



## An Emerging Trends on Delivering Nanofibers

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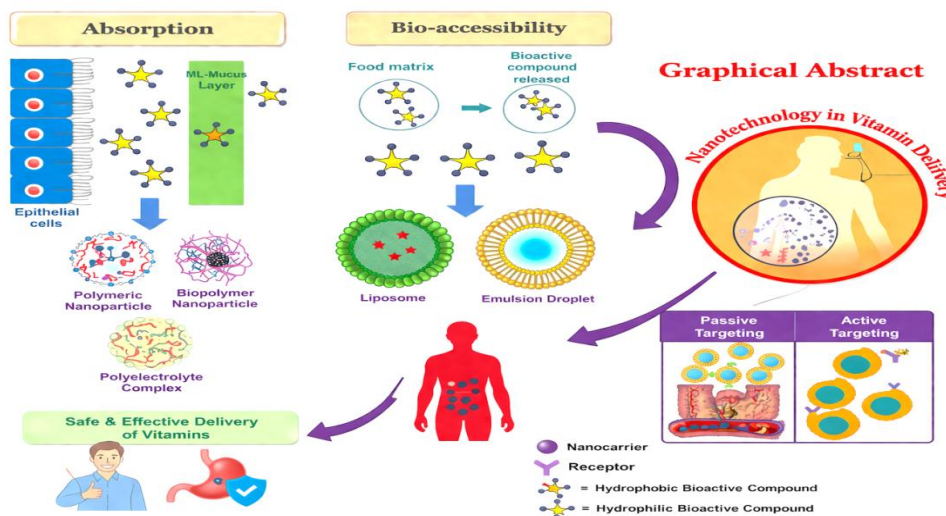
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### Abstract

Nanofibers have a lot of surface area, porosity, and surface functionalities that can be changed. Nanofiber technology is being investigated by numerous researchers as a possible remedy for the issues that exist today in a number of different disciplines. It treats pain, wound healing, neurological diseases, gastrointestinal tract-associated diseases, infectious diseases, cardiovascular issues, and contraception. Numerous manufacturing methods, including electrospinning, phase separation, physical 3fabrications, and chemical synthesis, are used to create the nanofibers. A range of polymers are used to create nanofibers, depending on their intended application. It includes metals, metal oxides, ceramics, carbon, nonporous and mesoporous materials, hollow structures, core-shell structures, biocomponents, and multi-component materials. It also includes natural and semi-synthetic polymers. For targeted gene delivery, protein and peptide administration, and growth factor delivery, nanofiber composites are a

good substitute. Because of their enormous potential for drug delivery, nanofibers can be applied to a wide range of therapeutic fields and have the potential to completely transform them. This review thoroughly examined the types, history, benefits, drawbacks, and polymers employed in nanofiber technology. Additionally, a summary of the types of polymers employed in the creation of nanofibers was provided. The fabrication process, specifically electrospinning and its varieties, is the primary subject of the review study. The study concluded with going over the recent developments and uses of nanofabrication technology.

**Keyword:** Nanofiber, Polymers, Electro spinning, Tissue engineering, Gene-delivery



**Figure 1:** Nanotechnology-Based Strategies for Enhanced Absorption, Bioavailability, and Targeted Delivery of Vitamins.

## 1. Introduction

Nanofibers are one-dimensional (1D) nanomaterials that have gained notoriety for a variety of industrial and scientific applications. Compared to other regularly used base materials, nanofibers offer superior mechanical properties (such as stiffness and tensile strength) and a diameter that is a thousand times smaller than human hair. They also possess porosity, changing surface functions, and a sizable area of surface variable 3D topography. Nanofibers can be made from a variety of materials, including metals, metal oxides, carbon-based composite nanomaterials, and natural and synthetic polymers [1]. The production and management of nanomaterials are demonstrated in Figure 1, which shows that nanofibers at the nanoscale have a third, much greater dimension in addition to two equal external

dimensions.

