to phospholipid vesicles. Vitamin D encapsulated by liprotides using α -lactalbumin-oleic acid and β -lactoglobulin can increase the availability of vitamin D in clear beverage products with neutral pH(75). Many compounds can be used to form a liprotides system, but there is a specific component that has been developed to form a liprotides system such as α -lactalbumin, β -lactoglobulin, and oleic acid.

α -lactalbumin

α -lactalbumin is one of the whey proteins in cow's milk than can be a good candidate for vitamin encapsulation. α -lactalbumin can bind hydrophobic ligands such as retinol and hydrophobic peptides. Bio macro-molecules such as proteins have a potential opportunity for vitamin encapsulation. Based on research conducted by Delevari et al α -lactalbumin has one binding site for vitamin D3(76). When hydrophobic interactions form, the conformation of the protein changes, and the hydrophobic surface of α -lactalbumin increases. The secondary structure of α -lactalbumin is changed in the presence of vitamin D3. α -lactalbumin is a small globular protein with 123 amino acids and a molecular mass of 14.2 kDa. α -lactalbumin is the predominant protein in human

milk. In cow's milk, the concentration of α -lactalbumin is 1-1.5 g/L (3.4% total protein). The natural structure of bovine α -lactalbumin consists of a large helical domain and a small beta layer domain, both of them are connected by a loop. α -lactalbumin has a hydrophobic site and made α -lactalbumin has one binding site to bind other compounds, like vitamin D₃(76). The solubility of α -lactalbumin can be affected by certain conditions of pH, temperature, and ionic state(77). α -lactalbumin is relatively resistant to protease digestive enzymes (pepsin and trypsin) because of its globular and dense structure(78). Whey protein isolate contains 17% of α -lactalbumin and α -lactalbumin contains 48 mg of tryptophan and 48 mg of cysteine per gram of protein(79). Tryptophan in α -lactalbumin can increase the tryptophan levels in the blood which can help synthesize and increase the availability of serotonin in the brain. α -lactalbumin also accelerates wound healing(80), for recovery from various types of sports(81).

β -lactoglobulin

β -lactoglobulin is a component is found in milk whey and soluble in salt solutions. β -lactoglobulin belongs to the lipocalin protein group(82) and has been shown to bind various hydrophobic molecules like fatty acids(83), retinol, and vitamin D(84). β -lactoglobulin can bind fatty acids such as oleic acid and linoleic acid. The research showed that the complex of β -lactoglobulin and oleic acid could increase the tertiary structure. β -lactoglobulins have more binding sites for oleic acid than linoleic acid which interacts with van der Waals bonds and hydrogen bonds(85). Encapsulation of vitamin D₃ with β -lactoglobulin with lysozyme modification could increase the bioavailability, resistance to pH, and solubility(86). β -lactoglobulin has 162 amino acid residues and a molecular weight of 18.4 kDa. β -lactoglobulin is the main component of whey protein in milk that can freeze and denature when milk boils. After denaturation, β -lactoglobulin forms a film layer on the milk surface. It happens because β -lactoglobulin protein molecules can form a transparent gel when heated for a long time at low pH and low ionic strength(86). β -lactoglobulin is known as an allergen, the manufacturers need to prove the presence or absence of β -lactoglobulin content to ensure that the labeling meets the requirements. Food testing laboratories can use enzyme immunosorbent assay methods to identify and measure β -lactoglobulin in food products. Polymerization of β -lactoglobulin by microbial transglutaminase reduces its allergenicity in children and adults with immunoglobulin E (IgE)-mediated cow's milk allergy(87).

Oleic acid

Oleic acid is an unsaturated fatty acid that is easily obtained and can be extracted from several different sources, one of which is olive oil. Apart from olive oil (55-80%), these fatty acids are also contained in industrial waste from palm oil, sunflower oil, rapeseed oil, and grape seed oil. The availability of oleic acid in nature is very abundant and is commonly used in the manufacture of surfactants, soaps, plasticizers, and food and drug emulsifiers(88). This acid is composed of 18 C atoms with one double bond between the 9th and 10th C atoms. The oleic acid structure has two functional groups, alkenes, and carboxylic acids. Presence of alkenes with Z isomer, the bond between oleic acid molecules becomes stronger and made oleic acid in the

liquid phase at room temperature. In polar solvents, oleic acid forms a bilayer structure(88). As part of liposomes, Oleic acid has limitations in its use due to the tendency to break down and cause release. One method to increase its stability is by coating it with protein to form a complex called lipotides(89).

Delivery Mechanism

The human digestive system is a complex system that aims to digest food into nutrients. During the digestion process, food will mix with enzymes. Enzymes function as catalysts in biological processes that can provide speed, specification, and control of reactions in the body by increasing the rate of chemical reactions by 10⁸ to 10¹¹ times faster(90). Each enzyme has maximum activity at a certain temperature. When the temperature increases, the enzyme activity also increases until the optimum temperature is reached. After passing the optimum temperature, the enzyme activity decreased(91). In addition to enzymes, stomach acids contribute to the breakdown of food into nutrients. However, the acidic pH of the stomach can affect the stability of vitamin D, because the vitamin is not stable in acidic conditions(10).

Encapsulation of vitamin D with nanocarrier could be the new perspective of nutraceutical therapy in type 2 diabetes. The nanocarriers system has a potential opportunity as a transporter of vitamin D. The system can carry and protect vitamin D from the gastrointestinal tract until absorbed into blood circulation. After vitamin D encapsulated with a nanocarrier system has been consumed by oral administration, the system would protect the vitamin in the gastric environment. The gastric environment is acidic and contains a variety of digestive enzymes such as pepsin and gastric acid. The shell of the nanocarriers system that forms from organic properties will be affected by the gastric environment but the vitamin is still safe in the core of the system. After passing through the gastric, the system will enter the intestine. The intestine system will be affected by an intestine enzymes such as trypsin, chymotrypsin, and pancreatic fluid. Due to the environmental condition in the intestine, vitamin D will be released from the system. Vitamin D that is protected by the nanocarrier system still has a good condition after passing through the gastrointestinal system and is ready to be absorbed in the intestinal with good bioavailability.

Future Perspectives

One of the challenges in the medical field today is the use of nutraceutical therapy that returns to its natural state. The application of nanotechnology in the development of the world of health is an important point in the treatment of a disease. Currently, there have been many studies related to the application of nanotechnology which is used as a delivery agent and protector of substances and vitamins. The design and development of nanoparticle-based nutraceutical therapy as an alternative treatment for degenerative diseases has shown good results. Vitamin D is known to have a positive effect on improving diabetes status and is used for alternative therapies for diabetic patients. However, there are many obstacles, both in terms of absorption and bioavailability of Vitamin D. The nano-encapsulation method has a chance to increase the bioavailability of vitamin D. Nutraceuticals therapy using vitamin D₃ encapsulated with nanocarrier could be a new alternative for oral therapy of diabetes type 2.

Conclusion

Recently, nanotechnology has been developed as the approach for vitamin delivery agents. The nanocarrier technology brings the development in vitamin delivery. Exploration of nanocarrier systems in the application of supplemental vitamin administration shows a better prospect than direct administration of vitamins. There are many challenges to producing an economical nanocarrier system with good quality. The application and manufacture of standardized nanocarrier systems will have a very potent impact on the application of vitamin delivery in the body. In the future, the application of nanocarriers in various fields including vitamin delivery in the body will continue to grow. The encapsulation of vitamin D provides another point of view in the implementation of therapy in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. The use of encapsulation of vitamin D with nanocarrier is expected to help treat type 2 diabetes patients to improve their quality of life.

Tabel.1 Previous studies of nanocarriers application for vitamin D

Vitamin D	Nanocarriers System	Nature of nanocarriers	Previous Research
	Solid Lipid	A colloidal carrier that has good stability naturally degrades and is easy to modify(40).	A combination of vitamin d loaded with solid lipid nanocarriers combined with anti-cancer materials improves the effectivity therapy in breast cancers(92).
			The system of vitamin D and nanoparticles determined the increasing systemic absorption and prolonged presence of the bioactive materials in the blood plasma(93,94).
	Liposome	A phospholipid bilayer nanocarriers that has low toxicity naturally degrades and is biocompatible (41,42).	Anti-aging agents that directly apply to the skin using liposomes with vitamin D3 loaded(95).
			The stability of liposomes as nanocarriers is affected by vitamin D3(96).
	Micelles	The colloidal aggregate of the molecules with amphiphilic nature has good biostability and dynamic system (52,97).	The micelles have a role as a protective agent in vitamin D encapsulation with the intervention of UV-light with deterioration induced(98).
			The bioavailability of vitamin D diminished to 37% in micelles with chitosan use(99).
	Liprotide	Complex molecules are composed of fat (lipid) molecules and protein molecules. Potential to carry hydrophobic molecules in a hydrophilic environment (71,72).	Vitamin D can be encapsulated and stabilized for the enrichment of clear beverages(72).
			Optimal formulation of the liprotide as a nanocarrier(73).

Reference

1. IDF Diabetes Atlas [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2021 Apr 25]. Available from: <https://idf.org/e-library/epidemiology-research/diabetes-atlas.html>
2. Riskesdas K. Main Results of Basic Health Research (RISKESDAS). Vol. 44, Indonesian Health Ministry. 2018.
3. Nasr MH, Hassan BAR, Othman N, Karuppannan M, Abdulaziz NB, Mohammed AH, et al. Prevalence of Vitamin D Deficiency Between Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Patients and Non-Diabetics in the Arab Gulf. *Diabetes, Metab Syndr Obes Targets Ther.* 2022;15(February):647–57.
4. Amrein K, Scherkl M, Hoffmann M, Neuwersch-Sommeregger S, Köstenberger M, Tmava Berisha A, et al. Vitamin D deficiency 2.0: an update on the current status worldwide. *Eur J Clin Nutr [Internet].* 2020 Jan 20; Available from: <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41430-020-0558-y>
5. Divakar U, Sathish T, Soljak M, Bajpai R, Dunleavy G, Visvalingam N, et al. Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency and its associated work-related factors among indoor workers in a multi-ethnic southeast asian country. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020;17(1):1–10.
6. Ashraf A, Alvarez JA. Role of vitamin D in insulin secretion and insulin sensitivity for glucose homeostasis. *Int J Endocrinol.* 2010;2010(March 2009).
7. Joanna Mitri and Anastassios G. Pittas. Vitamin D and Diabetes. *Contemp Endocrinol.* 2018;43(1):135–49.
8. Christakos S, Dhawan P, Verstuyf A, Verlinden L, Carmeliet G. Vitamin D: Metabolism, molecular mechanism of action, and pleiotropic effects. *Physiol Rev.* 2015;96(1):365–408.
9. Cribb VL, Northstone K, Hopkins D, Emmett PM. Sources of vitamin D and calcium in the diets of preschool children in the UK and the theoretical effect of food fortification. *J Hum Nutr Diet.* 2015;28(6):583–92.
10. Carolyn D. Berdanier JZ. Advanced Nutrition Macronutrients, Micronutrients, and Metabolism. CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group; 1995.
11. Hasanvand E, Fathi M, Bassi A, Javanmard M AR. Food and Bioproducts Processing Novel Starch Based Nanocarrier for Vitamin D Fortification of Milk. *J Food Bioprod Process.* 2015;96:264–77.
12. Crintea A, Dutu AG, Sovrea A, Constantin A, Samasca G, Masalar AL, et al. Nanocarriers for Drug Delivery : An Overview with Emphasis on Vitamin D and K Transportation. 2022;1–26.
13. Din F ud, W, Aman A, Ullah I, Qureshi OS, Mustapha O, et al. Effective use of nanocarriers as drug delivery systems for the treatment of selected tumors. *Int J Nanomedicine.* 2017;12:7291–309.
14. Wang Y, Zhang X, Wan K, Zhou N, Wei G, Su Z. Supramolecular peptide

nano-assemblies for cancer diagnosis and therapy: from molecular design to material synthesis and function-specific applications. *J Nanobiotechnology* [Internet]. 2021;19(1):1–31. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-021-00999-x>

15. John R.Giudicessi, BA.Michael J.Ackerman. 2013, Pantalone DW, Schneider KL, Valentine SE, Simoni JM, Liu-Smith F and MF, et al. 基因的改变NIH Public Access. *AIDS Behav* [Internet]. 2012;23(1):1031–43. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3624763/pdf/nihms412728.pdf>

16. Murugan C, Rayappan K, Thangam R, Bhanumathi R, Shanthi K, Vivek R, et al. Combinatorial nanocarrier based drug delivery approach for amalgamation of anti-tumor agents in bresat cancer cells: An improved nanomedicine strategies. *Sci Rep* [Internet]. 2016;6(October):1–17. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/srep34053>

17. Corma A, Botella P, Rivero-Buceta E. Silica-Based Stimuli-Responsive Systems for Antitumor Drug Delivery and Controlled Release. *Pharmaceutics*. 2022;14(1).

