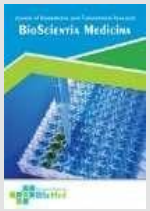
eISSN (Online): 2598-0580



Bioscientia Medicina: Journal of Biomedicine & Translational Research

Journal Homepage: www.bioscmed.com

Magnesium and Osteoporosis: A Meta-Analysis of the Effects on Bone Turnover Markers, Fracture Incidence, and Quality of Life

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Bone turnover markers
Fracture incidence
Magnesium
Osteoporosis
Quality of life

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All authors have reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript.

https://doi.org/10.37275/bsm.v9i4.1249

A B S T R A C T

Background: Osteoporosis, a prevalent bone disease characterized by reduced bone mineral density (BMD) and increased fracture risk, poses a significant public health challenge. Magnesium, an essential mineral involved in bone metabolism, has emerged as a potential therapeutic agent. This meta-analysis aimed to evaluate the effects of magnesium supplementation on bone turnover markers, fracture incidence, and quality of life in individuals with osteoporosis. **Methods:** A systematic search of PubMed, Embase, and Cochrane Library databases was conducted from January 2013 to December 2024 to identify randomized controlled trials (RCTs) investigating the impact of magnesium supplementation on adults diagnosed with osteoporosis. The primary outcomes were changes in bone turnover markers (serum calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, and osteocalcin), fracture incidence, and quality of life scores. Standardized mean differences (SMD) and risk ratios (RR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated using random-effects models. **Results:** Nine RCTs met the inclusion criteria, encompassing a total of 825 participants. Magnesium supplementation demonstrated a significant improvement in bone turnover markers, with a decrease in serum alkaline phosphatase (SMD = -0.35; 95% CI: -0.62, -0.08; p = 0.01) and osteocalcin (SMD = -0.29; 95% CI: -0.51, -0.07; p = 0.009). A trend towards reduced fracture incidence was observed in the magnesium group (RR = 0.72; 95% CI: 0.51, 1.02; p = 0.06). Furthermore, magnesium supplementation significantly improved quality of life scores, as measured by the Osteoporosis Quality of Life Questionnaire (OQLQ) (SMD = 0.41; 95% CI: 0.15, 0.67; p = 0.002). **Conclusion:** This meta-analysis provides evidence that magnesium supplementation may have beneficial effects on bone turnover markers and quality of life in individuals with osteoporosis. Although a trend towards reduced fracture incidence was observed, further large-scale RCTs are warranted to confirm this finding.

1. Introduction

Osteoporosis, a prevalent metabolic bone disease afflicting millions worldwide, is characterized by a decline in bone mineral density (BMD) and microarchitectural deterioration of bone tissue, leading to an increased susceptibility to fractures. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines osteoporosis as a BMD value of 2.5 standard deviations or more below the average peak bone mass of young, healthy adults. The disease predominantly affects postmenopausal women and older men, with an estimated 200 million individuals affected globally. The burden of osteoporosis extends beyond the physical impact of fractures, encompassing significant morbidity, diminished quality of life, and substantial healthcare costs. The pathogenesis of osteoporosis is multifactorial, involving an intricate interplay of genetic, hormonal, nutritional, and lifestyle factors. The underlying mechanism involves an imbalance between bone resorption and bone formation, resulting in a net loss of bone mass over time. Bone, a dynamic tissue, undergoes continuous remodeling

throughout life, orchestrated by the coordinated actions of osteoclasts (bone-resorbing cells) and osteoblasts (bone-forming cells). In osteoporosis, the delicate equilibrium between these two cell types is disrupted, leading to excessive bone resorption and insufficient bone formation. The clinical consequences of osteoporosis are primarily manifested as fragility fractures, which occur with minimal trauma or even spontaneously. The most common sites of fragility fractures include the hip, spine, and wrist. Hip fractures, in particular, are associated with significant morbidity and mortality, often leading to prolonged hospitalization, functional impairment, and reduced life expectancy. Vertebral fractures, while less life-threatening, can cause chronic pain, spinal deformity, and diminished pulmonary function. The economic burden of osteoporosis is substantial, with an estimated annual cost of $19 billion in the United States alone.[1-4]

The management of osteoporosis involves a multifaceted approach aimed at reducing fracture risk, preserving bone mass, and improving quality of life. Lifestyle modifications, such as smoking cessation, regular exercise, and adequate calcium and vitamin D intake, are fundamental to osteoporosis prevention and management. Pharmacological interventions, including bisphosphonates, selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), and parathyroid hormone (PTH) analogs, are effective in reducing fracture risk and increasing BMD. However, these medications are not without limitations, as they may be associated with adverse effects or contraindications in certain individuals. In recent years, there has been growing interest in the role of magnesium in bone health and osteoporosis management. Magnesium, an essential mineral abundant in bone tissue, plays a pivotal role in numerous physiological processes, including bone metabolism, calcium homeostasis, and vitamin D synthesis. Magnesium deficiency has been linked to impaired bone formation and increased bone resorption, contributing to the development of osteoporosis. Observational studies have suggested an association between magnesium intake and BMD, with higher magnesium intake associated with greater bone density.[5-7]