The rigidity, composition, nature, and structure of the nanofibers are used to categorize them [2]. Numerous applications make use of nanofiber's high aspect ratio, tissue engineering capabilities, wound healing activity, and ability to construct 3D network topologies [3]. The next goals include improving control over the alignment of the nanofibers during deposition, developing a more intricate architecture to enhance cellular adhesion, increasing the thickness of the mats, incorporating bacteria, creating multistage release matrices, and overcoming the limitations of electrospinning by creating multi-layer nanofibers stacked for TERM and drug delivery.

The first nanofibers were made by electro spinning more than 400 years ago. The electro spinning method was invented by William Gilbert circa 1600. The first time a liquid has been attracted electro statically is in Gilbert's work. In 1845, Louis Schwabe created a few techniques for spinning silk and creating synthetic fibres. In 1889, Hughes and Chambers received their first patent for producing carbon nanofibers. American inventor John Francis Cooley patented the first electro spinning machine in 1902 under the title of "Apparatus for electrically distributing fluids." "Petryanov filters," or filter materials, were developed by Rozenblum and Petryanov-Sokolov in 1938 using electro spun fibers.

Harold L. Simons developed a system in 1966 that could produce patterned fibre fabrics, and Radosevich and Lukyanov created hollow graphitic carbon fibers in 1952. Doshi and Reneker (1995) popularized the term "electrospinning" by producing fibers from a variety of polymers with sizes ranging from 50 nm to 5 μm and a range of cross-sectional morphologies [4]. Because electrospun nanofibers have a higher surface area to volume ratio and a greater number of inter/intrapores than nanofibers made by other methods, this method is recommended.

Ongoing research in electro spinning has made laboratory-scale equipment more competitive. The market activity was resumed with a variety of spinning and collecting electrode accessories. By developing innovative production methods based on conventional electrospinning, numerous organizations have tried to solve low productivity. Nanomedicine, wound dressings, tissue engineering scaffolds, various diagnostic tools, in vivo models, and filters are among the potential biomedical uses for nanofibers. Pharmaceutical substances from BCS classes II and IV can become more soluble and permeable when they are wrapped in nanofibers. The longer-release profile, high loading capacity, and high encapsulation efficacy of nanofibers improve therapeutic

effects, reduce toxicity and side effects, and facilitate alternative administrations [5]. The ability of nanofibers to create scaffolds that are aligned and mimic the extracellular matrix makes them useful in tissue engineering. The diameter, pore size, and orientation of the nanofibers must be taken into account in order to mimic the nanoscale properties of human tissues. There are numerous uses for nanofibers in pharmaceutical delivery systems and medical equipment [6].

### **Application**

For the administration of pharmacological compounds with a wide range of biomedical applications, nanofibers provide a substantial advantage. It may be easy to create nanofibers with various forms and release properties because to recent advancements in nanotechnology. Tissue engineering, cardiovascular problems, viral diseases, GIT-associated diseases, neurodegenerative diseases, pain treatment, contraception, dentistry, and other biological conditions are some of the most promising biological applications [7].

### **Heart-related conditions**

According to a WHO report, the world's top cause of death is cardiovascular disease. Forecasts indicate that approximately 17.9 million deaths—or 32% of all fatalities—are expected to occur globally in 2019. The mortality rate from heart attacks and strokes was 85%. Using a range of synthetic and natural biomaterials, electrospinning has been utilized to create nanofiber scaffolds for cardiac ventricular tissue engineering applications. Nanofiber scaffolds containing stem cells have ushered in a new era of repair of immune-suppressed tissue [8]. To improve their effectiveness as stem cell transporters, nanofibers have undergone a number of alterations, such as coaxial electro-spinning, layer-by-layer manufacturing, and a phase separation technique. It has also been shown that stem cell-containing nanofibers can treat cardiovascular conditions like atherosclerosis and cardiomyocyte regeneration.

