

Portuguese recommendations for the prevention, diagnosis and management of primary osteoporosis – 2018 update

Rodrigues AM^{1,2,3}, Canhão H^{1,4}, Marques A^{5,6}, Ambrósio C⁷, Borges J⁸, Coelho P⁸, Costa L⁹, Fernandes S⁸, Gonçalves I¹⁰, Gonçalves MJ^{11,12}, Guerra M¹³, Marques ML⁵, Pimenta S⁹, Pinto P¹³, Sequeira G¹⁴, Simões E⁸, Teixeira L¹⁵, Vaz C⁹, Vieira-Sousa E^{11,12}, Vieira R¹³, Alvarenga F¹⁰, Araújo F¹⁶, Barcelos A^{7,17}, Barcelos F⁸, Barros R^{11,12}, Bernardes M⁹, Canas da Silva J¹⁵, Cordeiro A⁵, Costa M⁸, Cunha-Miranda L⁸, Cruz M¹⁰, Duarte AC¹³, Duarte C⁵, Faustino A⁸, Figueiredo G¹⁹, Fonseca JE^{11,12}, Furtado C¹⁹, Gomes J¹⁸, Lopes C¹⁸, Mourão AF^{18,20}, Oliveira M²¹, Pimentel-Santos FM^{18,20}, Ribeiro A²², Sampaio da Nóvoa T¹⁹, Santiago M⁵, Silva C⁸, Silva-Dinis^{11,12}, Sousa S¹⁵, Tavares-Costa J²³, Terroso G⁹, Vilar A⁸, Branco JC^{18,20}, Tavares V¹⁵, Romeu JC¹¹, da Silva JAP⁵
on behalf of the Portuguese Society of Rheumatology

ACTA REUMATOL PORT. 2018;43:10-31

ABSTRACT

Background: Advances in osteoporosis (OP) case definition, treatment options, optimal therapy duration and pharmaco-economic evidence in the national context motivated the Portuguese Society of Rheumatology (SPR) to update the Portuguese recommendations for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis published in 2007.

Methods: SPR bone diseases' working group organized meetings involving 55 participants (rheumatologists, rheumatology fellows and one OP specialist

nurse) to debate and develop the document. First, the working group selected 11 pertinent clinical questions for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis in standard clinical practice. Then, each question was investigated through literature review and draft recommendations were built through consensus. When insufficient evidence was available, recommendations were based on experts' opinion and on good clinical practice. At two national meetings, the recommendations were discussed and updated. A draft of the recommendations full text was submitted to critical review among the working

1. EpiDoc Unit, Centro de Estudos de Doenças Crónicas (CEDOC), NOVA Medical School, Universidade Nova de Lisboa (NMS/UNL), Lisboa, Portugal
2. Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade de Lisboa, Lisboa, Portugal
3. Rheumatology Unit, Hospital do Santo Espírito da Ilha Terceira, Açores, Portugal
4. Escola Nacional de Saúde Pública, Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Lisboa Portugal
5. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar e Universitário de Coimbra, Clínica Universitária de Reumatologia, University of Coimbra, Coimbra, Portugal.
6. Coimbra Nursing School, Esenfc, Health Sciences Research Unit: Nursing (UICISA:E), Coimbra, Portugal.
7. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar do Baixo Vouga, E.P.E. Aveiro, Portugal
8. Instituto Português de Reumatologia, Lisboa, Portugal
9. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar de S. João, Porto, Portugal.
10. Consultório Privado de Reumatologia, Portugal
11. Serviço de Reumatologia e Doenças Ósseas Metabólicas, Hospital de Santa Maria, CHLN, Centro Académico de Medicina de Lisboa, Portugal

12. Unidade de Investigação em Reumatologia, Instituto de Medicina Molecular, Faculdade de Medicina, Universidade de Lisboa, Centro Académico de Medicina de Lisboa, Portugal
13. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar Vila Nova de Gaia/Espinho, Vila Nova de Gaia, Portugal
14. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar Universitário do Algarve, Algarve, Portugal
15. Rheumatology Department, Hospital Garcia de Orta, Almada, Portugal
16. Rheumatology Department, Hospital de Sant' Ana
17. Institute of Biomedicina- iBiMED, Aveiro, Portugal
18. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar Lisboa Ocidental (CHLO- E.P.E.) - Hospital Egas Moniz, Lisboa, Portugal
19. Rheumatology Department, Hospital do Divino Espírito Santo, Ponta Delgada, Açores, Portugal
20. Centro de Estudos de Doenças Crónicas (CEDOC), NOVA Medical School, Universidade Nova de Lisboa (NMS/UNL), Lisboa, Portugal
21. Rheumatology Department, Centro Hospitalar Cova da Beira, Covilhã, Portugal
22. Rheumatology Department, Hospital de Braga, Braga, Portugal
23. Rheumatology Department, Unidade Local de saúde do Alto Minho, Hospital Conde de Bertiandos, Ponte de Lima, Portugal

group and suggestions were incorporated. A final version was circulated among all Portuguese rheumatologists before publication and the level of agreement was anonymously assessed using an on-line survey.

Results: The 2018 SPR recommendations provide comprehensive guidance on osteoporosis prevention, diagnosis, fracture risk assessment, pharmacological treatment initiation, therapy options and duration of treatment, based on the best available evidence. They attained desirable agreement among Portuguese rheumatologists. As more evidence becomes available, periodic revisions will be performed.

Target audience and patient population: The target audience for these guidelines includes all clinicians. The target patient population includes adult Portuguese people.

Intended use: These recommendations provide general guidance for typical cases. They may not be appropriate in all situations - clinicians are encouraged to consider this information together with updated evidence and their best clinical judgment in individual cases.

Keywords: Portugal; Fragility fracture; Osteoporosis; Recommendations.

INTRODUCTION

Osteoporosis (OP) is characterized by reduced bone mass and micro-architectural deterioration which results in increased bone fragility and propensity to fracture¹. With the progressive ageing of the population, OP has become one of the most common human diseases worldwide, and a major public health concern. Most individuals are at risk of suffering from OP during their lifetime². Fragility fractures, the main consequence of OP, results in increased morbidity and mortality and represent a major and growing economic burden on health-care systems worldwide^{3,4}. European health authorities estimated, in 2011, that 22 million women and 5.5 million men in the European Union had osteoporosis and that 3.5 million suffered new fragility fractures every year, comprising 610,000 hip fractures, 520,000 vertebral fractures, 560,000 forearm fractures and 1,800,000 other fractures⁵. There is considerable international variability in fracture incidence rate,

which has been attributed to age, socioeconomic status and other factors, frequently obscure, related to geography, as some regions have 3 times higher rates than apparently other similar ones^{6,7}.

