Vitamin D fortification: A perspective to improve immunity for COVID-19 infection

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ABSTRACT
The need for food fortification arises because of the close relationship between humans, health, and food. The problem of the prevalence of micronutrient malnutrition paved a way for food fortification to emerge and run in this technological era. This review focuses on the importance of vitamin D in the present pandemic situation and the techniques used for fortification. Stability and bio-accessibility are the biggest question in the food fortification process as a large proportion of vitamin D is lost during food processing and storage due to environmental stress conditions such as temperature, pH, salt, oxygen, and light. Vitamin D is an important micronutrient required for the prevention of respiratory disorders, neurodegenerative diseases, cardiovascular diseases, cancer etc. which make it essential in enhancing immunity against COVID-19. Food fortification is the most efficient and safest method recognized by the WHO. The present review is an update on vitamin D, considering its role and importance and fortification techniques adopted. Among all the techniques, nanoencapsulation is found to be an efficient one with the increasing demand.

Keywords: Vitamin D, COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, Fortification, Microencapsulation, Nanoencapsulation, Emulsification
INTRODUCTION

Health claims are becoming increasingly significant, and there is widespread agreement that a regulatory framework is required to protect consumers, promote fair trade, and stimulate product innovation in the food sector. Asia has the world’s highest proportion of micronutrient-deficient people, and chronic malnutrition is putting millions of babies and fetuses at risk of birth abnormalities, stunted development, and a high death rate. According to research, over 2 billion individuals worldwide suffer from important trace micronutrient insufficiency, which is mostly caused by a lack of vitamins and minerals in their diet [1]. These inadequacies (sometimes referred to as “hidden hunger”) of micronutrients are due to poor micronutrient bioavailability and an imbalanced diet [2]. Vitamin D is a steroid hormone that is produced endogenously by the skin’s response to ultraviolet radiation or obtained from exogenous food sources or dietary supplements, such as cod liver oil and fatty fish (e.g., salmon, mackerel, and tuna), UV-irradiated mushrooms, fortified foods, and supplements [3]. Vitamin D comes in two forms: vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) and vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol). Vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) is mostly human-made and added to meals, whereas vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol) is produced in human skin from 7-dehydrocholesterol and absorbed in the diet through animal-based foods. Vitamin D is a steroid hormone, produced endogenously with the effect of ultraviolet radiation on the skin or available from exogenous food sources or dietary supplements, including cod liver oil and fatty fish (e.g., salmon, mackerel, and tuna); UV-irradiated mushrooms; foods fortified with vitamin D; and supplements [3]. Vitamin D is present majorly in two forms, in example, vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) and vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol). Vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) is largely human-made and added to foods, whereas vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol) is synthesized in the skin of humans from 7-dehydrocholesterol and is also consumed in the diet via the intake of animal-based foods. Both vitamin D2 and vitamin D3 differ only in their side-chain structure. The differences do not affect metabolism (i.e., activation), and both forms function as prohormones [4]. Vitamin D (D2, D3, or both) deficiency is an international health concern that has
been associated with rickets osteomalacia, muscle weakness, osteoporosis and an increased risk of wheezing diseases, autoimmune diseases (e.g., type 1 diabetes, multiple sclerosis, rheumatoid arthritis, and Crohn’s disease), and cancer, such as of the prostate, breast, and colon [5]. Inadequate vitamin D exposure can cause calcium and phosphorus absorption to be decreased, which can lead to bone mineralization [4]. The mortality reports of WHO showed that vitamin D deficiency is one of the major contributors to total deaths (0.8 million deaths) per annum [1]. In the past few decades, awareness that vitamin D deficiency is a serious public health problem in many developing countries has increased. Although standards vary, most experts agree that levels of 25(OH)D, a biomarker for vitamin D, below 20 ng/ml (nanograms per milliliter) reflect clear-cut vitamin D inadequacy, while levels between 20 and 30 ng/ml are borderline. Vitamin D’s best-known role is to keep bones healthy by increasing the intestinal absorption of calcium. In industrialized countries, it is estimated that more than 30-50% of both children and adults from at least one of the manifestations of vitamin D deficiency. Vitamin D deficiency prevails in epidemic proportions in developing countries for example in India its prevalence is 70%–100% in the general population [6].