High encapsulation efficiency (EE%), high drug loading, improved therapeutic index, significantly fewer side effects, the ability to integrate drug release, and control over the solution and processing conditions are just a few of the many unique features and parameters of the porous nanostructure [9]. As a result, the use of nanofiber in drug delivery systems in biomedicine is growing quickly. Drug release is influenced by the composition, swelling, diameter, porosity, shape, geometry, and thickness of electro spun fiber. Drug release from fibres is thought to be caused by a confluence of drug solubility,

polymer breakdown, drug partitioning in polymers, and diffusion.

Biosynthetic bone grafts, which successfully mineralise the repair of fractured or damaged bones, are created in bone tissue engineering by combining biomaterials and cells. Bone stiffness, strength, and toughness are attributed to the aligned collagen and hydroxyapatite components of the bone matrix. Because of the adaptability of the electro-spinning approach, researchers are also investigating alternative methods for creating scaffolds for bone healing and repair. To promote osteogenesis and promote bone regeneration, the ideal material needs to be both bioactive and biocompatible. By adding bioactive substances that promote osteoblast proliferation and mineralisation, electro-spinning scaffolds have been utilised by a number of medical researchers to produce bone grafts, accelerating bone regeneration. For bone tissue engineering, a biocompatible, biodegradable scaffold with mechanical properties suitable for the bone environment should be employed. Silver nanoparticles, transforming growth factor-3 (TGF-3), bone morphogenetic proteins (BMP), and VEGF are added to nanofibers in order to accomplish these goals [10].

A wound is the outcome of external laceration-induced skin trauma. Acute wounds heal faster than chronic wounds, which take longer to heal and are therefore more vulnerable to bacterial infection. The four phases of wound healing include remodelling, proliferation, inflammation, and haemostasis. Drug-loaded nanofiber scaffolds have lately attracted the attention of skin tissue engineering researchers because of their biocompatibility, flexibility, and efficient drug release, which enables the regeneration of injured tissue. Numerous nanofiber manufacturing techniques, such as melt blowing, rotary jet spinning, hand spinning, forced gyration, and electro-spinning, have been developed to produce drug-loaded nanofiber scaffolds. In the past, wounds were treated therapeutically. By combining drugs with polymers and spinning them into nanofibers, more effective drug release is possible than with traditional therapy. A wound is the result of skin trauma brought on by an external laceration. Compared to chronic wounds, which take longer to heal and are thus more susceptible to bacterial infection, acute wounds heal more quickly [11].

Remodelling, proliferation, inflammation, and haemostasis are the four stages of wound healing. Researchers studying skin tissue engineering have recently become interested in drug-loaded nanofiber scaffolds due to their flexibility, biocompatibility, and effective drug release, which promote the regeneration of damaged tissue. To create drug-loaded nanofiber scaffolds, a variety of nanofiber manufacturing processes have been devised,

including electrospinning, forced gyration, hand spinning, rotary jet spinning, and melt blowing [12].

Wounds were previously treated therapeutically. More efficient drug release than with conventional therapy is achievable by mixing medications with polymers and spinning them into nanofibers. A wound is the outcome of external laceration-induced skin trauma. Acute wounds heal faster than chronic wounds, which take longer to heal and are therefore more vulnerable to bacterial infection. The four phases of wound healing include remodelling, proliferation, inflammation, and haemostasis. Drug-loaded nanofiber scaffolds have lately attracted the attention of skin tissue engineering researchers because of their biocompatibility, flexibility, and efficient drug release, which enables the regeneration of injured tissue[10].

By combining drugs with polymers and spinning them into nanofibers, more effective drug release is possible than with traditional therapy. The antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and anti-biotic properties of these medications were selected due to the high level of germ resistance exhibited by nanofibers. Some even cause vasodilation and other healing processes. Nanofibers have recently emerged as a promising alternative for both systemic and locoregional medication delivery. The development of vaginal nanofibers for conditions including infection and cancer has attracted a lot of attention from researchers in recent years [13].

