

Comparative analysis of serum calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D levels in pre- and postmenopausal women: A nutritional correlation study

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ABSTRACT

Background

Serum calcium and vitamin D deficiencies are common among post-menopausal women, which can lead to osteoporotic fractures. Early detection of imbalances in serum calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D can aid in providing proper treatment. This study compares serum calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D levels between pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women and assesses their relationship with dietary calcium and sunlight exposure.

Material and methods

A cross-sectional study was conducted at Kathmandu Medical College between February and April 2024. Using consecutive sampling, participants' serum samples were analyzed with an automated analyzer, and Pearson's correlation was calculated using SPSS version 21.

Results

BMI was significantly higher in post-menopausal women ($24.28 \pm 0.49 \text{ kg/m}^2$) than in pre-menopausal women ($23.25 \pm 1.722 \text{ kg/m}^2$). Pre-menopausal women had higher serum calcium ($9.18 \pm 0.47 \text{ mg/dl}$) and vitamin D levels ($23.03 \pm 6.01 \text{ ng/ml}$) than post-menopausal women ($8.91 \pm 0.43 \text{ mg/dl}$ and $21.75 \pm 5.86 \text{ ng/ml}$, respectively). Serum phosphorus was higher in post-menopausal women ($4.19 \pm 0.66 \text{ mg/dl}$) compared to pre-menopausal women ($4.01 \pm 0.54 \text{ mg/dl}$). Vitamin D levels in post-menopausal women positively correlated with calcium and dietary calcium intake but had an insignificant correlation with sunlight exposure and a negative correlation with phosphorus.

Conclusion

The study concludes that post-menopausal women have higher BMIs and lower serum calcium and vitamin D levels. Regular monitoring of bone markers, dietary calcium and vitamin D intake, and increased sunlight exposure are recommended to enhance bone health in pre-menopausal and postmenopausal women.

Keywords

Phosphorous, pre-menopausal, post-menopausal, serum calcium, vitamin D

Background

Menopause is defined as the permanent end of the menstrual cycle [1]. In this phase, physical, mental, and hormonal changes are associated with the cessation of the menstrual cycle in females [2]. The mean age for menopause ranges from 45 to 55 years and varies for diverse groups [3]. It is estimated that there will be 1.2 billion women worldwide who will be in menopause by 2030. [4]. It results from the exhaustion of the ovarian follicles, which leads to diminished synthesis of estradiol and some other hormones [5].

During menopause, the development of osteoporosis, cardiovascular diseases (CVD), arterial hypertension, glucose metabolism issues, reproductive cancers, and cognitive degenerative diseases increases [6]. Additionally, nutritional disturbances, especially deficiencies in trace elements and vitamins, are more likely during this time. Every vitamin, mineral, and trace element is crucial for maintaining health and well-being in menopausal women [7]. Among these, calcium is the most vital mineral for the human body, essential for maintaining the skeletal system throughout life. The reduction in ovarian estrogen production leads to an increased rate of bone resorption and a consequent decline in bone mass [2].

Dietary calcium is essential for maintaining normal calcium balance and preventing bone loss caused by nutritional deficiencies [8, 9]. Calcium absorption is reduced due to the lack of vitamin D, resulting from the age-related deterioration of organ functions. Deterioration in ovarian function during menopause is accompanied by a decrease in bone mass, altered calcium and vitamin D metabolism, and phosphorus. A reduction in calcium absorption is due to a drop in the circulating vitamin D levels [2].

Since several Nepalese populations are deficient in vitamin D and calcium [10], the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency in the population ranges from 32.0% to 73.6%, with a higher incidence observed in females [11]. Early detection of an imbalance in vitamin D, calcium, and phosphorus serum levels in menopausal women can be a valuable therapeutic and follow-up tool. From this viewpoint, serum calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D levels were studied in pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women.