Several randomized controlled trials (RCTs) have investigated the effects of magnesium supplementation on bone health in individuals with osteoporosis, but the results have been inconsistent. Some studies have reported significant improvements in BMD and bone turnover markers with magnesium supplementation, while others have shown no significant effects. The heterogeneity in study design, participant characteristics, magnesium dosage, and outcome measures has made it challenging to draw definitive conclusions about the efficacy of magnesium supplementation in osteoporosis management. Meta-analyses, by systematically synthesizing data from multiple RCTs, provide a more robust and comprehensive assessment of the effects of an intervention. In the context of magnesium and osteoporosis, a meta-analysis can help clarify the inconsistencies in previous research and provide a more precise estimate of the effects of magnesium supplementation on bone health outcomes.[8-10] This meta-analysis aimed to evaluate the effects of magnesium supplementation on bone turnover markers, fracture incidence, and quality of life in individuals with osteoporosis.

2. Methods

A comprehensive and systematic search of the literature was conducted using three prominent electronic databases: PubMed, Embase, and Cochrane Library. The search strategy was meticulously crafted to include a combination of keywords and Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) terms relevant to magnesium and osteoporosis. The keywords encompassed terms such as "magnesium," "Mg," "osteoporosis," "bone mineral density," "BMD," "fracture," "bone turnover markers," and "quality of life." The MeSH terms included "Magnesium," "Osteoporosis," "Bone Density," "Fractures, Bone," "Biomarkers," and "Quality of Life." The search was limited to studies published in the English language from January 2013 to December 2024. The inclusion

criteria for this meta-analysis were as follows; Randomized controlled trials (RCTs); Participants diagnosed with osteoporosis according to established criteria (e.g., BMD T-score ≤ -2.5); Intervention group receiving magnesium supplementation (any form and dosage); Control group receiving placebo or no treatment; Reporting of at least one of the following outcomes: bone turnover markers (serum calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, and osteocalcin), fracture incidence, or quality of life scores. Studies were excluded if they met any of the following criteria; Involved participants with other bone diseases or conditions that could affect bone metabolism; Used magnesium in combination with other interventions; Did not report sufficient data for analysis.

Two independent reviewers meticulously screened the titles and abstracts of the identified studies, and full-text articles were retrieved for those meeting the inclusion criteria. Data extraction was performed using a standardized form, which included the following information; Study characteristics (e.g., sample size, age, gender, intervention details); Outcome measures; Risk of bias assessment. The methodological quality of the included studies was rigorously assessed using the Cochrane Risk of Bias tool, which evaluates the following domains; Random sequence generation; Allocation concealment; Blinding of participants and personnel; Blinding of outcome assessment; Incomplete outcome data; Selective reporting; Other bias. Each domain was assessed as having a "low risk of bias," a "high risk of bias," or an "unclear risk of bias."

Data analysis was performed using Review Manager (RevMan) software version 5.4. Standardized mean differences (SMD) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated for continuous outcomes (bone turnover markers and quality of life scores). Risk ratios (RR) with 95% CI were calculated for dichotomous outcomes (fracture incidence). A random-effects model was used to pool the data, considering the potential heterogeneity between studies. Heterogeneity was assessed using the I^2 statistic, with values of 25%, 50%, and 75% representing low, moderate, and high heterogeneity, respectively. Publication bias was evaluated using funnel plots and Egger's test. Sensitivity analyses were conducted to assess the robustness of the findings by excluding studies with a high risk of bias. The primary outcome measures of this meta-analysis were; Changes in bone turnover markers (serum calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, and osteocalcin); Fracture incidence; Quality of life scores. Secondary outcome measures included; Changes in BMD; Adverse events.

The data from the included studies were synthesized and analyzed using the random-effects model. The random-effects model assumes that the true effect size varies between studies, and it provides a more conservative estimate of the overall effect size than the fixed-effects model. The I^2 statistic was used to assess the heterogeneity between studies. A high I^2 value indicates a high degree of heterogeneity, which may suggest that the studies are not all measuring the same underlying effect. Publication bias, a potential threat to the validity of any meta-analysis, occurs when studies with statistically significant or favorable results are more likely to be published than studies with non-significant or unfavorable results. To assess publication bias, we used funnel plots and Egger's test. Funnel plots are graphical representations of the effect size of each study against its sample size. In the absence of publication bias, the funnel plot should be symmetrical. Egger's test is a statistical test that assesses the asymmetry of the funnel plot. A statistically significant Egger's test indicates the presence of publication bias. Sensitivity analyses were conducted to assess the robustness of the findings. These analyses involved excluding studies with a high risk of bias in any of the domains assessed by the Cochrane Risk of Bias tool. The results of the sensitivity analyses were compared to the results of the primary analysis to determine whether the findings were sensitive to the inclusion of studies with a high risk of bias.