For both local and systemic effects, pharmaceutical medications are commonly applied to the human vaginal region as pills, capsules, lotions, creams, ointments, rings, films, foams, etc. The majority of drugs used in the vaginal region have been used to treat conditions that are directly linked to the sexual and reproductive health of women. Treatment of vaginal infections (using various azoles as antifungals), cervical ripening to induce lobsuse (using dinoprostone or misoprostol), bacterial vaginosis (using metronidazole or clindamycin), luteal phase defect (LPD), and bacterial vaginosis (progesterone) are the most common uses of hormonal contraception. Drugs to prevent sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and to prevent unplanned pregnancy have been successfully delivered via the vaginal mucosa using nanofiber platforms in recent years [14].

## **2. Using Nanotechnology to Deliver Vitamins**

One of the biggest obstacles to creating efficient delivery methods is the stability of bioactive vitamins and other nutritious substances. Bioactive including carotenoids and omega-3 fatty acids, as well as vitamins A, D, E, and K, are extremely vulnerable to

physical and chemical instability. Their innate sensitivity to environmental factors such as light, oxygen, heat, and the presence of pro-oxidants is the cause of this vulnerability [15]. The chemicals' nutritional and functional efficacy as well as their antioxidant potential—which is essential for safeguarding delicate lipids and other biomolecules in food systems—can be diminished by these destabilizing effects.

One revolutionary technique for resolving the stability issues with bioactive chemicals is nanotechnology. These substances can be protected from destabilizing external influences by being encapsulated within nanostructured structures.

Practical barriers against destabilizing environmental variables like light, oxygen, and heat are provided by nanoencapsulation techniques such as solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs), nano-emulsions, nanoliposomes, and nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs). Zinc oxide (ZnO) nanoparticles are unique among topical drug delivery nanoparticles due to their improved stability, biocompatibility, and penetration. By enhancing skin integrity and lowering inflammation and bacterial load, they successfully treat skin disorders like psoriasis, inflammation, and bacterial infections. ZnO nanoparticles are a viable choice for improving topical medication delivery systems because of these characteristics. Zinc oxide nanoparticles are unique among topical drug delivery nanoparticles due to their improved stability, biocompatibility, and penetration. By enhancing skin integrity and lowering inflammation and bacterial load, they successfully treat skin disorders like psoriasis, inflammation, and bacterial infections. ZnO nanoparticles are a viable choice for improving topical medication delivery systems because of these characteristics. Furthermore, as demonstrated by the excellent encapsulation of Vitamin D<sub>3</sub> in plant-based nano-emulsions that maintain the sensory quality of fortified almond and oat milk, nano-emulsions made of sub-100 nm droplets efficiently reduce exposure to oxidative elements [16].

The thermal and oxidative stability of vitamins is further improved by SLNs and NLCs; studies have shown that Vitamin A encapsulated in these systems remains stable for longer periods of time at high temperatures and during storage. The storage stability of gelucire 43/01 tocopherol-loaded vitamin-A (Vit A), nanoparticles over a one-month period (A). Whereas, NLs stand for (nanostructured lipid carriers) and SLNs for (solid lipid nanoparticles). Vitamin E retention in nanocapsules encapsulated by various starches modified with octenyl succinic anhydride throughout time at varying storage temperatures: 4 °C, 20 °C, and 35 °C (B). Residual Vitamin D<sub>3</sub> (VD<sub>3</sub>) concentrations in water (◇), Tween-80 emulsion, unhomogenized [17].

