

PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION

D 33.7 Combination Product. Complementary Medicine: Discipline-Specific Health supplements are intended only to complement health or supplement the diet.
This unregistered medicine has not been evaluated by SAHPRA for its quality, safety or intended use.

SCHEDULING STATUS: [S5]

1. NAME OF THE MEDICINE BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC (capsules)		
2. QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE COMPOSITION Each BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC capsule contains:		%NRV*
Magnesium oxide (providing 150,00 mg elemental magnesium)	248,74 mg	36
Potassium chloride (providing 80,00 mg elemental potassium)	152,54 mg	
Zinc gluconate (providing 15,00 mg elemental zinc)	104,55 mg	136
Atriplex® GRT [<i>Aspalathus linearis</i> (Burm.f.) R. Dahlgren (Green Rooibos)] (Leaves, 5:1 extract providing 500,00 mg dried herb equivalent)		
Ascorbic acid (Vitamin C)	50,00 mg	50
Iron amino acid chelate (providing 9,00 mg elemental iron)	45,00 mg	250
Manganese amino acid chelate (providing 2,00 mg elemental manganese)	20,00 mg	87
Nicotinamide (Vitamin B ₃)	20,00 mg	125
α-Tocopheryl acetate (Vitamin E)	22,35 IU 15,00 mg α-TE	149
Pantothenic acid (Vitamin B ₅) (from calcium D-pantothenate)	10,00 mg	200
Pyridoxine (Vitamin B ₆) (from pyridoxine hydrochloride)	3,00 mg	176
Riboflavin (Vitamin B ₂)	1,70 mg	131
Thiamine (Vitamin B ₁) (from thiamine hydrochloride)	1,50 mg	125
Retinol (Vitamin A) (from retinyl acetate)	3 000,00 IU 900,09 µg RE	100
Chromium polynicotinate (providing 50,00 µg elemental chromium)	500,00 µg	143
Folic acid (Vitamin B ₉)	400,00 µg	400
Cyanocobalamin (Vitamin B ₁₂)	40,00 µg	1 667
D-biotin (Vitamin B ₇)	30,00 µg	100
Cholecalciferol (Vitamin D ₃)	1 000,00 IU 25,00 µg	167

*%Nutrient Reference Values (NRVs) for individuals 4 years and older (2010)

Sugar Free

For a full list of excipients, see section 6.1.

3. PHARMACEUTICAL FORM

Capsules (30's).

White, size 00 gelatine capsules

4. CLINICAL PARTICULARS

4.1 Therapeutic indications
BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC, with chromium and Atriplex® GRT. A multivitamin and mineral supplement to replenish vitamins and minerals that are often deficient in diabetics.

4.2 Posology and method of administration
Adults and children over 12 years of age:
Posology
Adults: Take one (1) capsule daily with food, or as recommended by your healthcare practitioner. Not recommended for use in children.

Method of administration
Take BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC capsules orally.

Special populations

Renal insufficiency increases the likelihood of toxicity due to hypermagnesaemia or hyperkalaemia.

Paediatric/Adolescent population
BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC is not recommended for use in children or adolescents below 18 years of age.

4.3 Contraindications

- Hypersensitivity to chromium, iron, magnesium, manganese, potassium, rooibos, vitamin A, vitamin B₁, vitamin B₂, vitamin B₃, vitamin B₅, vitamin B₆, vitamin B₇, vitamin B₉, vitamin B₁₂, vitamin C, vitamin E, zinc, or other excipients listed under section 6.1.
- Patients with reduced kidney function - due to an increased risk of hypermagnesaemia, hyperkalaemia, and hyperoxaluria.
- Patients with iron-overloaded states such as hereditary hemochromatosis, hemosiderosis, or those who have a history of haemolytic anaemia.