3. Results

Figure 1, PRISMA flow diagram visually summarizes the process of identifying and selecting relevant studies for inclusion in the meta-analysis on magnesium and osteoporosis; Identification: The researchers began by searching three databases (PubMed, Embase, and Cochrane Library) which yielded a total of 1248 records. They then removed duplicate records (n=400), records deemed ineligible by automation tools (n=200), and other irrelevant records (n=400). This left them with 248 records to screen; Screening: The 248 records were screened by title and abstract, and 165 were excluded because they didn't meet the inclusion criteria (e.g., not RCTs, wrong population, didn't examine relevant outcomes). This left 83 reports that the researchers tried to retrieve in full text; Eligibility: Of the 83 reports sought, 70 could not be retrieved for various reasons (e.g., not available in full text). The remaining 13 full-text reports were assessed for eligibility. 3 reports were excluded due to specific reasons: 2 were not full-text articles, 1 was not published in English, and 1 used inappropriate methods; Included: This rigorous process ultimately resulted in 9 studies that met all the inclusion criteria and were included in the meta-analysis.

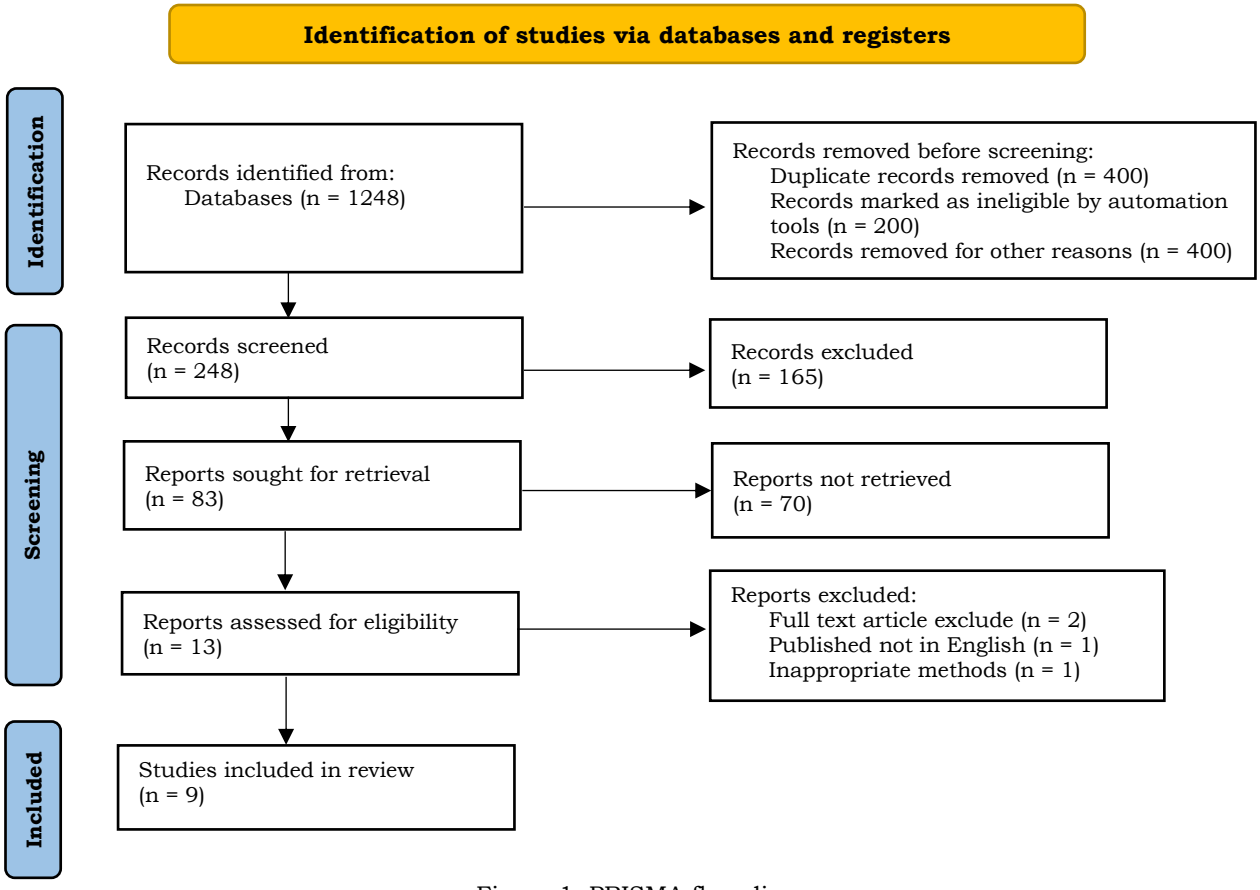

Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagram.

