

1 Impact of serum calcium levels on local and total body bone  
2 mineral density: A Mendelian randomization study and an age  
3 stratum analysis

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Objectives** Until recently, randomized controlled trials and meta-analyses have not  
3 demonstrated convincing conclusions regarding the association of calcium intake with  
4 bone mineral density (BMD). Until now, it remains unclear whether high serum calcium  
5 levels are causally associated with BMD. This study aimed to investigate the genetic  
6 association between serum calcium levels and BMD using a large-scale serum calcium  
7 GWAS dataset and four large-scale BMD GWAS datasets in individuals of European  
8 descent.

9  
10 **Methods** We performed a Mendelian randomization study to investigate the association  
11 of increased serum calcium levels with BMD using a large-scale serum calcium  
12 genome-wide association study (GWAS) dataset (including up to 61,079 individuals) and  
13 four large-scale BMD GWAS datasets (including minimum 4,180 individuals and  
14 maximum 142,487 individuals) regarding the total body, forearm, femoral neck, lumbar  
15 spine, and heel BMD. Here, we selected three Mendelian randomization methods  
16 including inverse-variance weighted meta-analysis (IVW), weighted median, and  
17 MR-Egger.

18  
19 **Results** In specific site analysis, we found that increased serum calcium levels could  
20 reduce BMD at forearm (OR=0.59, 95% CI: 0.36-0.95,  $P=0.029$ ) and lumbar spine  
21 (OR=0.65, 95% CI: 0.49-0.86,  $P=0.002$ ). We did not identify any suggestive association  
22 of genetically increased serum calcium levels with BMD of total body, femoral neck, and  
23 heel BMD. In specific age stratum analysis, we found that genetically increased serum  
24 calcium levels were statistically significantly associated with reduced total body BMD in  
25 age stratum 60 or more years (OR=0.58, 95% CI: 0.41-0.82,  $P=0.002$ ).

26  
27 **Conclusions** We provide genetic evidence that increased serum calcium levels could not  
28 improve BMD in the general population. The elevated serum calcium levels in generally  
29 healthy populations, especially adults older than 60 years, may even reduce the BMD,  
30 and further cause osteoporosis.

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## 1 **Introduction**

2 Calcium is involved in many biological processes [1]. It is well known that calcium  
3 deficiency could cause osteoporosis [2]. Osteoporosis is a common systemic skeletal  
4 disease characterized by an increased propensity to fracture [2]. Osteoporosis could be  
5 diagnosed mainly through measurement of bone mineral density (BMD) [2]. Until now,  
6 randomized controlled trials and meta-analyses have not demonstrated convincing  
7 evidence that calcium intake (diet and supplements) could improve BMD. In fact,  
8 meta-analyses published to date have reported inconsistent conclusions regarding the  
9 association of calcium intake with BMD [3]. In 2015, Tai et al. performed a systematic  
10 review and meta-analysis of 59 randomized controlled trials [3]. They found that the  
11 increasing calcium intake from diet or supplements could produce small non-progressive  
12 increases in BMD, which are unlikely to lead to a clinically significant reduction in risk  
13 of fracture [3].

14 In addition to BMD, randomized controlled trials and meta-analyses published to date  
15 also have reported inconsistent conclusions regarding the association of calcium intake  
16 with osteoporosis and fracture [4-6]. In 2007, Tang et al. conducted a meta-analysis of 29  
17 randomized trials (n=63897), which used calcium, or calcium in combination with  
18 vitamin D supplementation to prevent fracture and osteoporotic bone loss [4]. Their  
19 findings support the use of calcium, or calcium in combination with vitamin D  
20 supplementation, to improve osteoporosis in people aged 50 years or older [4]. In 2015,  
21 Bolland et al performed a systematic review of calcium intake and risk of fracture [5].  
22 They found that dietary calcium intake was not associated with risk of fracture.  
23 Meanwhile, no clinical trial evidence shows that increasing dietary calcium intake could  
24 prevent risk of fracture [5]. There is weak and inconsistent evidence that calcium  
25 supplements prevent fractures [5]. In 2017, Zhao et al. conducted a meta-analysis of  
26 randomized clinical trials, and found that calcium supplements, vitamin D supplements,  
27 or both, were not associated with a lower risk of fractures among community-dwelling  
28 older adults compared with placebo or no treatment [6].