Material and methods

Study design and the participants

A present quantitative cross-sectional study was conducted at Kathmandu Medical College, Sinamangal, from February 2024 to April 2024, after obtaining ethical approval from the institutional review committee (IRC). Orthopaedic in- and outpatient departments were chosen as the study site for this study. The study was conducted among 354 women, where the samples were divided equally into two groups, of which 177 were pre-menopausal and the rest were post-menopausal women. Study groups were enrolled based on selection criteria, and patients were informed regarding the

nature of the study. Subjects who wished to participate in this study provided written consent. We administered a structured questionnaire and 24-hour diet recall to gather information on demographics, medical, and dietary habits. Participants were enrolled in groups using non-probability sampling methods with consecutive sampling techniques.

Experimental procedure and data collection

Biochemical test regarding serum calcium, phosphorous and vitamin D. Under aseptic conditions, a venous blood sample was obtained by venipuncture from the cubital vein and was collected in a vial. Serum was separated after centrifugation. The specific biochemical test was performed on the sample using an automated analyzer, and the obtained value was recorded. The reference ranges of the parameters used in this study are as follows: serum calcium: 8.4–10.4 mg/dL [12], serum phosphorus: 3.5–5.5 mg/dL [13, 14], vitamin D deficiency = ≤ 20 ng/ml, insufficient = 21–29 ng/ml, and sufficient = > 30 ng/ml [15, 16].

Inclusion criteria

Pre-menopausal Group: Women in the reproductive age group of 30–45 years with regular menstrual cycle.

Postmenopausal Group: Women 46–60 years of age, with one year of amenorrhea, who were not receiving any hormonal replacement therapy.

Exclusion criteria

Women had menstrual disorders, e.g., irregular menses and menorrhagia, with bone fractures in the previous year. Similarly, women on hormonal replacement therapy, oral contraceptives, smokers, alcoholics, and those under any estrogen therapy or any supportive treatment for menopausal symptoms for at least 6 months before the study.

Ethical committee approval and informed consent

The permission for the research was obtained from the institutional review committee (IRC). Consent was taken from the participants prior to the study. This study was done according to the declaration of Helsinki.

Sample size calculation

The prevalence of vitamin D deficiency observed was 66.4% in a study conducted by Sinha AK *et al.* [17]. The sample size was calculated by using the formula, $n = z^2pq / e^2$

[$z = 1.96$ at 95% Confidence Interval (CI), $P =$ prevalence of Vitamin D deficiency = 66.4%, $q = (1 - p)$, $e =$ permissible error at 5% with a degree of assurance as a 95% confidence level. So, the sample size is for this study was $(1.96)^2 \times 0.664 \times 0.336 / 0.0025 = 342.83$. Assuming a non-response rate of 3%, $342.83 \times 3 = 1028.49$; $342.83 + 1028.49 = 1371.32$, the required sample size for this study was 354.

Data interpretation and statistical analysis

Data was analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) version 21. Descriptive statistics were represented as mean \pm standard deviation (S.D.) with 95% confidence intervals for continuous data (age, height, weight, body mass index (BMI), serum calcium, phosphorous, and vitamin D) and categorical data (religion, education, occupation, etc.) for the pre- and post-menopausal groups, as frequency number. Analytical statistical analysis was done to compare serum calcium, phosphorous, and vitamin D levels, which were evaluated using an independent T-test. Assessment of correlation test done by Pearson's correlation coefficient- analyze the relation between calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D in pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women with statistical significance assumed at $p < 0.05$.

Results**Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents (N=354)**

Variables	Pre-menopausal		Post-menopausal	
	n	(%)	n	(%)
	177	100	177	100
Age	37.76	\pm	52.75	\pm
	4.37		4.00	
Menopausal age			48.05	\pm
			1.89	
Religion				
Hindu	146	82	142	80.2
Buddhist	16	9	26	14.6
Christian	10	6	6	3.5
Muslim	5	3	1	0.6
Other	-	-	2	1.1
Education				
Illiterate	9	5	3	1.7
Primary education	23	23	18	10.2
Secondary education	99	56	70	39.6
Higher education	45	25.5	73	41.2
Graduate	1	0.5	11	6.2
Postgraduate	-	-	2	1.1
Marital status				
Married	166	94	154	87
Unmarried	7	4	1	0.5
Divorced	4	2	3	1.5
Widowed	-	-	19	11
Occupation				
Employed	84	47.5	33	18.5
Housewife	92	52	143	81
Other	1	0.5	1	0.5