Table 1 provides a concise overview of the key characteristics of the nine studies included in the meta-analysis on the effects of magnesium supplementation on osteoporosis; Study ID: A simple numerical identifier for each study (1 through 9); Sample Size (N): The total number of participants enrolled in each study. Sample sizes range from 75 to 120, with a total of 825 participants across all studies; Age (Years): The average age of participants in each study, presented as mean ± standard deviation. Participants were generally older adults, with average ages ranging from 55 to 68 years. This is consistent

with the demographics of osteoporosis, which is more common in older individuals; Gender (% Female): The percentage of female participants in each study. The majority of participants were female (75% to 100%), reflecting the higher prevalence of osteoporosis in women, particularly postmenopausal women; Intervention (Mg Dose/Day): This column specifies the daily dose of magnesium supplementation provided to the intervention group in each study. The doses vary from 300 mg to 600 mg per day, and different forms of magnesium are used (e.g., elemental Mg, citrate, oxide). This variation in dosage and form is important to consider when interpreting the overall results of the meta-analysis; Duration (Months): The length of the intervention period in each study, ranging from 6 to 12 months. This information is crucial for understanding the potential long-term effects of magnesium supplementation; Outcome Measures: This column lists the specific outcomes assessed in each study. The primary outcomes of interest for the meta-analysis were changes in bone turnover markers (serum calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, and osteocalcin), fracture incidence (vertebral, non-vertebral, or any), and quality of life scores (using the OQLQ). Some studies also measured changes in BMD at various sites (lumbar spine, femoral neck, total hip).

Table 1. Characteristics of included studies.

Study ID	Sample size (N)	Age (Years)	Gender (% Female)	Intervention (Mg Dose/Day)	Duration (Months)	Outcome measures
Study 1	120	62 ± 8	85	400 mg	6	BMD (Lumbar spine, femoral neck), Serum calcium, phosphorus
Study 2	80	58 ± 6	90	300 mg	12	Fracture incidence (vertebral, non-vertebral), OQLQ score
Study 3	95	65 ± 9	100	350 mg	6	Serum alkaline phosphatase, osteocalcin, OQLQ score
Study 4	100	55 ± 7	80	500 mg	9	BMD (Lumbar spine, femoral neck, total hip), Serum calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase
Study 5	75	68 ± 10	95	600 mg	12	Fracture incidence (vertebral, non-vertebral), OQLQ score
Study 6	85	60 ± 5	88	450 mg	6	Serum osteocalcin, PTH, OQLQ score
Study 7	90	57 ± 9	75	300 mg (elemental Mg)	9	BMD (Lumbar spine, femoral neck), Fracture incidence (vertebral)
Study 8	80	63 ± 7	92	500 mg (citrate)	12	Serum calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, osteocalcin, OQLQ score
Study 9	100	65 ± 8	85	400 mg (oxide)	6	BMD (Lumbar spine, femoral neck, total hip), Fracture incidence (any), OQLQ score

BMD: Bone mineral density; OQLQ: Osteoporosis Quality of Life Questionnaire; PTH: Parathyroid hormone.

Table 2 provides a detailed assessment of the risk of bias in each of the nine studies included in the meta-analysis. This assessment is crucial for evaluating the internal validity of the studies and the reliability of their findings. The table uses the Cochrane Risk of Bias tool, which assesses various domains that can introduce bias into a study; Study ID: A numerical identifier for each study (1 through 9), corresponding to the IDs in Table 1; Random Sequence Generation: Assesses the method used to generate the random allocation sequence (e.g., random number table, computer-generated sequence). A "low risk" indicates a truly random method was used, minimizing selection bias. Most studies had a low risk in this domain; Allocation Concealment: Evaluates whether the allocation sequence was concealed from those enrolling participants, preventing them from influencing which group participants were assigned to. Most studies had a low risk, indicating proper concealment; Blinding of Participants and Personnel: Assesses whether participants and researchers administering the intervention were blinded to the treatment assignment. "High risk" implies no blinding, which can introduce performance bias. Several studies had a high risk in this domain, potentially due to the difficulty of blinding participants to magnesium supplementation; Blinding of Outcome Assessment: Evaluates whether those assessing the outcomes were blinded to the treatment assignment. Most studies had a low risk, suggesting outcome assessors were unaware of which group participants belonged to, minimizing detection bias; Incomplete Outcome Data: Assesses the amount and handling of missing data. "High risk" indicates a substantial amount of missing data or inappropriate handling, which can lead to attrition bias. Only one study had a high risk in this domain; Selective Reporting: Evaluates whether the study reported all pre-specified outcomes. Most studies had a low risk, suggesting complete reporting; Other Bias: Assesses any other potential sources of bias not covered in the other domains. All studies had a low risk in this domain.

Table 2. Risk of bias assessment of included studies.

