

Microarchitecture in focus

R. Rizzoli

Received: 19 February 2010 / Accepted: 16 March 2010

© International Osteoporosis Foundation and National Osteoporosis Foundation 2010

Introduction

Osteoporosis is a complex disease characterized by a decrease in bone mass and alterations of bone quality leading to increased bone fragility and fracture risk. The increasing worldwide incidence of osteoporosis requires the use of effective treatments. The aim of antiosteoporotic treatments is to improve bone strength and thus to decrease the risk of fracture [1, 2]. Bone quality includes several aspects of bone composition and structure, including microstructure, bone turnover, the degree of mineralization, and the extent of microdamage. Bone quality is being given increased importance as recent observations demonstrate that traditional measures of bone density do not always predict fracture risk reliably [3].

At present, the major noninvasive measurement available for the diagnosis of osteoporosis is the measurement of areal bone mineral density (BMD) by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA). Fracture risk prediction in the individual patient also relies mainly on BMD measurements. The diagnosis of osteoporosis measured by DXA, is a BMD of ≥ 2.5 standard deviations below the mean for young adults. However, many lines of evidence indicate that the decreased bone strength characteristic of osteoporosis is only partially accounted for by BMD and the remainder is dependent on material and structural properties of bone tissue, the bone microstructure [4–10]. Furthermore, the alterations in bone microstructure are not captured by BMD

measurements. Measurements of BMD are useful in postmenopausal osteoporosis and other conditions of significant demineralization.

Knowledge of bone microstructure is a clue for understanding osteoporosis pathophysiology and improving its diagnosis and treatment; the response of microstructure parameters to treatment should allow assessment of the real efficacy of the osteoporosis therapy.

Assessment of bone microstructure

The gold standard for investigation of bone disease remains the histomorphometry or quantitative histology of iliac crest biopsies, which has greatly enhanced our understanding of normal bone microstructure, remodeling, and strength, as well as the effects on bone of various diseases and treatments for osteoporosis [11]. However, this technique is invasive, and thus longitudinal measurements of bone structure at the same location are difficult to follow up. In addition, bone biopsies are performed in regions of low load and low fracture prevalence [12].

Recently, there has been great interest in noninvasive imaging techniques that enable assessment of bone microstructure in vivo at weight-bearing and non-weight-bearing skeletal sites that may be affected by osteoporosis. As new products and methods have been developed, focusing more on bone fragility, it has been essential to develop effective and sensitive means to assess fracture repair [13]. New techniques are now available which are able to provide structural information about local and systemic skeletal health and the pathophysiology of bone fragility [13]. These include high-resolution magnetic resonance imaging (HR-MRI), micro-CT (μ CT), and synchrotron radiation μ CT [4, 14]. It has been demonstrated that microstructure

R. Rizzoli (✉)

Division of Bone Diseases, Department of Rehabilitation and Geriatrics, Geneva University Hospitals and Faculty of Medicine,
24, rue Micheli-du-crest,
1211 Geneva 14, Switzerland
e-mail: rene.rizzoli@unige.ch

parameters should be obtained by using several of the above-mentioned techniques. Micro-CT, micro-MRI, and synchrotron also allow the measurement in 3D of the trabecular microstructure in a nondestructive way on bone specimens [3]. In addition, the application of μ CT to bone biopsy specimens has improved assessment of trabecular microstructure because the analysis is truly volumetric and encompasses the entire biopsy sample rather than being limited to several histological sections.

One recently developed noninvasive technique, HR-pQCT (Xtreme CT, Scanco Medical AG, Brüttisellen, Switzerland), can perform human in vivo measurements at peripheral sites including the radius and a weight-bearing site, i.e., the tibia. This technique yields 3D images of sufficiently high resolution ($\sim 82 \mu\text{m}$). The standard HR-pQCT morphological measurement protocol includes a direct measurement of trabecular number (Tb.N), and derived measurements of bone volume ratio (BV/TVd), trabecular thickness (Tb.Th), trabecular separation (Tb.Sp), and cortical thickness (Ct.Th) [15, 16].