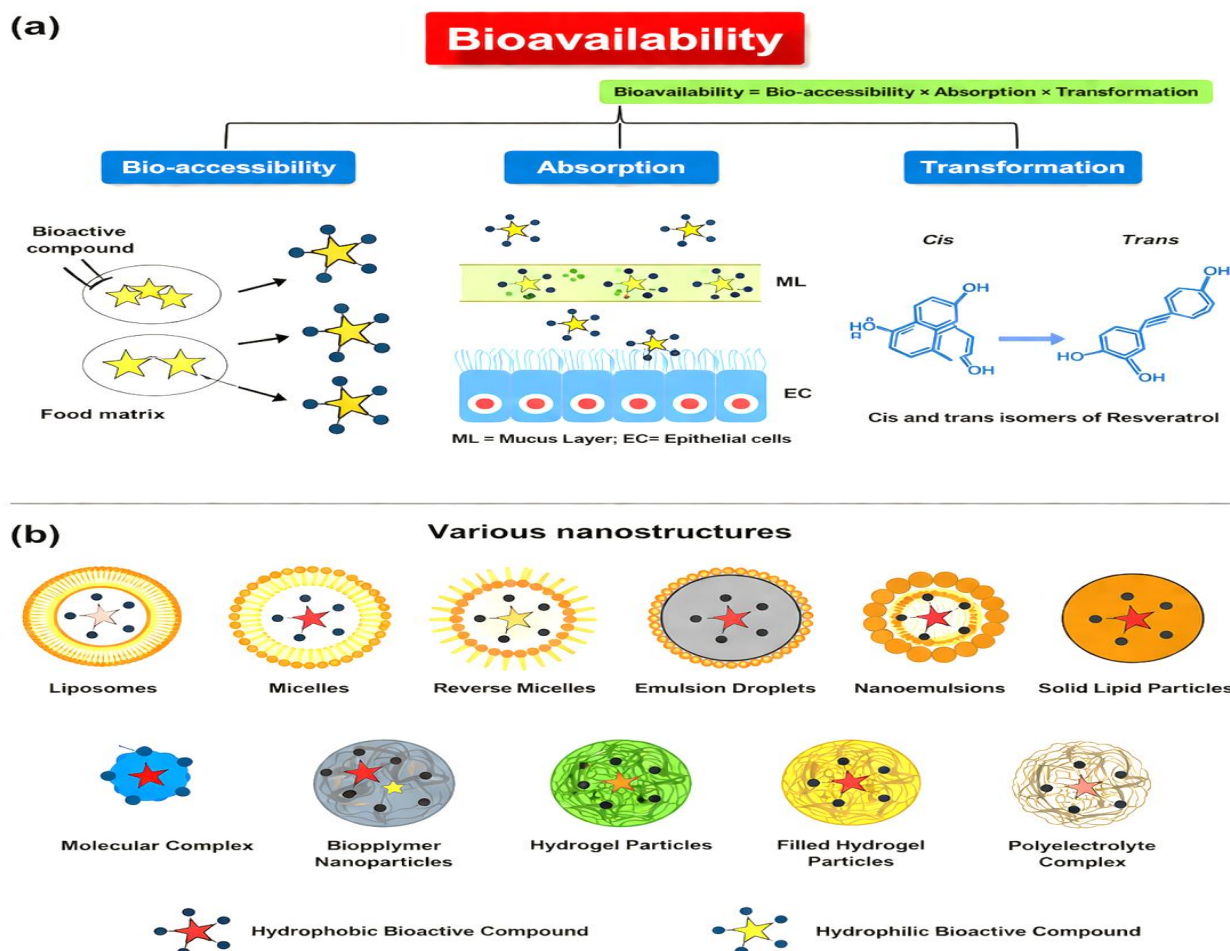
VD<sub>3</sub>-rCM, and

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ultra-high-pressure homogenised VD<sub>3</sub>-re-assembled casein micelles (rCM) vs storage time at 4 °C were measured using reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. As a first-order approximation of the kinetics of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> degradation, lines show exponential trend lines. Error bars are smaller than the symbols when they are not visible. [9] (C). Evaluation of the shelf-life of both encapsulated and non-encapsulated vitamin C in Rainbow trout feed over a 20-day storage period [18].