18. Cun D, Zhang C, Bera H, Yang M. Particle engineering principles and technologies for pharmaceutical biologics. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* [Internet]. 2021;174(103):140–67. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2021.04.006>

19. Benjamin Chun-Kit Tong. 乳鼠心肌提取 HHS Public Access. *Physiol Behav*. 2017;176(5):139–48.

20. Park S, Kim DS, Kang S. Vitamin D deficiency impairs glucose-stimulated insulin secretion and increases insulin resistance by reducing PPAR- γ expression in nonobese Type 2 diabetic rats. Vol. 27, *Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry*. 2016. p. 257–65.

21. WHO Global Report. Global Report on Diabetes. Isbn [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2022 May 10];978:11. Available from: http://www.who.int/about/licensing/copyright_form/index.html%0Ahttp://www.who.int/about/licensing/copyright_form/index.html%0Ahttp://www.who.int/about/licensing/copyright_form/index.html%0Ahttps://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/204871%0Ahttp://www.who.int

22. Diabetes Care. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* [Internet]. 2014;37(SUPPL.1):81–90. Available from: https://care.diabetesjournals.org/content/37/Supplement_1/S81

23. Galicia-Garcia U, Benito-Vicente A, Jebari S, Larrea-Sebal A, Siddiqi H, Uribe KB, et al. Pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2020;21(17):1–34.

24. Kahn SE, Cooper ME, Del Prato S. Pathophysiology and treatment of type 2 diabetes: perspectives on the past, present, and future. *Lancet (London, England)* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2022 May 15];383(9922):1068–83. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24315620/>

25. Christensen AA, Gannon M. The Beta Cell in Type 2 Diabetes. *Curr Diab Rep* [Internet]. 2019 Sep 1 [cited 2022 May 15];19(9). Available from:

<https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31399863/>

26. Chinmay S. Marathe, Christopher K. Rayner, Tongzhi Wu, Karen L. Jones MH. Gastrointestinal Disorders in Diabetes - Endotext - NCBI Bookshelf [Internet]. 2020 [cited 2021 Dec 13]. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK553219/>
27. Mahmoodani F, Perera CO, Abernethy G, Fedrizzi B, Chen H. Lipid oxidation and vitamin D3 degradation in simulated whole milk powder as influenced by processing and storage. *Food Chem* [Internet]. 2018;261(March):149–56. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.04.043>
28. Zenebe T, Ahmed N, Kabeta T, Kebede G. Review on Medicinal and Nutritional Values of Goat Milk. *Acad J Nutr*. 2014;3(3):30–9.
29. Cashman KD. Vitamin D: Dietary requirements and food fortification as a means of helping achieve adequate vitamin D status. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*. 2015;148:19–26.
30. Al Thani M, Sadoun E, Sofroniou A, Jayyousi A, Baagar KAM, Al Hammaq A, et al. The effect of vitamin D supplementation on the glycemic control of pre-diabetic Qatari patients in a randomized control trial. *BMC Nutr* [Internet]. 2019 Nov 26 [cited 2022 May 11];5(1):1–10. Available from: <https://bmcnutr.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s40795-019-0311-x>
31. Cardoso-Sánchez LI, Gómez-Díaz RA, Wachter NH. Vitamin D intake associates with insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes, but not in latent autoimmune diabetes in adults. *Nutr Res* [Internet]. 2015;35(8):689–99. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nutres.2015.05.019>
32. Maulana RA, Afifah DNUR, Rustanti N, Anjani G, Panunggal B. Effect of Goat Milk Kefir Fortified with Vitamin D3 on Blood Glucose and Insulin in Rats. 2019;13(4):1272–5.
33. Jafari T, Faghihimani E, Feizi A, Iraj B, Javanmard SH, Esmailzadeh A, et al. Effects of vitamin D-fortified low fat yogurt on glycemic status, anthropometric indexes, inflammation, and bone turnover in diabetic postmenopausal women: A randomised controlled clinical trial. *Clin Nutr* [Internet]. 2016;35(1):67–76. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2015.02.014>
34. White JH. Vitamin D signaling, infectious diseases, and regulation of innate immunity. *Infect Immun*. 2008;76(9):3837–43.
35. Mathieu C, Badenhop K. Vitamin D and type 1 diabetes mellitus: State of the art. *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2005;16(6):261–6.
36. Benetti E, Mastrocola R, Chiazza F, Nigro D, D'Antona G, Bordano, et al. Effects of vitamin D on insulin resistance and myosteatosis in diet-induced obese mice. *PLoS One* [Internet]. 2018 Jan 1 [cited 2022 May 11];13(1). Available from: </pmc/articles/PMC5771572/>
37. Chamundeeswari M, Jeslin J, Verma ML. Nanocarriers for drug delivery applications. *Environ Chem Lett* [Internet]. 2019;17(2):849–65. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10311-018-00841-1>

38. Qian WY, Sun DM, Zhu RR, Du XL, Liu H, Wang SL. pH-sensitive strontium carbonate nanoparticles as new anticancer vehicles for controlled etoposide release. *Int J Nanomedicine* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2022 Apr 25];7:5781. Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC3506155/](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19186176/)
39. Singh R, Lillard JW. Nanoparticle-based targeted drug delivery. *Exp Mol Pathol* [Internet]. 2009 Jun [cited 2022 Apr 25];86(3):215–23. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19186176/>
40. Kingsley JD, Dou H, Morehead J, Rabinow B, Gendelman HE, Destache CJ. Nanotechnology: a focus on nanoparticles as a drug delivery system. *J Neuroimmune Pharmacol* [Internet]. 2006 Sep [cited 2022 Apr 25];1(3):340–50. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18040810/>
41. Sun T, Zhang YS, Pang B, Hyun DC, Yang M, Xia Y. Engineered nanoparticles for drug delivery in cancer therapy. *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl* [Internet]. 2014 Nov 10 [cited 2022 Apr 25];53(46):12320–64. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25294565/>
42. Mishra B, Patel BB, Tiwari S. Colloidal nanocarriers: a review on formulation technology, types and applications toward targeted drug delivery. *Nanomedicine* [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2022 Apr 25];6(1):9–24. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19447208/>
43. How CW, Rasedee A, Manickam S, Rosli R. Tamoxifen-loaded nanostructured lipid carrier as a drug delivery system: characterization, stability assessment and cytotoxicity. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces* [Internet]. 2013 Dec 1 [cited 2022 Apr 25];112:393–9. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24036474/>
44. Patra JK, Das G, Fraceto LF, Campos EVR, Rodriguez-Torres MDP, Acosta-Torres LS, et al. Nano based drug delivery systems: recent developments and future prospects. *J Nanobiotechnology* 2018 161 [Internet]. 2018 Sep 19 [cited 2022 Apr 25];16(1):1–33. Available from: <https://jnanobiotechnology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12951-018-0392-8>
45. Alvarez-Román R, Naik A, Kalia YN, Guy RH, Fessi H. Skin penetration and distribution of polymeric nanoparticles. *J Control Release* [Internet]. 2004 Sep 14 [cited 2022 Apr 25];99(1):53–62. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15342180/>
46. Arpicco S, Battaglia L, Brusa P, Cavalli R, Chirio D, Dosio F, et al. Recent studies on the delivery of hydrophilic drugs in nanoparticulate systems. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol* [Internet]. 2016;32:298–312. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jddst.2015.09.004>
47. Patil H, Tiwari R V., Repka MA. Recent advancements in mucoadhesive floating drug delivery systems: A mini-review. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol*. 2016;31:65–71.
48. Christie WW. Rapid separation and quantification of lipid classes by high performance liquid chromatography and mass (light-scattering) detection. *J Lipid Res*. 1985;26:507–12.

49. Borkar N, Xia D, Holm R, Gan Y, Müllertz A, Yang M, et al. Investigating the correlation between in vivo absorption and in vitro release of fenofibrate from lipid matrix particles in biorelevant medium. *Eur J Pharm Sci*. 2014 Jan 23;51(1):204–10.
50. Rosiaux Y, Jannin V, Hughes S, Marchaud D. Solid lipid excipients - matrix agents for sustained drug delivery. *J Control Release* [Internet]. 2014 Aug 28 [cited 2022 May 15];188:18–30. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24929038/>
51. Xia D, Cui F, Gan Y, Mu H, Yang M. Design of lipid matrix particles for fenofibrate: effect of polymorphism of glycerol monostearate on drug incorporation and release. *J Pharm Sci* [Internet]. 2014 Feb 1 [cited 2022 May 15];103(2):697–705. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24375427/>
52. Malam Y, Loizidou M, Seifalian AM. Liposomes and nanoparticles: nanosized vehicles for drug delivery in cancer. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*. 2009 Nov 1;30(11):592–9.
53. Müller RH, Mäder K, Gohla S. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) for controlled drug delivery - a review of the state of the art. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm* [Internet]. 2000 Jul 3 [cited 2022 May 15];50(1):161–77. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10840199/>
54. Üner M, Yener G. Importance of solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) in various administration routes and future perspectives. *Int J Nanomedicine* [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2022 May 15];2(3):289. Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC2676658/](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17364869/)
55. Hallan SS, Kaur P, Kaur V, Mishra N, Vaidya B. Lipid polymer hybrid as emerging tool in nanocarriers for oral drug delivery. *Artif cells, nanomedicine, Biotechnol* [Internet]. 2016 Jan 1 [cited 2022 May 15];44(1):334–49. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25237838/>
56. Bondi ML, Craparo EF, Giammona G, Cervello M, Azzolina A, Diana P, et al. Nanostructured lipid carriers-containing anticancer compounds: preparation, characterization, and cytotoxicity studies. *Drug Deliv* [Internet]. 2007 Feb [cited 2022 May 15];14(2):61–7. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17364869/>
57. Stella B, Peira E, Dianzani C, Gallarate M, Battaglia L, Gigliotti CL, et al. Development and Characterization of Solid Lipid Nanoparticles Loaded with a Highly Active Doxorubicin Derivative. *Nanomater* (Basel, Switzerland) [Internet]. 2018 Feb 16 [cited 2022 May 15];8(2). Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29462932/>
58. Aurelia Chis A, Dobrea C, Morgovan C, Arseniu AM, Rus LL, Butuca A, et al. Applications and Limitations of Dendrimers in Biomedicine. *Molecules* [Internet]. 2020 Sep 1 [cited 2022 May 16];25(17). Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC7504821/](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3404821/)
59. Bozzuto G, Molinari A. Liposomes as nanomedical devices. *Int J Nanomedicine* [Internet]. 2015 Feb 2 [cited 2022 May 16];10:975. Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC4324542/](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25237838/)
60. Akbarzadeh A, Rezaei-Sadabady R, Davaran S, Joo SW, Zarghami N, Hanifehpour Y, et al. Liposome: Classification, preparation, and applications. *Nanoscale Res Lett* [Internet]. 2013 Feb 22 [cited 2022 May 16];8(1):1–9. Available

from: <https://nanoscalereslett.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/1556-276X-8-102>