Treatment effects: from BMD...

Both anti-resorptive and anabolic interventions affect BMD. The majority of clinical studies on anti-resorptive agents, such as bisphosphonates, denosumab, selective estrogen receptor modulators, and estrogen have shown an increase in BMD that parallels the decreased risk of fracture [17–19]. Raloxifene and alendronate treatments have also been associated with a reduction in vertebral fracture, but the effect on BMD at the femoral neck and spine is less pronounced with treatment with raloxifene (+3%) than alendronate at the spine and trochanter (+8%) [17, 20–22]. However, it has been observed that improvement in spine BMD during treatment with anti-resorptive drugs accounted for a predictable but small part of the observed reduction in the risk of vertebral fracture [23].

In preclinical studies comparing determinants of bone strength, such as BMD, bone external dimensions, and trabecular bone morphology, BMD was systematically investigated and, independently of the laboratories performing the study or of the mammalian species investigated (pig, monkey, rat, mouse), predicted 50–75% of the variation in ultimate strength [1, 24, 25]. BMD measurements are therefore still useful for predicting bone strength.

Strontium ranelate has been shown to significantly increase bone mineral density at the lumbar spine, femoral neck, and total hip, which is significantly related to fracture risk reduction [26–28]. A post-hoc analysis of pooled data from the SOTI and TROPOS studies demonstrated that changes of BMD at the femoral neck after 3 years of

treatment were predictive of vertebral fracture risk reduction, with each 1% increase in femoral neck BMD found to be associated with a 3% reduction in vertebral fracture risk. Changes in BMD thus explained 76% of the fracture risk reduction observed after 3 years of treatment [29]. An increase in femoral neck BMD after 1 year of treatment was also associated with a reduction in new vertebral fractures after 3 years of treatment ($p=0.04$). During 3 years of treatment, femoral neck BMD changes were also associated with hip fracture risk reduction [29] suggesting that femoral neck BMD assessment may be a more appropriate monitoring tool than lumbar spine BMD measurements in strontium ranelate-treated patients.

...to microstructure

A specific analysis of microstructure was performed on 41 bone biopsies obtained from patients participating in the SOTI and TROPOS studies and the biopsies were examined using three-dimensional μ CT [11]. Compared with placebo ($n=21$), biopsies obtained from strontium ranelate-treated patients ($n=20$) demonstrated a significant increase in the number of trabeculae (+14%; $p=0.05$), decrease in trabecular separation (–16%; $p=0.04$) and an increase in cortical thickness (+18%; $p=0.008$). There was also a shift in trabecular structure from rod-like to plate-like configuration resulting in an improved trabecular structural model index and substantially stronger bone in strontium-treated compared with untreated patients (–22%; $p=0.01$) [11]. These changes in trabecular and cortical microstructure are likely to improve the biomechanical properties of bone and contribute to the anti-fracture efficacy observed with strontium ranelate.

In a recent head-to-head longitudinal study, the effects of strontium ranelate and alendronate on microstructure were compared. Eighty-eight women aged 50 or over with postmenopausal osteoporosis were randomized to SR 2 g/day or ALN 70 mg/week for 2 years. Microstructure of weight-bearing distal tibia bone was assessed by the aforementioned HR-pQCT after 3, 6, 12, 18, and 24 months of treatment. Baseline characteristics were similar in both groups: age, 63.7 ± 7.4 years; lumbar and hip T-score, $-2.7 \pm 0.9 \text{ g/cm}^2$ and $-2.0 \pm 0.8 \text{ g/cm}^2$, respectively. After 1 year of treatment, BMD increases were similar to results from pivotal trials (L1–L4, +5.7% and +5.1%; total hip, +3.3% and +2.2%, in SR and ALN groups, respectively). For bone microstructure, mean increases of +5.3% ($p<0.001$) for C.Th, +2.0% ($p=0.002$) for BV/TV and +2.1% ($p=0.002$) for trabecular density were found in the SR group, compared to no change in the ALN group (1.3% $p=0.130$; 0.6% $p=0.725$ and 0.6% $p=0.645$, for corresponding variables, respectively), with thus a significant between-group differ-

