

Combet, E., and Buckton, C. (2014) Micronutrient deficiencies, vitamin pills and nutritional supplements. Medicine, 14(2). pp. 66-72.

Copyright © 2014 Elsevier Ltd.

A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge

The content must not be changed in any way or reproduced in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holder(s)

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details must be given

http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/100885/

Deposited on: 14 Jan 2015

Enlighten – Research publications by members of the University of Glasgow http://eprints.gla.ac.uk

Micronutrient deficiencies, vitamin pills and nutritional supplements

Emilie Combet and Christina Buckton

Emilie Combet (PhD) is a lecturer in nutrition at the University of Glasgow, Scotland. Her research interests include nutrition over the course of life and the role the diet in the context of oxidative and metabolic stress linked to overweight and ageing.

Christina Buckton (MSc) is a Public Health Nutritionist and research assistant at the University of Glasgow. Her research interests include food choice and how to achieve nutritional balance needed for health promotion and disease prevention.

Dr Emilie Combet, New Lister Building, University of Glasgow, Royal Infirmary Campus, Alexandra Parade 10-16, Glasgow G31 2ER, UK

Email: Emilie.combetaspray@glasgow.ac.uk, Tel: +44 141 201 8527

NOTICE: this is the author's version of a work that was accepted for publication in Medicine. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document. Changes may have been made to this work since it was submitted for publication. A definitive version was subsequently published in MEDICINE (2015) DOI:10.1016/j.mpmed.2014.11.002"

Conflict of interest: none declared

Abstract

In the 21st century, it is hard to reconcile the concepts of the western diet and overconsumption with the risk of micronutrient deficiencies. However, deficiencies can arise from poor dietary intake, alone or combined with physiological or metabolic injury. Micronutrients are essential to fulfil a broad range of biochemical and physiological functions, and are tightly regulated by homeostatic processes. Diagnosis of deficiency is complex and requires the use of separate investigations (dietary, functional, biochemical). While the role of micronutrients in the prevention or treatment of diseases (including cancer, type 2 diabetes) is of interest, a key driver for the vitamins and supplement market is their advertised potential to optimize health and performance in healthy individuals. The evidence so far indicates that multivitamins supplements offer no health protection, increase all-cause mortality, and risk of cancers in some subgroups. A nutritionally balanced diet is a safer way to achieve sufficiency.

Keywords

micronutrients, supplementation, recommendations, deficiency, antioxidant, evidence

Micronutrients – intake, metabolism and storage

There are 15 vitamins (11 water-soluble, and 4 lipid soluble) and 20 minerals (7 macroelements, 7 trace elements) essential for sustaining human life (Table 1). All vitamins and minerals can be obtained from a balanced diet that includes the main food groups. That diseases can arise from dietary deficiency has been well understood since the identification, in the 18th century, that supplementing the diet with citrus fruit could cure scurvy.

The physiological functions of micronutrients include acting as:

- co-enzymes in key metabolic reactions;
- antioxidants in the control of damage caused by reactive oxygen species;
- modulators of gene transcription;
- components of and co-factors for enzymes; and
- structural components of tissues (1).

The human body is highly adaptable with efficient homeostatic mechanisms, often under hormonal control, that balance the absorption, transport, storage, utilization and excretion of micronutrients. These mechanisms enable maintenance of appropriate circulating and stored reserves for use in tissue function. Such controls allow the body to function normally across a wide range of nutrient intakes, so that it can take some time before an overt deficiency disease materializes (Figure 1) (1).

For example the metabolic pool of calcium in the extracellular fluid (ECF) is very small compared with the large skeletal reserves, mobilization of which compensates for an inadequate intake of calcium. Conversely, there are no specific reserves for minerals such as zinc and the water-soluble vitamins, and the body is largely dependent on a regular supply in the diet. Interestingly, there is no physiological mechanism for iron excretion and iron balance is maintained through the regulation of its absorption from the diet. If iron is not required, it is stored in duodenal mucosal cells as ferritin and excreted in the faeces when mucosal cells are exfoliated.