61. Mohan A, Rajendran SRCK, He QS, Bazinet L, Udenigwe CC. Encapsulation of food protein hydrolysates and peptides: a review. 2015 [cited 2022 May 15]; Available from: www.rsc.org/advances
62. Ismail R, Csóka I. Novel strategies in the oral delivery of antidiabetic peptide drugs - Insulin, GLP 1 and its analogs. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm* [Internet]. 2017 Jun 1 [cited 2022 May 15];115:257–67. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28336368/>
63. Anjani G, Ohta A, Yasuhara K, Asakawa T. Solubilization of genistein by caseinate micellar system. *J Oleo Sci*. 2014;63(4):413–22.
64. Sur S, Fries AC, Kinzler KW, Zhou S, Vogelstein B. Remote loading of preencapsulated drugs into stealth liposomes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* [Internet]. 2014 Feb 11 [cited 2022 May 16];111(6):2283–8. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24474802/>
65. Hanafy NAN, El-Kemary M, Leporatti S. Micelles Structure Development as a Strategy to Improve Smart Cancer Therapy. *Cancers (Basel)* [Internet]. 2018 Jul 20 [cited 2022 May 16];10(7). Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC6071246/](https://pmc/articles/PMC6071246/)
66. Al-Tikriti Y, Hansson P. Drug-Induced Phase Separation in Polyelectrolyte Microgels. *Gels (Basel, Switzerland)* [Internet]. 2021 Jan 1 [cited 2022 May 16];8(1). Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/35049539/>
67. Censi R, Di Martino P, Vermonden T, Hennink WE. Hydrogels for protein delivery in tissue engineering. *J Control Release* [Internet]. 2012 Jul 20 [cited 2022 May 16];161(2):680–92. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22421425/>
68. Hoare TR, Kohane DS. Hydrogels in drug delivery: Progress and challenges. *Polymer (Guildf)*. 2008 Apr 15;49(8):1993–2007.
69. Lu Y, Zhang E, Yang J, Cao Z. Strategies to improve micelle stability for drug delivery. *Nano Res* [Internet]. 2018 Oct 1 [cited 2022 May 16];11(10):4985–98. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30370014/>
70. Xu W, Ling P, Zhang T. Polymeric micelles, a promising drug delivery system to enhance bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs. *J Drug Deliv* [Internet]. 2013 Jun 27 [cited 2022 May 16];2013:1–15. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23936656/>
71. Kaspersen JD, Pedersen JN, Hansted JG, Nielsen SB, Sakthivel S, Wilhelm K, et al. Generic structures of cytotoxic lipotides: Nano-sized complexes with oleic acid cores and shells of disordered proteins. *ChemBioChem*. 2014;15(18):2693–702.
72. Pedersen JN, Frislev HS, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Using protein-fatty acid complexes to improve vitamin D stability. *J Dairy Sci* [Internet]. 2016;99(10):7755–67. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.2016-11343>
73. Sørensen H V., Pedersen JN, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Tailoring thermal treatment to form lipotide complexes between oleic acid and different proteins. *Biochim Biophys Acta - Proteins Proteomics* [Internet]. 2017;1865(6):682–93. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbapap.2017.03.011>

74. Dopierała K, Krajewska M, Prochaska K. Binding of α -lactalbumin to oleic acid monolayer and its relevance to formation of HAMLET-like complexes. *Int Dairy J* [Internet]. 2019;89:96–104. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idairyj.2018.08.017>
75. Vieira EF, Souza S. Formulation Strategies for Improving the Stability and Bioavailability of Vitamin D-Fortified Beverages: A Review. *Foods*. 2022;11(6):847.
76. Delavari B, Saboury AA, Atri MS, Ghasemi A, Bigdeli B, Khammari A, et al. Alpha-lactalbumin: A new carrier for vitamin D3 food enrichment. *Food Hydrocoll*. 2015;45:124–31.
77. Tavares T, Malcata FX. Whey and Whey Powders: Protein Concentrates and Fractions [Internet]. 1st ed. *Encyclopedia of Food and Health*. Elsevier Ltd.; 2015. 506–513 p. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384947-2.00748-0>
78. Kamau SM, Cheison SC, Chen W, Liu XM, Lu RR. Alpha-lactalbumin: Its production technologies and bioactive peptides. *Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf*. 2010;9(2):197–212.
79. Layman DK, Lönnerdal B, Fernstrom JD. Applications for α -lactalbumin in human nutrition. *Nutr Rev*. 2018;76(6):444–60.
80. Minet-Ringuet J, Le Ruyet PM, Tomé D, Even PC. A tryptophan-rich protein diet efficiently restores sleep after food deprivation in the rat. *Behav Brain Res*. 2004;152(2):335–40.
81. Jäger R, Kerksick CM, Campbell BI, Cribb PJ, Wells SD, Skwiat TM, et al. International Society of Sports Nutrition Position Stand: Protein and exercise. *J Int Soc Sports Nutr*. 2017;14(1):1–25.
82. Rovoli, Magda, Lindsay Sawyer GK. Non natural fatty acids binding affinity to bovine β -lactoglobulin: Crystallographic and thermodynamics studies. [Internet]. 2013. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/275230346_Non_natural_fatty_acids_binding_affinity_to_bovine_b-lactoglobulin_Crystallographic_and_thermodynamic_studies
83. Le Maux S, Bouhallab S, Giblin L, Brodkorb A, Croguennec T. Bovine β -lactoglobulin/fatty acid complexes: Binding, structural, and biological properties. Vol. 94, *Dairy Science and Technology*. 2014. p. 409–26.
84. Fatoumata Diarrassouba a, Ghislain Garrait b, Gabriel Remondetto c, Pedro Alvarez a, Eric Beyssac b MS. Increased stability and protease resistance of the β -lactoglobulin vitamin D3 complex.pdf. journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/foodchem Increased; 2013.
85. B. Fang, M. Zhang, M. Tian FZR. Self-assembled β -lactoglobulin-oleic acid and β -lactoglobulin-linoleic acid complexes with antitumor activities.pdf. *J. Dairy Sci*; 2015. p. 1–10.
86. Abbasi A, Emam-Djomeh Z, Mousavi MAE, Davoodi D. Stability of vitamin D3 encapsulated in nanoparticles of whey protein isolate. *Food Chem* [Internet]. 2014;143:379–83. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.08.018>
87. Olivier CE, dos Santos Lima RP, Pinto DG, dos Santos RAPG, da Silva GKM,

Lorena SLS, et al. In search of a tolerance-induction strategy for cow's milk allergies: Significant reduction of beta-lactoglobulin allergenicity via transglutaminase/cysteine polymerization. *Clinics*. 2012;67(10):1171–9.

88. Soriguer F, Esteva I, Rojo-Martínez G, Ruiz de Adana MS, Dobarganes MC, García-Almeida JM, et al. Oleic acid from cooking oils is associated with lower insulin resistance in the general population (Pizarra study). *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2004;150(1):33–9.

89. Casbarra A, Birolo L, Infusini G, Dal Piaz F, Svensson M, Pucci P, et al. Conformational analysis of HAMLET, the folding variant of human α -lactalbumin associated with apoptosis. *Protein Sci*. 2004;13(5):1322–30.

90. Ateng Supriyatna, Dea Amalia, Ayu Agustini Jauhari DHE. Amilase, Lipase, and Protease Activity from Larva. *J Istek*. 2015;9(2):246–52.

91. Megiandari A. Isolation and characterization of keratinolytic protease enzymes from the intestines of water monitor lizards. 2009;

92. Rodrigues da Silva GH, de Moura LD, de Carvalho FV, Geronimo G, Mendonça TC, de Lima FF, et al. Antineoplastics Encapsulated in Nanostructured Lipid Carriers. *Molecules* [Internet]. 2021 Nov 1 [cited 2022 May 16];26(22). Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34834022/>

93. Mohammadi M, Pezeshki A, Abbasi MM, Ghanbarzadeh B, Hamishehkar H. Vitamin D 3-Loaded Nanostructured Lipid Carriers as a Potential Approach for Fortifying Food Beverages; in Vitro and in Vivo Evaluation. *Adv Pharm Bull* [Internet]. 2017 Apr 1 [cited 2022 May 16];7(1):61–71. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28507938/>

94. Nsairat H, Khater D, Odeh F, Al-Adaileh F, Al-Taher S, Jaber AM, et al. Lipid nanostructures for targeting brain cancer. *Heliyon* [Internet]. 2021 Sep 1 [cited 2022 May 16];7(9). Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34632135/>

95. Bi Y, Xia H, Li L, Lee RJ, Xie J, Liu Z, et al. Liposomal Vitamin D3 as an Anti-aging Agent for the Skin. *Pharmaceutics* [Internet]. 2019 Jul 1 [cited 2022 May 16];11(7). Available from: <https://pmc/articles/PMC6680917/>

96. Aibani N, Rai R, Patel P, Cuddihy G, Wasan EK. Chitosan Nanoparticles at the Biological Interface: Implications for Drug Delivery. *Pharmaceutics* [Internet]. 2021 Oct 1 [cited 2022 May 16];13(10). Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34683979/>

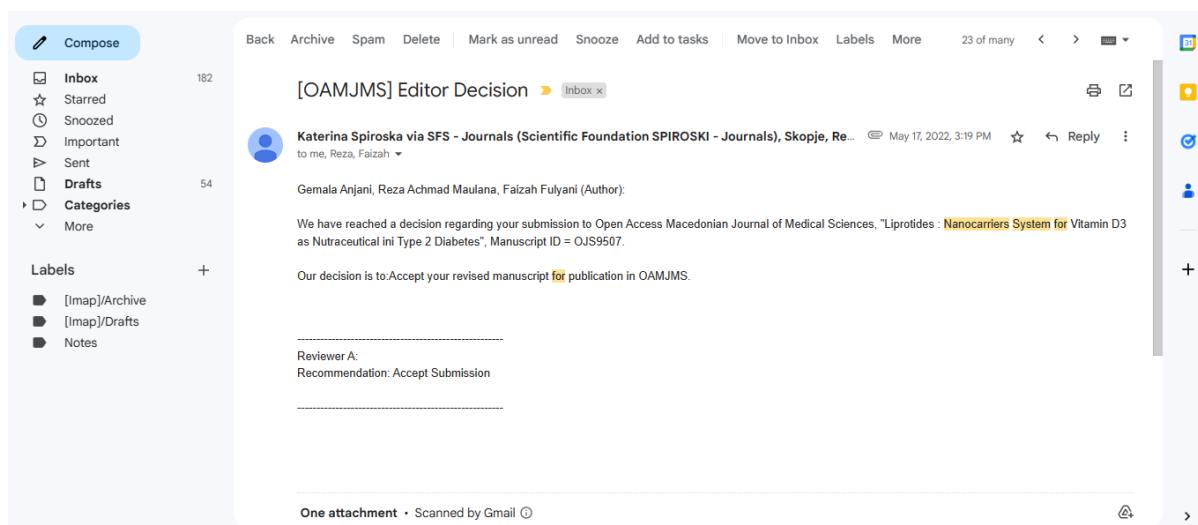
97. Bhatia S. Nanoparticles Types, Classification, Characterization, Fabrication Methods and Drug Delivery Applications. *Nat Polym Drug Deliv Syst* [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2022 May 16];33–93. Available from: https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-319-41129-3_2