**Food Fortification: A better solution:** Various technologies are being adopted by the food industries to combat the challenge faced by food industries. One of these technologies includes fortification of food which is a promising strategy for reducing the prevalence of micronutrient deficiency. Food Fortification is generally adding nutrients to food in insignificant amounts, either present already or absent. This even includes additions fulfilling the role of another food in the diet [7]. Fortification of food products has been acknowledged as the most cost-effective way for combating nutrient deficiency problems among the available health interventions [8]. India is home to a 1:3 ratio of the world’s foodless youngsters and has the second-highest level of wasting among youngsters globally. These high levels of hunger are due partly to poor food quality that lacks vital micronutrients that are units necessary for growth and development. Food vehicles must be designed considering their synergistic effects with micronutrients for effective absorption and bioavailability. However, the scalability, bioaccessibility, cost economics, safety concerns and acceptability of the micronutrient fortified foods remain as constraints that should be addressed. One of the major requirements of food fortification is the proper identification and suitability of a food vehicle. Essentially the vehicle should be such food that is commonly consumed by the target population to get high bioavailability/bioaccessibility of micronutrients [9]. Cereals and flour as a staple food are more commonly used as food vehicles for fortification. In conjunction, an estimate showed that the amount of fortification of flour was found to be 97% in the US, 25% in Asia, 6% in Europe, 31% in Africa, 44% in Mediterranean countries and 4% in Pacific regions [10]. In addition to this, pulses also hold an important part of Indian diets, and fortification of micronutrients in milled dhal and its flour would be a cheaper vehicle for micronutrient delivery. A few countries have adopted mandatory or voluntary fortification of cereal flours with vitamin A, iron, zinc, thiamine, riboflavin, folic acid, niacin, and vitamin B12, but this practice is practically insufficient to meet the nutritional requirements of nutritionally vulnerable populations.
Many techniques and technologies are used to fortify many food vehicles to increase the nutrients in the food. But few technologies are insufficient to maintain all the physiological properties of the food vehicle after fortification and day by day the bioavailability of nutrients are becoming less. With recent technologies, including bio-fortification and nano-food fortification are explained how it helps improve the efficiency of fortifications day by day. These led to detailed searching for evidence of food fortification and recently developed technologies to fortify those micronutrients in foods.

Various Fortificants and their Food Vehicles: The fortification technology used depends on the selection of appropriate food vehicles and fortificant which should meet the need of specific fortification like alleviating disease or elucidating prophylaxis of a deficiency. The technological advances from mixing of a fortificant to biofortification of crops have been studied. The various methods of fortification studied include mixing of an ingredient, dissolution in water and in oil, encapsulation through spray drying, spray cooling, fluidized bed coating, nanoencapsulation of minerals and biofortification of crops [11]. There has been an advance in efficiency of mixing based technologies such as dry mixing, spray mixing, drip addition using various types of mixers like ribbon blender and drum mixer. The use of spray drying among other methods for encapsulation of micronutrient proved to be an economic and efficient technology even with some disadvantages. An efficient way for delivering two or more micronutrients simultaneously in a stable and bioavailable form without interaction is by microencapsulation of nutrients in an inert but digestible matrix, separating them from other food components and other micronutrients added to food. Nanoencapsulation is gaining popularity to fortify foods with respect to bioavailability [12]. Biofortification of crops in recent years through genetic engineering and conventional breeding has caught the attention of the industry and may be a permanent solution for prophylaxis of micronutrient malnutrition [13]. Different techniques used for the fortification are mentioned in Table 1. Various fortificants and the food vehicles used for fortification are mentioned below:

- **Iron**: Iron deficiency is one of the most common nutritional problems worldwide and insufficient iron bioavailability leads to anemia. Iron fortification through addition of NaFeEDTA (Ferric Sodium Ethylene Diamine tetraacetate); ferrous biglycinate; ferrous fumarate; ferric pyrophosphate foods and flours of cereals and pulses provides sufficient level of iron [14].

- **Iodine**: Iodine is an important component of thyroid hormones, thyroxine, and triiodothyronine and it is utilized by the thyroid glands to make thyroid hormones that control many functions in the body including growth and development. Deficiency of iodine in young children and pregnant women causes goiter. Fortification forms of iodine are potassium (K) salts such as potassium iodide (KI) and potassium iodate (KIO3) [15] which are fortified through biofortification of crops [16] and spray dry techniques in salt and other flour items [17].