The bioavailability of a nutrient can be defined as the proportion of that nutrient ingested from a particular food that can be absorbed and made available to the body for normal metabolic functions. This is the result of the interaction between the nutrient, other components of the diet (the food matrix) and the physiological status of the individual. For example, ascorbic acid (vitamin C) will increase non-haem iron absorption, as will the presence of haem iron in the duodenum and the iron deficient status of the individual. Conversely phytates, iron-binding phenolic compounds and replete iron stores will decrease absorption. Several vitamins and minerals, such as calcium, iron, zinc and a number of the B vitamins display such interactions.

Phytochemicals

Foods, especially plant foods, contain phytochemicals (including polyphenols, sterols), which are not recognized as nutrients but may have properties (e.g. antioxidant, anti-inflammatory or cholesterol-lowering) that are health-promoting. These properties have fuelled the expansion of the nutritional

supplement market, despite the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) regulating the health claim market in Europe and requiring substantial evidence to justify claims (2).

The UK's Department of Health report on dietary reference values found no convincing evidence that it is necessary to include such compounds in a normal human diet and thus gave no further consideration to these or other unnecessary substances, including ornithine, orotic acid, lecithin, 'vitamin B_{15} ' (pangamic acid), 'vitamin B_{17} ' (laetrile), bioflavonoids (e.g. rutin, hesperidin, quercitin) or ubiquinones (coenzyme Q) (3).

Too much, too little - the U-shape relationship between micronutrients and health

A U-shape describes the dose-response relationship of micronutrients, with insufficient intake increasing the risk of deficiency, and excessive intake (acute and chronic exposure) increasing the risk of toxicity and associated diseases.

Countries worldwide, including the UK, have sought to publish dietary reference values (DRVs) (3). These recommendations are only an estimate at a population level, designed to be used as a yardstick for the assessment of dietary surveys and food statistics, for food labelling and to provide guidance on dietary composition.

In the UK, DRVs are set at a level needed to maintain a circulating concentration and a degree of enzyme saturation or tissue concentration of a given nutrient, in addition to ensuring that there are no clinical signs of a deficiency disease. This is a highly complex challenge, relying on many assumptions, including a nutrient's effects at different levels of intake, with individual requirements depending on age, gender and physiological state. DRVs are set on the assumption that individuals are in good health and not suffering from an existing deficiency. Where there is sufficient evidence, DRVs for micronutrients are set at a value believed the meet the needs of 97.5% of the population, known as the reference nutrient intake (RNI).

RNI values vary by age and gender. Additional recommendations are made for pregnancy, lactation and in old age for Vitamin D only (3).

(Figure 2) Different countries take a different approach to setting DRVs with their own terminology, creating confusion (e.g. RNI in UK, Recommended Daily allowance (RDA) in the USA and Population Reference Intake (PRI) in the EU) and resulting in inappropriate use of the recommendations.

There is insufficient evidence to set DRVs for some micronutrients, for example pantothenic acid, biotin, Vitamin E, Vitamin K, manganese, molybdenum, chromium and fluoride. In these cases the UK panel set 'safe intake' levels – a level or range of intake at which there is no risk of deficiency, but below a level that may produce undesirable effects.

Diagnosing deficiencies

Diagnosing deficiencies requires the integration of clinical/functional data (e.g. night blindness for vitamin A, lipid peroxidation for vitamin E, mean corpuscular volume for iron), dietary data (reported intakes, taking into consideration the risk of under/over-reporting) and biochemical data (e.g. plasma retinol for vitamin A, urinary iodine excretion). Comparison of intake with population thresholds (especially lower reference nutrient intake (LRNI)) is a first indicator of potential deficiencies, and may guide subsequent investigations. However, poor absorption or excretion can trigger deficiency in the presence of adequate intake (e.g. B₁₂ deficiency). Infection and stress may also impact on nutritional status.

Biochemical analysis relies on collection of biological samples, most often plasma or serum, but also blood cells, urine, or hair. The impact of storage and handling on the stability of the analyte must be considered, and the analytical technique used should be specific, sensitive over the range of interest, robust, with normative data and quality controls available for interpretation and quality assurance (4, 5).

Are we at risk?

Overt deficiency diseases are relatively rare in industrialized countries, with the exception of iron deficiency and iron deficiency anaemia. Assessment of iodine status in UK schoolgirls indicated mild insufficiency at a population level, based on urinary iodine excretion (6).