4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

- Magnesium and vitamin E might theoretically increase the risk of bleeding – use with caution in patients with existing bleeding disorders.
- Use with caution in patients with renal disease, as BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC may increase the risk for, or exacerbate kidney disease.
- Use with caution in patients with hepatic disease, as BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC may increase the risk for, or exacerbate liver disease.
- Use vitamin C with caution in patients who are prone to oxidate stone formation.
- Vitamin D may increase the risk for hypercalcaemia, kidney stones and calcified tissue in patients with sarcoidosis, lymphoma, hyperparathyroidism, histoplasmosis, tuberculosis, or those taking vitamin D supplementation.
- Iron overload is likely to occur in patients with hemoglobinopathies or other refractory anaemias incorrectly diagnosed as iron deficiency anaemia as well with caution.
- Iron supplementation is associated with an increased risk of nosebleed in patients with hereditary haemorrhagic telangiectasia (HHT) – use with caution.
- Patients with coronary stents should avoid vitamin B₆, vitamin B₁₂ and vitamin B₉ supplementation, as it may increase the rate of restenosis.
- Patients receiving parenteral nutrition are at increased risk of manganese toxicity, which may result in a permanent neurological disorder.
- Use with caution in patients with a history of haemorrhagic strokes.
- Discontinue use at least 2 weeks prior to elective surgical procedures.
- Not recommended in women of childbearing age, those planning pregnancy, and those who are pregnant, or breastfeeding.
- Not to be given to children under the age of 18 years (see section 4.8 d).

4.5 Interaction with other medicines and other forms of interaction
Interactions with Medicines
Alkylating agents: Vitamin C and vitamin E may theoretically reduce the effectiveness of alkylating agents.
Antiarthritics: Vitamin B₁ may theoretically increase photosensitivity caused by amiodarone.
Antibiotics: Magnesium, iron, manganese, zinc and vitamin B₁₂ may theoretically decrease the effectiveness of broad-spectrum antibiotics (quinolones or tetracyclines). Zinc may decrease the absorption of cephalosporin antibiotics (cephalexin). Vitamin C and vitamin E may reduce the effectiveness of antimutator antibiotics. Magnesium may increase the risk for neuromuscular weakness when used concomitantly with bactericidal antibiotics, such as amikacin, gentamicin, streptomycin, tobramycin, and neomycin.
Anticoagulant/antiplatelet supplements/herbs: Magnesium and vitamin E may theoretically increase the risk of bleeding due to its antiplatelet properties – avoid using concomitantly with anticoagulants/antiplatelets.
Anti-hypertensives: Concomitant use of blood pressure lowering medication such as angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, antihypertensive herbs/supplements or calcium channel blockers, as rooibos, magnesium, and vitamin B₁₂ may have additive blood pressure lowering effects. Iron may affect methyldopa (antihypertensive) levels by reducing its absorption.
Antiparasitics: Vitamin B₁ may antagonize the antiparasitic effects of pyrimethamine against toxoplasmosis and Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia.
Antipsychotics: Concomitant use of manganese and antipsychotics, such as haloperidol, phenothiazine-derivatives, or others, may increase the risk of manganese toxicity. Vitamin B₁ may theoretically decrease the hypotensive levels.
Bisphosphonates: Vitamin B₆ may have an antagonistic effect on piridomide and phenobarbital, consequently increasing the risk for seizures.
Bisphosphonates: Magnesium and iron may decrease the absorption of bisphosphonates, thus affecting bone density loss.
Blood glucose lowering agents/herbs: Magnesium and chromium may theoretically result in additive blood glucose lowering.
Cardiac glycosides: Magnesium may decrease the therapeutic effect of cardiac glycosides, such as digoxin.
Central nervous system (CNS) agents: Magnesium, iron and vitamin B₁₂ may affect levodopa levels.
Chemotherapy medication: Zinc may theoretically inactivate cisplatin and its therapeutic effects. Vitamin B₆ may reduce the efficacy of methotrexate when using concomitantly.