- **Calcium**: Calcium is an important micronutrient that is rich in dairy foods such as milk and cheese. It is helpful in maintaining the metabolism and keeping the bone healthy, on contrary lower intake of calcium can lead to rickets in children and
osteomalacia in adults. Calcium in the form of calcium salt such as calcium carbonate, calcium chloride, and calcium citrate are used as fortificants [18]. Some of the foods fortified with calcium include fruit and juice beverages, cereals, and snack bars [19].

- Vitamin A: Vitamin A is an important micronutrient used to cure night blindness, supports the immune system, and lowers the risk of cancer. Vitamin A is fortified with food such as cookies and pasta with vitamin A fortificant retinyl acetate [20]. Some of the foods fortified with vitamin A include edible oils and fats, condiments, refined sugar [21].

- Dietary Fibers: Fiber is important nutrients which help in constipation problems. Long-term constipation has serious health problems. Food fibers can be classified into two types which are soluble and insoluble fibers. There are more medical advantages in strands including keeping up with intestinal, controlling glucose levels, controlling glucose level. Fortification form of fibers are plant sources such as guar gum is used to fortify yogurt [22], noodles [23] and inulin can be used in processed meat products such as sausages [24].

- Zinc: Zinc is the essential nutrient required for growth, immune system, and pregnancy. It helps in the development of children with stunted growth and diseases such as diarrhea and pneumonia. The most common fortificants used for zinc are zinc oxide and zinc sulfate [25]. The study of biofortification of zinc to bread wheat grain focused on three different methods: soil application, seed priming, foliar spraying for biofortification of crops. The addition of zinc to bread wheat grain through methods mentioned increased the grain zinc concentration of wheat [26].

**Current Vitamin D Fortification Status:** Fortification programs for vitamin D have been implemented in the world. Fortification of vitamin D depends on the availability and consumption pattern of food in the population of a country. Mainly food fortified with vitamin D includes milk, dairy products, edible oil, and fruit juices. Since vitamin D is a fat-soluble vitamin, it is also fortified with other fat-soluble vitamins such as vitamin A [27]. Many countries have reported successful fortification programs for vitamin D and further adopted regulatory compliance for vitamin D fortified food. It has become mandatory by the Canadian Food and Drug Regulations to fortify milk (except goat milk and condensed milk) and margarine [28]. In the USA, food fortified with vitamin D has to be displayed on the labels [29]. In some countries such as the UK and Ireland, it is voluntary to fortify margarine manufactured for domestic use [30]. Globally, all infants up to 1 year of age should receive a daily dose of 400 IU/day (10 μg) of vitamin D [31]. The recommended dietary intake for children and adolescents (up to 18 years of age) of vitamin D is 600 IU/day [32]. Fortification of vitamin D for infants were found in the following products: Cereal based baby porridge, soy milk, infant milk, follow-on formula, infant formula, yogurt drink, instant chocolate milk, curd cheese dessert and fruit juices [33]. In the world, food products that are being fortified with different levels of vitamin D are listed in Table 2. Some food products such as dried and evaporated milk, breakfast cereals, macaroni, noodles, beverages, edible oils, and wheat flour are also fortified with vitamin D along with other micronutrients. However, there is a challenge in
managing the continuation and compliance of the regulations for fortification. Also, the key concern for food processors is to study the stability, dispensability, and solubility of vitamin D during the production and storage of foods [34].

Role of Vitamin D in COVID-19: Vitamin D deficiency is a worldwide public health issue that affects more than a billion individuals of all age groups [35]. Several studies in the last decade have found a link between vitamin D deficiency and a variety of disorders, including systemic infection. [36-38]. Vitamin D deficiency has an impact on immune functioning because it acts as an immunomodulator [39], boosting innate immunity through the production of antiviral peptides [40], which increases mucosal defenses. In clinical investigations, low levels of serum vitamin D have been linked to acute respiratory tract infections, particularly epidemic influenza [41–42]. According to a recent meta-analysis that included data from eight observational studies, persons with a blood vitamin D content of less than 50 nmol/l (i.e., less than 20 ng/ml) had a 64% increased risk of community-acquired pneumonia [43]. Some recent reviews hypothesized that insufficient vitamin D may damage the immune function of the respiratory tract, increasing the severity of COVID-19 and the risk of death [44-45]. Some retrospective studies have determined the correlation between vitamin D levels and the severity and mortality of COVID-19 [46–50]. The outbreak and rapid spreading of SARS-CoV-2 is a global health threat with an uncertain outcome in the world. Recent data reported the antiviral effects of vitamin D, which has been shown to hinder viral replication directly, as well as has anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory properties [51]. It seems that SARS-CoV-2 predominantly uses the immune evasion process during infection, followed by hyper reaction and cytokine storm in some patients [52], which is a known pathogenic pathway in the development of acute respiratory disease syndrome (ARDS) [53]. SARS-CoV-2 enters alveolar and intestinal epithelial cells via using angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 as the host receptor [54]. Subsequent dysregulation of the renin-angiotensin system may lead to excessive cytokine production resulting in potentially fatal ARDS [53].