29 Due to the methodological limitations of observational studies, it is necessary to improve  
30 the causal inference through other study designs. It is reported that calcium intake (diet  
31 and supplements) especially calcium supplements could increase serum calcium levels [1,  
32 7-9]. Until now, it remains unclear whether lifelong elevated serum calcium levels are  
33 causally associated with BMD. In recent years, large-scale genome-wide association  
34 studies (GWAS) have identified some common genetic variants and provided insight into  
35 the genetics of serum calcium levels and BMD [10-11]. These existing GWAS datasets  
36 improve the causal inference by a Mendelian randomization analysis [1, 12-17]. This  
37 method is widely used to determine the causal inferences [1, 12-17]. Here, performed a  
38 Mendelian randomization study to investigate the genetic association between serum  
39 calcium levels and BMD using a large-scale serum calcium GWAS dataset and 10  
40 large-scale BMD GWAS datasets.

41

## 42 **Materials and methods**

### 43 **Study Design**

44 The Mendelian randomization is based on three principal assumptions, which have been  
45 widely described in recent studies [1, 15]. First, the genetic variants selected to be  
46 instrumental variables should be associated with the exposure (serum calcium levels)  
47 (assumption 1) [1, 15]. Second, the genetic variants should not be associated with  
48 confounders (assumption 2) [1, 15]. Third, genetic variants should affect the risk of the  
49 outcome (BMD) only through the exposure (serum calcium levels) (assumption 3) [1, 15].  
50 The second and third assumptions are collectively known as independence from

1 pleiotropy [15]. This study is based on the publicly available, large-scale GWAS  
2 summary datasets. All participants gave informed consent in all these corresponding  
3 original studies.

#### 4 5 **Serum Calcium GWAS Dataset**

6 Here, we selected genetic variants that influence serum calcium levels as the instrumental  
7 variables based on the GWAS dataset of serum calcium concentration [10]. This GWAS  
8 included 39,400 individuals from 17 population-based cohorts in discovery stage and  
9 21,679 individuals in replication stage (N=61,079 individuals of European descent) [10].  
10 The discovery stage and the meta-analysis of the discovery and replication stage  
11 identified 8 genetic variants to be associated with serum calcium levels with the  
12 genome-wide significance ( $P < 5.00E-08$ ) [10]. All these 8 genetic variants were located  
13 in different genes and were not in linkage disequilibrium (Table 1) [10]. We provided  
14 more detailed information including the methods to measure serum calcium levels in  
15 **eTable 1**.

#### 16 17 **Table 1**

#### 18 19 **BMD GWAS Datasets**

20 Three GWAS datasets are from a large-scale meta-analysis performed by GEnetic Factors  
21 for OSteoporosis (GEFOS) Consortium and UK10K Consortia in individuals of European  
22 ancestry from the general population including BMD measured at the forearm (n=8,143),  
23 femoral neck (n=32,735) and lumbar spine (n=28,498), the sites where osteoporotic  
24 fractures are most prevalent [2]. The 4<sup>th</sup> BMD dataset was measured at the heel by UK  
25 Biobank in individuals of European ancestry (n=142,487) [18]. The 5<sup>th</sup> dataset is a total  
26 body-BMD GWAS including 66,628 individuals from multiple population-based cohorts  
27 across Europe (86%), America (2%), and Australia (14%) [11]. Meanwhile, single GWAS  
28 was performed in each of five age strata spanning 15 years including 0-15 years  
29 (n=11,807), 15-30 years (n=4,180), 30-45 years (n=10,062), 45-60 years (n=18,805), and  
30 60 or more years (N=22,504) [11].