98. Sadiq U, Gill H, Chandrapala J. Casein Micelles as an Emerging Delivery System for Bioactive Food Components. *Foods* 2021, Vol 10, Page 1965 [Internet]. 2021 Aug 23 [cited 2022 May 16];10(8):1965. Available from: <https://www.mdpi.com/2304-8158/10/8/1965/htm>

99. Tan Y, Li R, Liu C, Muriel Mundo J, Zhou H, Liu J, et al. Chitosan reduces

vitamin D bioaccessibility in food emulsions by binding to mixed micelles. *Food Funct* [Internet]. 2020 Jan 29 [cited 2022 May 16];11(1):187–99. Available from: <https://pubs.rsc.org/en/content/articlehtml/2020/fo/c9fo02164g>

Accepted Artikel



Galley Proof

Compose

Inbox181

Starred

Snoozed

Important

Sent

Drafts54

Categories

More

Labels

[imap]/Archive

[imap]/Drafts

Notes

BackArchiveSpamDeleteMark as unreadSnoozeAdd to tasksMove to InboxLabelsMore18 of many

[OAMJMS] Proofreading Request (Author)Inbox x

Teodora Fildishevska via SFS - Journals (Scientific Foundation SPIROSKI - Journals), Skopje, ...Fri, Jun 3, 2022, 12:22 AM

to me

☆↶Reply⋮

Dear Gemala Anjani:

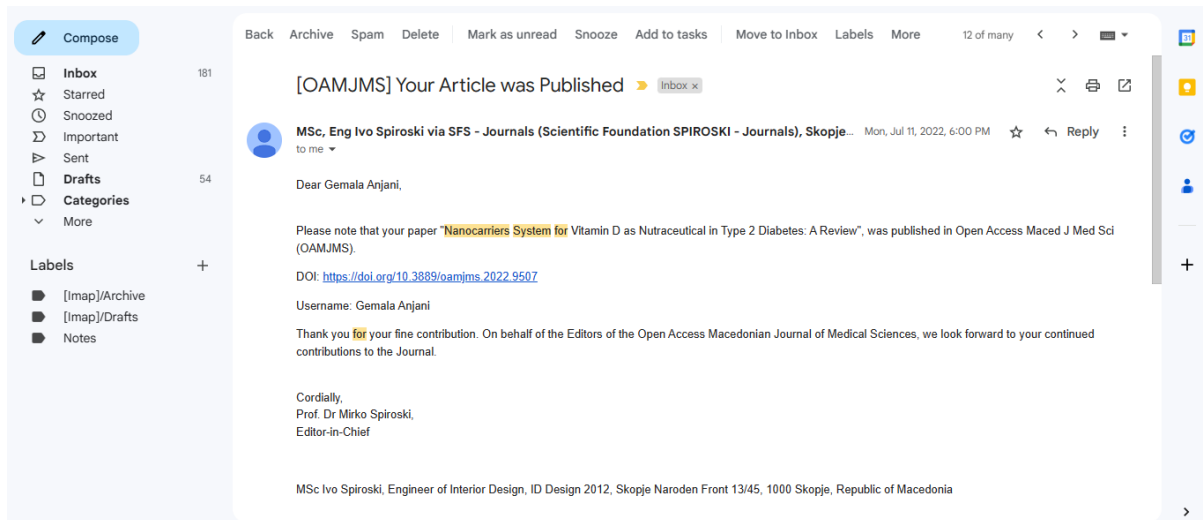
Your submission "Liprotides : **Nanocarriers System for** Vitamin D3 as Nutraceutical ini Type 2 Diabetes" to Open Access Macedonian Journal of Medical Sciences now needs to be proofread by following these steps.

1. Click on the Submission URL below.
2. Log into the journal and view PROOFING INSTRUCTIONS
3. Click on VIEW PROOF in Layout and proof the galley in the one or more formats used.
4. Enter corrections (typographical and format) in Proofreading Corrections using "[Mark up text with edits](#)" or "[Use annotation and drawing markup tools to add comments in PDFs](#)".
5. Save corrected Galley Proof with the addition "Corrected" to the file name (i.e., OAMJMS-9A-4528.pdf should be saved as OAMJMS-9A-4528-Corrected.pdf).
6. Click on the link "Add Discussion", define Subject "Corrected Galley Proof", write text in the field Message, Upload File in the field Attached Files.
7. Complete and sign **Copyright Form**, upload in the field Attached Files, and complete the message with clicking "OK".

Submission URL: <https://oamjms.eu/index.php/mjms/authorDashboard/submission/9507>
Username: Gemala Anjani

Teodora Fildishevska
Scientific Foundation SPIROSKI, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia
tfildishevska@id-press.eu

Artikel Published





Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D as Nutraceutical in Type 2 Diabetes: A Review

Reza Achmad Maulana¹, Faizah Fulyani², Gemala Anjani^{1*}

¹Department of Nutrition Science, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Jawa Tengah, Indonesia; ²Department of Medicine, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Jawa Tengah, Indonesia

Abstract

Incidences of diabetes are common among populations around the world. Diabetes may lead to other complications and increased morbidity and mortality. Many ways have been done to treat and prevent the development of diabetes. In addition to conventional pharmacotherapy, therapeutic therapy has shown good opportunities to maintain and improve diabetic conditions. Vitamin D is known as a nutraceutical and has a good opportunity to develop the medication for type 2 diabetes. The application of nanocarriers as a delivery system increases the bioavailability of vitamins, escalates cellular delivery, and optimizes the vitamin effect. By utilizing nanotechnology-based dietary supplements, the problem of vitamin administration, vitamin stability, absorption, and bioavailability will be resolved. In this review, we would try to compare the most relevant aspect of nanocarrier for Vitamin D as a nutraceutical in type 2 diabetes.

Edited by: Eli Djulejic

Citation: Maulana RA, Fulyani F, Anjani G.
Nanocarriers System for Vitamin D as

Nutraceutical in Type 2 Diabetes: A Review.

Open-Access Maced J Med Sci. 2022 May 27; 10(F):427-436.

<https://doi.org/10.3889/oamjms.2022.9507>

Keywords: Nanocarriers; Vitamin D; Diabetes mellitus;

Encapsulation

*Correspondence: Gemala Anjani, Department of Nutrition Science, Medical Faculty, Diponegoro University, Indonesia. E-mail: gemaanjani@gmail.com

Received: 22-Mar-2022

Revised: 15-May-2022

Accepted: 17-May-2022

Copyright: © 2022 Reza Achmad Maulana,

Faizah Fulyani, Gemala Anjani

Funding: This study was supported through a grant from the Indonesian Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology (no. 187-13/UN7.6.1/PP/2021)

Competing Interest: The authors have declared that no competing interest exists

Open Access: This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (CC BY-NC 4.0)

Introduction

Diabetes is a major worldwide health problem that increasing every year. Data from International Diabetes Federation (IDF) in 2019 show that 9,3% world population aged 20–79 years old had diabetes. Indonesia gets 1st rank country with diabetes in Southeast Asia with 10,7 million diabetic people [1]. The Indonesian Basic Health Research (RISKERDAS) in 2018 showed that the prevalence of diabetes in Indonesia was 2% in the population aged >15 years [2]. The increasing number of diabetes is influenced by Vitamin D deficiency. Patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) show lower levels of Vitamin D compared with normal people [3]. Vitamin D is known to have a positive effect on diabetes, but the prevalence of Vitamin D deficiency shows a large number. Many countries around the world report the incidence of Vitamin D deficiency. The United States and Europe show that 5,9% and 13% population have Vitamin D deficiency [4]. In Indonesia, 45.1% of children aged 1–18 years and 82% of productive age women have Vitamin D deficiency [5].

Vitamin D has a significant role in diabetes to maintain blood glucose tolerance [6], decrease insulin

resistance [7], and as a gene transcription factor [8]. This fat-soluble vitamin can be obtained from food intake and formed by the body but has low bioavailability. Food sources of Vitamin D are not much and the Vitamin D content in foodstuffs is low [9]. The nature of Vitamin D is easy to damage by heat, light, oxidation, and acid. That thing made the bioavailability of consumed Vitamin D low [10], [11]. To overcome this issue, the application of nanotechnology-based dietary supplements could be applied. Vitamin D encapsulation would maintain vitamin bioavailability. The encapsulation method has two functions, as a carrier and protector agent of Vitamin D in the gastrointestinal tract.

The application of nanocarrier technology has provided many breakthroughs for the development of medicine around the world. When compared with the conventional method, the application of nanocarrier provides more advantages [12]. Nanocarrier involved in drug and vitamin delivery shows an increase in water solubility of water-insoluble substances, protecting against degradation from the environmental condition, and inactivation [13]. The application of nanotechnology as a nanocarrier system must pay attention to many aspects. The nature and action of the carrier should be investigated when planning to apply as drug delivery or vitamin delivery [14], [15], [16]. The most important

thing is the biocompatibility system of the nanocarrier. The system must be safe, non-toxic, and not trigger an immune reaction in the human body [17], [18], [19]. The objective of this review is to highlight the recent update on the development of nanocarrier for Vitamin D and the opportunity to be nutraceuticals in T2DM.

Diabetes Mellitus

Glucose is a product of carbohydrate metabolism. Blood glucose is a very important part of maintaining the body's physiological functions as a source of energy. Blood glucose levels rise after meals and are usually low in the morning and before meals. Blood glucose levels are maintained to maintain balance in the body. Blood glucose levels are regulated by the pancreas gland. When blood glucose levels drop, the pancreas releases glucagon, a hormone that targets liver cells, which are glycogen stores. With the help of the hormone glucagon, glycogen is converted into glucose in the liver (the process of glycogenolysis) and glucose is released into the bloodstream. In conditions of high blood glucose levels, the hormone insulin is released from the pancreas. The hormone insulin increases the transport of glucose from the circulation to the muscles and liver. In the liver, glucose is converted to glycogen (the process of glycogenesis). In normal conditions, the homeostasis of the blood glucose in circulation will be balanced, but it not going well in diabetes. In a diabetic person, the blood regulation will be disturbed and causing many defects in the body due to the complications.

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic disease characterized by disturbances in carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism. Common symptoms of this disease are polydipsia, polyuria, polyphagia, and weight loss. This disease involves the endocrine hormones of the pancreas (insulin and glucagon) and is associated with the impaired physiological function of insulin. There are two types of DM disease based on endogenous insulin secretion, Insulin-Dependent Diabetes Mellitus (IDDM) or commonly known as type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), and Non-Insulin-Dependent Diabetes Mellitus (NIDDM), commonly known as type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) (20). Worldwide, 90–95% of diabetics people have T2DM. The increasing prevalence of T2DM going rapidly influenced by sedentary lifestyles such as low physical activity, high intake of fast food and sweet sugar beverage, and low intake of fruits and vegetables [1], [20], [21]. Overweight, obesity or central obesity, and hyperglycemia in pregnancy are factors that influence the incidence of insulin resistance in people with T2DM [22].