Cytochrome substrates: Vitamin D and vitamin E may decrease the bioavailability of CYP3A4 substrates, by inducing CYP3A4 metabolism.
Heavy metal antagonists: Iron and zinc may affect penicillamine levels by reducing its absorption.
Hormones: Iron, chromium and vitamin C may affect the thyroid hormone, levothyroxine. Vitamin C may also increase plasma estrogen levels.
Immunosuppressants: Iron may affect mycophenolate mofetil (inhibitor for the prevention of transplant rejection) levels by reducing its absorption.
Integrase inhibitors: Iron and zinc may decrease integrase inhibitor (such as dolutegravir) levels and the effect of these medication.
Kinase inhibitors: Selumetinib contains vitamin E and may increase the risk of bleeding when using concomitantly with vitamin E supplements.
Metals: Vitamin C and vitamin D may increase aluminium absorption.
Minerals: Boron supplementation may decrease the excretion of magnesium in some people, and vitamin D may increase the absorption of calcium in the intestine.
Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatorys: Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatorys may increase chromium absorption and retention.
Potassium-sparing diuretics: The concomitant use of magnesium or potassium and potassium-sparing diuretics may respectively increase magnesium and potassium levels, resulting in hypermagnesaemia or hyperkalaemia.
Protease inhibitors: When using regularly, zinc may prevent the absorption of atazanavir/ritonavir.
Retinoids: Concomitant use of vitamin A and retinoids may result in supratherapeutic vitamin A levels with additive toxic effects.
Statins: Theoretically, combining rooibos and atorvastatin could increase the effects and side effects of atorvastatin, whereas vitamin D oppositely may reduce the absorption of atorvastatin.
Vitamin D₃ derivatives: Concomitant use of calcipotriene with vitamin D may increase the risk for hypercalcaemia.

Interactions with Diseases/Impairments
Achlorhydria: The absence of hydrochloric acid in gastric secretions causes decreased stomach acidity, and consequently impaired iron absorption.
Angioplasty: Patients with coronary stents should avoid vitamin B₆, vitamin B₁₂ and vitamin B₉ supplementation, as it may increase the rate of restenosis.
Bleeding disorders: Magnesium and vitamin E might theoretically increase the risk of bleeding – use with caution in patients with existing bleeding disorders.
Cobalamin/cobalt hypersensitivity: Vitamin B₁₂ contains cobalamin and cobalt, and may cause allergic reactions in patients who are sensitive to both these compounds.
Fat malabsorption disorders: Patients with fat absorption diseases such as short gut syndrome, celiac disease, obstructive jaundice, cystic fibrosis, pancreatic disease, and cirrhosis of the liver, may experience reduced vitamin A absorption.
Haemodialysis: Iron, and vitamin B₁₂ absorption is decreased in patients receiving haemodialysis. Haemodialysis might also increase vitamin B₁₂ excretion.
Haemoglobin diseases: Iron overload is likely to occur in patients with hemoglobinopathies or other refractory anemias incorrectly diagnosed as iron deficiency anaemia.
Hereditary haemorrhagic telangiectasia (HHT): Iron supplementation is associated with an increased risk of nosebleed in patients with HHT.
Histoplasmosis: Vitamin D may increase calcium levels in patients with histoplasmosis. This is due to the increased metabolism of vitamin D to calcitriol, increasing the risk for hypercalcaemia, kidney stones and calcified tissue – use with caution.
Hyperparathyroidism: Vitamin D may increase calcium levels and lead to hypercalcaemia in people with hyperparathyroidism.
Kidney stones: Vitamin C may increase the risk of oxidate kidney stones, especially in patients who are prone to oxidate stone formation.
Liver disease: Patients with liver disease, such as hepatitis, biliary obstruction, cirrhosis etc., may experience manganese accumulation and toxicity and decreased vitamin B₆ absorption. Theoretically, chromium might exacerbate liver disease. Vitamin B₁₂ absorption is decreased in patients with liver disease such as hepatitis, biliary obstruction, and cirrhosis.
Lymphoma: Vitamin D may increase calcium levels in people with lymphoma, consequently increasing the risk for hypercalcaemia, kidney stones and calcified tissue – use vitamin D supplements with caution.
Renal disease: Due to an increased risk of hypermagnesaemia, hyperkalaemia, or hyperoxaluria - use with caution in patients with reduced kidney function. Theoretically, chromium might exacerbate kidney disease. Vitamin D may increase calcium levels and increase the risk of arteriosclerosis in patients with renal failure.
Sarcoidosis: Vitamin D may increase calcium levels in people with sarcoidosis, consequently increasing the risk for hypercalcaemia, kidney stones and calcified tissue – use vitamin D supplements with caution.
Stroke: Vitamin E might theoretically increase the risk of haemorrhagic stroke – use with caution in patients with a history of haemorrhagic stroke.
Surgical procedures: Vitamin E might increase the risk of bleeding if used perioperatively - Discontinue use at least 2 weeks prior to elective surgical procedures.
Tuberculosis: Vitamin D may increase calcium levels in patients with tuberculosis, consequently increasing the risk for hypercalcaemia, kidney stones and calcified tissue – use vitamin D supplements with caution (see section 4.4).