ence in favor of SR ($p=0.045$, $p=0.048$ and $p=0.035$, for C.Th, BV/TV, and trabecular density, respectively). Improvement in microstructure was associated in the SR group with significant decrease in heterogeneity of trabecular network ($-3.6\pm 8.6\%$, $p=0.007$). This study demonstrated that strontium ranelate had significantly higher effects than alendronate on distal tibia microstructure including cortical and trabecular variables, in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis after 1 year of treatment [30]. Whether these changes translate into a commensurate reduction in fracture rate should be determined in the future.

Conclusion

BMD remains a good predictor of fracture risk, but many other factors contribute to bone strength, such as bone geometry, cortical thickness, and porosity as well as trabecular bone morphology. Advances in the assessment of bone quality in recent years have provided new insights into bone fragility in both untreated and treated bone disease. As an example, strontium ranelate treatment was associated with improved bone microstructure. The development of new technologies, which now allow in vivo noninvasive evaluation of bone, are important for the longitudinal monitoring of bone quality measurements and it can be envisaged that the HR-pQCT technique will be employed as standard protocol in the future for improved diagnosis and assessing the treatment effects of diseases such as osteoporosis.

Disclosure statement R.R. is a speaker for Amgen, Novartis, Danone, Merck, Roche, Servier, and is a member of the scientific advisory board of Amgen, Danone, Eli Lilly, Nycomed, Servier, Roche, Novartis.