The National Diet and Nutrition Survey (NDNS) reported that, on average, intakes of the majority of vitamins were adequate, as indicated by dietary intakes and biochemical indices of nutritional status, with some key exceptions (7) (Table 2). These results are at a population level and rely heavily on self-reporting of dietary intake, a notoriously imprecise methodology, and the health implications of such nutritional surveillance reports remain unclear.

Diet Quality

There are several components of diet quality, often confused. Terms such as 'healthy' have no definition, and are used only for marketing, often implying effect on body weight. The term 'nutritionally balanced' refers to diets, or meals, which have nutrient compositions which approximate to the dietary needs for optimal health. It is not useful to consider nutritional balance of individual foods or ingredients, which must be combined in different proportions to make up meals. For foods, the concept of 'nutrient density' can be valuable in nutritional science, referring to the density of nutrients *per unit energy* (per 1000kcal). This must be distinguished from density *per unit weight*, as used in food science. A highquality diet has other cultural and economic features, so might be based on meals built on (wide, seasonal, locally sourced, unprocessed etc) selections of nutrient-rich foods, to match the reference intakes for all nutrients but without exceeding the reference energy intake.

Should we supplement?

The use of micronutrient pills and other nutritional supplements is currently suggested in three situations:

- 1. To correct deficiencies due to inadequate dietary intake (e.g. iron deficiency anaemia).
- 2. In disease states where requirements are enhanced (e.g. critically ill patients) or absorption compromised (e.g. Crohn's disease).
- 3. To promote health and performance, and protect against future chronic diseases in healthy individuals.

It is the last of these situations that is the most controversial and has the least clear evidence to support clinical decisions (8). Recommendations for supplementation in the healthy population are few, and includes, for example, folic acid before and during pregnancy and vitamin D in the young child. Despite the health claim market being tightly regulated by EFSA, and no recommendation being made, the use of vitamin pills and nutritional supplements generates almost US\$50 billion globally (£751 million in 2013 in the UK) and is forecast to grow by 4% annually through to 2018 (9, 10).

Epidemiological studies, such as the EPIC prospective cohort study, have shown associations between vitamin supplementation and disease prevention (11). However, none of the randomized control trials reached the same positive conclusion, raising questions about the adequacy of dose setting and selected length of exposure in the trials with further concerns of systematic errors (12, 13). One exception is vitamin D, which has been associated with decreased mortality in elderly institutionalised women (14).

Meta-analyses of the available trials revealed that, beside there being no beneficial effect, some supplements could actually be harmful, with high doses of antioxidants such as β -carotene, vitamin A, vitamin E and multivitamins linked positively to all-cause mortality, although this association has sometime been disputed (15, 16). In two trials (the beta-carotene and retinol efficacy trial - CARET and the Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention Study - ATBC), high dose beta-carotene (20-30mg/day) caused increased incidence of lung cancer and mortality in male smokers (17, 18). Several hypotheses exist as to why beta-carotene supplementation was harmful in these trials, with no clear consensus so far. Potential mechanisms involve the interaction of high dose beta-carotene with cigarette smoke, and impaired retinoic acid mediated signal transduction, pro-oxidant action of beta-carotene in the oxygen-rich lung environment, and cytochrome P450 induction, all potentially contributing to tumour formation (19).

Besides being a potential waste of time and money for the healthy individual (20), supplementing with antioxidants to combat oxidative stress and ageing could also be an error if, as has been suggested, oxidative stress is a desirable feature (a low dose of the stimulus, oxidative stress, activating an adaptive response, ultimately to increase resistance to more severe stress) (21).

While supplementation to address a diagnosed deficiency, or through a specific stage of the lifecycle with increased needs is justified, the modern drive to use vitamin pills and supplements to prevent future disease and improve an otherwise healthy status is not supported by evidence, and can be

harmful for some. A nutritionally balanced diet provides all the essential vitamins and minerals and micronutrient levels in the body are tightly regulated by homeostatic processes.