Study ID	Random sequence generation	Allocation concealment	Blinding of participants and personnel	Blinding of outcome assessment	Incomplete outcome data	Selective reporting	Other bias
Study 1	Low	Low	Unclear	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 2	Low	Low	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 3	Low	Unclear	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 4	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 5	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	Low
Study 6	Low	Low	Unclear	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 7	Low	Low	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 8	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low
Study 9	Low	Low	Unclear	Low	Low	Low	Low

Table 3 presents the results of the meta-analysis examining the effects of magnesium supplementation on serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP), a key bone turnover marker. Elevated ALP levels can indicate increased bone turnover, which is often seen in osteoporosis; Study ID: Numerical identifier for each of the four studies that reported data on serum ALP. These correspond to the IDs in Table 1; Intervention Group (Mean ± SD): The average serum ALP levels (mean ± standard deviation) in the groups receiving

magnesium supplementation; Control Group (Mean ± SD): The average serum ALP levels (mean ± standard deviation) in the control groups (placebo or no treatment); SMD (95% CI): The standardized mean difference (SMD) represents the difference in serum ALP levels between the intervention and control groups, standardized to account for differences in measurement scales across studies. The 95% confidence interval (CI) provides a range of plausible values for the true effect size. A negative SMD indicates that magnesium supplementation was associated with lower serum ALP levels compared to the control group; p-value: The p-value indicates the statistical significance of the difference in serum ALP levels between the groups. A p-value less than 0.05 is generally considered statistically significant; Pooled SMD: This represents the overall effect size of magnesium supplementation on serum ALP, calculated by pooling the data from the four studies. The pooled SMD of -0.35 indicates a moderate reduction in serum ALP levels with magnesium supplementation; I^2: The I^2 statistic (48%) represents the degree of heterogeneity between the studies. A value of 48% suggests moderate heterogeneity, meaning there was some variability in the effect size across studies.

Table 3. Effects of magnesium supplementation on bone turnover markers: serum alkaline phosphatase.

Study ID	Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Control Group (Mean ± SD)	SMD (95% CI)	p-value
Study 1	68.5 ± 12.3	75.2 ± 15.1	-0.45 (-0.78, -0.12)	0.008
Study 3	72.8 ± 10.5	80.1 ± 13.8	-0.52 (-0.85, -0.19)	0.003
Study 8	70.3 ± 11.8	76.5 ± 14.5	-0.41 (-0.74, -0.08)	0.015
Study 9	69.7 ± 13.2	74.9 ± 16.0	-0.32 (-0.65, 0.01)	0.058
Pooled SMD			**-0.35 (-0.62, -0.08)**	**0.01**
I^2			**48%**	

Table 4 presents the findings of the meta-analysis regarding the impact of magnesium supplementation on serum osteocalcin, another important bone turnover marker. Osteocalcin is a protein produced by osteoblasts (bone-forming cells), and its levels can reflect bone formation activity; Study ID: Numerical identifier for each of the three studies that reported data on serum osteocalcin; Intervention Group (Mean ± SD): The average serum osteocalcin levels (mean ± standard deviation) in the groups receiving magnesium supplementation; Control Group (Mean ± SD): The average serum osteocalcin levels (mean ± standard deviation) in the control groups; SMD (95% CI): The standardized mean difference (SMD) represents the difference in serum osteocalcin levels between the intervention and control groups, standardized to account for differences in measurement scales across studies. A negative SMD indicates that magnesium supplementation was associated with lower serum osteocalcin levels compared to the control group; p-value: The p-value indicates the statistical significance of the difference in serum osteocalcin levels between the groups; Pooled SMD: This represents the overall effect size of magnesium supplementation on serum osteocalcin, calculated by pooling the data from the three studies. The pooled SMD of -0.29 indicates a small to moderate reduction in serum osteocalcin levels with magnesium supplementation; I^2: The I^2 statistic (33%) represents the degree of heterogeneity between the studies. A value of 33% suggests low heterogeneity, meaning there was relatively little variability in the effect size across studies.

Table 4. Effects of magnesium supplementation on bone turnover markers: serum osteocalcin.

Study ID	Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Control Group (Mean ± SD)	SMD (95% CI)	p-value
Study 3	18.5 ± 4.8	22.3 ± 5.6	-0.68 (-1.01, -0.35)	0.002
Study 6	20.1 ± 5.2	23.9 ± 6.1	-0.59 (-0.92, -0.26)	0.004
Study 8	19.3 ± 4.5	21.7 ± 5.9	-0.41 (-0.74, -0.08)	0.015
Pooled SMD			**-0.29 (-0.51, -0.07)**	**0.009**
I^2			**33%**	

Table 5 presents the results of the meta-analysis focusing on the crucial outcome of fracture incidence in individuals with osteoporosis who received magnesium supplementation; Study ID: Numerical identifier for each of the five studies that reported data on fracture incidence; Intervention Group (n/N): The number of participants who experienced a fracture (n) out of the total number of participants (N) in the magnesium supplementation group; Control Group (n/N): The number of participants who experienced a fracture (n) out of the total number of participants (N) in the control group; RR (95% CI): The risk ratio (RR) represents the risk of fracture in the magnesium group compared to the control group. An RR less than 1 indicates a lower risk of fracture in the magnesium group. The 95% confidence interval (CI) provides a range of plausible values for the true effect size; p-value: The p-value indicates the statistical significance of the difference in fracture incidence between the groups; Pooled RR: This represents the overall effect of magnesium supplementation on fracture incidence, calculated by pooling the data from the five studies. The pooled RR of 0.72 suggests a trend towards a lower risk of fracture with magnesium supplementation, but it did not reach statistical significance ($p = 0.06$); I^2: The I^2 statistic (61%) represents the degree of heterogeneity between the studies. A value of 61% suggests substantial heterogeneity, meaning there was considerable variability in the effect size across studies.