Bioaccessibility and Stability of Vitamin D: Today, as per the latest medical reports available, much of the population throughout the globe is facing vitamin D deficiency. Other than the sunlight, there are very limited sources of vitamin D to fulfil the recommended dietary allowance of vitamin D (RDA: 400-800 IU per day) [55]. A large proportion of vitamin D is lost during food processing and storage due to environmental stress conditions such as temperature, pH, salt, oxygen, and light. Vitamin D deficiency can be corrected and prevented by sun exposure, increasing the dietary intake of vitamin D and reducing the underlying factors that hinder adequate absorption and utilization [56]. Periodic distribution of high dose vitamin D supplements seems to be an alternative option. However, its sustainability is questionable for many reasons: (i) gradual loss of interest by the target population (ii) difficult to ensure a continuous and adequate supply of the supplements and maintain an efficient distribution system [57]. To meet the RDA requirements for vitamin D, several countries have now permitted fortification of food with vitamin D such as milk, edible oils, cereals etc. In addition to this, currently, certain pharmaceutical supplements are also majorly being used as the source of vitamin D [58].
Despite the availability of vitamin D fortified food, vitamin D deficiency is prevailing across the globe which could be attributed to the low bioavailability of vitamin D (fortified as well as naturally occurring foods) in the food as well as in the human gastrointestinal tract (GIT) [59]. According to a research report published by the FAO, extended storage of vitamin A-fortified flour under severe conditions such as high temperature and improper packaging leads to an 85% loss in vitamin A activity within 3 months of storage [60]. Even with food fortification, intake of vitamin D is inadequate to obtain and maintain target 25(OH)D concentration of at least 30 ng/mL (75 nmol/L), and some of the modes used to generate fortified food do not reach those who need them (e.g., rice) [61]. Though several pharmaceutical formulations have been introduced to correct the imbalance, these formulations do not become healthy alternatives due to cost associated, out of reach to the public and their psychological impact as well as their adverse effect on health. Vitamin D is a fat-soluble vitamin, and its stability is determined by the fat medium in the fortified diet. Due to the volatility and varied dispersion of vitamin D in food, its fortification poses a significant problem to the food industry. Foods supplemented with vitamin D, such as milk, cheese, and yogurt, have been found to have lower vitamin D retention [62]. Food processing methods such as baking, cooking, frying, and boiling degrade vitamin D significantly. There are very few studies on the stability and uniform distribution of vitamin D fortified meals [63].

Technologies used for Vitamin D fortification: For the fortification of vitamin D, there are various techniques which include emulsification, microencapsulation, and nanoencapsulation. Direct addition of vitamin D is mainly adopted for milk and milk products [46]. In this method, vitamin D is dissolved in food-grade organic solvent (ethanol) and butter oil and then homogenized into the food matrix to ensure the uniform distribution in milk [64-65]. It has been found that there is a deposition of vitamin D inside the packaging materials especially the poly packs or tetra packs and degradation in the aqueous food matrix led to instability of vitamin D in the food matrix. In the emulsification method, vitamin D acts as a water phase and is dispersed in the oil phase as fine droplets and then mixed with food products such as cheese, milk, and bread [66-67]. The major challenges found in the fortification of vitamin D by the emulsification method is the availability of food-grade emulsifiers and the development of stable emulsion in the food matrix. Dispersibility, homogeneity, stability are a few challenges that affect the vitamin D bioavailability to the body. Various innovative techniques came up with time which includes microencapsulation through nanotechnology. This method offers better stability and homogeneity by encapsulating the bioactive material in the food matrix at less than 1000 nm size. According to the literature, fortification using nanoparticles has several advantages over direct addition and emulsification methods, including increased stability, homogeneity, and improved physicochemical and organoleptic properties [68].