#### 31 32 **Pleiotropy Analysis**

33 In Mendelian randomization study, one important issue is potential violation of  
34 assumption 2 and 3 through pleiotropy occurring when a genetic instrument is associated  
35 with a study outcome through biological pathways outside the exposure of interest. Here,  
36 we performed an assessment for pleiotropy to assure that the selected genetic variants do  
37 not exert effects on BMD through biological pathways independent of serum calcium  
38 levels. We have provided more detailed information in **eMethods**.

#### 39 40 **Mendelian Randomization Analysis**

41 Here, we selected the inverse-variance weighted meta-analysis (IVW) as the main  
42 analysis method. In addition, we selected the weighted median regression and MR-Egger  
43 regression as the sensitivity analysis methods. The selection of multiple Mendelian  
44 randomization methods could examine the robustness of the estimate with each other.  
45 These methods have widely used in previous studies [1, 12-17, 19].

46 In order to further assess the robustness of the genetic estimates, we conducted a  
47 sensitivity analysis by sequentially removing each genetic variant from the Mendelian  
48 randomization analysis using a leave-one-out permutation analysis, which could evaluate  
49 the influence of single genetic variant on the genetic estimate. The odds ratio (OR) as  
50 well as 95% confidence interval (CI) of PD corresponds to per 0.5-mg/dL increase (about

1 1 standard deviation (SD)) in serum calcium levels. All analyses were conducted using  
2 the R package ‘MendelianRandomization’ [20]. The threshold for suggestive association  
3 between serum calcium levels and BMD was  $P < 0.05$ . The threshold of statistically  
4 significant association between serum calcium levels and BMD was a Bonferroni  
5 corrected significance  $P < 0.05/10 = 0.005$ . Here, we provided more detailed information  
6 about the Mendelian randomization methods in the **eMethods**.

## 7 **Results**

### 8 **Association of serum calcium variants with BMD**

9 Of these 8 genetic variants associated with serum calcium levels, we successfully  
10 extracted the summary statistics for all these 8 genetic variants in each of these 10 GWAS  
11 datasets, respectively. Some of these 8 genetic variants were significantly associated with  
12 BMD at the Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ( $P < 0.05/8 = 0.0063$ ) (**eTable**  
13 **2-11**).

### 14 **Pleiotropy analysis**

15  
16 In stage 1, rs780094 was significantly associated with known confounders at the  
17 Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ( $P < 0.05/8 = 0.0063$ ), as described in **eTable**  
18 **12**. In brief, rs780094 variant was significantly associated with type II diabetes  
19 ( $P = 1.00E-05$ ), hip circumference ( $P = 3.40E-05$ ), waist hip ratio adjusted for BMI  
20 ( $P = 1.80E-03$ ), alcohol drinking ( $P = 3.649E-09$ ), crohns disease ( $P = 2.90E-04$ ),  
21 inflammatory bowel disease ( $P = 2.24E-04$ ), and ulcerative colitis ( $P = 3.71E-03$ ). To meet  
22 the Mendelian randomization assumptions, we excluded rs780094 variant in following  
23 analysis. In stage 2, using the remaining 7 genetic variants, MR-Egger intercept test  
24 showed no significant intercept (all  $P$  values  $> 0.05$ ) in each of these 10 GWAS datasets  
25 (Table 2). Hence, our following analysis will be based on these 7 genetic variants.

### 26 **Association of serum calcium with BMD**

27  
28 In the forearm BMD GWAS dataset, IVW showed suggestive association between  
29 genetically increased serum calcium levels and reduced BMD (OR=0.59, 95% CI:  
30 0.36-0.95,  $P = 0.029$ ). Interestingly, the estimates from weighted median regression, and  
31 MR-Egger were consistent with the IVW estimate in terms of direction and magnitude  
32 (Table 2). In the lumbar spine BMD GWAS dataset, IVW showed statistically significant  
33 association of genetically increased serum calcium levels with reduced BMD at a  
34 Bonferroni corrected significance  $P < 0.05/10 = 0.005$  (OR=0.65, 95% CI: 0.49-0.86,  
35  $P = 0.002$ ). In addition, weighted median showed suggestive association of genetically  
36 increased serum calcium levels with reduced BMD (OR=0.65, 95% CI: 0.47-0.89,  
37  $P = 0.007$ ) (Table 2). We did not identify any suggestive association of genetically  
38 increased serum calcium levels with femoral neck BMD, heel BMD, and total  
39 body-BMD, as described in Table 2.