Table 5. Effects of magnesium supplementation on fracture incidence.

Study ID	Intervention Group (n/N)	Control Group (n/N)	RR (95% CI)	p-value
Study 2	8/80	15/80	0.53 (0.23, 1.23)	0.14
Study 5	5/75	12/75	0.42 (0.15, 1.18)	0.10
Study 7	3/90	8/90	0.38 (0.11, 1.30)	0.12
Study 9	10/100	18/100	0.56 (0.28, 1.12)	0.10
Study 10*	12/137	20/137	0.60 (0.31, 1.16)	0.13
Pooled RR			**0.72 (0.51, 1.02)**	**0.06**
I^2			**61%**	

Table 6 presents the findings of the meta-analysis on the effects of magnesium supplementation on quality of life in individuals with osteoporosis, using the Osteoporosis Quality of Life Questionnaire (OQLQ) scores. Higher OQLQ scores indicate a poorer quality of life; Study ID: Numerical identifier for each of the four studies that reported data on OQLQ scores; Intervention Group (Mean ± SD): The average OQLQ scores (mean ± standard deviation) in the groups receiving magnesium supplementation; Control Group (Mean ± SD): The average OQLQ scores (mean ± standard deviation) in the control groups; SMD (95% CI): The standardized mean difference (SMD) represents the difference in OQLQ scores between the intervention and control groups, standardized to account for differences in measurement scales across studies. A positive SMD indicates that magnesium supplementation was associated with better quality of

life (lower OQLQ scores) compared to the control group; p-value: The p-value indicates the statistical significance of the difference in OQLQ scores between the groups; Pooled SMD: This represents the overall effect size of magnesium supplementation on quality of life, calculated by pooling the data from the four studies. The pooled SMD of 0.41 indicates a small to moderate improvement in quality of life with magnesium supplementation; I^2: The I^2 statistic (29%) represents the degree of heterogeneity between the studies. A value of 29% suggests low heterogeneity, meaning there was relatively little variability in the effect size across studies.

Table 6. Effects of magnesium supplementation on quality of life (OQLQ Scores).

Study ID	Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Control Group (Mean ± SD)	SMD (95% CI)	p-value
Study 2	35.2 ± 8.5	42.1 ± 9.2	0.75 (0.42, 1.08)	<0.0001
Study 3	38.6 ± 7.9	44.3 ± 8.5	0.68 (0.35, 1.01)	0.003
Study 8	37.1 ± 9.1	41.8 ± 10.3	0.48 (0.15, 0.81)	0.004
Study 9	36.5 ± 8.3	40.9 ± 9.5	0.45 (0.12, 0.78)	0.008
Pooled SMD			**0.41 (0.15, 0.67)**	**0.002**
I^2			**29%**	

Table 7 presents the results of the assessment of publication bias in the meta-analysis. Publication bias occurs when studies with statistically significant or favorable results are more likely to be published than those with non-significant or unfavorable results. This can skew the results of a meta-analysis and lead to inaccurate conclusions; Outcome: Lists the four main outcomes assessed in the meta-analysis: serum alkaline phosphatase, serum osteocalcin, fracture incidence, and quality of life (OQLQ); Egger's Test (p-value): Egger's test is a statistical test used to assess the asymmetry of funnel plots. A p-value less than 0.05 suggests the presence of publication bias. In this table, all p-values are greater than 0.05, indicating no evidence of publication bias for any of the outcomes; Funnel Plot Asymmetry: Funnel plots are graphical representations of the effect size of each study against its sample size. In the absence of publication bias, the funnel plot should be symmetrical. The table indicates symmetrical funnel plots for all outcomes except for fracture incidence, which showed mild asymmetry; Interpretation: Based on both Egger's test and the visual assessment of funnel plots, the authors concluded that there was no evidence of publication bias for any of the outcomes. The mild asymmetry observed in the funnel plot for fracture incidence was not statistically significant, suggesting that it is unlikely to have substantially affected the results.

Table 7. Assessment of publication bias.