In Portugal in 2011-2013, the prevalence of OP in people aged 18+, was estimated at 10.2% (17.0% in women and 2.6% in men)⁸. Altogether, 40,000 osteoporotic fractures are estimated to occur annually in Portugal⁹, including over 10,000 hip fractures, the only type of fractures with truly reliable data in Portugal.¹⁰ This number has been increasing steadily in Portugal (5,600 in 1989; 6,718 in 1994; 8,500 in 2000; 9,523 in 2006; 10,124 in 2011) and this is, most probably, accompanied by a proportional increase in other osteoporotic fractures (vertebral, forearm and humerus)¹⁰⁻¹². Expanding life expectancy is the suggested underlying cause¹³. The incidence of hip fragility fractures in Portugal has been estimated at 154 to 572 per 100,000 women/year and 77 to 232 per 100,000 men¹², one of the lowest in Europe¹³. The social and economic burden imposed by osteoporotic fractures is enormous. The societal cost per each hip fracture in Portugal was estimated at 13,434 euros in the first and 5,985 euros in the second year, following fracture, totalling 216 million euros, taking the incidence and costs of the year 2011. Hip fractures are associated with an absolute excess mortality of 12% in the first year and a sharp drop in quality of life¹⁴. This individual, social and economic load is bound to increase exponentially over the years to come, unless effective preventive measures are put in place.

Over the last decade, several new therapeutic options that effectively decrease the risk of fracture have become available¹⁵, and new evidence has been gathered regarding treatment duration¹⁶. The most relevant current clinical challenge consists in accurately identifying and selecting the individuals that will benefit the most from pharmacological treatment: ie, those whose high risk of fracture can be reduced, in order to minimize individual and societal costs. In fact, the need to base the decision to treat on the estimate of absolute fracture risk is now widely accepted^{17,18}. Several countries have included validated tools for fracture risk assessment in their OP recommendations¹⁹⁻²⁴. The knowledge-based necessary to allow the Portuguese adherence to these modern trends has dramatically increased over recent years: the Portuguese version of the Fracture Risk Assessment Tool (FRAX[®]) was established¹² and

fully validated to the Portuguese population^{14,25}. Furthermore the cost of fractures was studied¹⁴, the cost-effectiveness thresholds for intervention were calculated²⁶ and multidisciplinary recommendations for dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA) request and indication to treat and prevent fragility fractures were issued²⁷. In light of this new knowledge, the SPR decided to update the 2007 recommendations for the treatment of OP²⁸, covering the diagnosis, prevention and management of osteoporosis in the adult population.

These recommendations may not be appropriate in all situations and we encourage clinicians to combine this information, with updated knowledge and their best clinical judgment in individual cases.

CORE BACKGROUND CONCEPTS

Some of the major conceptual changes observed in the field of OP in the last decade reside in: 1. The sedimentation of the notion that the sole aim of treating OP is to prevent fragility fractures; 2. The recognition that the risk of fractures is influenced by numerous clinical and environmental risk factors beyond bone mineral density²⁹⁻³¹. The majority of these factors have been captured in risk prediction tools that are easily accessible and reliable for use in current practice, with emphasis on FRAX[®], the most widely validated and adopted fracture risk prediction tool worldwide³².

This has led to the distinction between two concepts: the diagnostic threshold and the intervention threshold. The diagnosis of OP remains unchanged, based on the threshold of bone mineral density (BMD) T score $\leq -2,5$, as established by World Health Organization (WHO)^{1,33,34}. This, however, does not coincide with the intervention threshold, which should now be based on the absolute risk of fracture, as estimated by the composite consideration of its several determinants, i.e. by the use of fracture risk prediction tools^{17,35}.

METHODS

To develop these recommendations a working group of 55 participants including rheumatologists and rheumatology fellows and one OP specialized nurse was formed. First, the working group selected pertinent clinical questions for the diagnosis, prevention and management of osteoporosis in clinical

practice. A thorough literature review was then performed to address each question. The electronic search was performed in PubMed MEDLINE (2006-2017). The search strategies included the following medical descriptors: "Osteoporosis", "Fragility fractures", "Risk assessment", "Recommendations", "Guidelines", "Treatment", "Bone mineral density", "DXA", "Bone turnover markers" and "Biochemical markers of bone remodelling". Guidelines and systematic literature reviews regarding the diagnosis and management of OP were also scrutinized and their reference lists were checked to assure completeness. After the literature review, the working group elaborated proposals for recommendations that were presented, discussed and revised in two national meetings, using the nominal group technique, and refined through electronic consultation.

A draft document presenting the proposed recommendations and their respective supporting evidence was circulated to the working group of Portuguese rheumatologists, rheumatology fellows and one OP specialized nurse and modifications of format and content were made. Finally, the document circulated among all Portuguese rheumatologists, rheumatology fellows and OP specialized nurse, who anonymously voted online on the level of agreement with each recommendation (total of 88 participants). Agreement was measured on a 10-point numerical rating scale (1=no agreement, 10=full agreement).

RESULTS

To Guide Readers, recommendations are structured around eleven clinically relevant questions:

- Question 1. When should clinicians think of osteoporosis?
- Question 2. How shall clinicians assess the fracture risk of individual patients?
- Question 3. When and how should bone mineral density be measured?
- Question 4. When and how should secondary osteoporosis be suspected and investigated in adults?
- Question 5. Who should be pharmacologically treated for osteoporosis?
- Question 6. How should primary osteoporosis be treated?
- Question 7. How should osteoporosis in men and secondary osteoporosis be managed?
- Question 8. How should the efficacy of osteoporosis

treatment be monitored?

- Question 9. When should drug holiday and therapeutic switch be considered?
- Question 10. Which are the best strategies to prevent osteoporosis in the general population?
- Question 11. When should an osteoporotic patient be referred to a rheumatologist?

Eleven recommendations were formulated, reaching a high level of agreement among Portuguese rheumatologists (Table I).

RECOMMENDATIONS

QUESTION 1. WHEN SHOULD CLINICIANS THINK OF OSTEOPOROSIS?

- **Recommendation 1a. Clinical risk factors for osteoporosis and fragility fractures should be identified and corrected, if possible, throughout life.**
- **Recommendation 1b. The risk of fracture should be regularly assessed and managed in all women and men over the age of 50.**
- **Recommendation 1c. The risk of fracture does not need to be assessed in people <50 years, unless relevant clinical risk factors are present.**

Although osteoporotic fractures typically occur over the age of 55 (wrist) or 75 (hip, humerus), the underlying OP has its roots, as back in life as, the early childhood. In fact, bone health throughout life can be decisively influenced by events affecting bone mass accrual during infancy and adolescence. Peak bone mass, achieved at 18-25 years of age is a major determinant of bone mineral density and bone fragility later in life. It is largely determined by genetic factors, and also by nutrition, physical activity, endocrine status, health status and medication³⁶. The rate of bone mass loss that follows early adulthood and especially the menopause is also influenced by a variety of health and lifestyle dimensions. These clinical risk factors (CRF) have been shown to influence the risk of fracture, independent of the bone mineral density (BMD)³⁷.