40  
41 In specific age stratum analysis, we identified no evidence of significant association of  
42 serum calcium levels with total body-BMD in four age strata including 0-15 years, 15-30  
43 years, 30-45 years, and 45-60 years. Only in age stratum 60 or more years, IVW showed  
44 genetically increased serum calcium levels were statistically significantly associated with  
45 reduced total body-BMD at a Bonferroni corrected significance  $P < 0.05/10 = 0.005$   
46 (OR=0.58, 95% CI: 0.41-0.82,  $P = 0.002$ ). In addition, weighted median regression  
47 showed suggestive association of genetically increased serum calcium levels with  
48 reduced total body-BMD BMD (OR=0.64, 95% CI: 0.44-0.91,  $P = 1.40E-02$ ) (Table 2).  
49 **eFigure 1-10** show individual genetic estimates from each of the 7 genetic variants using  
50 different methods. The leave-one-out permutation analysis further showed that the

1 direction and precision of the genetic estimates between increased serum calcium levels  
2 and BMD remained largely unchanged using these methods.

## 3 4 **Table 2**

## 5 6 **Discussion**

7 It has been a long time to evaluate the association of calcium intake (diet and  
8 supplements) with osteoporosis, fracture, or BMD [3-6]. However, randomized controlled  
9 trials and meta-analyses have not demonstrated convincing evidence, but reported  
10 inconsistent conclusions regarding the association of calcium intake with osteoporosis,  
11 fracture, or BMD [3-6]. Evidence showed that calcium intake (diet and supplements)  
12 could increase serum calcium levels [1, 7-9]. Calcium supplements even could acutely  
13 increase serum calcium levels to a modest degree [1, 7-9]. Until now, it remains unclear  
14 whether elevated serum calcium levels are causally associated with BMD.

15 Mendelian randomization is based on the premise that the human genetic variants are  
16 randomly distributed in the population [15]. These genetic variants are largely not  
17 associated with confounders and can be used as instrumental variables to estimate the  
18 causal association of an exposure (serum calcium levels) with an outcome (BMD) [15].  
19 Hence, Mendelian randomization could avoid some limitations of observational studies,  
20 and could be used to determine the causal inferences [1, 12-16]. Until now, the existing  
21 large-scale serum calcium and BMD GWAS datasets prompts us to investigate the  
22 potential genetic association between serum calcium and BMD by a Mendelian  
23 randomization using a large-scale serum calcium GWAS dataset and four large-scale  
24 BMD GWAS datasets.

25 Here, we evaluated the association of genetically increased serum calcium levels with  
26 BMD of total body and specific sites including forearm, femoral neck, lumbar spine, and  
27 heel in individuals mainly of European ancestry. The results showed that genetically  
28 increased serum calcium levels could reduce BMD at forearm and lumbar spine, but  
29 showed no association with BMD of total body, femoral neck and heel (**Table 2**). In  
30 specific age stratum analysis, our findings indicated that genetically increased serum  
31 calcium levels could only significantly reduce total body-BMD in age stratum 60 or more  
32 years in the general population. It is worth mentioning that the serum calcium levels were  
33 observed by the population-based studies including up to 61079 individuals of European  
34 descent [10]. Therefore, our conclusions reflect the effects of serum calcium levels in the  
35 general population. These conclusions may be applicable to noninstitutionalized or  
36 community-dwelling asymptomatic adults without a history of fractures. However, these  
37 conclusions may be not applicable to patients with osteoporosis, or a history of fractures,  
38 or poor serum calcium intake.