Figure 1 | From depletion through deficiency to clinical manifestations (22)

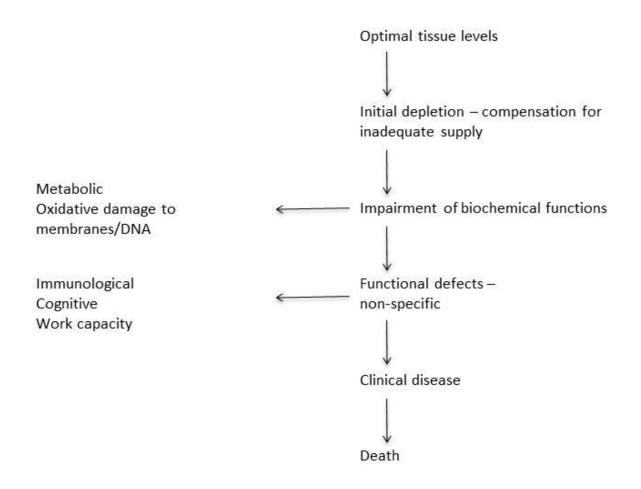
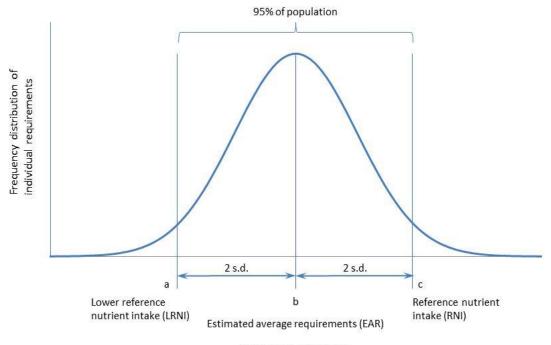


Figure 2 | COMA dietary reference values and nutrient requirements (3)



- Nutrient requirements
- (a) LRNI level of nutrient intake that will meet the needs of approximately 2.5% of the population, habitual intake below LRNI will almost certainly be inadequate to meet individual needs. Alternative terminology: EU - Lower Threshold Intake (LTI) USA - No equivalent
- (b) EAR the estimated average requirement (mean) for a group for a particular nutrient Alternative terminology: EU - Average Requirement (AR) USA – Estimated Average Requirement (EAR)
- (c) RNI level of nutrient intake which is sufficient for 97.5% of the population, exceeds the requirement for most people and habitual intakes above RNI are almost certain to be adequate Alternative terminology: EU – Population Reference Intake (PRI) USA – Recommended Daily Allowance (RDA)

Table 1 | Summary of micronutrient physiological functions and deficiency diseases

| Vitamins | Physiological functions Known deficiency diseases ^(a) | | Possible benefits of high status(23, 24) | |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| A - Retinol, beta- carotene | Visual pigments, gene expression, cell differentiation, antioxidant | Night blindness, xerophthalmia, keratinization of the skin | | |
| D - Calciferol | Calcium homeostasis, cell maturation in small intestine, insulin secretion Rickets (poor mineralization of bone), osteomalacia (demineralization of bone) | | ↓ Some cancers, diabetes, metabolic syndrome, multiple sclerosis | |
| E - Tocopherols | Antioxidant, particularly in cell membranes | Rare - serious neurological dysfunction | \downarrow Atherosclerosis and ischemic heart disease | |
| K – Phylloquinone, Menaquinones | Coenzyme for enzymes of blood clotting and bone matrix | Impaired blood clotting, haemorrhagic disease | | |
| C - Ascorbic acid | Antioxidant, promotes iron absorption, collagen synthesis, production of noradrenaline, inhibits production of nitrosamines in stomach | Scurvy (impaired wound healing, loss of dental cement, subcutaneous haemorrhage) | \downarrow all-cause mortality | |
| B1 - Thiamine | Co-enzyme in pyruvate and 2-keto-glutarate dehydrogenase and transketolase, Poorly defined role in nerve conduction | Beri beri (peripheral nerve damage), Wernicke- Korsakoff-syndrome (central nerve damage) | | |
| B2 - Riboflavine | Co-enzyme in oxidation and reduction reactions, prosthetic group of flavoproteins | Lesions of corner of mouth, lips and tongue; seborrhoeic dermatitis | | |
| Niacin - Nicotinic acid, Nicotinamide | Co-enzyme in oxidation and reduction reactions, functional part of NAD and NADP | Pellagra (photosensitive dermatitis, depressive psychosis) | | |
| B6 - Pyridoxine, Pyridoxal, Pyridoxamine | Co-enzyme in transamination and decarboxylation of amino acids and glycogen phosphorylase, steroid hormone production | Disorders of amino acid metabolism, convulsions | | |
| B9 - Folic acid | Co-enzyme in transfer of one carbon fragments | Megaloblastic anaemia, neural tube defects in babies | \downarrow Some cancers, especially colorectal cancer | |
| B12 - Cobalamin | Co-enzyme in transfer of one carbon fragments and metabolism of folic acid | Pernicious anaemia (megaloblastic anaemia with degeneration of the spinal cord) | | |
| Pantothenic acid | Functional part of coenzyme A and acyl carrier protein | Neuromotor disorders, mental depression, GI complaints and increased insulin sensitivity | | |
| Biotin | Co-enzyme in carboxylation reactions in gluconeogenesis and fatty acid synthesis | Impaired fat and carbohydrate metabolism, dermatitis | | |