Because OP progresses asymptotically until a fragility fracture (low trauma fracture) occurs, all modifiable clinical risk factors for low bone mass peak, fast bone loss and fractures should be kept under clinical scrutiny, especially in those with a family history of OP.

The clinical risk factors for fracture include (but are not limited to):

- Age (>65 years)
- Female gender
- Low body mass index (<18.5Kg/m²)
- Prior fragility fracture
- Parental history of hip fracture
- Long term use of oral glucocorticoids (>5mg of prednisolone per day or equivalent for longer than 3 months)
- Current smoking
- Alcohol intake >3 units/day
- Rheumatoid arthritis and other secondary causes of OP (*diabetes mellitus*, hypogonadism, anorexia nervosa, inflammatory bowel disease, calcium/vitamin D deficiency, hyperparathyroidism), prolonged immobilization and paralysis, medications (anticonvulsants, anticoagulants, proton pump inhibitor and antiretroviral therapy)^{19,20,27,38}
- Frequent falls^{20,39}

Clinical algorithms for fracture risk estimation, such as the FRAX[®], integrate most or all these risk factors, with or without BMD, providing a very convenient and reliable tool to stratify individuals according to risk of fracture and, therefore, to the need of pharmacological intervention⁴⁰. They have only been validated for people age 40+. The typically low fracture risk in generally healthy individuals before the age 50 justifies the age limit indicated in the recommendation for risk fracture assessment.

QUESTION 2. HOW SHALL CLINICIANS ASSESS THE FRACTURE RISK OF INDIVIDUAL PATIENTS?

- **Recommendation 2. Fracture risk assessment for Portuguese individuals should be preferentially based on the use of the FRAX[®] algorithm, as validated for the Portuguese population.**

A FRAX[®] algorithm has been established for the Portuguese population and internationally recognized by – FRAX[®]Port <https://www.shef.ac.uk/FRAX/tool.jsp?lang=pt>). A recent large-scale population-based study demonstrated that this tool has a high validity and predictive value regarding the subsequent occurrence of fragility fractures in the Portuguese population^{25,26}. Evaluation of the clinical risk factors included in FRAX[®], should strictly respect the definitions provided by the tool and available at its website⁴⁰. This algorithm is validated for the general

TABLE I. AGREEMENT RATES OF 2017 OP RECOMMENDATION PORTUGUESE SOCIETY OF RHEUMATOLOGY AMONG RHEUMATOLOGISTS

Recommendation	Votes	Agreement Mean (SD) % score \geq 8
Recommendation 1 1a. Clinical risk factors for osteoporosis and fragility fractures should be identified and corrected, if possible, throughout life 1b. The risk of fracture should be regularly assessed and managed in all women and men over the age of 50 1c. The risk of fracture does not need to be assessed in people <50 years, unless relevant clinical risk factors are present.	88	8.9 (1.3) 90%
Recommendation 2 Fracture risk assessment for Portuguese individuals should be preferentially based on the use of FRAX® algorithm, as validated for the Portuguese population.	88	8.4 (1.8) 75%
Recommendation 3 3a. Bone Mineral Density should be assessed, for clinical purposes, by dual X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) 3b. The decision to perform DXA should be primarily based on the risk of fracture as estimated by clinical risk factors, which can be provided by FRAX®Port. 3c. DXA is warranted in Portugal when FRAX®Port estimates, without DXA, are between 7% and 11% for major osteoporotic fracture AND between 2% AND 3% for hip fracture. 3d. DXA may be, otherwise, justified to evaluate patients with risk factors for osteoporosis not included in FRAX®, to study secondary osteoporosis (table 2) or to evaluate the efficacy of interventions.	88	8.6 (1.2) 85%
Recommendation 4 4a. Secondary Osteoporosis should be suspected in the presence of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – conditions known to induce osteoporosis (Table 2) – fragility fractures occurring before the age of 70 for men or before menopause for women – low Z scores in DXA (\leq-2.0) 4b. Suspected secondary osteoporosis justifies thorough clinical evaluation and appropriate hypothesis-driven investigations.	88	8.8 (1.7) 86%
Recommendation 5 Pharmacological treatment for osteoporosis should be initiated, unless contraindicated, in all subjects over the age of 50 who satisfy one or more of the following criteria: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – \geq 1 fragility fracture of the hip or \geq 1 symptomatic vertebral fragility fracture. – \geq 2 fragility fractures, independently of the site of fracture or the absence of symptoms (e.g. two asymptomatic vertebral fractures). – Estimates of FRAX®Port, without DXA, \geq 11% for major osteoporotic fracture OR \geq 3% for hip fracture – Estimates of FRAX®Port, with DXA, \geq 9% for major osteoporotic fracture OR \geq 2.5% for hip fracture 	88	8.3 (1.7) 79%
Recommendation 6 6.a. Non-pharmacological preventive measures for osteoporosis, designed to correct modifiable relevant clinical risk factors should always be implemented. These include the promotion of healthy diet, regular weight-bearing exercise, adequate calcium intake and sun exposure or supplementation with vitamin D, as well as the prevention of falls, and avoidance of excessive alcohol intake and smoking.	88	8.9 (1.4) 84%

continues on the next page

TABLE I. CONTINUATION

Recommendation	Votes	Agreement Mean (SD) % score \geq 8
6b. Based on cost-effectiveness considerations, the first line treatment for osteoporosis is oral bisphosphonates (namely oral alendronate). 6c. Intravenous zoledronic acid and subcutaneous denosumab should be considered in case of oral intolerance, malabsorption, dementia and non-compliance. Denosumab can also be preferred in case of renal insufficiency. Teriparatide is an option in patients with very high risk of subsequent fracture.		
Recommendation 7 7a. Osteoporosis in men is more often due to comorbidities: special attention should be paid to secondary causes of OP. 7b. Fracture risk assessment and treatment of male primary osteoporosis is similar to that described in women, except for hormone-based medications.	83	9.0 (1.1) 90%
Recommendation 8 8a. Clinical risk factors, occurrence of fractures, body height, and the adherence to lifestyle interventions and medication should be reassessed annually. Vertebral imaging may be performed if necessary. 8b. DXA assessment should not be repeated within less than 2 years, unless clinical risk factors significantly change. Biochemical markers have little role in evaluating the treatment response/adherence in individual patients. 8c. The absence of a new low trauma fracture, the stability or improvement of BMD over >2 years, and a guaranteed adherence to therapy are consistent with a satisfactory course of treatment.	83	8.7 (1.8) 85%
Recommendation 9 9a. Drug holidays should only be considered for bisphosphonates. An interruption of therapy with these agents, for 2 to 3 years, may be considered if the three following conditions are simultaneously verified <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The treatment has been strictly adhered to for at least 5 years with oral or 3 years with intravenous bisphosphonates – No fragility fractures have been observed under treatment – Femoral BMD T Score is >-2.5 9b. Switching anti-osteoporotic therapy should be considered whenever significant adverse events occur or comorbidity emerges that advises reconsideration of the agent being used (eg: newly established renal failure in patients under bisphosphonates). 9c. Stopping anti-osteoporotic therapy should be considered if <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – it is verified that the criteria to recommend its introduction are not met – significant toxicity contraindicates continuation 	83	8.7 (1.2) 85%
Recommendation 10 Healthy diets, adequate sun exposure and regular weight-bearing exercise should be promoted, for bone health, in every stage of life in the general population.	83	8.7 (1.2) 85%
Recommendation 11 A referral to rheumatology should be considered in case of unclear fracture risk assessment, doubts regarding treatment strategies, secondary osteoporosis, inadequate response to therapy or unremitting pain after fracture.	83	9.1 (1.6) 92%