Nanoencapsulation Technique: Nanoencapsulation is the entrapment of bioactive compounds within a nanoscale carrier and is considered as an appropriate technology to overcome the bioavailability or bioaccessibility of the bioactive compound. This technique increases bioactive solubility, enhances release
behavior, cellular uptake, and bioavailability [69-73]. The selection of appropriate shells and methods for nanoencapsulation is an important and interesting field of research. The applied shell for entrapment of food bioactive should meet some criteria such as biocompatibility and biodegradability. Abundantly available starch is one of the good candidates to produce nano-delivery systems. It causes slow-release, inhibition of inadvertent release, reducing probable complications due to overdose and more effectiveness of sensitive ingredients [74-76]. The starch structure is known as a “double helix” [77] that consists of two types of molecules: the linear and helical amylose and the branched amylopectin [78]. The natural and spontaneous tendency of amylose to form single helical molecular inclusion complexes is termed V amylose [79-82]. It has a central hydrophobic cavity interconnected by amorphous regions of the polysaccharide chains which render the complexes stable to acidic hydrolysis and may be used as a possible platform for the encapsulation of hydrophobic molecules [83-86]. The technology used for food fortification include nanosuspensions, nanoliposomes, nano emulsions, and cyclodextrin carriers. The coating materials used for encapsulation of fortificants includes starches, sugars, fats, gums, chitosan, gelatin, and maltodextrin [87]. The application and their complexes are developed using surfactants, clinkers, and chelating agents. Nanoencapsulation of fortificants can be done by two methods i.e., electro spinning (fiber-like fortificants) and electro-spraying (particle-like fortificants) [88]. Further, the technique of nanoencapsulation does not contribute significant changes in the physicochemical properties and rheological properties of fortified foods. Nanotechnology-based techniques are also helpful in addressing challenges that include encapsulating hydrophobic fortificants into food [89].

Microencapsulation Technique: Microencapsulation is basically insulation of bioactive core material by secondary wall materials which protect the core from its external environment [90-92]. In addition to giving protection to the bioactive compound, it also helps in the controlled release of the encapsulant. Microencapsulation also promises that the nanomaterials so formed would ensure high bioavailability, water dispersibility and better homogeneity of the fortificant in the target food irrespective of the complexity of the food matrix [69]. It aids in the regulated release of encapsulants with great physicochemical stability, as well as protecting the bioactive component [90-92]. Microencapsulation additionally guarantees, regardless of the complexity of the food material [69]. It is an efficient way for delivering two or more micronutrients simultaneously in a stable and bioavailable form without interaction is by microencapsulation of nutrients in an inert but digestible matrix, separating them from other food components and other micronutrients added to food [93]. The benefits of microencapsulation of vitamin D in food products include blocking the passage for vitamin D into the food matrix; protects against environmental conditions such as moisture, oxidation, pH, temperature; ensures higher bioavailability by releasing encapsulated vitamin D in a regulated and targeted manner; does not affect the appearance, taste, and quality of the food matrix, thus maintains customer acceptability [94]. Microencapsulation can be done by using spray drying. This is one of the oldest techniques used for bioactive compounds encapsulation [95]. Spray drying involves the
dissolution of wall material and core material resulting in the formation of emulsion, followed by the process of homogenization, pumping of emulsion, atomization of emulsion and subsequent dehydoration of the atomized droplets to yield microcapsule [96]. Vitamin D is needed to be homogenized in a dispersion containing wall materials (polymers). Then, the homogenized dispersion needs to be fed to the spray dryer and atomized by hot air that leads to the development of nanomaterials in consequence of water evaporation [97-100]. The encapsulation process is subjected to a range of factors like homogeneity of dispersion system, quantity, quality, and type of emulsifier used, feed rate, viscosity of dispersion system, pressure of hot air, the flow rate of hot air and inlet and outlet temperature [101-104].

Emulsification technique: Another technique used for fortification of food can be emulsification. It involves at least two immiscible phases (lipid and water) where one phase needs to be dispersed as small spherical droplets within another phase. Two types of emulsions, oil in water (O/W) or water in oil (W/O) are classified based on their spatial arrangement of two phases. These two immiscible phases need to be stabilized by surfactants and emulsifiers [105]. Several techniques of emulsions to develop vitamin D-nanomaterials using food-grade materials such as whey protein isolate (WPI) [106], casein [107], Medium-chain triglycerides (MCT), Zein and carboxymethyl chitosan [108], Tween 20 and casein [109], have been explored. The selection of emulsion methods for vitamin D encapsulation depends on various factors such as absence/presence of antioxidants, quantity, type of carrier oils, and surfactant.