Diabetes mellitus is a metabolic disease with the characteristic of insufficient insulin production or ineffective insulin physiological performance. Insulin

is a key of the body to deliver blood glucose from circulation to the cell's target [1]. T2DM is a metabolic disorder with the characteristic of insulin resistance, impaired insulin secretion, and increased glucose production. T2DM is preceded by abnormal sugar homeostases such as impaired fasting glucose or impaired glucose tolerance [23]. Insulin resistance (IR) is considered one of the mechanisms that developed T2DM. IR disrupts the glucose intake from blood circulation and is involved with the over-production of hepatic glucose [24]. To lead to T2DM, the IR condition usually occurs over a long time. Due to the IR condition, the human body will compensate for homeostasis in the form of producing large amounts of insulin hormone. The long-term condition of insulin overproduction would lead to pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction due to systemic inflammation. The pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction is associated with beta-cell death [25].

The condition of diabetes affects various physiological functions of the body, including the digestive tract. Some problems in the digestive tract that is often found in patients with diabetes are a longer gastric emptying time to the accompanying diarrhea problem. The physiological functions of the digestive tract, starting from the esophagus to the anus, will change in a person with diabetes. A vital function of the digestive tract to maintain life will be disrupted. The condition of diabetes will affect the ability of the gastrointestinal organs both directly and indirectly. Obstacles in the process of swallowing, movement of organs, breakdown, and absorption of nutrients, to the process of removing residual waste, will affect long-term health. Various digestive problems such as gastroesophageal reflux (GERD), nausea, vomiting, bloating, and diarrhea to constipation can accompany diabetic patients which will worsen the condition if not treated immediately [26]. By reducing the burden on the stomach and mild methods of giving oral therapy, diabetics person will be easier to carry out consumption therapy. In addition, proper and efficient administration of nutraceuticals will reduce unwanted signs and symptoms in undergoing therapy.

Vitamin D as Nutraceutical in Diabetes

Vitamin D is a non-essential fat-soluble vitamin that has a huge and important role in calcium homeostasis [27]. Structurally, Vitamin D is a derivative of steroid compounds in the body [28]. Vitamin D can be obtained from food intake and supplementation. It can be activated through exposure to sunlight in the form of Vitamin D3. The nature of Vitamin D is easy to damage by heat, light, oxidation, and acid. That thing made the bioavailability of consumed Vitamin D low [10], [11]. However, the prevalence of Vitamin D deficiency worldwide is still high [1]. Vitamin D supplementation can

be a solution to sufficient Vitamin D requirements, but it still does not cover a wide population. Vitamin D fortification is an alternative to reduce Vitamin D deficiency that has the potential effect to cover a wider population and potentially increase Vitamin D intake. The form of Vitamin D used for fortification is Vitamin D₂ or Vitamin D₃ [29]. Fortification of the active form of Vitamin D (Vitamin D₃) is considered efficient in the supplying requirement of Vitamin D. Addition of Vitamin D₃ to food has shown an improvement in blood glucose and insulin status in diabetes mellitus [30]. Vitamin D deficiency has been associated with decreasing insulin release, increasing insulin resistance, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Vitamin D deficiency causes dysregulation of glucose metabolism by interfering with glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in the hyperglycemic phase [20]. Vitamin D intake affects insulin resistance and is positively correlated with insulin secretion in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. Supplementation of orally high-dose cholecalciferol (10,000 IU per day for 4 weeks) as a replacement dose showed an increased insulin sensitivity of 37% in subjects with fasting blood glucose disorder [31]. A study in diabetic Wistar rats has proven that fortification of Vitamin D₃ in foodstuffs can significantly reduce blood sugar levels [32]. This thing happened because increasing serum Vitamin D concentration has a positive effect on insulin homeostasis [33].

Systemic inflammation is one of the causes of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and insulin resistance occurs in it. Vitamin D has an anti-inflammatory effect and it is useful to overcome inflammation. In the metabolic process, Vitamin D₃ plays a role in preventing and improving the status of diabetes mellitus. Vitamin D can provide benefits for several disease prevention, such as multiple sclerosis, cancer, bacterial infections [34], and diabetes [35]. Vitamin D is maintaining glucose tolerance through insulin secretion and sensitivity [6]. Vitamin D₃ has a function in insulin synthesis and secretion by modulating the intracellular calcium homeostatic system. Vitamin D is protective against insulin resistance because it has anti-inflammatory effects. Pancreatic beta cells have a specific receptor for 1,25(OH)₂D₃ that regulates insulin secretion. Vitamin D also stimulates insulin receptor expression and triggers insulin response to glucose. In another way, Vitamin D provides sufficient intracellular cytosolic calcium for insulin secretion through the regulation of calcium flux in the cell membrane [7]. The metabolism can be concluded that Vitamin D has a positive effect on insulin resistance [36].

Nanocarriers System

In simple terms, a nanocarrier is a nanoparticle that can be used as a transporter for therapeutic

compounds or other compounds to their targets [37]. The size of a nanocarrier compound has a diameter between 1 and 100 nanometers (nm) [38]. In the application of nanocarriers for therapeutic substances, the nanoparticle size must be <200 nm because the microcapillaries in the human body are 200 nm [39]. Nanocarrier in the therapeutic provides good biocompatibility as a safe medium for transporting the substance. The nanocarrier is inactive generally so it is regarded as a safe medium. The application of nanocarriers for drug transport shows that in circulation, nanocarriers have a long-term period and sustained release of drugs overcome the endosome-lysosome mechanism [40]. The modification of the nanoparticle would affect the physicochemical properties of the nanocarriers such as the surface, composition, as well as its shape, which can enhance their activity with decreased secondary effects [41]. There are several unique features of the nanocarriers that have been known including enhanced biodistribution and pharmacokinetics, enhanced stability, enhanced solubility, reduction in toxicity, and sustained-targeted drug delivery [42], [43].

Encapsulation is a strategy that can be used to increase the bioavailability of a substance component. Encapsulation technology is carried out by packing solid, liquid, and gaseous materials in small closed capsules with a release that has been designed at a controlled rate within a certain period, through a trigger mechanism in the form of certain environmental factors such as temperature, enzymes, pH, or fermentation [44]. The encapsulation technology coating a bioactive material is referred to as the core material or internal phase. The coating material is called the capsule or carrier material. Encapsulation not only helps protect the core material from damaging environmental conditions but also allows the passage of small amounts of material through the capsule walls. The interior (core side) of a nanocarrier system can be filled with nutraceutical or drug molecules. Nanocarriers such as polymer nanocarriers, nanocapsules, and dendrimers can encapsulate the drug efficiently in its perforated cavity [45], [46]. The hydrophobic nature of the inner cavity (core side) of the nanocarrier system makes it possible to incorporate more hydrophobic molecules into the nanocarrier through hydrophobic interactions or hydrogen bonding. This encapsulation can also occur through physical interactions. The release of the molecule occurs through neutralization of the pH-prone or hydrolysis, thiolysis, and the mechanism of thermolysis [47]. The materials that have the opportunity as a nanocarrier for Vitamin D have been researched. Solid lipid, liposome, micelles, and lipotides are materials that have been observed for Vitamin D encapsulation. The previous studies showing the application of using nanocarriers as encapsulation materials for Vitamin D are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Previous studies of nanocarriers application for Vitamin D

	Nanocarriers system	Nature of nanocarriers	Previous research
Vitamin D	Solid Lipid	A colloidal carrier that has good stability naturally degrades and is easy to modify [40].	A combination of vitamin d loaded with solid lipid nanocarriers combined with anti-cancer materials improves the effectivity therapy in breast cancers [92]. The system of vitamin D and nanoparticles determined the increasing systemic absorption and prolonged presence of the bioactive materials in the blood plasma [93], [94].
	Liposome	A phospholipid bilayer nanocarriers that has low toxicity naturally degrades and is biocompatible [41], [42].	Anti-aging agents that directly apply to the skin using liposomes with vitamin D3 loaded [95].
	Micelles	The colloidal aggregate of the molecules with amphiphilic nature has good biostability and dynamic system [52], [97].	The stability of liposomes as nanocarriers is affected by vitamin D3 [96]. The micelles have a role as a protective agent in vitamin D encapsulation with the intervention of UV-light with deterioration induced [98]. The bioavailability of vitamin D diminished to 37% in micelles with chitosan use [99].
	Lipotide	Complex molecules are composed of fat (lipid) molecules and protein molecules. Potential to carry hydrophobic molecules in a hydrophilic environment [71], [72].	Vitamin D can be encapsulated and stabilized for the enrichment of clear beverages [72]. Optimal formulation of the lipotide as a nanocarrier [73].

Solid Lipid

The development of solid lipid as a nanocarrier has been used and developed a decade before the 2000s. At the time, the solid lipid nanocarriers are used as a suitable carrier for hydrophobic drugs [37]. The special characteristic of solid lipid as nanocarriers makes it have a big opportunity as a delivery system for parenteral and oral delivery. The usual major component of solid lipid as nanocarrier is triglycerides and saturated fatty acid as neutral solid lipid, for lipophilic emulsifiers, polar phospholipid is used. Neutral lipids such as monoglycerides and diglycerides are naturally more polar than triglycerides and have different surface activities [48]. The variety of lipid properties is affected by the fatty acid composition [49]. In general, a lipid with long-chain saturated fatty acid is used as the components structure of nanocarrier. The unsaturated fatty acid and medium-chain fatty acid would be liquid lipids in the formulation of the nanocarrier [50], [51].

The solid lipid nanocarriers are prepared through the dispersion of melted solid lipids in water and stabilized by the way of giving emulsifiers through microemulsification or excessive pressure homogenization [52], [53]. The common materials for the preparation of solid lipid nanocarriers are usually formed from solid lipids such as free fatty acid; steroid or waxes; and triglycerides [54]. Based on the production circumstance and composition, the encapsulated molecules may be included in the matrix, shell, or core of the stable lipid. Nowadays, the solid lipid nanocarrier may be used to comprise ionic and hydrophilic anticancer drug materials at the side of the lipophilic drug. The polymer-lipid nanocarrier was explored to be an effective material for drug delivery from oral intervention [55]. The new generation of lipid-based nanocarrier was created to develop drawbacks of the previous generation of the lipid nanocarrier. This new-generation nanocarrier could be used for oral administration, parenteral intervention, and drug delivery through topical administration. Further development of lipid nanocarrier shows the opportunity as genes and nucleic delivery, controlled release of active agents [53], and targeted carrier of antitumor materials agent [56], [57].

Liposome

Liposomes are bilayer vesicles formed from cholesterol and phospholipids and have a liquid core located between the layers of the lipid bilayer. Assembled using distinctive features of the self-company of phospholipids, liposomes can be defined as synthetic, small, spherical vesicles which can be each biodegradable and biocompatible. Phospholipids are amphipathic debris with a hydrophobic extension composed of two fatty acid sequences with several carbon atoms from 10 to 24, and a polar head that guarantees their hydrophilic characteristics. The desire for phospholipids is due to their bivalent shape since the formed bilayer can without problems modify its fluidity and influence the release ratio of the engulfed drug [58]. Liposomes are characterized using their particular structure, defined by way of the bilayer structure of lipids. Aside from phospholipids, cholesterol is another constituent that can be considered to obtain liposomes, because it guarantees more desirable stability of these structures [59], [60].

Liposomes are widely used as drug carrier systems or other substances because they are compatible with a variety of bioactive peptides [61]. This is due to the structure in which the liquid core is suitable for hydrophilic peptides and the interior of the bilayer is compatible with hydrophobic substances. Moreover, liposomes have a shape resembling a cell membrane, which helps protect polypeptides from enzymatic degradation and oxidation. Liposomes also have many other advantages; easy to prepare, absorbed directly through lymphocyte tissue, non-toxic, biodegradable, and non-immunogenic [62]. The previous studies have proven the effectiveness of liposomes as encapsulation materials where the antioxidant capacity of genistein is more optimal using liposomes than caseinate [63]. Two methods possibly can integrate medicinal drugs or materials into liposomes: Passive and active carrier techniques. The passive envelopment strategy means that the bioactive molecules are entrapped in nanocarrier for the duration of their assembly, in case of the active loading, the therapeutic materials are packed into the intact liposomes [64].