### **Bioavailability**

By tackling important issues including low solubility, stability, and targeted distribution, nanotechnology-based methods have the potential to increase the bioavailability of vitamins and other bioactive substances. These methods make use of the special physicochemical characteristics of nanoparticles to enhance the body's absorption and utilisation of vitamins. Because they are hydrophobic and susceptible to breakdown during digestion, vitamins—particularly fat-soluble ones like A, D, and E—frequently have limited bioavailability. By encasing these vitamins in nano-structured carriers, nanotechnology-based delivery systems present a promising way to prevent deterioration and improve their passage through biological barriers [19].



**Figure 2:** Enhancing Bioavailability of Bioactive Compounds through Nanostructured Delivery Systems: Role of Bio-accessibility, Absorption, and Transformation.

### 3. Recent advances in nanocarriers for vitamins

Drug and nutrition delivery has shown great promise using nanoparticles, which are characterised as particulate substances in the 1– 100 nm range. It is possible to tailor their surface properties for targeted distribution, increasing effectiveness while reducing side effects. Furthermore, sustained therapeutic activity is made possible by controlled-release characteristics. The stability and bioavailability of labile substances, such as vitamin C, which is extremely vulnerable to deterioration from light, temperature, oxidation, and pH variations, are enhanced by nanoencapsulation [20]. Vitamin C's low stability limits its use in oral and intravenous delivery. However, solubility, stability, and epithelial

permeability are improved by encapsulation within nanocarriers, such as polymeric, liposomal, micellar, and gold nanoparticles. According to clinical studies, oral liposomal vitamin C has a higher bioavailability than traditional formulations. Light, oxygen, heat, and pro-oxidants can all cause the breakdown of vitamins and bioactive substances such as carotenoids, conjugated linoleic acid, vitamin E, and omega-3 fatty acids [21].

Their stability and bioavailability are improved by nanoencapsulation, which also stops unwanted interactions with the environment. Vitamins that are encapsulated have better cellular absorption, better solubility, and longer shelf lives. Research demonstrates that encapsulation methods, like spray-chilling, considerably lessen deterioration. For example, after 65 days, encapsulated vitamin D<sub>3</sub> only lost 14% of its concentration. Vitamins C and A have been effectively shielded from oxidation and hydrolysis using comparable methods. Oral bioavailability is enhanced by nanomaterials, which promote paracellular transport and protect vitamins from enzymatic breakdown [22].

### **Polymeric nanoparticles**

Because polymeric nanoparticles can improve solubility, stability, and bioavailability, they offer a viable platform for the effective administration of vitamins, especially lipophilic substances. Encapsulation and controlled release of active substances are made easier by these nanoparticles, which are created by self-assembling polymer chains with different levels of hydrophobicity in aquatic settings. They are typically created by dissolving the polymer and active ingredient in an organic solvent that is insoluble in water, followed by mixing the mixture while being constantly stirred. This process is known as nanoprecipitation and solvent-evaporation. Prior to solvent evaporation, size reduction methods including probe sonication and micro-fluidization maximize particle size, which normally ranges from 10 to 170 nm [18].

Many biocompatible and biodegradable polymers, such as chitosan, polyethylene glycol (PEG), and PLGA, are used extensively in vitamin delivery because they allow for regulated release while shielding bioactive substances from deterioration. In addition to increasing cellular uptake in intestinal epithelial cells (Caco-2), chitosan-coated poly(lactic-co-glycolic) acid (CS-PLGA) nanoparticles have demonstrated the potential to significantly improve the absorption of Vitamin B<sub>2</sub> by enhancing its stability, photostability, and enabling controlled release. The difficulties of light sensitivity and poor water solubility, which are significant obstacles to its efficient transport and absorption in the gastrointestinal tract, are addressed by the encapsulation of vitamin B<sub>2</sub> in CS-PLGA

nanoparticles. Under UV light, the chitosan coating on PLGA nanoparticles improves vitamin B2's photostability. It ensures a longer prolonged discharge in mimicked bodily fluids delivery compared to vitamin B2 that is not encapsulated [23].