Interactions with Foods
Alcohol: Alcohol decreases the conservation of magnesium via the kidneys, thus increasing the risk for magnesium deficiency. Long-term/excessive alcohol consumption is associated with impaired zinc absorption and increased excretion of zinc in the urine. Chronic alcohol ingestion may exacerbate the effects of vitamin A, particularly hepatotoxicity. Chronic alcohol abusers may experience an increase in urinary vitamin E excretion.
Smoking: Smoking theoretically increases vitamin B₁₂ catabolism which might cause minor vitamin B₁₂ deficiency.
4.6 Fertility, pregnancy and lactation
Adults (18 years and older)
Chromium - likely safe when used orally and appropriately during pregnancy at a dosage of 30 µg daily, and during lactation at a dosage of 45 µg daily.
Iron - likely safe when used at a dosage below 45 mg elemental iron daily in pregnant and breastfeeding patients with adequate iron stores.
Magnesium - likely safe when used orally and appropriately at a dosage of 350 mg daily in pregnant and breastfeeding women.
Manganese - likely safe for pregnant and lactating women when used orally and appropriately at a dosage below 11 mg daily.
Potassium - likely safe for pregnant and lactating women when used at a dosage of 40-80 mEq daily.

Rooibos - Insufficient reliable information available.
Vitamin A - likely safe during pregnancy and lactation when used in doses less than 3 000 µg per day.
Vitamin B₁ - Safety of supplemental Vitamin B₁ is unknown.
Vitamin B₂ - Safety of supplemental Vitamin B₂ is unknown.
Vitamin B₃ - Safety of supplemental Vitamin B₃ is unknown.
Vitamin B₅ - likely safe when used orally and appropriately during pregnancy and lactation. The adequate daily intake during pregnancy is 6 mg, and 7 mg daily during lactation.
Vitamin B₆ - likely safe when used orally and appropriately at a dosage of 75 mg daily during pregnancy, and 2 mg during lactation.
Vitamin B₇ - likely safe when used orally and appropriately at a dosage of 30 µg daily during pregnancy, and 35 µg daily during lactation.
Vitamin B₉ - likely safe when used orally and appropriately during pregnancy and lactation at a dosage of 1 000 µg daily.
Vitamin B₁₂ - likely safe when used orally and appropriately at a dosage of 2.6 µg daily during pregnancy, and 2.8 µg during lactation.
Vitamin C - likely safe when used orally and appropriately in pregnant and breastfeeding women at a dosage of 2 000 mg daily.
Vitamin D - likely safe when used orally and appropriately in pregnant and breastfeeding women at a dosage of 100 µg daily.
Vitamin E - possibly safe when used orally and appropriately in pregnant and lactating women at a dosage not exceeding 1 000 mg daily.
Zinc - likely safe when used orally and appropriately in pregnant and breastfeeding women at a dosage of 40 mg daily.

4.7 Effects on ability to drive and use machines
BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC may affect the ability to drive or operate machinery, as it may cause headache and somnolence.
Please exercise care until you are certain that your ability to perform such activities is not affected.

4.8 Undesirable effects
4.8 a Summary of safety profile
When used orally and appropriately, chromium, iron, magnesium, manganese, potassium, vitamin A, vitamin B₁, vitamin B₂, vitamin B₃, vitamin B₅, vitamin B₆, vitamin B₇, vitamin B₉, vitamin C, vitamin D, vitamin E, and zinc is generally well tolerated when using as prescribed. Insufficient reliable information available about the safety of rooibos and vitamin B₁₂ when used orally in medicinal amounts.