Micelles

Micelles are colloidal particles with nanosized diameters and spherical shapes and have a non-polar nature interior with a polar outer surface [12]. This system was introduced in 1913 as colloidal aggregates from detergent in a water mixture [37]. The amphiphilic molecules formed from the hydrophobic tail that faces the center and the hydrophilic head on the surface. This type of nanocarrier could carry bioactive molecules agents either inside the hydrophobic side or sure covalently to the surface of micelles [65]. The big gain of the micelles is composed in the truth that they may be designed and synthetic to hold fat-soluble medicinal drugs or materials right away. Simply above their threshold attention, micelles are built due to the self-aggregation of the amphiphiles in aqueous situations, consequently engulfing passively the fat-soluble bioactive compound partitioning into the hydrophobic medium of the micelle core [66], [67], [68]. The capabilities of micelles also are altered by utilizing the encompassing situations. As an instance, blood consists of particular compounds that could affect the potential chemical gradient created among monomeric fractions within the micelles and the surrounding aqueous section, therefore increasing the critical micelle awareness. As a result, the solid micelles in saline answer can also show to have a negative balance in the blood and purpose them to disperse and discharge the carried capsules earlier [69], [70].

Liprotide

Liprotides are complex molecules composed of fat (lipid) molecules and protein molecules. Protein has a role as a shell while fat is a core. The core-shell structure formed from the liprotides complex can be used to encapsulate other molecules. The primary function of the protein coat is to increase the solubility of fatty acids. This ability makes liprotides the potential to carry hydrophobic molecules in a hydrophilic environment. Another function of the protein coat is to carry and deliver fatty acids to target cells or hydrophobic surfaces. Liprotides can stabilize small aliphatic molecules such as retinol and tocopherols by inserting the molecules into the fatty acid core [71]. Liprotides can protect tocopherols better than tocopherol-binding proteins such as beta-lactoglobulin and protein transfer α -tocopherol. Liprotides can be used to stabilize and deliver a wide variety of hydrophobic small molecules with potential health benefits [72]. In general, liprotides can increase the stability and solubility of molecules to be able to form complexes. Liprotides can easily deliver the carried compound into the membrane target but can decrease the stability of the complex

matrix under various conditions. Liprotides consisting of α -lactalbumin and oleic acid can dissolve Vitamin D, increasing Vitamin D stability against UV rays by 9 times, and increasing the stability of Vitamin D at 37°C up to 1000 times [72], [73]. α -lactalbumin can interact strongly with monolayer oleic acid by diffusion and absorption on the surface, incorporation with films, and protein-lipid complexes between molecules by hydrophobic interactions [74]. Liprotides can release Vitamin D by transferring Vitamin D to phospholipid vesicles. Vitamin D encapsulated by liprotides using α -lactalbumin-oleic acid and β -lactoglobulin can increase the availability of Vitamin D in clear beverage products with neutral pH [75]. Many compounds can be used to form a liprotides system, but there is a specific component that has been developed to form a liprotides system such as α -lactalbumin, β -lactoglobulin, and oleic acid.

α -Lactalbumin

α -lactalbumin is one of the whey proteins in cow's milk than can be a good candidate for vitamin encapsulation. α -lactalbumin can bind hydrophobic ligands such as retinol and hydrophobic peptides. Bio macromolecules such as proteins have a potential opportunity for vitamin encapsulation. Based on research conducted by Delavari *et al.*, α -lactalbumin has one binding site for Vitamin D3 [76]. When hydrophobic interactions form, the conformation of the protein changes, and the hydrophobic surface of α -lactalbumin increases. The secondary structure of α -lactalbumin is changed in the presence of Vitamin D3. α -lactalbumin is a small globular protein with 123 amino acids and a molecular mass of 14.2 kDa. α -lactalbumin is the predominant protein in human milk. In cow's milk, the concentration of α -lactalbumin is 1–1.5 g/L (3.4% total protein). The natural structure of bovine α -lactalbumin consists of a large helical domain and a small beta layer domain, both of them are connected by a loop. α -lactalbumin has a hydrophobic site and made α -lactalbumin has one binding site to bind other compounds, like Vitamin D3 [76]. The solubility of α -lactalbumin can be affected by certain conditions of pH, temperature, and ionic state [77]. α -lactalbumin is relatively resistant to protease digestive enzymes (pepsin and trypsin) because of its globular and dense structure [78]. Whey protein isolate contains 17% of α -lactalbumin and α -lactalbumin contains 48 mg of tryptophan and 48 mg of cysteine per gram of protein [79]. Tryptophan in α -lactalbumin can increase the tryptophan levels in the blood which can help synthesize and increase the availability of serotonin in the brain. α -lactalbumin also accelerates wound healing [80], for recovery from various types of sports [81].

β-Lactoglobulin

β-lactoglobulin is a component is found in milk whey and soluble in salt solutions. β-lactoglobulin belongs to the lipocalin protein group [82] and has been shown to bind various hydrophobic molecules such as fatty acids [83], retinol, and Vitamin D [84]. β-lactoglobulin can bind fatty acids such as oleic acid and linoleic acid. The research showed that the complex of β-lactoglobulin and oleic acid could increase the tertiary structure. β-lactoglobulins have more binding sites for oleic acid than linoleic acid which interacts with van der Waals bonds and hydrogen bonds [85]. Encapsulation of Vitamin D₃ with β-lactoglobulin with lysozyme modification could increase the bioavailability, resistance to pH, and solubility [86]. β-lactoglobulin has 162 amino acid residues and a molecular weight of 18.4 kDa. β-lactoglobulin is the main component of whey protein in milk that can freeze and denature when milk boils. After denaturation, β-lactoglobulin forms a film layer on the milk surface. It happens because β-lactoglobulin protein molecules can form a transparent gel when heated for a long time at low pH and low ionic strength [86]. β-lactoglobulin is known as an allergen, the manufacturers need to prove the presence or absence of β-lactoglobulin content to ensure that the labeling meets the requirements. Food testing laboratories can use enzyme immunosorbent assay methods to identify and measure β-lactoglobulin in food products. Polymerization of β-lactoglobulin by microbial transglutaminase reduces its allergenicity in children and adults with immunoglobulin E (IgE)-mediated cow's milk allergy [87].

Oleic Acid

Oleic acid is an unsaturated fatty acid that is easily obtained and can be extracted from several different sources, one of which is olive oil. Apart from olive oil (55–80%), these fatty acids are also contained in industrial waste from palm oil, sunflower oil, rapeseed oil, and grape seed oil. The availability of oleic acid in nature is very abundant and is commonly used in the manufacture of surfactants, soaps, plasticizers, and food and drug emulsifiers [88]. This acid is composed of 18°C atoms with one double bond between the 9th and 10th C atoms. The oleic acid structure has two functional groups, alkenes, and carboxylic acids. The presence of alkenes with Z isomer, the bond between oleic acid molecules becomes stronger and made oleic acid in the liquid phase at room temperature. In polar solvents, oleic acid forms a bilayer structure [88]. As part of liposomes, oleic acid has limitations in its use due to the tendency to break down and cause release. One method to increase its stability is by coating it with protein to form a complex called lipotides [89].

Delivery Mechanism

The human digestive system is a complex system that aims to digest food into nutrients. During the digestion process, food will mix with enzymes. Enzymes function as catalysts in biological processes that can provide speed, specification, and control of reactions in the body by increasing the rate of chemical reactions by 10⁸–10¹¹ times faster [90]. Each enzyme has maximum activity at a certain temperature. When the temperature increases, the enzyme activity also increases until the optimum temperature is reached. After passing the optimum temperature, the enzyme activity decreased [91]. In addition to enzymes, stomach acids contribute to the breakdown of food into nutrients. However, the acidic pH of the stomach can affect the stability of Vitamin D, because the vitamin is not stable in acidic conditions [10].

Encapsulation of Vitamin D with nanocarrier could be the new perspective of nutraceutical therapy in type 2 diabetes. The nanocarriers system has a potential opportunity as a transporter of Vitamin D. The system can carry and protect Vitamin D from the gastrointestinal tract until absorbed into blood circulation. After Vitamin D encapsulated with a nanocarrier system has been consumed by oral administration, the system would protect the vitamin in the gastric environment. The gastric environment is acidic and contains a variety of digestive enzymes such as pepsin and gastric acid. The shell of the nanocarriers system that forms from organic properties will be affected by the gastric environment but the vitamin is still safe in the core of the system. After passing through the gastric, the system will enter the intestine. The intestine system will be affected by an intestine enzyme such as trypsin, chymotrypsin, and pancreatic fluid. Due to the environmental condition in the intestine, Vitamin D will be released from the system. Vitamin D that is protected by the nanocarrier system still has a good condition after passing through the gastrointestinal system and is ready to be absorbed in the intestinal with good bioavailability.

Future Perspectives

One of the challenges in the medical field today is the use of nutraceutical therapy that returns to its natural state. The application of nanotechnology in the development of the world of health is an important point in the treatment of a disease. At present, there have been many studies related to the application of nanotechnology which is used as a delivery agent and protector of substances and vitamins. The design and development of nanoparticle-based nutraceutical therapy as an alternative treatment for degenerative

diseases has shown good results. Vitamin D is known to have a positive effect on improving diabetes status and is used for alternative therapies for diabetic patients. However, there are many obstacles, both in terms of absorption and bioavailability of Vitamin D. The nanoencapsulation method has a chance to increase the bioavailability of Vitamin D. Nutraceuticals therapy using Vitamin D3 encapsulated with nanocarrier could be a new alternative for oral therapy of diabetes type 2.

Conclusion

Recently, nanotechnology has been developed as the approach for vitamin delivery agents. The nanocarrier technology brings the development in vitamin delivery. Exploration of nanocarrier systems in the application of supplemental vitamin administration shows a better prospect than direct administration of vitamins. There are many challenges to producing an economical nanocarrier system with good quality. The application and manufacture of standardized nanocarrier systems will have a very potent impact on the application of vitamin delivery in the body. In the future, the application of nanocarriers in various fields including vitamin delivery in the body will continue to grow. The encapsulation of Vitamin D provides another point of view in the implementation of therapy in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. The use of encapsulation of Vitamin D with nanocarrier is expected to help treat type 2 diabetes patients to improve their quality of life.