The average age of pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women was 37.76 and 52.75 years, respectively, while the average menopause age was 48.05 years. Most participants, 82% and 80.2%, were Hindu, while 9% and 14.6% were Buddhist, representing the pre-menopausal and post-menopausal groups, respectively. 56% and 41.2% of participants completed their higher education level, 25.5% were graduates, and 39.6% had completed secondary

education in the pre- and post-menopausal groups, respectively. Most respondents were married (94% and 87%), 52% and 81% were housewives, whereas 47.5% and 18.5% were employed in pre- and post-menopausal women, respectively. (Table 1)

Table 2: Anthropometric measurement of respondents

Variables	Pre-menopause (n=177) (Mean \pm SD)	Post-menopause (n=177) (Mean \pm SD)	p-value	
Weight (Kg)	55.87 \pm 4.82	57.40 \pm 4.41	0.002*	
Height (cm)	154.91 \pm 4.77	153.77 \pm 5.02	0.029*	
BMI (kg/m ²)	23.25 \pm 1.72	24.28 \pm 0.49	<0.001*	
BMI classification	n	(%)	n	(%)
Normal	155	87.5	127	71.5
Overweight	22	12.5	47	26.5
Grade I obesity	-	-	3	2

$\times p > 0.05$, statistically not significant, * $p < 0.05$, statistically significant

A significantly higher height ($P < 0.05$), weight, and BMI were observed amongst post-menopausal women ($p < 0.01$). The respondents in the pre-menopausal group had 87.5% with normal BMI while 12.5% were overweight, and the post-menopausal group had 71.5% normal, 26.5% were overweight, and 2% obese, as shown in table 2

65.3% of respondents were non-vegetarian, while 55% were vegetarian in pre- and post-menopausal women. Most respondents took three meals a day, 81.4% and 56%, while consumption of calcium-rich food was 80.2% and 79% in pre- and post-menopausal groups, respectively. The calcium intake frequency observed was once a day, in 43.5% and 58%, while once every two days, it was 40.1% and 36%, respectively, in pre- and post-menopausal women. Most respondents (70.7% and 80.8%) did not consume fish; 48.6% and 45.8% of the pre- and post-menopausal women took eggs once in two days, respectively. In this study, 83.6% and 91.5% of respondents were exposed to sunlight, while 36.7% and 38% were exposed to 1-30 min per day, while 16.9% and 31% were exposed to 31-60 min in a day in pre- and post-menopausal women, respectively. 89.8% and 60% of respondents knew the importance of calcium and vitamin D for bone health. In comparison, 86.4% and 59% received guidance from healthcare professionals regarding calcium and vitamin D supplements in pre-menopausal and post-menopausal women, respectively. (Table 3)

Table 3: Food habit, frequency and sunlight exposure among pre- and post-menopausal women

Variables	Pre-menopausal (n=177)		Post-menopausal (n=177)	
		(%)		(%)
Dietary Habit				
Vegetarian	65	36.7	97	55
Non-vegetarian	112	63.3	80	45
Meal Frequency				
Twice a day	31	17.5	72	40.5
Thrice a day	144	81.4	99	56
Four times a day	2	1.1	6	3.5
Calcium Rich food				
Milk and milk product	26	14.7	31	17.5
Green leafy vegetable	9	5.1	6	3.5
Both	142	80.2	140	79
Calcium Frequency				
Once a day	77	43.5	103	58
Twice a day	28	15.8	11	6
Once in two days	71	40.1	63	36
Once a week	1	0.6		
Fish intake				
No	125	70.7	143	80.8
Once in 2 days	2	1.1	1	0.6
Once a week	8	4.5	-	-
Once in 15 days	19	10.7	11	6.2
once in a month	23	13	22	12.4
Egg intake				
No	54	30.5	7	4.3
Once a day	11	6.2	5	2.8
Twice a day	-	-	1	0.5
Once in 2 days	86	48.6	81	45.8
Once a week	26	14.7	14	7.9
Sunlight Exposure				
Yes	148	83.6	162	91.5
No	29	16.4	15	8.5
Sunlight exposure in min				
No exposure	29	16.4	15	8.5
1-30	65	36.7	67	38
31-60	30	16.9	55	31
61-120	47	26.6	32	18
>121	6	3.4	8	4.5
Importance of calcium and Vit D				
Yes	159	89.8	106	60
No	18	10.2	71	40
Guidance				
Yes	153	86.4	105	59
No	24	13.6	72	41