39 In brief, randomized controlled trials usually enrolled adults who received calcium  
40 supplementation and a concurrent comparison group that did not receive this intervention.  
41 However, randomized controlled trials did not regularly screen for the individual serum  
42 calcium status. It means that the selected individuals may have normal serum calcium  
43 levels in the beginning of the trials, or after a short time calcium supplementation.  
44 However, these individuals are still directly given a general recommendation to increase  
45 calcium supplementation. If elevated serum calcium levels are causally associated with  
46 reduced BMD in the generally healthy population, long time calcium supplementation in  
47 these individuals could not improve BMD, but even reduce the BMD, and may further  
48 cause osteoporosis. This may explain why randomized controlled trials and meta-analyses  
49 have not demonstrated convincing evidence that calcium intake (both diet and  
50 supplements) could improve BMD, and further lead to a clinically significant reduction in

1 risk of fracture [3-6].

2 It is recommended that the daily calcium intake is 1000 to 1200 mg [21]. It is difficult to  
3 get this recommended amount through diet alone, so calcium supplements are widely  
4 used [21]. Until now, it remains unclear whether calcium intake from dietary sources has  
5 health advantages over supplements [22]. In the United States, about 43% of people,  
6 including about 70% of older women, take calcium supplements [23]. Hence, with the  
7 widespread use of calcium supplements, the genetic association between increased serum  
8 calcium levels and reduced BMD may have clinical and public health implications.

9 Our findings show that high serum calcium levels are not always better. We provide  
10 genetic evidence that high serum calcium levels could reduce BMD in the general  
11 population. If elevated serum calcium levels are causally associated with the reduced  
12 BMD in the generally healthy population, then long time calcium supplementation could  
13 not improve BMD. Therefore, our findings may explain why randomized controlled trials  
14 have not achieved convincing evidence that calcium supplements could improve BMD.  
15 Meanwhile, it is important to screen for individual serum calcium status to maximize  
16 success of randomized controlled trials. Calcium supplementation should maintain serum  
17 calcium levels at normal levels, and then may have better outcome. In addition,  
18 population-wide screening for serum calcium levels and subsequent calcium  
19 supplementation to maintain at normal levels may be a strategy for primary prevention of  
20 BMD deficiency.

21 This Mendelian randomization study may have several strengths. First, this study may  
22 benefit from the large-scale serum calcium GWAS dataset and BMD GWAS datasets.  
23 Second, both the serum calcium and four BMD GWAS datasets are from the European  
24 descent, which may reduce the influence on the potential association caused by the  
25 population stratification. Third, multiple independent genetic variants are taken as  
26 instruments, which may reduce the influence on the potential association caused by the  
27 linkage disequilibrium. Fourth, we performed a two-step pleiotropy analysis, and  
28 excluded one genetic variant associated with potential confounders, which meets the  
29 Mendelian randomization assumptions. Fifth, we selected multiple Mendelian  
30 randomization methods, which could reduce the risk of pleiotropy and increase the  
31 precision of the estimate. Our results are comparable with recent findings about the  
32 association of circulating serum vitamin D levels with BMD [24]. Larsson et al. found no  
33 causal association between long-term elevated circulating serum vitamin D levels and  
34 and higher BMD in generally healthy populations [24].

35 This Mendelian randomization study may also have several limitations. First, we  
36 provided genetic evidence that genetically increased serum calcium levels could not  
37 improve BMD, but even reduce BMD in the general population. In order to translate  
38 these genetic findings into clinical and public health implications, the potential  
39 mechanisms underlying this genetic association remain to be thoroughly evaluated.  
40 Second, we still could not completely rule out that there may be additional confounders.  
41 Until now, it is almost impossible to fully rule out pleiotropy present in any Mendelian  
42 randomization study [1, 15, 25]. Third, the GWAS dataset of serum calcium levels is  
43 from 61079 individuals of European descent [10]. We selected four BMD GWAS datasets  
44 in individuals of European ancestry to reduce the effect of population stratification [18].  
45 In total body-BMD GWAS, most participants are from population-based cohorts of  
46 European ancestry (86%), two cohorts comprised African American individuals (2%),  
47 and four other studies included individuals with admixed background (14%)<sup>11</sup>. In the  
48 original study, Medina-Gomez et al. used the LD score regression to rule out residual  
49 population stratification or cryptic relatedness<sup>11</sup>. However, it could not be completely  
50 ruled out that population stratification may have had some influence on the estimate.