References

1. IDF Diabetes Atlas; 2019. Available from: <https://idf.org/e-library/epidemiology-research/diabetes-atlas.html> [Last accessed on 2021 Apr 25].
2. Riskesdas K. Main Results of Basic Health Research (RISKESDAS). Vol. 44. Indonesian Health Ministry; 2018.
3. Nasr MH, Hassan BA, Othman N, Karuppannan M, Abdulaziz NB, Mohammed AH, *et al.* Prevalence of Vitamin D deficiency between Type 2 diabetes mellitus patients and non-diabetics in the Arab Gulf. *Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes.* 2022;15:647-57. <https://doi.org/10.2147/DMSO.S350626> PMID:35250286
4. Amrein K, Scherkl M, Hoffmann M, Neuwersch-Sommeregger S, Köstenberger M, Berisha TA, *et al.* Vitamin D deficiency 2.0: An update on the current status worldwide. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2020;74(11):1498-513. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41430-020-0558-y> PMID:31959942
5. Divakar U, Sathish T, Soljak M, Bajpai R, Dunleavy G, Visvalingam N, *et al.* Prevalence of Vitamin D deficiency and its associated work-related factors among indoor workers in a multi-ethnic southeast asian country. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020;17(1):164. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17010164> PMID:31881679
6. Ashraf A, Alvarez JA. Role of Vitamin D in insulin secretion and insulin sensitivity for glucose homeostasis. *Int J Endocrinol.* 2010;2010:351385. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2010/351385> PMID:20011094
7. Mitri J, Pittas AG. Vitamin D and diabetes. *Contemp Endocrinol.* 2018;43(1):135-49.
8. Christakos S, Dhawan P, Verstuyf A, Verlinden L, Carmeliet G. Vitamin D: Metabolism, molecular mechanism of action, and pleiotropic effects. *Physiol Rev.* 2016;96(1):365-408. <https://doi.org/10.1152/physrev.00014.2015> PMID:26681795
9. Cribb VL, Northstone K, Hopkins D, Emmett PM. Sources of Vitamin D and calcium in the diets of preschool children in the UK and the theoretical effect of food fortification. *J Hum Nutr Diet.* 2015;28(6):583-92. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jhn.12277> PMID:25280181
10. Carolyn D, Berdanier JZ. Advanced Nutrition Macronutrients, Micronutrients, and Metabolism. Boca Raton: CRC Press, Taylor Francis Group; 1995.
11. Hasanvand E, Fathi M, Bassi A, Javanmard M. Food and bioproducts processing novel starch based nanocarrier for vitamin d fortification of milk. *J Food Bioprod Process.* 2015;96:264-77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2015.09.007>
12. Crintea A, Dutu AG, Sovrea A, Constantin A, Samasca G, Masalar AL, *et al.* Nanocarriers for drug delivery : An overview with emphasis on Vitamin D and K transportation. 2022;1-26.
13. Din Fu, Aman W, Ullah I, Qureshi OS, Mustapha O, Shafique S, *et al.* Effective use of nanocarriers as drug delivery systems for the treatment of selected tumors. *Int J Nanomedicine.* 2017;12:7291-309. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S146315> PMID:29042776
14. Wang Y, Zhang X, Wan K, Zhou N, Wei G, Su Z. Supramolecular peptide nano-assemblies for cancer diagnosis and therapy: From molecular design to material synthesis and function-specific applications. *J Nanobiotechnol.* 2021;19(1):1-31. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-021-00999-x>
15. Giudicessi JR, Ackerman BA, Pantalone DW, Schneider KL, Valentine SE, Simoni JM, *et al.* NIH Public access. *AIDS Behav.* 2012;23(1):1031-43.
16. Murugan C, Rayappan K, Thangam R, Bhanumathi R, Shanthi K, Vivek R, *et al.* Combinatorial nanocarrier based drug delivery approach for amalgamation of anti-tumor agents in bresat cancer cells: An improved nanomedicine strategies. *Sci Rep.* 2016;6:34053. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep34053> PMID:27725731
17. Corma A, Botella P, Rivero-Buceta E. Silica-based stimuli-responsive systems for antitumor drug delivery and controlled release. *Pharmaceutics.* 2022;14(1):110. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics14010110> PMID:35057006
18. Cun D, Zhang C, Bera H, Yang M. Particle engineering principles and technologies for pharmaceutical biologics. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2021;174(103):140-67. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2021.04.006>
19. Millner LM, Linder MW. HHS public access. *Physiol Behav.* 2019;176(5):139-48.
20. Park S, Kim DS, Kang S. Vitamin D deficiency impairs glucose-stimulated insulin secretion and increases insulin resistance by reducing PPAR- γ expression in nonobese Type 2 diabetic rats. *J Nutr Biochem.* 2016;27:257-65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnutbio.2015.09.013> PMID:26522682
21. World Health Organization. WHO Global Report. Global Report on Diabetes. Geneva: World Health Organization;

2016. Available from: http://www.who.int/about/licensing/copyright_form/index.html%0Ahttp://www.who.int/about/licensing/copyright_form/index.html%0Ahttp://www.who.int/about/licensing/copyright_form/index.html%0Ahttps://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/204871%0Ahttp://www.who.int [Last accessed on 2022 May 10].
22. Diabetes Care. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*. 2014;37(Suppl 1):81-90. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc14-S081>
PMid:24357215
 23. Galicia-Garcia U, Benito-Vicente A, Jebari S, Larrea-Sebal A, Siddiqi H, Uribe KB, *et al*. Pathophysiology of Type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2020;21(17):6275. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21176275>
PMid:32872570
 24. Kahn SE, Cooper ME, Del Prato S. Pathophysiology and treatment of Type 2 diabetes: Perspectives on the past, present, and future. *Lancet*. 2014;383(9922):1068-83. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)62154-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)62154-6)
PMid:24315620
 25. Christensen AA, Gannon M. The beta cell in Type 2 diabetes. *Curr Diab Rep*. 2019;19(9):81. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11892-019-1196-4>
PMid:31399863
 26. Chinmay S, Marathe, Rayner CK, Wu T, Karen L, *et al*. Gastrointestinal Disorders in Diabetes. South Dartmouth, MA: MDText.com, Inc.; 2020.
 27. Mahmoodani F, Perera CO, Abernethy G, Fedrizzi B, Chen H. Lipid oxidation and Vitamin D3 degradation in simulated whole milk powder as influenced by processing and storage. *Food Chem*. 2018;261:149-56.
PMid:29739575
 28. Zenebe T, Ahmed N, Kabeta T, Kebede G. Review on medicinal and nutritional values of goat milk. *Acad J Nutr*. 2014;3(3):30-9.
 29. Cashman KD. Vitamin D: Dietary requirements and food fortification as a means of helping achieve adequate Vitamin D status. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*. 2015;148:19-26. doi.org/10.1016/j.jsbmb.2015.01.023
PMid:25637758
 30. Al Thani M, Sadoun E, Sofroniou A, Jayyousi A, Baagar KA, Al Hammag A, *et al*. The effect of Vitamin D supplementation on the glycemic control of pre-diabetic Qatari patients in a randomized control trial. *BMC Nutr*. 2019;5:46. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40795-019-0311-x>
PMid:32153959
 31. Cardoso-Sánchez LI, Gómez-Díaz RA, Wachter NH. Vitamin D intake associates with insulin resistance in Type 2 diabetes, but not in latent autoimmune diabetes in adults. *Nutr Res*. 2015;35(8):689-99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nutres.2015.05.019>
PMid:26101151
 32. Maulana RA, Afifah DN, Rustanti N, Anjani G, Panunggal B. Effect of goat milk kefir fortified with Vitamin D3 on blood glucose and insulin in rats. *Pak J Med Health Sci*. 2019;13(4):1272-5.
 33. Jafari T, Faghihimani E, Feizi A, Iraj B, Javanmard SH, Esmailzadeh A, *et al*. Effects of Vitamin D-fortified low fat yogurt on glycemic status, anthropometric indexes, inflammation, and bone turnover in diabetic postmenopausal women: A randomised controlled clinical trial. *Clin Nutr*. 2016;35(1):67-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2015.02.014>
PMid:25794439
 34. White JH. Vitamin D signaling, infectious diseases, and regulation of innate immunity. *Infect Immun*. 2008;76(9):3837-43. <https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00353-08>
PMid:18505808
 35. Mathieu C, Badenhop K. Vitamin D and Type 1 diabetes mellitus: State of the art. *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2005;16(6):261-6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tem.2005.06.004>
PMid:15996876
 36. Benetti E, Mastrocola R, Chiazza F, Nigro D, D'Antona G, Bordano, *et al*. Effects of Vitamin D on insulin resistance and myosteatosis in diet-induced obese mice. *PLoS One*. 2018;13(1):e0189707. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0189707>
PMid:29342166
 37. Chamundeeswari M, Jeslin J, Verma ML. Nanocarriers for drug delivery applications. *Environ Chem Lett*. 2019;17(2):849-65.
 38. Qian WY, Sun DM, Zhu RR, Du XL, Liu H, Wang SL. pH-sensitive strontium carbonate nanoparticles as new anticancer vehicles for controlled etoposide release. *Int J Nanomed*. 2012;7:5781-92. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S34773>
PMid:23185118
 39. Singh R, Lillard JW. Nanoparticle-based targeted drug delivery. *Exp Mol Pathol*. 2009;86(3):215-23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yexmp.2008.12.004>
PMid:19186176
 40. Kingsley JD, Dou H, Morehead J, Rabinow B, Gendelman HE, Destache CJ. Nanotechnology: A focus on nanoparticles as a drug delivery system. *J Neuroimmune Pharmacol*. 2006;1(3):340-50. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11481-006-9032-4>
PMid:18040810
 41. Sun T, Zhang YS, Pang B, Hyun DC, Yang M, Xia Y. Engineered nanoparticles for drug delivery in cancer therapy. *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl*. 2014;53(46):12320-64. <https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201403036>
PMid:25294565
 42. Mishra B, Patel BB, Tiwari S. Colloidal nanocarriers: A review on formulation technology, types and applications toward targeted drug delivery. *Nanomedicine*. 2010;6(1):9-24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nano.2009.04.008>
PMid:19447208
 43. How CW, Rasedee A, Manickam S, Rosli R. Tamoxifen-loaded nanostructured lipid carrier as a drug delivery system: characterization, stability assessment and cytotoxicity. *Colloids Surf B Biointerf*. 2013;112:393-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2013.08.009>
PMid:24036474
 44. Patra JK, Das G, Fraceto LF, Campos EV, Rodriguez-Torres MD, Acosta-Torres LS, *et al*. Nano based drug delivery systems: recent developments and future prospects. *J Nanobiotechnol*. 2018;16(1):1-33. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-018-0392-8>
 45. Alvarez-Román R, Naik A, Kalia YN, Guy RH, Fessi H. Skin penetration and distribution of polymeric nanoparticles. *J Control Release*. 2004;99(1):53-62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2004.06.015>
PMid:15342180
 46. Arpicco S, Battaglia L, Brusa P, Cavalli R, Chirio D, Dosio F, *et al*. Recent studies on the delivery of hydrophilic drugs in nanoparticulate systems. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol*. 2016;32:298-312.
 47. Patil H, Tiwari RV, Repka MA. Recent advancements in mucoadhesive floating drug delivery systems: A mini-review. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol*. 2016;31:65-71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jddst.2015.12.002>
 48. Christie WW. Rapid separation and quantification of lipid classes by high performance liquid chromatography and mass (light-scattering) detection. *J Lipid Res*. 1985;26:507-12.
PMid:4009068
 49. Borkar N, Xia D, Holm R, Gan Y, Müllertz A, Yang M, *et al*. Investigating the correlation between in vivo absorption and