The mucoadhesive qualities of chitosan are linked to this regulated emission because they increase the retention period of nanoparticles in the gastrointestinal system, enhancing their contact time with intestinal epithelial cells and promoting increased cellular absorption. These polymers improve the bioavailability of vitamins like E that are poorly soluble in water by increasing their solubility and absorption. Encapsulating  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (Vitamin E) in PLGA and PLGA/chitosan nanoparticles greatly improved its stability and absorption, according to a study by Simon et al. Nanoparticle formulations improved pharmacokinetic characteristics in comparison to free  $\alpha$ -tocopherol; at a 1.5 mg/mL concentration, the bioavailability of PLGA and PLGA/chitosan nanoparticles increased by 170% and 121%, respectively [24].

#### **4. Challenges and limitations of nanotechnology in**

##### **Vitamin Delivery**

Nanotechnology has the potential to improve food and supplement stability and bioavailability, but it also confronts serious safety and regulatory issues. There are also gaps in safety evaluations and consumer protection because regulatory frameworks are still in their infancy and the majority of current rules concentrate on non-food nanoparticles. Applications of nanotechnology are assessed case-by-case by the US Food&Drug Administration (FDA), which is an ineffective and resource-intensive procedure. In order to guarantee consumer safety, the European Union (EU) simultaneously requires pre-market approval and labeling in accordance with REACH (registration, evaluation, authorization, and restriction) rules [25].

Global regulatory disparities still exist, nevertheless, as some nations modify their systems. Nanoscale food additives in the US need pre-market approval, but GRAS compounds might get around more stringent testing, which could lead to safety flaws. Stricter pre-market toxicity evaluations are enforced by Australia's NICNAS (National Industrial Chemicals Notification & Assessments), underscoring the necessity of a coordinated worldwide strategy. The uneven definition of nanomaterials, with various countries using different classification thresholds, is a significant drawback. For example, Japan sets the threshold at 50 nm, whereas the U.S. FDA defines nanomaterials as particles less than 100 nm [26].

Furthermore,

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bigger agglomerates are frequently formed by tailored nanoparticles intended for enhanced bioavailability, making regulatory classification more difficult. Standardizing definitions of nanomaterials is essential for consumer safety and regulatory clarity. The U.S. lacks comparable regulations, which raises questions about safety monitoring and well-informed decision-making, whereas the EU requires nano-specific labeling to ensure consumer awareness. Transparency and labeling also differ greatly. Putting in place certification and traceability systems would increase regulatory compliance and foster consumer confidence [27].

### 5. Future perspective

The creation of intelligent nano-formulations that can react dynamically to physiological stimuli represents the next frontier in vitamin delivery nanotechnology. By providing controlled release mechanisms depending on certain biological circumstances like pH, temperature, or enzyme activity, innovative delivery systems—such as stimuli-responsive nanocarriers—have the potential to completely transform vitamin supplementation. Future studies might concentrate on pH-sensitive nanoparticles that release vitamins in the intestines for the best absorption and shield them from deterioration in the stomach [28].

The controlled release of vitamins may be further improved by enzyme-activated nanocarriers, which would improve bioavailability and reduce nutrient waste. Furthermore, time-controlled release systems might make it possible for vitamins to be released steadily over long periods of time, which would decrease the need for supplements and increase their effectiveness. Creating biodegradable and biocompatible nanomaterials will be essential in conjunction with these developments. Utilizing edible, non-toxic, and environmentally benign nanocarriers made from natural sources such as plant proteins, lipids, and polysaccharides may allay worries about toxicity and improve regulatory acceptance. The use of lipid-derived nanocarriers, starch-based nanoparticles, and nanocellulose offers encouraging avenues for long-term innovation in vitamin delivery [24].