Table 4: Consumption of dietary calcium in 24-hour diet recall

24-hour dietary intake	Diagnosis	No. of patients	of Mean ± S. D	P Value
Calcium (mg/day)	Pre-menopausal	177	664.81 ± 216.76	0.222*
	Post-menopausal		632.39 ± 277.86	

*p>0.05, statistically not significant

Table 4 compares 24-hour dietary calcium intake (DCI) in the pre- and post-menopausal groups of the study. The average calcium intake was 664.81 ± 216.76 mg/day and 632.39 ± 277.86 mg/day (p = 0.222), ranging from 218.3 to 1429.90 mg/day.

Table 5: Comparison of calcium, vitamin, and phosphorous levels in pre- and post-menopausal women

Parameter (Sr.)	Diagnosis	No. of patients	Mean ± S. D	P Value
Calcium (mg/dl)	Pre-menopausal	177	9.18 ± 0.47	<0.001*
	Post-menopausal	177	8.91 ± 0.43	
Vitamin D (ng/ml)	Pre-menopausal	177	23.03 ± 6.01	0.043*
	Post-menopausal	177	21.75 ± 5.86	
Phosphorous (mg/dl)	Pre-menopausal	177	4.01 ± 0.54	0.004*
	Post-menopausal	177	4.19 ± 0.66	

p<0.05, statistically significant

Serum calcium level in the pre-menopausal (9.18 ± 0.47 mg/dl) women was significantly higher (p < 0.001) than the post-menopausal women (8.91 ± 0.43 mg/dl); similarly, vitamin D level in pre-menopausal was (23.03 ± 6.01ng/ml) significantly higher compared to the post-menopausal women. Serum phosphorous level was significantly higher in the post-menopausal women (4.19 ± 0.66 mg/dl) compared to pre-menopausal women (4.01 ± 0.54 mg/dl), (Table 5).

Table 6: Correlation of serum calcium, phosphorous, sunlight exposure, dietary calcium and dietary calcium in post-menopausal women with vitamin D

Parameter	Correlation coefficient r value	p-value
Vitamin D v/s calcium	0.407	<0.001*
Vitamin D v/s phosphorous	-0.008	0.875*
Vitamin D v/s sunlight exposure(min)	0.028	0.605*
Vitamin D v/s dietary calcium	0.421	<0.001*
Vitamin D v/s dietary calcium in post-menopausal women	0.414	<0.001*

*p>0.05, statistically not significant, *p<0.05, statistically significant

Vitamin D showed a positive correlation with calcium, dietary calcium, dietary calcium in post-menopausal women and sunlight exposure(p<0.001), and a negative correlation with phosphorous. (p>0.05) (Table 6)

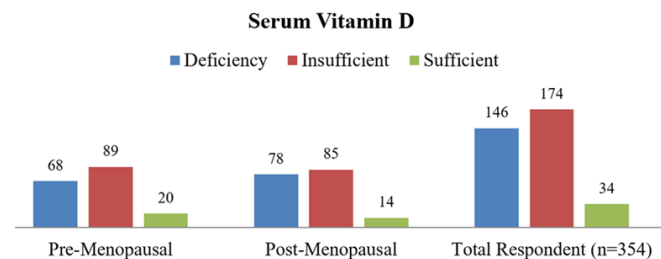


Figure 1: Bar diagram showing the serum vitamin D level in pre- and post-menopausal women

Figure 1 shows 68 pre-menopausal and 78 post-menopausal women had vitamin D deficiency, and 89 pre-menopausal and 85 post-menopausal women had insufficient vitamin D. In comparison, only 20 pre-menopausal and 14 post-menopausal women had sufficient vitamin D levels.