| Minerals | Physiological functions | Known deficiency diseases ^(a) | Possible benefits of high status(23, 24) ↓ Hypertension and colon cancer | |
|------------|--|--|--|--|
| Calcium | Skeletal growth and development, vascular and muscle contraction, nerve transmission, insulin release | Failure to attain peak bone mass, osteoporosis in later life | | |
| Chloride | Hydrochloric acid in the stomach, chloride shift in erythrocyte plasma membrane, regulation of osmotic and electrolyte balances | Not diet related- only due to clinical conditions, eg: major trauma | | |
| Chromium | Insulin action, carbohydrate, lipid and nucleic acid metabolism | Severe deficiency can cause insulin resistance | | |
| Copper | Immune, nervous and cardiovascular systems, bone health, iron metabolism, haemoglobin synthesis, regulation of mitochondria, other gene expression. | Unlikely due to remarkable homeostatic mechanisms | ↓ (speculation) cardiovascular disease and osteoporosis | |
| Fluoride | Fluorapatite in teeth and bones | Increased risk of dental caries | | |
| Iodine | Thyroid hormones growth and mental development, possibly antibiotic and anti-cancer | Goitre, hypothyroidism, cretinism (collectively termed iodine deficiency disorders) | ↑Infection control and cancer prevention | |
| Iron | Oxygen transport and storage, catalytic centre for a broad spectrum of metabolic functions cell respiration and energy production, immune system, myelination and nerve development in fetus | Iron deficiency and iron deficiency anaemia, impairment of the immune response, adverse effect on psychomotor and mental development in children | | |
| Magnesium | Wide range of fundamental cellular reactions, >300 enzymatic steps in metabolism, skeletal development, gene regulation, nerve and muscle cell conduction | Only in diseased states or due to a rare genetic abnormality | ↓ Cardiovascular disease, type II diabetes, hypertension, osteoporosis | |
| Manganese | Catalytic co-factor for mitochondrial superoxide dismutase, arginase and pyruvate carboxylase | Rare - weight loss, dermatitis, growth retardation of hair and nails, decline of blood lipids | | |
| Molybdenum | Co-factor for the iron- and flavin-containing enzymes that catalyse hydroxylation | Deficiency difficult to induce | | |
| Phosphorus | Hydroxyapatite in calcified tissues, phospholipids in biological membranes, nucleotides and nucleic acid, maintenance of normal pH, storage and transfer of energy, activation of catalytic enzymes by phosphorylation | Hypophosphataemia resulting in cellular dysfunction – may include anorexia, anaemia, muscle weakness, bone pain, rickets and osteomalacia, general debility, increased infections, paraesthesia, ataxia, confusion | | |