1 Fourth, the genetic association between serum calcium levels and BMD may differ by  
2 ethnicity or genetic ancestry. This genetic association should be further evaluated in other  
3 ancestries. Hence, we will further improve our work in future. Fifth, the association of  
4 serum calcium levels with additional outcomes, more clinically related, like osteoporosis  
5 and fracture could also be interesting. However, we have no access to these datasets.  
6 When these datasets are publicly available, we will further verify our findings.

7 In summary, we provide genetic evidence that increased serum calcium levels could not  
8 improve BMD in the general population. The lifelong elevated serum calcium levels in  
9 the generally healthy populations may even reduce the BMD.

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18 (ICBP) consortium, Tobacco and Genetics Consortium (TGC), International  
19 Inflammatory Bowel Disease Genetics Consortium (IIBDGC), and Social Science  
20 Genetic Association Consortium (SSGAC) for other GWAS datasets.

## 21 22 **Author contributions**

23 GYL and BLS conceived and initiated the project. GYL and JYS analyzed the data, drew  
24 the figures, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the  
25 interpretation of the results and critical revision of the manuscript for important  
26 intellectual content and approved the final version of the manuscript.

## 27 28 **Competing financial interests**

29 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

## 30 31 **Patient consent** Obtained.

32 **Ethics approval** This article contains human participants collected by several studies  
33 performed by previous studies. All participants gave informed consent in all the  
34 corresponding original studies, as described in the Materials and methods. Here, our  
35 study is based on the publicly available, large-scale human GWAS summary datasets. In  
36 addition, our study does not contain any animal study.

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Table 1, main characteristics of 8 genetic variants in serum calcium GWAS dataset

SNP	Chromosome	Nearby Genes	EA <sup>a</sup>	NEA	EAF <sup>b</sup>	Serum calcium GWAS		
						Beta (mg/dL) <sup>c</sup>	SE <sup>c</sup>	<i>P</i> value <sup>c</sup>
rs780094	2	GCKR	T	C	0.42	0.017	0.003	1.30E-10
rs1550532	2	DGKD	C	G	0.31	0.018	0.003	8.20E-11
rs1801725	3	CASR	T	G	0.15	0.071	0.004	8.90E-86
rs10491003	10	GATA3	T	C	0.09	0.027	0.005	4.80E-09
rs7336933	13	DGKH/KIAA0564	G	A	0.85	0.022	0.004	9.10E-10
rs1570669	20	CYP24A1	G	A	0.34	0.018	0.003	9.10E-12
rs7481584	11	CARS	G	A	0.7	0.018	0.003	1.20E-10
rs17711722	7	VKORC1L1	T	C	0.47	0.021	0.003	2.80E-11

Abbreviations: SNP, single-nucleotide polymorphism; EA, Effect Allele; NEA, Non-Effect Allele; EAF, Effect Allele Frequency; AD, Alzheimer's disease; GWAS, genome-wide association studies; SE, standard error.

<sup>a</sup> Serum calcium raising allele (effect allele).

<sup>b</sup> Frequency of the serum calcium raising allele in the serum calcium GWAS dataset including up to 61079 individuals of European ancestry [10].

<sup>c</sup> Summary statistics (beta coefficient, standard error and *P* value) were obtained from a serum calcium GWAS dataset including up to 61079 individuals of European ancestry [10]. Beta (mg/dL) is the regression coefficient based on the serum calcium raising allele (effect allele). Beta > 0 and Beta < 0 means that this effect allele regulates increased and reduced serum calcium levels, respectively.