Table 1: Different techniques used for the fortification in various food vehicles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Fortificants</th>
<th>Food Vehicles</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mixing</td>
<td>Dry Mixing</td>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>Fish Sauce</td>
<td>[110]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ribbon Blender</td>
<td>Iron and Iodine</td>
<td>Edible Salt</td>
<td>[111]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biofortification</td>
<td>Fertigation</td>
<td>Iodine</td>
<td>Spinach</td>
<td>[16]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foliar Spraying</td>
<td>Iodine</td>
<td>Potato, tomato</td>
<td>[112]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breeding</td>
<td>Vitamin A</td>
<td>Sweet Potato, Banana</td>
<td>[113]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breeding</td>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>[114]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Soil Application and Seed Priming</td>
<td>Zinc</td>
<td>Wheat grain</td>
<td>[26]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transgenic</td>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>Rice, Potato</td>
<td>[115-116]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microencapsulation</td>
<td>Spray Drying</td>
<td>Iodine</td>
<td>Edible Salt</td>
<td>[17]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extrusion</td>
<td>Minerals</td>
<td>Rice Kernels, Corn Based Snacks</td>
<td>[117]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spray Chilling</td>
<td>Iodine, Iron and Vitamin A</td>
<td>Edible Salt</td>
<td>[118]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coating</td>
<td>Calcium</td>
<td>Soy-milk</td>
<td>[119]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanoencapsulation</td>
<td>Electrospinning</td>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>Yogurt, Biscuits</td>
<td>[120]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nanoliposome entrapment</td>
<td>ω-3 PUFAs</td>
<td>Yogurt</td>
<td>[121]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Vitamin D fortification level of different food groups in the world

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Food Name</th>
<th>Vitamin D fortification level for adults</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>400 IU/ 946 ml</td>
<td>[29, 122-123]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yogurt</td>
<td>89 IU/100 g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Margarine</td>
<td>89 IU/100 g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cheese and cheese products</td>
<td>81 IU/30g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enriched rice</td>
<td>550–2200 IU/kg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breakfast cereals</td>
<td>350 IU/100 g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enriched noodle</td>
<td>90 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orange juice</td>
<td>100 IU/240 ml</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malted Drink</td>
<td>123 IU/g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Soy Based Drink</td>
<td>140 IU/240ml</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>300-400 IU/100g</td>
<td>[124-125]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Infant formulas</td>
<td>530 IU/100 g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meal replacements and supplements</td>
<td>300-400 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Fat spreads</td>
<td>220-640 IU/100g</td>
<td>[126]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breakfast cereals</td>
<td>100 IU/serving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Margarine</td>
<td>282–352.8 IU/100 g</td>
<td>[127]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bread</td>
<td>200 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orange Juices</td>
<td>1000 IU/240ml</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>200 -300 IU/L</td>
<td>[128]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vanaspati</td>
<td>44 IU– 64 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Edible oil</td>
<td>44 IU– 64 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Condensed milk</td>
<td>111 IU/100 g</td>
<td>[129]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bread</td>
<td>83 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breakfast cereals</td>
<td>333 IU/100g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>≥973IU/L</td>
<td>[130]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Margarine</td>
<td>3300 IU/kg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Dried skimmed milk</td>
<td>2000–2400 IU/kg</td>
<td>[131]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

Vitamin D is important for the proper functioning of the immune system. The outbreak of the COVID 19 pandemic had a massive impact on the health and economy of the world. The pandemic has made people more concerned about their health and fitness. Vitamin D deficiency is very common in all age groups of humans which are mainly associated with viral respiratory tract infections. However, fortification is considered the most effective way to improve the uptake and availability of vitamin D. This review paper discusses the various techniques such as emulsification, microencapsulation and nanoencapsulation used for fortification of vitamin D. Encapsulation of vitamin D protects against degradation before it reaches the target site in the body. Microencapsulation provides desired functionality such as stability and homogeneity and overall better bioavailability of vitamin D. Nanoencapsulation is the latest technique used for fortification of vitamin D by maintaining stability during
thermal processing and storage. There is certainly wide scope to develop novel techniques for fortification of vitamin D with better stability and availability.


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