- in vitro release of fenofibrate from lipid matrix particles in biorelevant medium. *Eur J Pharm Sci.* 2014;51(1):204-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejps.2013.09.022> PMID:24134899
50. Rosiaux Y, Jannin V, Hughes S, Marchaud D. Solid lipid excipients matrix agents for sustained drug delivery. *J Control Release.* 2014;188:18-30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2014.06.004> PMID:24929038
 51. Xia D, Cui F, Gan Y, Mu H, Yang M. Design of lipid matrix particles for fenofibrate: effect of polymorphism of glycerol monostearate on drug incorporation and release. *J Pharm Sci.* 2014;103(2):697-705. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jps.23830> PMID:24375427
 52. Malam Y, Loizidou M, Seifalian AM. Liposomes and nanoparticles: Nanosized vehicles for drug delivery in cancer. *Trends Pharmacol Sci.* 2009;30(11):592-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tips.2009.08.004> PMID:19837467
 53. Müller RH, Mäder K, Gohla S. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) for controlled drug delivery a review of the state of the art. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm.* 2000;50(1):161-77. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0939-6411\(00\)00087-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0939-6411(00)00087-4) PMID:10840199
 54. Üner M, Yener G. Importance of solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) in various administration routes and future perspectives. *Int J Nanomed.* 2007;2(3):289-300. PMID:18019829
 55. Hallan SS, Kaur P, Kaur V, Mishra N, Vaidya B. Lipid polymer hybrid as emerging tool in nanocarriers for oral drug delivery. *Artif Cells Nanomed Biotechnol.* 2016;44(1):334-49. <https://doi.org/10.3109/21691401.2014.951721> PMID:25237838
 56. Bondi ML, Craparo EF, Giammona G, Cervello M, Azzolina A, Diana P, et al. Nanostructured lipid carriers-containing anticancer compounds: Preparation, characterization, and cytotoxicity studies. *Drug Deliv.* 2007;14(2):61-7. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10717540600739914> PMID:17364869
 57. Stella B, Peira E, Dianzani C, Gallarate M, Battaglia L, Gigliotti CL, et al. Development and characterization of solid lipid nanoparticles loaded with a highly active doxorubicin derivative. *Nanomater (Basel).* 2018;8(2):110. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano8020110> PMID:29462932
 58. Chis AA, Dobrea C, Morgovan C, Arseniu AM, Rus LL, Butuca A, et al. Applications and limitations of dendrimers in biomedicine. *Molecules.* 2020;25(17):3982. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25173982> PMID:32882920
 59. Bozzuto G, Molinari A. Liposomes as nanomedical devices. *Int J Nanomed.* 2015;10:975-99. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S68861> PMID:25678787
 60. Akbarzadeh A, Rezaei-Sadabady R, Davaran S, Joo SW, Zarghami N, Hanifehpour Y, et al. Liposome: Classification, preparation, and applications. *Nanoscale Res Lett.* 2013;8(1):102.
 61. Mohan A, Rajendran SR, He QS, Bazinet L, Udenigwe CC. Encapsulation of Food Protein Hydrolysates and Peptides: A Review; 2015. Available from: <https://www.rsc.org/advances> [Last accessed on 2022 May 15].
 62. Ismail R, Csóka I. Novel strategies in the oral delivery of antidiabetic peptide drugs - Insulin, GLP 1 and its analogs. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm.* 2017;115:257-67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpb.2017.03.015> PMID:28336368
 63. Anjani G, Ohta A, Yasuhara K, Asakawa T. Solubilization of genistein by caseinate micellar system. *J Oleo Sci.* 2014;63(4):413-22. <https://doi.org/10.5650/jos.ess13198> PMID:24599106
 64. Sur S, Fries AC, Kinzler KW, Zhou S, Vogelstein B. Remote loading of preencapsulated drugs into stealth liposomes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2014;111(6):2283-8. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1324135111> PMID:24474802
 65. Hanafy NA, El-Kemary M, Leporatti S. Micelles structure development as a strategy to improve smart cancer therapy. *Cancers (Basel).* 2018;10(7):238. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers10070238> PMID:30037052
 66. Al-Tikriti Y, Hansson P. Drug-Induced phase separation in polyelectrolyte microgels. *Gels (Basel).* 2021;8(1):4. <https://doi.org/10.3390/gels8010004>
 67. Censi R, Di Martino P, Vermonden T, Hennink WE. Hydrogels for protein delivery in tissue engineering. *J Control Release.* 2012;161(2):680-92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2012.03.002> PMID:22421425
 68. Hoare TR, Kohane DS. Hydrogels in drug delivery: Progress and challenges. *Polymer (Guildf).* 2008;49(8):1993-2007. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polymer.2008.01.027>
 69. Lu Y, Zhang E, Yang J, Cao Z. Strategies to improve micelle stability for drug delivery. *Nano Res.* 2018;11(10):4985-98. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12274-018-2152-3> PMID:30370014
 70. Xu W, Ling P, Zhang T. Polymeric micelles, a promising drug delivery system to enhance bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs. *J Drug Deliv.* 2013;2013:340315. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/340315> PMID:23936656
 71. Kaspersen JD, Pedersen JN, Hansted JG, Nielsen SB, Sakthivel S, Wilhelm K, et al. Generic structures of cytotoxic lipotides: Nano-sized complexes with oleic acid cores and shells of disordered proteins. *ChemBioChem.* 2014;15(18):2693-702. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cbic.201402407>
 72. Pedersen JN, Frislev HS, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Using protein-fatty acid complexes to improve Vitamin D stability. *J Dairy Sci.* 2016;99(10):7755-67. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2016-11343> PMID:27474981
 73. Sørensen HV, Pedersen JN, Pedersen JS, Otzen DE. Tailoring thermal treatment to form lipotide complexes between oleic acid and different proteins. *Biochim Biophys Acta Proteins Proteomics.* 2017;1865(6):682-93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbapap.2017.03.011> PMID:28351690
 74. Dopierała K, Krajewska M, Prochaska K. Binding of α -lactalbumin to oleic acid monolayer and its relevance to formation of HAMLET-like complexes. *Int Dairy J.* 2019;89:96-104.
 75. Vieira EF, Souza S. Formulation strategies for improving the stability and bioavailability of Vitamin D-fortified beverages: A review. *Foods.* 2022;11(6):847. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods11060847> PMID:35327269
 76. Delavari B, Saboury AA, Atri MS, Ghasemi A, Bigdeli B, Khammari A, et al. Alpha-lactalbumin: A new carrier for Vitamin D3 food enrichment. *Food Hydrocoll.* 2015;45:124-31.
 77. Tavares T, Malcata FX. Whey and Whey Powders: Protein Concentrates and Fractions. 1st ed. Amsterdam: Encyclopedia of Food and Health, Elsevier Ltd.; 2015. p. 506-13.
 78. Kamau SM, Cheison SC, Chen W, Liu XM, Lu RR. Alpha-lactalbumin: Its production technologies and bioactive peptides.

- Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf. 2010;9(2):197-212. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-4337.2009.00100.x>
79. Layman DK, Lönnerdal B, Fernstrom JD. Applications for α -lactalbumin in human nutrition. *Nutr Rev*. 2018;76(6):444-60. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nutrit/nuy004>
PMid:29617841
 80. Minet-Ringuet J, Le Ruyet PM, Tomé D, Even PC. A tryptophan-rich protein diet efficiently restores sleep after food deprivation in the rat. *Behav Brain Res*. 2004;152(2):335-40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2003.10.018>
PMid:15196801
 81. Jager R, Kerksick CM, Campbell BI, Cribb PJ, Wells SD, Skwiat TM, *et al.* International society of sports nutrition position stand: Protein and exercise. *J Int Soc Sports Nutr*. 2017;14(1):1-25. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12970-017-0177-8>
PMid:28642676
 82. Rovoli M, Sawyer GK. Non Natural Fatty Acids Binding Affinity to Bovine β -Lactoglobulin: Crystallographic and Thermodynamics Studies. *Lactoglobulin Crystallographic Thermodynamic Studies*; 2013.
 83. Le Maux S, Bouhallab S, Giblin L, Brodkorb A, Croguennec T. Bovine β -lactoglobulin/fatty acid complexes: Binding, structural, and biological properties. *Dairy Sci Technol*. 2014;94(5):409-26. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13594-014-0160-y>
PMid:25110551
 84. Diarrassouba F, Garrait G, Remondetto G, Alvarez P, Beyssac E. Increased stability and protease resistance of the β -lactoglobulin Vitamin D3 complex. *Food Chem*. 2013;145:646-52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.08.075>
 85. Fang B, Zhang M, Tian M, Ren F. Self-assembled β -lactoglobulin-oleic acid and β -lactoglobulin-linoleic acid complexes with antitumor activities.pdf. *J Dairy Sci*. 2015;98(5):2898-907. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2014-8993>
PMid:25771044
 86. Abbasi A, Emam-Djomeh Z, Mousavi MAE, Davoodi D. Stability of Vitamin D3 encapsulated in nanoparticles of whey protein isolate. *Food Chem*. 2014;143:379-83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.08.018>
PMid:24054255
 87. Olivier CE, Lima RP, Pinto DG, dos Santos RA, da Silva GK, Lorena SL, *et al.* In search of a tolerance-induction strategy for cow's milk allergies: Significant reduction of beta-lactoglobulin allergenicity via transglutaminase/cysteine polymerization. *Clinics*. 2012;67(10):1171-9. [https://doi.org/10.6061/clinics/2012\(10\)09](https://doi.org/10.6061/clinics/2012(10)09)
PMid:23070344
 88. Soriguer F, Esteve I, Rojo-Martínez G, de Adana MS, Dobarganes MC, García-Almeida JM, *et al.* Oleic acid from cooking oils is associated with lower insulin resistance in the general population (Pizarra study). *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2004;150(1):33-9. <https://doi.org/10.1530/eje.0.1500033>
PMid:14713277
 89. Casbarra A, Birolo L, Infusini G, Dal Piaz F, Svensson M, Pucci P, *et al.* Conformational analysis of HAMLET, the folding variant of human α -lactalbumin associated with apoptosis. *Protein Sci*. 2004;13(5):1322-30. <https://doi.org/10.1110/ps.03474704>
PMid:15075403
 90. Supriyatna A, Amalia D, Jauhari DH. Amilase, lipase, and protease activity from larva. *J Istek*. 2015;9(2):246-52.
 91. Megiandari A. Isolation and Characterization of Keratinolytic Protease Enzymes from the Intestines of Water Monitor Lizards; 2009.
 92. da Silva GH, de Moura LD, de Carvalho FV, Geronimo G, Mendonça TC, de Lima FF, *et al.* Antineoplastics encapsulated in nanostructured lipid carriers. *Molecules*. 2021;26(22):6929. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26226929>
PMid:34834022
 93. Mohammadi M, Pezeshki A, Abbasi MM, Ghanbarzadeh B, Hamishehkar H. Vitamin D 3-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers as a potential approach for fortifying food beverages; *in vitro* and *in vivo* evaluation. *Adv Pharm Bull*. 2017;7(1):61-71. <https://doi.org/10.15171/apb.2017.008>
PMid:28507938
 94. Nsairat H, Khater D, Odeh F, Al-Adaileh F, Al-Taher S, Jaber AM, *et al.* Lipid nanostructures for targeting brain cancer. *Heliyon*. 2021;7(9):e07994. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e07994>
PMid:34632135
 95. Bi Y, Xia H, Li L, Lee RJ, Xie J, Liu Z, *et al.* Liposomal Vitamin D3 as an anti-aging agent for the skin. *Pharmaceutics*. 2019;11(7):311. doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics11070311
PMid:31277236
 96. Aibani N, Rai R, Patel P, Cuddihy G, Wasan EK. Chitosan nanoparticles at the biological interface: Implications for drug delivery. *Pharmaceutics*. 2021;13(10):1686. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics13101686>
PMid:34683979
 97. Bhatia S. Nanoparticles types, classification, characterization, fabrication methods and drug delivery applications. In: *Natural Polymer Drug Delivery Systems*. Berlin: Springer; 2016. p. 33-93.
 98. Sadiq U, Gill H, Chandrapala J. Casein micelles as an emerging delivery system for bioactive food components. *Foods*. 2021;10:1965. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods10081965>
 99. Tan Y, Li R, Liu C, Mundo JM, Zhou H, Liu J, *et al.* Chitosan reduces Vitamin D bioaccessibility in food emulsions by binding to mixed micelles. *Food Funct*. 2020;11(1):187-99.