| Potassium | Major intracellular electrolyte – regulation of osmotic pressure and electrolyte balance, normal functioning of cardiovascular, respiratory, digestive, renal and endocrine systems, energy metabolism, cell growth and division | Low potassium intakes unlikely to lead to clinical potassium depletion and hypokalaemia except during starvation and anorexia nervosa | ↓ Chronic heart failure and blood pressure | |
|-----------|--|---|--|--|
| Selenium | Redox centre for the selenium-dependent glutathione Keshan's disease – a cardiomyopathy affecting peroxidases (antioxidant), thyroid hormone metabolism children and women of child-bearing age | | Cancer incidence (particularly prostate), inflammatory conditions (e.g. rheumatoid arthritis, ulcerative colitis, pancreatitis, asthma) | |
| Sodium | Major extracellular electrolyte – regulation of osmotic and electrolyte balances, nerve conduction, muscle contraction, energy-dependent cell transport systems, formation of mineral apatite of bone. | Not diet related – only due to clinical conditions, including major trauma | | |
| Sulphur | Component of many proteins, energy metabolism as part of the electron transport chain | | | |
| Zinc | Catalytic, structural and regulatory roles, >100 metalloenzymes involved in energy metabolism, DNA & RNA synthesis, protein synthesis, expression of multiple genes, protection of mucosal cells, functioning of immune and reproductive systems | Growth retardation, sexual and skeletal immaturity, neuropsychiatric disturbances, dermatitis, alopecia, diarrhoea, susceptibility to infection and loss of appetite | [↑] Growth and development in children, $↓$ risk of low birth weight and pre-term delivery | |

^(a) Overt micronutrient deficiency diseases due to dietary insufficiency are rare, particularly in industrialised countries (more likely to be due to a clinical deficiency e.g. B12 deficiency caused by failure of intrinsic factor secretion). Worldwide the most common dietary deficiencies are vitamin A, iron and iodine (25)

| | Females (age group) | | | | Males (age group) | | | |
|--|---------------------|-------|-------|-----|-------------------|-------|-------|-----|
| | 4-10 | 11-18 | 19-64 | 65+ | 4-10 | 11-18 | 19-64 | 65+ |
| Dietary intake (% of population with daily intakes <lrni)<sup>(a)</lrni)<sup> | | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin A | | 14 | | | | 11 | | |
| Riboflavin | | 20 | 11 | | | 9 | | |
| Folate | | 7 | | | | | | |
| Vitamin D ^(b) | | | | | | | | |
| Iron | | 45 | 21 | | | | | |
| Calcium | | 19 | | | | | | |
| Magnesium ^(c) | | 52 | 11 | | | 28 | 16 | 19 |
| Potassium ^(c) | | 33 | 23 | 14 | | 16 | 11 | 13 |
| Zinc ^(c) | 11 | 22 | | | | 11 | | 10 |
| Selenium ^(c) | | 45 | 49 | 48 | | 22 | 25 | 29 |
| Iodine | | 22 | 10 | | | | | |
| Biochemical data (% of population with plasma levels <threshold)< th=""></threshold)<> | | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin D ^(d) | 16 | 24 | 22 | 24 | 12 | 20 | 24 | 17 |
| Iron ^(e) | 21 | 28 | 16 | | 11 | | | |

Table 2| Main outcomes of the NDNS rolling survey 2008-2012 for micronutrients (7)

^(a) Population may be at risk of deficiency if a significance percentage has daily intakes below LRNI for a sustained period of time

(b) Insufficient evidence to set LRNI for Vitamin D

 $^{\rm (c)}$ Caution very limited data used to set DRVs

^(d) Plasma concentrations of 25-hydroxyvitamin D <25nmol/L (threshold below which there is an increased risk of rickets and osteomalacia)

(e) Plasma concentrations of ferritin <15µg/L (threshold below which iron stores are considered to be depleted and the risk of iron-deficiency anaemia increased)

REFERENCES

1. Shenkin A. The key role of micronutrients. Clinical nutrition. 2006;25(1):1-13.

2. de Boer A, Vos E, Bast A. Implementation of the nutrition and health claim regulation—The case of antioxidants. Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology. 2014;68(3):475-87.

3. Department of Health L. Dietary reference values for food energy and nutrients for the United Kingdom. Committee on Medical Aspects of Food Policy Report on Health and Social Subjects 41. 1991.

4. Bates CJ. Diagnosis and detection of vitamin deficiencies. British Medical Bulletin. 1999;55(3):643-57.

5. Jackson MJ. Diagnosis and detection of deficiencies of micronutrients: minerals. British Medical Bulletin. 1999;55(3):634-42.

6. Vanderpump MPJ, Lazarus JH, Smyth PP, Laurberg P, Holder RL, Boelaert K, et al. Iodine status of UK schoolgirls: a cross-sectional survey. Lancet. 2011;377(9782):2007-12.