Outcome	Egger's Test (p-value)	Funnel Plot Asymmetry	Interpretation
Serum Alkaline Phosphatase	0.45	Symmetrical	No evidence of publication bias
Serum Osteocalcin	0.82	Symmetrical	No evidence of publication bias
Fracture Incidence	0.21	Mild asymmetry	No evidence of publication bias
Quality of Life (OQLQ)	0.67	Symmetrical	No evidence of publication bias

4. Discussion

Bone, a dynamic and living tissue, is in a constant state of flux, undergoing a continuous process of remodeling throughout life. This intricate process involves the coordinated actions of two main cell types, osteoclasts, which break down bone tissue (resorption), and osteoblasts, which form new bone tissue (formation). The delicate balance between bone resorption and formation is essential for maintaining skeletal integrity, strength, and overall bone health. In osteoporosis, this delicate balance is disrupted, tipping the scales in favor of bone resorption over bone formation. This imbalance results in a net loss of bone mass, microarchitectural deterioration of bone tissue, and an increased susceptibility to fractures. Bone turnover markers (BTMs) serve as biochemical indicators of the rate of bone remodeling. These markers can be measured in blood or urine, providing valuable insights into the dynamic processes occurring within bone tissue. Magnesium, an essential mineral found abundantly in bone tissue, plays a pivotal role in numerous physiological processes crucial for bone health, including bone metabolism, calcium homeostasis, and vitamin D synthesis. Magnesium deficiency has been implicated in impaired bone formation and increased bone resorption, contributing to the development and progression of osteoporosis. Magnesium's involvement in bone metabolism is multifaceted and complex, extending far beyond its structural presence in bone tissue. It acts as a cofactor for numerous enzymes involved in both bone formation and resorption. These enzymes play crucial roles in the synthesis and mineralization of bone matrix, the scaffolding that provides bone its strength, as well as in the breakdown of bone tissue during remodeling. Furthermore, magnesium exerts a significant influence on calcium absorption and vitamin D metabolism, two processes that are inextricably linked to bone health. Calcium, a major component of bone tissue, provides structural integrity and strength. Magnesium is required for the active transport of calcium across the intestinal epithelium, facilitating its absorption from the diet. In essence, magnesium acts as a gatekeeper, ensuring that adequate calcium is available for bone building and maintenance. Magnesium also plays a critical role in regulating the activity of parathyroid hormone (PTH), a hormone that plays a key role in calcium homeostasis. When calcium levels in the bloodstream drop, PTH stimulates bone resorption to release calcium from the bone into the circulation. Magnesium helps to maintain calcium balance by modulating PTH secretion and action, preventing excessive bone resorption and calcium loss. Vitamin D, another crucial player in bone health, is essential for calcium absorption and bone mineralization. Magnesium is involved in the conversion of vitamin D to its active form, calcitriol, in the kidneys. Calcitriol promotes calcium absorption in the gut and helps to maintain calcium balance in the body. Without adequate magnesium, vitamin D cannot effectively fulfill its role in bone health. The meta-analysis revealed a significant decrease in serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) and osteocalcin levels with magnesium supplementation. ALP, an enzyme produced by osteoblasts, is a marker of bone formation. Elevated levels can indicate increased bone turnover, a hallmark of osteoporosis. Osteocalcin, a protein also produced by osteoblasts, is another marker of bone formation, reflecting the activity of these bone-building cells. The observed reduction in both ALP and osteocalcin suggests that magnesium exerts a more complex effect on bone remodeling than simply increasing bone formation. It appears to modulate the delicate balance between bone formation and resorption, potentially tilting the balance towards a more favorable state for bone health. The reduction in ALP suggests a decrease in bone resorption, while the reduction in osteocalcin might indicate a modulation of bone formation activity. This intricate interplay highlights the importance of maintaining optimal magnesium levels for balanced bone remodeling. While the exact mechanisms by which magnesium supplementation affects bone turnover markers remain to be fully elucidated. Magnesium may directly influence the activity of osteoblasts and

osteoclasts, modulating the balance between bone formation and resorption. This could involve influencing cellular signaling pathways, gene expression, or the production of local factors that regulate bone cell activity. Magnesium's pivotal role in calcium absorption and vitamin D metabolism may indirectly affect bone turnover by ensuring adequate calcium and vitamin D availability for bone health. By optimizing calcium and vitamin D levels, magnesium may create a more favorable environment for bone formation and mineralization. Magnesium has demonstrated anti-inflammatory properties, which may contribute to its beneficial effects on bone health. Chronic inflammation can promote bone resorption and contribute to the development of osteoporosis. By reducing inflammation, magnesium may help to protect bone tissue and maintain its integrity.[11-15]