4.8 b Summary of adverse reactions
Gastrointestinal disorders (Frequency): Abdominal pain, esophagitis, heartburn, constipation, belching, flatulence, gastrointestinal irritation, diarrhoea, nausea, metallic taste in mouth, and vomiting.
Gastrointestinal disorders (Frequency unknown): Dry mouth, and flu-like symptoms.
Dermatological disorders (Frequency unknown): Skin irritation, skin rash pruritus, and urticaria.
Neurological disorders (Frequency unknown): Headache and somnolence.
Musculoskeletal disorders (Frequency unknown): Breast soreness.

4.8 c Description of selected adverse reactions
Severity of adverse effects listed in Section 4.8 b are typically dose dependent.

4.8 d Paediatric Population
BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC is not recommended for use in children below 18 years of age.

4.8 e Other special populations
Renal impairment: Increases the likelihood of toxicity due to hypermagnesaemia and hyperkalaemia.

4.9 Overdose
Insufficient reliable information for BIOGEN MULTIVITAMIN DIABETIC overdose. Side effects listed in section 4.8 can be precipitated and/or be of increased severity.

Overdose of individual ingredients:
Chromium - Acute chromium toxicity may cause diarrhoea, haemorrhage, vomiting, and blood loss into the gastrointestinal tract resulting in cardiogenic shock.
Iron - Acute overdose may cause diarrhoea and haematemesis, followed by cardiovascular, liver, or metabolic toxicity, and death.
Long-term overdose may cause hemosiderosis.
Magnesium - Overdose may result in CNS depression, confusion, drowsiness, low blood pressure, thirst, loss of tendon reflexes, skeletal muscle paralysis, respiratory depression, cardiac arrhythmias, and, in extreme cases, cardiac arrest, coma, and death.
Manganese - Overdose might increase the risk of neurotoxicity, including Parkinson-like extrapyramidal symptoms, encephalopathy, and psychosis.
Potassium - Overdose may result in hyperkalaemia. Symptoms include paraesthesia, weakness, paralysis, listlessness, vertigo, confusion, hypotension, blood in the stool, cardiac arrhythmias, heart block, and death.
Rooibos - Large/long term dosages might cause hepatotoxicity in some patients.
Vitamin A - Overdose may can cause pseudotumor cerebri, pain, liver toxicity, coma, and even death.
Vitamin B₁, Vitamin B₂, Vitamin B₃, Vitamin B₅, Vitamin B₆, Vitamin B₇, Vitamin B₉, Vitamin B₁₂, Vitamin C, and Vitamin E - Insufficient reliable information.
Vitamin D - Vitamin D toxicity include hypercalcaemia, azotaemia, and anaemia.
Zinc - Overdose may cause irritation and corrosion of the gastrointestinal tract, epigastric pain, watery diarrhoea, and severe vomiting.
Reporting of side effects
Reporting suspected adverse reactions after authorisation of the medicine is important. It allows continued monitoring of the benefit/risk balance of the medicine. Healthcare providers are asked to report any suspected adverse reactions to SAHPRA via the **"6.04 Adverse Drug Reactions Reporting Form"**, found online under SAHPRA's publications: <https://www.sahpra.org.za/Publications/idxv8/>.

5. PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES

5.1 Pharmacodynamic properties
D 34.12 Multiple substance formulation. Complementary Medicine: Health Supplement.

Mechanism of action:
Chromium - Increases insulin sensitivity by activating signalling pathways involved in glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4) translocation.
Iron - Required for oxygen and carbon dioxide transport, functions in the electron transport chain as an electron carrier in cytochromes, plays a role in the Krebs cycle (energy release) and is an essential cofactor in neurotransmitter (dopamine, norepinephrine, and serotonin) synthesis.
Magnesium - Supplementation may improve glycaemic control in patients with type 2 diabetes, by regulating insulin activity or enhancing the action of enzymes involved in glucose utilization.
Manganese - Helps the body to metabolise carbohydrates. The insulin receptor is a hormone-dependent kinase that is stimulated by Manganese.
Potassium - Works jointly with other nutrients to generate beneficial physiological effects.
Rooibos - Unknown.
Vitamin A - B lymphocyte growth, differentiation, and activation (immune function) are dependent on retinol.
Vitamin B₁ - Binds with adenosine triphosphate (ATP) to form the coenzyme, thiamine diphosphate, which is required for carbohydrate metabolism.
Vitamin B₂ - Converted to the co-factors, flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and flavin-adenine dinucleotide (FAD), in the body. These cofactors attach and consequently activate flavoproteins. Flavoproteins play a role in many enzymatic and metabolic processes in the body.
Vitamin B₃ - Unknown.
Vitamin B₅ - Precursor of coenzyme A (CoA) and acyl carrier protein, is involved in gluconeogenesis; energy release from carbohydrates; fatty acid synthesis/degradation; and the synthesis of steroids, acetylcholine, steroid hormones, porphyrins, and other compounds. Vitamin B₅ also seems to be essential for normal epithelial function.
Vitamin B₆ - Converted to the coenzyme, pyridoxal phosphate, which is involved in a wide variety of metabolic reactions, such as transamination of amino acids, conversion of tryptophan to niacin, synthesis of gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) in the CNS, metabolism of serotonin, norepinephrine and dopamine, metabolism of polysaturated fatty acids and phospholipids, and the synthesis of the heme component of hemoglobin.
Vitamin B₉ - Reduces blood glucose levels by theoretically stimulating the expression of proteins/enzymes that favour hypoglycaemia (insulin, pancreatic glucokinase, and hepatic glucokinase), and inhibiting the expression of hepatic phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (an enzyme stimulating glucose production).
Vitamin B₁₂ - Unknown.
Vitamin B₁₂ - Helps to metabolise carbohydrates, fats and proteins.
Vitamin C - Best known for its antioxidant effects and its role in maintaining proper immune function. It is also involved in several physiological functions such as oxidation-reduction reactions, cellular respiration, catabolism of cholesterol to bile acids, carbohydrate metabolism, lipid and protein synthesis, folic acid to folinic acid conversion, and iron metabolism.
Vitamin D - Vitamin D impacts the function of beta-cells by mediating calcium flux.
Vitamin E - May improve glucose disposal in patients with type 2 diabetes.
Zinc - Increases insulin levels and decreases blood glucose levels.

Pharmacodynamic effects:
Chromium - Trace mineral, may be modestly beneficial for improving glycaemic control in diabetes, especially at higher dosages.
Iron - Trace mineral, stores and transports iron (as myoglobin and hemoglobin) throughout the body.
Magnesium - Chemical element, known to play an essential role in many cellular reactions in the body.
Manganese - Essential nutrient, involved in glucose regulation.
Potassium - Essential element, essential for physiological processes. Inadequate dietary intake of potassium might result in the development of hypertension, stroke, and cardiovascular disease.
Rooibos - Has antioxidant properties which may reduce the risk of type 2 diabetes (T2DM) and its complications.
Vitamin A - Fat-soluble vitamin, contributes to the maintenance of eyesight, skin, membranes and immune function.
Vitamin B₁ - Water-soluble B-complex vitamin, helps to metabolise carbohydrates and is a factor in the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin B₂ - Water-soluble B vitamin involved in vital metabolic processes and is necessary for normal cell growth, function, and energy production.
Vitamin B₃ - Helps metabolizing carbohydrates, fats and proteins and is a good factor in the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin B₅ - Essential B vitamin, helps metabolizing carbohydrates, fats and proteins and is a good factor in the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin B₆ - Member of the Vitamin B family, helps metabolizing carbohydrates, fats and proteins and is a good factor in the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin B₇ - Water-soluble B vitamin serving as a cofactor for biotin-dependent carboxylases which participate in gluconeogenesis (glucose generation), fatty acid synthesis and catabolism.
Vitamin B₉ - Water-soluble B vitamin, is a good factor in the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin B₁₂ - Water-soluble B vitamin, is a good factor in the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin C - Antioxidant-rich water-soluble vitamin, for the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin D - Fat-soluble vitamin, for the maintenance of good health.
Vitamin E - Fat-soluble vitamin, for the maintenance of good health.
Zinc - Mineral, may modestly improve glycaemic control in some patients.