population from 40 to 90 years old who are treatment – naïve for OP.

FRAX[®] has several limitations, which should be considered for clinical decision in individual cases. Among these, we highlight that FRAX[®]: 1. Does not take into account the occurrence of falls as a clinical risk factor; 2. Does not consider vertebral bone mineral density; 3. Does not take into account the dose-dependent and time exposure relationships of clinical risk factors (eg: glucocorticoid dose and duration, number of previous fractures) and fractures.⁴⁰ In addition, the discriminatory value of the FRAX[®] algorithm among some sub groups of patients with high risk of fracture, such as those with chronic kidney disease⁴¹, diabetes⁴², cancer, mental disorders and related medications⁴³ is limited.

QUESTION 3. WHEN AND HOW SHOULD BONE MINERAL DENSITY BE MEASURED?

- **Recommendation 3.a. Bone mineral density should be assessed, for clinical purposes, by dual X-ray absorptiometry (DXA)**
- **Recommendation 3.b. The decision to perform DXA should be primarily based on the risk of fracture as estimated by clinical risk factors, which can be provided by FRAX[®]Port.**
- **Recommendation 3.c. DXA is warranted in Portugal when FRAX[®]Port estimates, without DXA, are between 7% and 11% for major osteoporotic fracture AND between 2% and 3% for hip fracture.**
- **Recommendation 3.d. DXA may be, otherwise, justified to evaluate patients with risk factors for osteoporosis not included in FRAX[®], to study secondary osteoporosis (Table II) or to evaluate the efficacy of interventions.**

These recommendations are rooted on the overarching principles that the decision to make investigations in clinical practice should be based on: 1. The probability that the result will be abnormal; 2. That the result might change subsequent decisions, the decision being, in this case - to treat or not to treat. Prospective studies with DXA have showed that, particularly in old adult women, the risk of fractures approximately doubles for each reduction of one standard deviation (SD) in BMD^{44,45}. However, the diagnostic threshold of a T-score ≤ -2.5 , defined by WHO in 1994, fails to identify a significant number of those who actually suffer a fragility fracture.

BMD values below the osteoporosis diagnostic threshold have high specificity but low sensitivity^{34,44,46}. Clinical risk factors for fractures, which are statistically significant independently of BMD, have been identified^{47,48}. Considered individually, each clinical risk factor also has poor specificity and sensitivity in predicting fracture risk⁴⁷ but combined, they have a performance that is similar to BMD^{19,29,46,49,50}. In fact, the validation study of FRAX[®]-Port²⁵ demonstrated that the accuracy of this tool was very similar, with and without BMD, at group level.

Taken together, the available evidence suggests that, the most efficient way of screening individuals at risk of a fragility fracture, resides in using FRAX tool without BMD^{25,50}. BMD measurement may be justified when the risk estimate is in the vicinity of the lower cost-effective intervention thresholds previously calculated for Portugal (9% for major and 2,5% for hip fractures)²⁶ because, in such cases, the dichotomous decision to treat/not to treat may be changed by consideration of DXA values. For this reason, the Portuguese multidisciplinary recommendations²⁷ endorsed by the SPR, established an uncertainty margin of 2% and 0.5 % around the stated intervention threshold, for major fracture and hip fractures, respectively, which demands the performance of DXA to support the final decision to initiate treatment. It is estimated that the probability that the decision to treat/not to treat, will be changed by DXA, in patients whose prior estimated fracture risk is either above or below the uncertainty margin, is too small to make DXA warranted for these purposes. The width of this uncertainty margin was, however, based solely on expert opinion (Figure 1).

BMD should also be assessed to determine the individual risk of fracture in cases of suspected secondary OP, in the presence of risk factors not included in FRAX tool, and in patients treated with anti-osteoporotic drugs (Table II and Figure 1)^{22,51,52}.

QUESTION 4. WHEN AND HOW SHOULD SECONDARY OSTEOPOROSIS BE SUSPECTED AND INVESTIGATED IN ADULTS?

- **Recommendation 4.A. Secondary osteoporosis should be suspected in the presence of conditions known to induce osteoporosis (Table II) fragility fractures occurring before the age of 70 for men or before menopause for women low Z scores in DXA (≤ -2.0)**

TABLE II. RISK FACTORS FOR BONE FRAGILITY AND SECONDARY CAUSES OF OSTEOPOROSIS

Inflammatory conditions

- Rheumatoid arthritis
- Systemic lupus erythematosus
- Ankylosing spondylitis
- Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis
- Sarcoidosis
- HIV infection

Endocrinopathies or metabolic causes

- Hypercortisolaemia (Cushing's syndrome)
- Hyperthyroidism
- Primary hyperparathyroidism
- Hyperprolactinaemia
- Premature menopause (auto-immune, surgical, drugs)
- Male hypogonadism
- Acromegaly
- Growth hormone deficiency
- Diabetes mellitus type I and II
- Porphyria
- Hypophosphatasia
- Pregnancy

Liver and GI conditions/Nutrition

- Chronic liver disease
- Primary biliary cirrhosis
- Gastrointestinal resection or bypass
- Celiac disease
- Malabsorption
- Lactose intolerance
- Pancreatic insufficiency
- Total parental nutrition
- Alcoholism
- Anorexia Nervosa
- Calcium deficiency

Haematological conditions

- Multiple myeloma and monoclonal gammopathy of unknown significance
- Myeloproliferative disorders
- Systemic mastocytosis
- Thalassemia
- Hemophilia
- Sickle cell anaemia

Kidney diseases

- Chronic kidney disease
- Kidney transplantation
- Idiopathic renal hypercalciuria
- Renal tubular acidosis

Genetic disorders

- Osteogenesis imperfecta
- Marfan's syndrome
- Ehlers–Danlos syndrome
- Homocystinuria
- Pseudoxanthoma elasticum
- Gaucher disease
- Hypophosphatasia
- Haemochromatosis