Discussion

Menopause is a state that is associated with numerous physiological and biochemical changes affecting bone metabolism [18]. The average age at which menopause occurs is influenced by genetic factors, lifestyle choices, socioeconomic conditions, educational attainment, and the nutritional status of the population studied [3, 19]. The average age of menopause found in the present study was 48.05 years (table 1). It was found to be 40.32 to 48.84 years for South Asian women, while in developed countries, it varies from 48.0 to 51 years [20]. A study conducted in Nepal reported the average age of menopause to be 48.7 [21].

In this study, 47 (26.5%) participants were overweight. In comparison, 2% were obese, with a higher BMI of $24.28 \pm 0.49 \text{ kg/m}^2$ observed in post-menopausal women compared with pre-menopausal women ($p < 0.001$) depicted in Table 2. Similarly, various other studies reported similar findings [22, 23]. The manifestation of obesity among the post-menopausal may be due to the deteriorated lipid metabolism resulting from the reduced effect of estrogen in post-menopausal women [24].

In this research, the 24-hour mean dietary recall of calcium was $664.81 \pm 216.76 \text{ mg/day}$ for pre-menopausal and $632.39 \pm 277.86 \text{ mg/day}$ for post-menopausal women. This could be due to individual variability in dietary habits and inaccuracies in self-reported dietary intake, as 24-hour dietary recalls rely on the memory of the study population, which can introduce errors. Consumption of milk, dairy products, and green leafy vegetables was 80.2% and 79%. Calcium absorption decreases as the oxalic acid content in food increases [25]. Although many edible plants are rich in total calcium, their bioavailability is reduced due to their complexation with oxalate, forming indigestible calcium-oxalate crystals [25, 26]. This interaction categorizes oxalate as an “antinutrient.”

Furthermore, soluble oxalates can impair the absorption of minerals from other foods by binding to these minerals in the digestive tract, thereby decreasing their overall nutritional uptake [27]. Similarly, various other studies also reported low DCI in the study population [28, 29]. According to the Estimated Average Requirement (EAR) for calcium, which is 800 mg/day, participants in the present study did not meet the required intake. Likewise, a similar finding was obtained in a survey by Zareef *et al.* [30].

This research shows significantly higher serum calcium levels in pre-menopausal women, similar to other studies [10, 31, 32]. Calcium is the most essential mineral for maintaining the skeletal system in women throughout life. The menopausal phase is associated with increased bone resorption that lowers bone mass due to a decline in ovarian estrogen formation [2]. A decrease in intestinal absorption of calcium is also reported in menopause, and declining vitamin D levels are implicated [33, 34]. Estrogen may work by directly altering the intestinal responsiveness to

calcitriol [35, 36]. This finding may be explained as an increased calcium requirement to maintain calcium homeostasis with advancing age, a continued decline in intestinal calcium absorption reported with ageing, and the apparent loss of intestinal adaptation to varying calcium intake in older women [37-39].

In this study, the mean vitamin D level in pre-menopausal women was higher than that of post-menopausal women. Various other studies have reported a drop in vitamin D in post-menopausal women compared to that in pre-menopausal women [10, 40, 41]. Vitamin D supports bone growth and its turnover. Its deficiency causes an increased risk for bone health in post-menopausal women [42]. Vitamin D is required to maintain a proper calcium level by promoting the intestinal absorption of calcium. A decline in levels of vitamin D in post-menopausal women [40, 43] are recognized to be induced by age-related decreases in the cutaneous synthesis of vitamin D, declines in renal production of the hormone calcitriol, poor intestinal sensitivity to vitamin D absorption, and a lack of exposure to the sun, as well as hyperparathyroidism, which increases the bone resorption and escalates the bone loss [33, 44, 45].

In this study, serum phosphorous levels were slightly higher in post-menopausal women than in pre-menopausal women. Serum levels of phosphorus and calcium are maintained mainly by two hormones, such as Parathyroid hormone (PTH) and calcitriol; therefore, any interference with the action of PTH can lead to lower serum calcium and an increase in serum phosphorus. Several studies also reported a rise in serum phosphorous in post-menopausal women compared to that in pre-menopausal women [23, 46, 47].