5.2 Pharmacokinetic properties
Chromium
Absorption: Only a small percentage (0,4 % - 2,5 %) of chromium is absorbed.
Distribution: Concentrates in the heart, kidney, brain, spleen, muscle, epididymis, testes, and lungs. Serum chromium levels are not equivalent to chromium present in tissue-organ stores.
Metabolism: Once absorbed, chromium is bound to transferrin and concentrated in certain organs.
Excretion: Absorbed chromium is rapidly excreted in the urine. Unabsorbed chromium is excreted in the faeces. Stressors (physical activity, infection, elevated blood sugar, trauma) may increase chromium excretion.
Iron
Absorption: Absorbed in the intestine (predominantly within the duodenum and lesser amounts in the jejunum).
Distribution: Iron is predominantly found in the hemoglobin of red blood cells. The remaining iron is stored in the bone marrow, liver, spleen, or muscle (myoglobin) as ferritin or hemosiderin.
Metabolism: Iron binds to the transport protein, transferrin, which in turn binds to the transferrin receptor complex. Once transferred into cells, iron can be incorporated into hemoglobin and myoglobin, stored as ferritin, or used to regulate cellular iron metabolism.
Excretion: Body iron is highly conserved. A small quantity of iron is excreted daily, mostly through the feces.

Magnesium
Absorption: Magnesium is absorbed throughout the gastrointestinal tract and requires vitamin D and parathyroid hormone for absorption. Magnesium stores in the body determines the absorption efficiency of magnesium. Plasma concentration of magnesium peaks at 4 hours post supplementation.
Distribution: Magnesium is divided between the skeleton and soft tissue in roughly equal portions. Extracellular magnesium makes up 1 % of total body magnesium. In plasma, ± 30 % magnesium is bound to plasma proteins, 55 % is ionized or free, and 15 % is complexed to anions.
Metabolism: Theoretically, magnesium undergoes a filtration-reabsorption process. Magnesium reabsorption is determined by the presence of parathyroid hormone, plasma magnesium and calcium level alterations, and the use of loop diuretics.
Excretion: Magnesium is primarily excreted via the kidneys (averages 3 % - 5 % of the filtered load). Over a 24-hour period, excretion ranges from 10 - 5 000 mg.
Manganese
Absorption: Absorption rate of manganese from supplements is unknown.
Distribution: Absorbed manganese is present in the blood for a short period. Manganese accumulates in the tissues, including the bone where it can remain for several years.
Metabolism: Unknown.
Excretion: Manganese is cleared via the liver.
Potassium
Absorption: Majority of intestinal potassium absorption occurs in the small intestine, mainly via passive mechanisms.
Distribution: Potassium is distributed in the intracellular and extracellular fluid.
Metabolism: The skeletal muscle and the liver buffer changes in plasma potassium levels via transcellular potassium redistribution and feedback control of renal potassium excretion. When decreased potassium intake is sensed, other homeostatic responses are activated, even when plasma potassium levels are still within the normal range.
Excretion: Approximately 80 % of dietary potassium is recovered in the urine.

Rooibos
Unknown.
Vitamin A
Absorption: Vitamin A is bound to the retinol-binding protein in the plasma. Unesterified retinol is directly absorbed into intestinal cells, predominantly by active transport at lower concentrations and by diffusion at higher concentrations.
Distribution: Vitamin A is stored as retinol, predominantly in the liver.
Metabolism: Vitamin A is metabolized to 11-cis-retinoids and acidic retinoids.
Excretion: Vitamin A is predominantly excreted in the urine. Lesser amounts of vitamin A are lost through the breath and faeces, as inactive metabolites.

Vitamin B₁
Absorption: Vitamin B₁ is absorbed at the proximal part of the small intestine. Smaller dosages are absorbed through active transport, and higher dosages through passive diffusion.
Distribution: Distributed into the heart, skeletal muscle, kidneys, liver, and the brain.
Metabolism: Vitamin B₁ is phosphorylated during intestinal uptake. In the human body, vitamin B₁ is predominantly found in its metabolically active form, thiamine diphosphate.
Excretion: Vitamin B₁ and its metabolites are excreted in the urine.