Drugs

- Glucocorticoids*
- Antiepileptics:*
- Hypoglycaemiants (thiazolidinediones)*
- Lipase inhibitors*
- Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors*
- Excess thyroxine supplementation*
- Aromatase inhibitors*
- Gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists*
- Depot medroxyprogesterone acetate*
- Tamoxifen*
- Chemotherapy*
- Immunosuppressants: cyclosporine, tacrolimus*
- Furosemide*
- Lithium*
- Heparin*
- Proton pump inhibitors*
- Aluminium-containing antacids*
- Antipsychotics*
- Anti-retroviral drugs*

Adapted from Sheu A *et al*, Hofbauer LC and Camacho^{22,51,52}

- **Recommendation 4.B. Suspected secondary osteoporosis justifies thorough clinical evaluation and appropriate hypothesis-driven investigations.**

The reader should be aware that most European and American guidelines for the management of postmenopausal osteoporosis recommend that secondary causes and contributory factors to OP should be

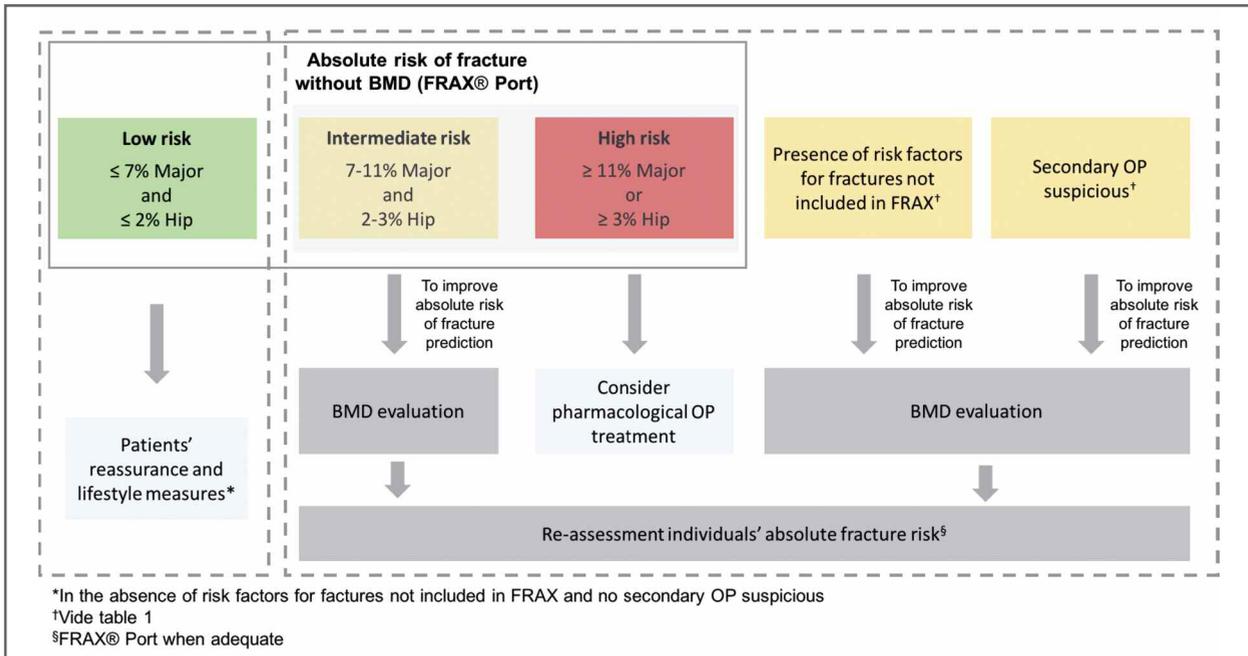


FIGURE 1. Flowchart of fracture risk assessment

searched in every patient with OP, irrespective of the presence or absence of fragility fractures^{19,20,24,53}. Some scenarios are highly suspicious for secondary OP, like fragility fractures occurring in men with less than <70 years old⁵⁴, or in premenopausal women without obvious risk factors for osteoporosis; or multiple low-impact fractures, very low bone mineral density, Z-score ≤ -2.0 , atypical fractures or occurrence of fractures despite anti-osteoporotic therapy^{51,52}.

The causes of secondary OP are numerous, (Table II) but the prevalence of undiagnosed secondary causes of osteoporosis is not well established⁵⁵. In an observational retrospective study from a Fracture Clinic, secondary causes were found to be infrequent (17/499, 3.4%)⁵⁶. The clinical evaluation is aimed to exclude diseases that can mimic osteoporosis (eg osteomalacia) and to elucidate potential causes of OP that may influence management¹⁹. A complete medical history should be collected focusing on endocrine, metabolic and inflammatory disorders associated with altered bone metabolism (including malabsorption syndromes), personal habits (diet, exercise patterns, sun exposure, tobacco and alcohol consumption) and past and present medications capable of interfering with bone metabolism. A family history of bone fragility provides a hint for genetic

contributions towards OP. The clinical factors included in FRAX® provide a general, although not exhaustive, guide for these explorations⁴⁰. Special attention should be given to common medications whose association with OP and fragility fractures is frequently ignored, such as proton pump inhibitors, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, anticonvulsants, thiazolidinediones (diabetes), aromatase inhibitors, tamoxifen, luteinizing hormone releasing hormone (LHRH) analogues (breast cancer) and gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) agonists and antiandrogens (prostate cancer).

Physical examination should pay special attention to low height and/or low body mass index (<18.5 Kg/m²), signs of hypogonadism and presence of kyphosis, joint inflammation, blue sclera and poor dentition.

A basic lab screening for secondary causes of OP should include serum calcium, phosphate, protein electrophoresis, alkaline phosphatase, creatinine, full blood counts, erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR), C-reactive protein (CRP), liver enzymes (alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST), gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase (GGT)), fasting glucose, thyroid (thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH)) and parathyroid (parathyroid hormone (PTH)) function tests. Depending on clinical findings or previous

investigations results, other laboratory tests can be considered with emphasis on serum 25(OH)vitamin D, 24-hour urine calcium, total and free testosterone, luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) (suspected hypogonadism in men), cortisol levels, and anti-transglutaminase (suspected malabsorption).

Primary hyperparathyroidism is one of the most common causes of secondary OP. The diagnosis is primarily biochemical, based on the finding of hypercalcemia together with PTH levels that are high or inappropriately normal relative to serum calcium levels. The clinician should keep in mind that near-normal calcium levels may be found in mild primary hyperparathyroidism: calcium levels should be measured several times and corrected for albumin.⁵⁷

QUESTION 5. WHO SHOULD BE PHARMACOLOGICALLY TREATED FOR OSTEOPOROSIS?