Vitamin D showed a positive correlation with serum calcium level (r value 0.407, $p < 0.001$) in this research. Kiran B *et al.* reported similar findings [48]. It could be due to the involvement of vitamin D in the absorption of calcium from the gut [49, 50], while it showed a negative correlation with serum phosphorous values (r value -0.008, $p = 0.875$). A similar finding was also reported by Kiran B *et al.* [48]. Vitamin D increases the efficiency of intestinal absorption of calcium by 30-40% and phosphorus absorption by approximately 80% [51]. Vitamin D deficiency leads to secondary hyperparathyroidism, resulting in phosphorus loss in the urine and decreasing intestinal absorption of phosphorus, which causes low or low normal phosphorus concentration, which is essential for bone mineralization [52, 53]. In this study, vitamin D with sunlight exposure in minutes shows a positive but insignificant correlation (r value 0.028, $p = 0.605$). In contrast, some other studies showed a positive and significant correlation with sunlight exposure [15, 48]. A major source of Vitamin D is the sunlight [48]. However, participants of this study had limited exposure; 44 (12.4%) were not exposed to sunlight due to photosensitivity, heat sensitivity, work and lifestyle, and cultural norms, most of them use sunscreen and protective cloth.

The prevalence of hypovitaminosis D in this study population was 90.4%, with 146 (41.2%) as a deficiency and 174 (49.2%) as insufficiency. The prevalence of hypovitaminosis D in post-menopausal women in this study was 163 (92.1%), which included 44.1% as a deficiency and 48% as an insufficiency (figure 1). Beg *et al.* [54] reported that the overall prevalence of hypovitaminosis D in post-menopausal women was 88.5%. This state of hypovitaminosis D can be explained due to the complexion of the skin, inadequate exposure to the sun, dietary habits, decreased milk consumption, phytate-rich food, and the absence of a vitamin D fortification program [15]. This research found a positive correlation between serum vitamin D levels and DCI in the study population (r value 0.421, $p < 0.001$). Similarly, post-menopausal women also demonstrated a positive correlation between serum levels of vitamin D and DCI (r value 0.414, $p < 0.001$). A similar finding was also presented by Kamineni *et al.* [15].

Conclusion

Serum calcium and vitamin D levels were lower in post-menopausal women compared to pre-menopausal women, whereas serum phosphorous was relatively higher in post-menopausal women. As per EAR, the dietary calcium intake in both study populations was insufficient. Vitamin D positively correlated with serum calcium and dietary calcium in post-menopausal women. In contrast, it showed a positive correlation with sunlight exposure and a negative correlation with serum phosphorous. A significant association was observed between DCI and sunlight exposure with serum calcium and vitamin D. This study suggests that medical supervision of bone markers like serum calcium, vitamin D, and phosphorus is necessary. Therefore, periodic dosing of calcium and vitamin D, consuming foods rich in these nutrients and spending time in sunlight are essential to mitigate bone health problems.

Limitations and future scope of the study

The accuracy of self-reported dietary information may limit the study, as it may be subject to dietary recall bias. This could result in under- or over-reporting food consumption, leading to inaccurate results. This study could not cover many other bone markers like alkaline phosphatase, intact Parathyroid hormone (iPTH), total protein.

Relevance of the study

This cross-sectional study compared serum calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D levels in pre- and postmenopausal women with nutritional correlation. The findings of this study strongly suggest that large-scale research is required to explore an association between vitamin and mineral status in pre- and post-menopausal women and to minimize its occurrence.

Abbreviations

Body Mass Index (BMI), cardiovascular diseases (CVD), dietary calcium intake (DCI), estimated average requirement (EAR), institutional review committee (IRC), Parathyroid hormone (PTH)

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Authors' contribution

- a. Study planning: AD, JMT, NKC, KT
- b. Data collection: AD, JMT
- c. Data analysis/ interpretation: AD, KT
- d. Manuscript writing: AD, JMT, NKC, KT
- e. Manuscript revision: AD, JMT, NKC, KT
- f. Final approval: AD, JMT, NKC, KT
- g. Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work: AD, JMT, NKC, KT

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Availability of data and materials

All data underlying the results are available as part of the article.

Competing interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest to disclose in relation to this manuscript.

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