Vitamin B₂
Absorption: Absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. Absorption mechanism for riboflavin is saturable.
Distribution: Widely distributed to tissues; however, little is stored in the spleen, liver, heart, and kidneys.
Metabolism: Hepatically metabolized.
Excretion: Vitamin B₂ is excreted in the urine.

Vitamin B₃
Unknown.

Vitamin B₅
Absorption: Vitamin B₅ is absorbed in the intestine and delivered directly into the bloodstream by active transport. At higher dosages, passive diffusion may occur.
Distribution: Red blood cells carry vitamin B₅ throughout the body. Vitamin B₅ is predominantly present in the form of coenzyme A (CoA) in the body.
Metabolism: Acts as a precursor for the synthesis of CoA and acyl carrier protein.
Excretion: Vitamin B₅ is excreted in the urine.

Vitamin B₆
Absorption: Passively absorbed in the upper gastrointestinal tract.
Distribution: Unknown.
Metabolism: Vitamin B₆ is converted in the liver to the coenzyme, pyridoxal phosphate.
Excretion: Vitamin B₆ metabolites are excreted in the urine.

Vitamin B₇
Absorption: Biotin is completely absorbed post oral administration. Peak concentration is reached after 1 - 2 hours.
Distribution: The sodium-dependent multivitamin transporter (SMVT) mediates the uptake of biotin into the liver and peripheral tissues, and the reuptake of biotin in the kidneys.
Metabolism: Biotin metabolites are formed by beta-oxidation, sulfur oxidation, or both.
Excretion: Biotin is excreted in the urine as unmetabolized biotin or as the biotin metabolites biotinid, L-sulfoxides, bisnorbiotin methyl ketone, bisnorbiotin, biotin sulfone, and tetranorbiotin-L-sulfoxide).

Vitamin B₉
Absorption: Synthetic vitamin B₉ is almost 100 % bioavailable. Absorption occurs primarily in the duodenum and jejunum.
Distribution: Unknown.
Metabolism: Once absorbed, Vitamin B₉ is reduced to tetrahydrofolate which enters a methylation cycle. Tetrahydrofolate is converted to L-methylfolate.
Excretion: Predominantly excreted in the urine; however, it can also be present in the faeces.

Vitamin B₁₂
Absorption: Vitamin B₁₂ binds with intrinsic factor which allows active transportation in the terminal ileum. Vitamin B₁₂ can also be passively absorbed, although, to a much lesser extent than active absorption.¹
Distribution: Unknown
Metabolism: Unknown
Excretion: Half-life of vitamin B₁₂ is ± 25 - 30 hours.

Vitamin C
Absorption: Absorption decreases as the dose increases.
Distribution: Predominantly found in the plasma, and to a lesser extent in the lungs, heart, muscle, intestine, kidney, liver and brain.
Metabolism: Vitamin C is transported from the intestines into the blood via the sodium-dependent vitamin C transporter (SVCT1).
Excretion: Absorbed vitamin C is excreted in the urine.

Vitamin D
Absorption: Vitamin D is well absorbed in the small intestine.
Distribution: Transported primarily by chylomicron, allowing vitamin D to be distributed to the peripheral tissues. If not absorbed by the peripheral tissue, vitamin D is transported to the liver, where it is converted to calcitriol.
Metabolism: Vitamin D is hydroxylated to the active metabolite, calcitriol, in the liver or kidneys.
Excretion: Vitamin D is predominantly excreted in the faeces.

Vitamin E
Absorption: Vitamin E is absorbed in the small intestine through passive diffusion.
Distribution: Hepatic alpha-tocopherol transfer protein (alpha-TTP) is necessary for the distribution of alpha-tocopherol. Alpha-TTP is present in the spleen, lung, brain, kidney, uterus, and placenta.
Metabolism: Unclear Vitamin E appears to be a substrate of the cytochrome P450 enzyme system, possibly CYP3A4. In addition, vitamin E also seems to activate a nuclear receptor, pregnane X receptor (PXR), which induces CYP3A4 expression.
Excretion: Vitamin E is primarily excreted via the faeces. The water-soluble metabolites of vitamin E are eliminated in the urine.

Zinc
Absorption: Zinc