- **Recommendation 5. Pharmacological treatment for osteoporosis should be initiated, unless contraindicated, in all subjects over the age of 50 who satisfy one or more of the following criteria:**
 - **≥1 fragility fracture of the hip or ≥1 symptomatic vertebral fragility fracture.**
 - **≥2 fragility fractures, independently of the site of fracture or the absence of symptoms (e.g. two asymptomatic vertebral fractures).**
 - **Estimates of FRAX®Port, without DXA, ≥ 11% for major osteoporotic fracture OR ≥ 3% for hip fracture**
 - **Estimates of FRAX®Port, with DXA, ≥ 9% for major osteoporotic fracture OR ≥ 2.5% for hip fracture**

- **Estimates of FRAX®Port, with DXA, ≥ 9% for major osteoporotic fracture OR ≥ 2.5% for hip fracture**

The decision to (not) prescribe anti-osteoporotic medications should be based on the individual's ten-year risk of subsequent osteoporotic fracture as estimated by the FRAX®Port tool. The risk-based thresholds for intervention indicated above are based on cost-effectiveness analysis and are applicable to the most affordable treatment scheme: generic alendronate (Figure 2). More expensive medications have higher cost-effective thresholds of intervention (Table III)²⁶. Patients with prior fragility fractures (particularly hip) will have a significantly cost-effective reduction on the risk of subsequent fragility fracture with pharmacologic therapy, independently of their BMD⁵⁸⁻⁶⁶. It is also noteworthy that some international recommendations advise that treatment should be started in the presence of a vertebral deformity grade 2 (ie height loss >25-40%) even if asymptomatic⁶⁷. The reader is made aware that many international recommendations indicate that patients with a DXA T score ≤ -2.5 should also be treated, irrespective of FRAX® and age¹⁹⁻²³. These recommendations were based on the principle that the elevated risk of fracture associated with a T score of -2.5 or less at femoral neck or lumbar spine has showed to be reduced with pharmacological treatment^{61,63,64,66,68-77}. The SPR, in accordance with the

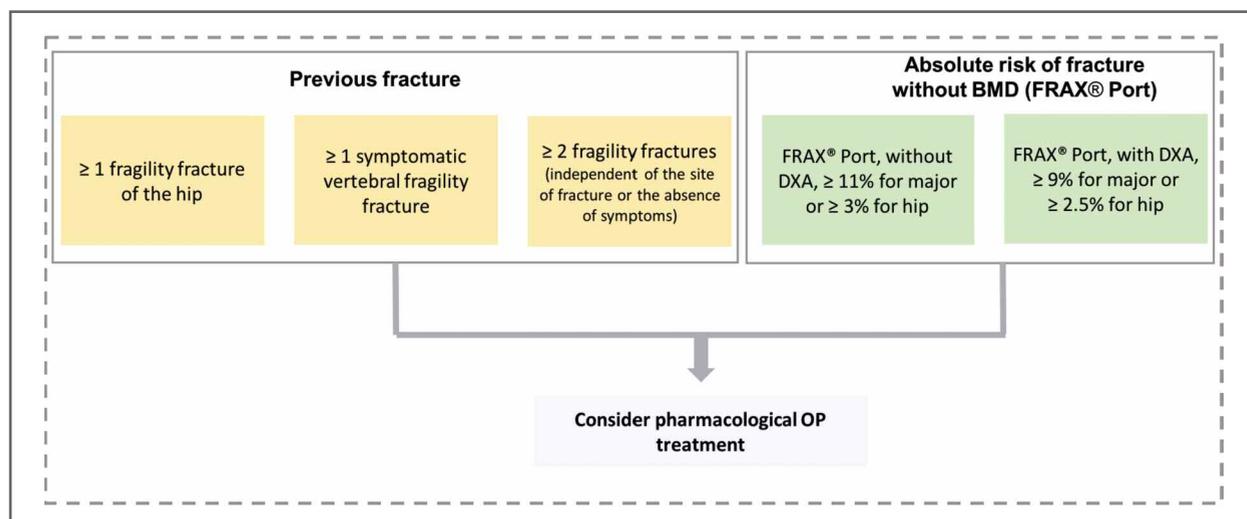


FIGURE 2. Criteria for pharmacological OP treatment

TABLE III. COST-EFFECTIVENESS THRESHOLDS FOR INTERVENTION WITH SEVERAL MEDICATIONS IN PORTUGAL, BASED ON THE FRAX®PORT TEN-YEAR OSTEOPOROTIC FRACTURE RISK ESTIMATE, FOR DIFFERENT MEDICATIONS, BASED ON A WILLINGNESS TO PAY OF 32.000€/QALY AND CURRENT COST OF MEDICATION

	Cost basis/year (€)	Without DXA		With DXA	
		Major %	Hip %	Major %	Hip %
Generic alendronate	99	11	3	9	2.5
Zoledronic acid	347	22	12	20	10
Denosumab	552	37	25	35	23
Teriparatide	4234	80	65	78	63

Adapted from Marques *et al*²⁶.

Portuguese Multidisciplinary Recommendations, does not endorse this policy, because a low BMD is not necessarily associated with a significant risk of fracture, especially in young people^{45,46}.

QUESTION 6. HOW SHOULD PRIMARY OSTEOPOROSIS BE TREATED?

- **Recommendation 6a. Non-pharmacological preventive measures for osteoporosis, designed to correct modifiable relevant clinical risk factors should always be implemented. These include the promotion of a healthy diet, regular weight-bearing exercise, adequate calcium intake and sun exposure or supplementation with vitamin D, as well as the prevention of falls, and avoidance of excessive alcohol intake and smoking.**

Adequate nutrition with a well-balanced diet, sufficient sun exposure and regular weight-bearing exercise are important measures that promote bone health, not only in the general population, but especially in patients with osteoporosis⁷⁹. Several studies have shown that excessive alcohol intake and smoking are deleterious for bone⁸⁰⁻⁸³ and increase the risk of fragility fractures^{48,49}. If adequate intake of calcium cannot be assured through diet, supplementation is indicated up to the recommended daily intake of 1000-1200 mg/day²⁰. The side effects of calcium supplementation include kidney stones and gastrointestinal symptoms. The cardiovascular risk increase due to calcium supplementation is controversial and is considered negligible if associated to vitamin D within the recommended doses⁸⁴⁻⁸⁸. Adequate vitamin D status must be assured in patients with OP and serum 25 (OH) vitamin D should be

measured in patients considered at risk of severe vitamin D deficiency: advanced age, obesity, renal insufficiency, malabsorption, chronic liver failure and exposure to medications that increase breakdown of vitamin D (anticonvulsants, highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) and glucocorticoids)⁸⁹. Vitamin D supplementation (800-2000UI/day or equivalent) should be considered in patients with serum 25(OH)Vitamin D levels below 30ng/ml^{90,91}. All clinical trials with pharmacological therapies for OP were performed while guaranteeing adequate calcium and vitamin D levels through diet, sun exposure or supplementation^{61,63,64,66,68-77}.