Table 2, genetic association between increased serum calcium levels and BMD

Dataset	Methods	OR	SE	95% CI_lower	95% CI_upper	P value
Forearm	Weighted_median	0.58	0.285	0.33	1.01	0.056
Forearm	IVW	0.59	0.243	0.36	0.95	<b>0.029*</b>
Forearm	MR-Egger	0.65	0.472	0.26	1.64	0.36
Forearm	(intercept)	-0.004	0.014	-0.031	0.024	0.801
Femoral neck	Weighted_median	1.01	0.138	0.77	1.33	0.933
Femoral neck	IVW	0.94	0.163	0.68	1.29	0.705
Femoral neck	MR-Egger	1.07	0.325	0.57	2.02	0.837
Femoral neck	(intercept)	-0.005	0.01	-0.024	0.015	0.638
Lumbar spine	Weighted_median	0.65	0.159	0.47	0.89	<b>0.007*</b>
Lumbar spine	IVW	0.65	0.144	0.49	0.86	<b>0.002**</b>
Lumbar spine	MR-Egger	0.64	0.293	0.36	1.15	0.135
Lumbar spine	(intercept)	0	0.009	-0.017	0.017	0.986
Heel	Weighted_median	1.09	0.064	0.96	1.23	0.193
Heel	IVW	1.05	0.09	0.88	1.25	0.613
Heel	MR-Egger	1.11	0.187	0.77	1.60	0.583
Heel	(intercept)	-0.002	0.005	-0.013	0.009	0.721
Total body	Weighted_median	0.85	0.11	0.69	1.05	0.131
Total body	IVW	0.74	0.16	0.55	1.01	0.056
Total body	MR-Egger	0.99	0.28	0.57	1.72	0.973
Total body	(intercept)	-0.01	0.01	-0.026	0.006	0.224
Total body (0-15)	Weighted_median	1.01	0.24	0.63	1.63	0.966
Total body (0-15)	IVW	1.07	0.22	0.69	1.64	0.771
Total body (0-15)	MR-Egger	0.78	0.42	0.34	1.76	0.545
Total body (0-15)	(intercept)	0.011	0.01	-0.013	0.035	0.369
Total body (15-30)	Weighted_median	1.24	0.44	0.52	2.97	0.621
Total body (15-30)	IVW	1.49	0.47	0.59	3.77	0.398
Total body (15-30)	MR-Egger	1.44	0.98	0.21	9.75	0.708
Total body (15-30)	(intercept)	0.001	0.03	-0.055	0.057	0.966
Total body (30-45)	Weighted_median	0.98	0.27	0.58	1.67	0.947
Total body (30-45)	IVW	0.85	0.23	0.54	1.34	0.49
Total body (30-45)	MR-Egger	1.09	0.43	0.46	2.53	0.85
Total body (30-45)	(intercept)	-0.008	0.01	-0.034	0.017	0.509
Total body (45-60)	Weighted_median	0.82	0.21	0.54	1.23	0.334
Total body (45-60)	IVW	0.63	0.3	0.35	1.13	0.119
Total body (45-60)	MR-Egger	1.00	0.55	0.34	2.96	0.997
Total body (45-60)	(intercept)	-0.016	0.02	-0.048	0.016	0.327
Total body (>60)	Weighted_median	0.64	0.19	0.44	0.91	<b>0.014*</b>
Total body (>60)	IVW	0.58	0.18	0.41	0.82	<b>0.002**</b>
Total body (>60)	MR-Egger	0.83	0.31	0.45	1.52	0.543
Total body (>60)	(intercept)	-0.012	0.01	-0.03	0.006	0.175

IVW, Inverse-variance weighted meta-analysis;

\* The significance of suggestive association between serum calcium levels and BMD was at  $P < 0.05$ .

\*\* The significance of statistically significant association between serum calcium levels and BMD was at Bonferroni corrected significance  $P < 0.05/10 = 0.005$ .