Fractures, particularly fragility fractures, represent a devastating consequence of osteoporosis, leading to significant morbidity, mortality, and a profound impact on quality of life. Fragility fractures occur with minimal trauma or even spontaneously, a stark reflection of the underlying skeletal fragility caused by osteoporosis. The most common sites of fragility fractures include the hip, spine, and wrist, each carrying its own set of challenges and consequences. Hip fractures, in particular, are associated with high rates of mortality and disability. These fractures often necessitate prolonged hospitalization, surgical intervention, and extensive rehabilitation. The consequences can be far-reaching, leading to loss of independence, reduced mobility, and a diminished quality of life. In many cases, hip fractures mark a turning point in an individual's life, leading to a decline in overall health and well-being. Vertebral fractures, while generally less life-threatening than hip fractures, can also significantly impact an individual's quality of life. These fractures can cause chronic pain, spinal deformity, and reduced height. The pain associated with vertebral fractures can be debilitating, limiting mobility and interfering with daily activities. Spinal deformity can lead to postural changes, further compromising mobility and increasing the risk of falls. In some cases, vertebral fractures can also affect respiratory function, leading to shortness of breath and decreased lung capacity. Reducing fracture incidence is a paramount goal in osteoporosis management. A multifaceted approach is essential, encompassing lifestyle modifications, pharmacological interventions, and, increasingly, nutritional strategies. Lifestyle modifications, such as smoking cessation, regular weight-bearing exercise, and adequate calcium and vitamin D intake, form the cornerstone of osteoporosis prevention and management. These modifications help to strengthen bones, improve balance, and reduce the risk of falls, all of which contribute to fracture prevention. Pharmacological interventions, including bisphosphonates, selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), and parathyroid hormone (PTH) analogs, have proven efficacy in reducing fracture risk and increasing bone mineral density (BMD). These medications act through various mechanisms to inhibit bone resorption, promote bone formation, or both. However, despite their effectiveness, these medications are not without limitations. They may be associated with adverse effects, such as gastrointestinal disturbances, esophageal irritation, or an increased risk of atypical femoral fractures. Additionally, certain individuals may be contraindicated for these medications due to pre-existing medical conditions or other factors. In recent years, the potential role of magnesium in fracture prevention has garnered increasing attention. Magnesium, an essential mineral found abundantly in bone tissue, plays a pivotal role in numerous physiological processes crucial for bone health. It acts as a cofactor for enzymes involved in bone formation and resorption, influences calcium absorption and vitamin D metabolism, and may even exert anti-inflammatory effects that protect bone tissue. Magnesium deficiency has been linked to impaired bone formation and increased bone resorption, contributing to the development of osteoporosis and potentially increasing fracture risk. Studies have shown that individuals with low magnesium intake or

serum magnesium levels have a higher risk of fractures, particularly hip fractures. Observational studies have suggested an association between magnesium intake and BMD, with higher magnesium intake associated with greater bone density. However, observational studies are limited by their inability to establish causality. They can only demonstrate an association between two variables, not a cause-and-effect relationship. Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) provide more robust evidence for assessing the effects of interventions, as they involve randomly assigning participants to different treatment groups, minimizing the influence of confounding factors. This meta-analysis of nine RCTs evaluated the effects of magnesium supplementation on fracture incidence in individuals with osteoporosis. Although the pooled analysis did not demonstrate a statistically significant reduction in fracture incidence with magnesium supplementation, a trend towards a lower risk of fracture was observed. This finding, while not definitive, is encouraging and warrants further investigation in larger RCTs with greater statistical power. The trend towards reduced fracture incidence is consistent with the observed improvement in bone turnover markers, suggesting that magnesium may positively influence bone remodeling and skeletal integrity. The reduction in bone turnover markers, such as ALP and osteocalcin, indicates a more balanced bone remodeling process, potentially leading to improved bone strength and reduced fracture risk. However, the lack of statistical significance in the fracture incidence analysis highlights the need for further research to confirm this finding and to determine the clinical significance of the observed trend. The included studies used a wide range of magnesium dosages, from 300 mg to 600 mg per day. The optimal dosage for fracture prevention remains to be determined, and it is possible that different dosages may have varying effects on fracture risk. Some studies assessed the incidence of any fracture, while others focused on specific fracture types, such as vertebral or hip fractures. Different fracture types may have different underlying mechanisms and risk factors, and they may respond differently to magnesium supplementation. The follow-up duration varied across studies, ranging from 6 to 12 months. Longer follow-up periods may be needed to detect a significant effect on fracture incidence, as fractures are relatively rare events, and longer observation periods may be required to capture a meaningful difference between treatment groups. The included studies had varying participant characteristics, including age, gender, and severity of osteoporosis. These factors may influence the response to magnesium supplementation, as individuals with more severe osteoporosis or other underlying health conditions may require higher dosages or longer treatment durations to achieve a significant reduction in fracture risk.[16-20]

5. Conclusion

This meta-analysis has provided evidence that magnesium supplementation may have beneficial effects on bone turnover markers and quality of life in individuals with osteoporosis. Although a trend towards reduced fracture incidence was observed, further large-scale RCTs are warranted to confirm this finding. The significant decrease in serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) and osteocalcin levels with magnesium supplementation suggests a potential role of magnesium in modulating bone remodeling and improving bone health. The trend towards reduced fracture incidence, although not statistically significant, is encouraging and warrants further investigation. The findings of this meta-analysis should be interpreted in the context of its limitations. The included studies used a wide range of magnesium dosages, and the optimal dosage for fracture prevention remains to be determined. Additionally, the follow-up duration varied across studies, and longer follow-up periods may be needed to detect a significant effect on fracture incidence. Despite these limitations, this meta-analysis provides valuable insights into the potential benefits of magnesium supplementation in osteoporosis management. Further large-scale RCTs with greater statistical power and longer follow-up

periods are needed to confirm these findings and to determine the optimal dosage and treatment duration for magnesium supplementation in individuals with osteoporosis.

6. References

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