- **Recommendation 6b. Based on cost-effectiveness considerations, the first line treatment for osteoporosis is oral bisphosphonates (namely generic oral alendronate).**
- **Recommendation 6c. Intravenous zoledronic acid and subcutaneous denosumab should be considered in case of oral intolerance, malabsorption, dementia and non-compliance. Denosumab can also be preferred in case of renal insufficiency. Teriparatide is an option in patients with very high risk of subsequent fracture.**

The current evidence does not allow a clear distinction between available treatments in terms of their relative efficacy in the prevention of fractures, as demonstrated by network meta-analyses designed to overcome the lack of head-to-head comparisons^{92,93}.

Bisphosphonates are considered the first line of therapy for osteoporosis in several countries^{19,20,23,94,95}. In Portugal, generic oral alendronate is the most cost-

-effective drug available (Table III). The decision to start an anti-osteoporotic treatment with agents other than generic alendronate should be informed by their respective cost-effectiveness thresholds in Portugal (see Table III)²⁶. Alendronate⁵⁸ and risedronate⁶⁰ are oral bisphosphonates that have demonstrated a broad anti-fracture efficacy (for vertebral, non-vertebral and hip fractures), generic alendronate being the less expensive in Portugal. The other available oral bisphosphonate, ibandronate, reduces the incidence of vertebral fractures but its ability to reduce the rate of nonvertebral fractures has not been robustly documented⁵⁹. Annual intravenous infusions of zoledronic acid have also been shown to significantly reduce the incidence of vertebral, non-vertebral and hip fractures⁷⁴. Moreover, zoledronic acid has also been demonstrated to prevent new fractures and decrease mortality after a recent hip fracture⁶⁵.

Denosumab, a monoclonal anti-RANKL antibody, has proven efficacy in the prevention of vertebral, non-vertebral and hip fractures when administered as 6-monthly subcutaneous injections. Unlike bisphosphonates, denosumab has no renal excretion and its use in chronic renal disease seems to be safe and effective⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹. The use of bisphosphonates in osteoporosis patients does not seem to have renal toxicity, but their use in chronic renal insufficiency should be cautious¹⁰⁰. In fact, there is insufficient data about the efficacy of bisphosphonates, raloxifene and teriparatide in preventing fractures in patients with renal insufficiency¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰⁴. Osteonecrosis of the jaw and atypical femoral fractures are extremely rare with the usual doses of bisphosphonates and denosumab^{100,105,106}.

Teriparatide, the N-terminal 34 aminoacids of PTH, stimulates bone formation and is administered subcutaneously, on a daily basis, for 18 to 24 months. The efficacy of teriparatide in reducing the incidence of vertebral and non-vertebral fractures is well established but not in hip fractures¹⁰⁷. Overlapping teriparatide with bisphosphonates or denosumab and continuing an antiresorptive agent after teriparatide therapy seems to optimize the increase of BMD¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹¹. Due to its high cost and daily subcutaneous administration, teriparatide is usually reserved for subjects at very high risk of fragility fractures, namely with several previous fractures¹¹². Unlike the bisphosphonates, both denosumab and teriparatide are followed by an abrupt and rapid bone loss when discontinued, thus requiring careful man-

agement of long-term therapy^{113,114}.

Raloxifene is a selective oestrogen receptor modulator that reduces the incidence of vertebral fractures but not hip or non-vertebral fractures. It has been demonstrated to reduce the risk of invasive breast cancer in postmenopausal women but to increase the risk of stroke and venous thromboembolism¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁸. The recent recommendations of the American College of Physicians explicitly recommend against the use of hormone replacement therapy or raloxifene for the treatment of osteoporosis¹¹⁹.

QUESTION 7. HOW SHOULD WE MANAGE OSTEOPOROSIS IN MEN AND SECONDARY OSTEOPOROSIS?

- **Recommendation 7a. Osteoporosis in men is more often due to comorbidities: special attention should be given to secondary causes of OP.**
- **Recommendation 7b. Fracture risk assessment and treatment of male primary osteoporosis is similar to that described in women, except for hormone-based medications.**

Osteoporosis in men is more often secondary than in women, approximately two thirds of all cases of male osteoporosis, according to some studies¹²⁰. The most common secondary causes of OP in men include hypogonadism, alcohol abuse, multiple myeloma, hyperparathyroidism, malabsorption and glucocorticoid use¹²⁰. For this reason, investigation of secondary causes of osteoporosis is especially warranted in males, as they may significantly influence the treatment strategy.

The overall management strategy for primary osteoporosis in men does not differ from that recommended for women: all risks factors for osteoporosis, fractures and falls should be corrected, as described above. The decision to start anti-osteoporotic medications is based on the same criteria and cost-effectiveness thresholds. Regarding the choice of treatment, data that specifically apply to men are scarce and expectations are extrapolated from studies in females, as the efficacy is expected to be similar in men and women¹²¹. One study demonstrated that treatment with zoledronic acid reduced vertebral fractures in osteoporotic men¹²².

Treatment of secondary osteoporosis largely exceeds the scope of these recommendations, given the variety of conditions and nuances that need to be considered. Interested readers are advised to consult

the most relevant literature to the case at hand¹²³. The recent Italian Guidelines for the diagnosis, prevention and management of osteoporosis²³ provide a wide scope review of numerous conditions. The prevention and treatment of glucocorticoid induced osteoporosis are the object of several dedicated recommendations^{124,125}.

QUESTION 8. HOW SHOULD THE EFFICACY OF OP TREATMENT BE MONITORED?

- **Recommendation 8a. Clinical risk factors, occurrence of fractures, body height, and the adherence to lifestyle interventions and medication should be reassessed annually. Vertebral imaging may be performed if necessary.**
- **Recommendation 8b. DXA assessment should not be repeated within less than 2 years, unless clinical risk factors significantly change. Biochemical markers have little role in evaluating the treatment response/adherence in individual patients.**

Periodic follow-up is important to ensure the adherence to treatment and life-style interventions, monitor adverse events and evaluate the response to treatment^{112,126}. OP patients have a low/moderate adherence to anti-osteoporotic drugs, which leads to a loss of efficacy in fracture prevention^{127,128}. Regular clinical evaluations have demonstrated to increase treatment adherence¹²⁹. During clinical appointment, patients should also be inquired regarding new clinical risk factors, new onset of secondary OP and adverse events related to OP drugs, which may require adjustment of the treatment plan²⁰. To evaluate treatment efficacy, subjects should be asked regarding the occurrence of new fragility fractures. Vertebral imaging should be performed if a new vertebral fracture is suspected^{20,126}.