References

1. Ammann P, Rizzoli R, Bonjour JP (1998) Preclinical evaluation of new therapeutic agents for osteoporosis. In: Meunier PJ (ed) Osteoporosis: diagnosis and management. Dunitz, London, pp 257–273
2. Rizzoli R, Bruyere O, Cannata-Andia JB, Devogelaer JP, Lyritis G, Ringe JD, Vellas B, Reginster JY (2009) Management of osteoporosis in the elderly. *Curr Med Res Opin* 25: 2373–2387
3. Delmas PD, Seeman E (2004) Changes in bone mineral density explain little of the reduction in vertebral or nonvertebral fracture risk with anti-resorptive therapy. *Bone* 34:599–604
4. Russell RGG, Espina B, Hulley Ph (2006) Bone biology and the pathogenesis of osteoporosis. *Curr Opin Rheumatol* 18(1): S3–S11
5. Kalpakcioglu BB, Morshed S, Engelke K, Genant HK (2008) Advanced imaging of bone macrostructure and microstructure in bone fragility and fracture repair. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 90(Suppl 1):68–78
6. Genant HK, Engelke K, Prevrhal S (2008) Advanced CT bone imaging in osteoporosis. *Rheumatology (Oxford)* 47(suppl 4):iv9–iv16
7. Bouxsein ML (2009) Measuring bone quality and bone strength. In: Innovation in skeletal medicine. Elsevier-Masson, pp 85–98
8. Bouxsein ML (2008) Technology insight: noninvasive assessment of bone strength in osteoporosis. *Nat Clin Pract Rheumatol* 4 (6):310–318
9. Siris ES, Chen YT, Abbott TA et al (2004) Bone mineral density thresholds for pharmacological intervention to prevent fractures. *Arch Intern Med* 164:1108–1112
10. Schuit SC, van der Klift M, Weel AE et al (2004) Fracture incidence and association with bone mineral density in elderly men and women: the Rotterdam study. *Bone* 34:195–202
11. Arlot ME, Jiang Y, Genant HK et al (2008) Histomorphometric and μ CT analysis of bone biopsies from postmenopausal osteoporotic women treated with strontium ranelate. *J Bone Miner Res* 23:215–222
12. Croucher PI, Garrahan NJ, Compston JE (1996) Assessment of cancellous bone structure: comparison of strut analysis, trabecular bone pattern factor and marrow space star volume. *J Bone Miner Res* 11:955–961
13. Brandi ML (2009) Microarchitecture, the key to bone quality. *Rheumatology* 48:iv3–iv8
14. Järvinen TLN, Sievänen H, Jokihaara J, Einhorn TA (2005) Revival of bone strength: the bottom line. *J Bone Miner Res* 20:717–720
15. Boutroy S, Bouxsein ML, Munoz F, Delmas PD (2005) In vivo assessment of trabecular bone microarchitecture by high-resolution peripheral quantitative computed tomography. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 90:6508–6515
16. Khosla S, Riggs BL, Atkinson EJ, Oberg AL, McDaniel LJ, Holes M et al (2006) Effects of sex and age on bone microstructure at the ultradistal radius: a population-based noninvasive in vivo assessment. *J Bone Miner Res* 21:124–131
17. Ettinger B, Black DM, Mitlak BH et al (1999) Reduction of vertebral fracture risk in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis treated with raloxifene: results from a 3-year randomized clinical trial. Multiple Outcomes of Raloxifene Evaluation (MORE) Investigators. *JAMA* 282:637–645
18. Riggs BL, Melton LJ 3rd (2002) Bone turnover matters: the raloxifene treatment paradox of dramatic decreases in vertebral fractures without commensurate increases in bone density. *J Bone Miner Res* 17:11–14
19. Hochberg MC, Greenspan S, Wasnich RD et al (2002) Changes in bone density and turnover explain the reductions in incidence of nonvertebral fractures that occur during treatment with antiresorptive agents. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 87:1586–1592
20. Liberman UA, Weiss SR, Bröll J, the Alendronate Phase III Osteoporosis Treatment Study Group et al (1995) *N Engl J Med* 333:1437–1443, Effect of oral alendronate on bone mineral density and the incidence of fractures in postmenopausal osteoporosis
21. Black DM, Cummings SR, Karpf DB et al (1996) Randomised trial of effect of alendronate on risk of fracture in women with existing vertebral fractures. Fracture Intervention Trial Research Group. *Lancet* 348:1535–1541
22. Delmas PD, Bjarnason NH, Mitlak BH et al (1997) Effects of raloxifene on bone mineral density, serum cholesterol concentrations, and uterine endometrium in postmenopausal women. *N Engl J Med* 337:1641–1647
23. Cummings SR, Karpf DB, Harris F et al (2002) Improvement in Spine Bone Density and reduction in risk of vertebral fractures during treatment antiresorptive drugs. *Am J Med* 112 (4):281–289

24. Ammann P, Rizzoli R, Meyer JM et al (1996) Bone density and shape as determinants of bone strength in IGF-I and/or pamidronate-treated ovariectomized rats. *Osteoporos Int* 6:219–227
25. Balena R, Toolan BC, Shea M et al (1993) The effects of 2-year treatment with the aminobisphosphonate alendronate on bone metabolism, bone histomorphometry, and bone strength in ovariectomized nonhuman primate. *J Clin Invest* 92:2577–86
26. Blake GM, Lewiecki EM, Kendler DL, Fogelman I (2007) A review of strontium ranelate and its effect on DXA scans. *J Clin Densitom* 10:113–119
27. Blake GM, Fogelman I (2007) The correction of BMD measurements for bone strontium content. *J Clin Densitom* 10:259–265
28. Bruyere O, Roux C, Detilleux J et al (2007) Relationship between bone mineral density changes and fracture risk reduction in patients treated with strontium ranelate. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 92:3076–3081
29. Bruyère O, Roux C, Badurski J et al (2007) Relationship between change in femoral neck bone mineral density and hip fracture incidence during treatment with strontium ranelate. *Curr Med Res Opin* 23:3041–3045
30. Rizzoli R, Felsenberg D, Laroche M et al (2009) Superiority of strontium ranelate as compared to alendronate on microstructural determinants of bone strength at the distal tibia in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis. *Ann Rheum Dis* 68:669