7. Bates B, Lennox A, Prentice A, Bates C, Page P, Nicholson S, et al. National Diet and Nutrition Survey: Results from Years 1–4 (combined) of the Rolling Programme (2008/2009–2011/12). Public Health England, and Food Standards Agency: London. 2014.

8. Bast A, Haenen GR. Ten misconceptions about antioxidants. Trends in pharmacological sciences. 2013;34(8):430-6.

9. Barnett C, Visser T, William F, Van Toor H, Duran S, Presas M, et al. Inadequate iodine intake of 40% of pregnant women from a region in Scotland. Journal of Endocrinological Investigation. 2002;S7:90.

10.Euromonitor International Passport. - Vitamins and Dietary Supplements in the UnitedKingdom(May2014)-accessed29/08/14fromhttp://www.portal.euromonitor.com/Portal/Pages/Search/Search/SearchResultsList.aspxFromFromFrom

11. Li K, Kaaks R, Linseisen J, Rohrmann S. Vitamin/mineral supplementation and cancer, cardiovascular, and all-cause mortality in a German prospective cohort (EPIC-Heidelberg). European Journal of Nutrition. 2012;51(4):407-13.

12. Bjelakovic G, Nikolova D, Gluud C. Antioxidant supplements and mortality. Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care. 2014;17(1):40-4.

13. Myung S-K, Ju W, Cho B, Oh S-W, Park SM, Koo B-K, et al. Efficacy of vitamin and antioxidant supplements in prevention of cardiovascular disease: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. BMJ: British Medical Journal. 2013;346.

14. Bjelakovic G, Gluud LL, Nikolova D, Whitfield K, Krstic G, Wetterslev J, et al. Vitamin D supplementation for prevention of cancer in adults. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. 2014(6).

15. Biesalski HK, Grune T, Tinz J, Zöllner I, Blumberg JB. Reexamination of a meta-analysis of the effect of antioxidant supplementation on mortality and health in randomized trials. Nutrients. 2010;2(9):929-49.

16. Bjelakovic G, Nikolova D, Gluud C. Meta-Regression Analyses, Meta-Analyses, and Trial Sequential Analyses of the Effects of Supplementation with Beta-Carotene, Vitamin A, and Vitamin E Singly or in Different Combinations on All-Cause Mortality: Do We Have Evidence for Lack of Harm? Plos One. 2013;8(9).

17. Virtamo J, Pietinen P, Huttunen JK, Korhonen P, Malila N, Virtanen MJ, et al. Incidence of cancer and mortality following alpha-tocopherol and beta-carotene supplementation: a postintervention follow-up. JAMA. 2003;290(4):476-85.

18. Goodman GE, Thornquist MD, Balmes J, Cullen MR, Meyskens FL, Jr., Omenn GS, et al. The Beta-Carotene and Retinol Efficacy Trial: incidence of lung cancer and cardiovascular disease mortality during 6-year follow-up after stopping beta-carotene and retinol supplements. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2004;96(23):1743-50.

19. Goralczyk R. Beta-carotene and lung cancer in smokers: review of hypotheses and status of research. Nutr Cancer. 2009;61(6):767-74. doi: 10.1080/01635580903285155.

20. Guallar E, Stranges S, Mulrow C, Appel LJ, Miller ER. Enough is enough: stop wasting money on vitamin and mineral supplements. Annals of internal medicine. 2013;159(12):850-1-1.

21. Ristow M, Zarse K. How increased oxidative stress promotes longevity and metabolic health: The concept of mitochondrial hormesis (mitohormesis). Experimental Gerontology. 2010;45(6):410-8.

22. Shenkin A. Micronutrients in health and disease. Postgrad Med J. 2006;82(971):559-67.

23. Fortmann SP, Burda BU, Senger CA, Lin JS, Whitlock EP. Vitamin and mineral supplements in the primary prevention of cardiovascular disease and cancer: An updated systematic evidence review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Ann Intern Med. 2013;159(12):824-34.

24. Shenkin A. Micronutrient supplements: who needs them? A personal view. Nutrition Bulletin. 2013;38(2):191-200.

25. World Health Organisation W. Micronutrients 2014 [cited 2014 14/10/14]. Available from: http://www.who.int/nutrition/topics/micronutrients/en/.