With nanotechnology playing a key role in customizing vitamin delivery based on individual health profiles, genetics, and dietary habits, the future of vitamin supplementation is probably going to move toward precision nutrition. Advances in machine learning and artificial intelligence (AI) may allow for the creation of customized nano-formulations that maximize nutrient intake for anyone. Vitamin levels in physiological fluids like perspiration, saliva, or interstitial fluid can now be monitored in real time

thanks to new advancements in wearable biosensors combined with nanotechnology. These tiny sensors can interact with digital platforms that regulate the release of vitamins encapsulated in nanoparticles via ingestible or transdermal devices, as well as detect minute biochemical changes. Bio-sensing nanoparticles, for instance, have the potential to modify vitamin release in response to metabolic demands and identify nutrient shortages in real time [29].

Additionally, vitamin absorption could be dynamically modulated by microbiome-responsive nano-delivery systems, which are designed to release their payloads in reaction to microbial enzymes or local pH changes in the gut. By enabling site-specific release based on each person's own gut flora makeup, these devices maximize vitamin absorption and reduce systemic losses. These developments may result in the creation of "smart supplements" that optimize nutrition in real time, guaranteeing that people get the vitamins they need according to their physiology. Nanotechnology-enabled personalized nutrition has the potential to greatly enhance health outcomes and assist in the management of nutrient-deficient diseases like osteoporosis, anemia, and metabolic disorders [30].

The future of vitamin supplementation could be completely changed by the combination of nanotechnology, artificial intelligence, synthetic biology, and wearable health monitoring technologies. Advanced nanomaterials integrated into wearable biosensors provide real-time, highly sensitive measurement of nutrient levels, facilitating continuous monitoring of an individual's vitamin status with remarkable precision (e.g., via nano-enabled electrochemical sensors). Precision feeding requires constant biochemical feedback, which these tiny sensors deliver [31]. In addition, 3D-printed nanocarriers provide extremely adaptable platforms for regulated and targeted vitamin delivery, allowing for precisely calibrated release profiles that react to physiological cues like enzyme activity or pH variations. DNA-encoded nanoparticles provide even more specificity by acting as programmable bio-responsive components that can decipher molecular signals and precisely release vitamins in response to cues generated from the individual's metabolism or microbiota [32]. By combining these three technologies, an intelligent, closed-loop system is produced, where DNA-encoded nanoparticles dynamically control release in response to biological cues, wearable biosensors continuously evaluate nutritional status, and 3D-printed nanocarriers precisely deliver vitamins in both space and time. By facilitating individualized, flexible, and incredibly effective nutrition management catered to specific health requirements, this collaboration has the potential to completely transform vitamin supplementation [33].

## 6. Conclusion

Vitamin delivery has changed as a result of nanotechnology, which may provide ways to improve stability, bioavailability, and targeted release. The creation of sophisticated nanocarriers, such as liposomes, metal-based nanoparticles, lipid-based systems, polymeric nanoparticles, and nano-emulsions, has shown great promise in getting around the drawbacks of traditional vitamin formulations. By enhancing vitamin solubility and absorption, these nanoscale delivery methods maximize therapeutic efficacy, minimize degradation, and allow for precisely controlled release. However, resolving important issues including safety worries, regulatory ambiguities, and economic viability is necessary before nanotechnology in vitamin delivery can be widely used. Research on the long-term impacts of formulations based on nanoparticles on the environment and human health is still ongoing. Additionally, commercial deployment is hampered by the absence of established regulatory frameworks. Researchers, industry stakeholders, and regulatory agencies must work together to create thorough safety evaluations, scalable production techniques, and clear regulatory requirements in order to overcome these obstacles. Future developments in this area will probably concentrate on creating responsive, intelligent nanocarriers that can release vitamins in a regulated, site-specific manner, meeting therapeutic and individualized dietary requirements. Furthermore, environmentally friendly and economical synthesis methods will be essential to guaranteeing long-lasting and profitable vitamin products provided by nanotechnology. In summary, although nanotechnology has enormous potential to transform vitamin delivery, interdisciplinary cooperation, thorough safety assessments, and regulatory harmonization are necessary to fully achieve its potential. The advancement of nutrition solutions driven by nanotechnology for the enhancement of global health will require a careful balancing act between innovation, safety, and scalability.

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