DXA testing can be advocated to monitor OP treatment efficacy. In fact, pilot studies with anti-osteoporotic drugs have shown a small to moderate relationship between the increase of BMD and the reduction of fracture risk in different trials. However, several studies demonstrate that women treated with bisphosphonates, raloxifene, and teriparatide benefited from reduced rate of fractures even if the BMD did not increase¹³⁰⁻¹³². Accordingly, many experts consider that medication can be expected to be efficient and that the most important task of the clinician in this respect resides in guaranteeing adheren-

ce to evidence-based treatment. The recent recommendations of the American College of Physicians explicitly recommend against bone mineral density monitoring during pharmacologic treatment in women¹¹⁹. In any case, the time interval to repeat DXA must be sufficiently long to allow for detectable changes, which means that DXA assessment should not be repeated within less than 2 years^{19,20,112}.

Bone turnover markers (BTM), namely serum levels of procollagen I N-terminal extension peptide (P1NP) and C-telopeptide break (CTX) are typically reduced after 3-6 months of anti-resorptive therapy and increase after 1-3 months of anabolic therapy^{19,20,112,126,133,134}. Studies have showed that short-term decrease in markers of bone turnover is associated with gains in BMD and with a reduction in the rate of fragility fractures¹³⁵⁻¹⁴⁰. The International Osteoporosis Foundation and the European Calcified Tissue Society¹⁴¹ proposed that BTM should be used as a screening strategy to detect a lack of adherence to bisphosphonates based on the Trio study results¹⁴². However, the serum levels of these markers are extremely variable, depending on several factors not related to bone metabolism, such as diet, time of the day and of the year, concomitant medications, etc. This strongly reduces their value in individual patients, despite the sensitivity to change at the group level. Altogether, we consider that their use in clinical practice is rarely justifiable in agreement with the recent Italian Guidelines explicitly state that "bone markers cannot be used for routine clinical evaluations at present"²³.

- **Recommendation 8c. The absence of new low trauma fractures, the stability or improvement of BMD over >2 years, and a guaranteed adherence to therapy are consistent with a satisfactory course of treatment.**

The available evidence does not support a clear definition of the success or failure of OP treatment. Even the occurrence of a new fragility fracture cannot be taken as a demonstration of treatment failure: another one may have been prevented, as no medication has been shown to prevent all fractures. Despite this, treatment failure was defined by the International Osteoporosis foundation (IOF), based on expert opinion, as the occurrence of an incident fracture after at least 6 months of anti-osteoporotic treatment and/or a decrease in BMD greater than the least

significant change (approximately 5 % at the spine 4% at the femoral neck) over 2 years of treatment¹³³.

QUESTION 9. WHEN SHOULD DRUG HOLIDAY AND THERAPEUTIC SWITCH BE CONSIDERED?

- **Recommendation 9a.** Drug holidays should only be considered for bisphosphonates. An interruption of therapy with these agents, for 2 to 3 years, may be considered if the three following conditions are simultaneously verified
 - The treatment has been strictly adhered to for at least 5 years with oral or 3 years with intravenous bisphosphonates
 - No fragility fractures have been observed under treatment
 - Femoral BMD T Score is >-2.5

This recommendation is similar to that of the American Society for Bone and Mineral Research, which proposes that, in patients who have received bisphosphonates for ≥ 5 years if oral or for ≥ 3 years if intravenous, treatment with bisphosphonates or alternative therapy should be continued for up to ten years in those with hip, spine or multiple other osteoporotic fracture before or during therapy, a hip T-score ≤ -2.5 or FRAX fracture risk score that is above country specific thresholds.¹⁶

Evidence for additional benefit of long-term bisphosphonates is provided by extensions of pivotal studies with alendronate (FLEX study)⁶⁸ and zoledronate (HORIZON extension study)¹⁴³. These studies verified that an additional 5 years treatment with alendronate or additional 3 years with zoledronate was associated with, respectively, fewer clinical vertebral fractures and fewer morphometric spine fractures. The risk of atypical femoral fracture is increased with prolonged therapy, but these events remain rare and are clearly outweighed by vertebral fracture risk reduction in high-risk patients¹⁴⁴. On the other hand, the effects of bisphosphonates on bone persist for at least 2 years after discontinuation of long-term therapy. This allows for the consideration of bisphosphonate holiday in individuals not at high risk^{68,143,145-149}.

Teriparatide is not licensed to use for longer than 24 months, due to fears of osteosarcoma¹¹⁰.

- **Recommendation 9b - Switching anti-osteoporotic therapy should be considered whenever significant adverse events occur or comor-**

idity emerge that advises reconsideration of the agent being used (eg: newly established renal failure in patients under bisphosphonates).

- **Recommendation 9c -Interruption of anti-osteoporotic therapy should be considered if**
 - it is verified that the criteria to recommend its introduction are not met
 - significant toxicity contraindicates continuation

Evidence supporting the switch from bisphosphonate to teriparatide or denosumab is limited to the effect on BMD and bone turnover markers, there being no evidence regarding fracture incidence^{110,150}. Teriparatide should be stopped after 18 to 24 months of treatment¹¹⁰ and should be followed by bisphosphonate or denosumab^{109,111,151}. Age, is not a reason to stop anti-osteoporotic therapy given that the risk of fractures steadily increases with age².

QUESTION 10. WHAT ARE THE BEST STRATEGIES TO PREVENT OSTEOPOROSIS IN THE GENERAL POPULATION?

- **Recommendation 10.** Healthy diet, adequate sun exposure and regular weight-bearing exercise should be promoted, for bone health, in every stage of life, in the general population.

Genetic factors account for 60 to 80% of the peak bone mass, but there is evidence that lifestyle factors, like adequate nutrition and regular weight-bearing exercise, are essential to achieve the genetic potential and have a positive effect in bone mass accrual in childhood and adolescence³⁶. A 10% increase in peak bone mass has been predicted to delay the development of osteoporosis by 13 years^{36,152}. The same lifestyle factors are advocated to prevent premature or accelerated bone mass in adults and old adults, although the evidence that these interventions will reduce fracture risk at any age is limited¹⁵².

A well-balanced diet should provide adequate amounts of calcium, vitamin D and proteins, as well as other elements that are important for bone health (e.g. zinc, manganese, vitamin A, vitamin C, vitamin K, complex B vitamin, potassium and sodium)¹⁵².

Recommended dietary allowances for calcium and vitamin D vary according to age group, gender and special situations. National recommendations for a healthy nutrition have been issued by the Direc-

torate-General of Health of the European Union and should be followed^{9,153}. Dairy products are the main dietary source of calcium due to their high calcium content and bioavailability, providing also other important nutrients. Three servings of dairy products per day (milk, cheese or yogurt) deliver most of the recommended calcium intake for the general population⁹. Bioavailability of calcium provided by non-dairy sources is reduced and it may be impossible to meet recommendations in a dairy-free diet⁹. Calcium supplements may be an alternative if dietary intake is insufficient. Head-to-head studies have shown that increments in bone mass are higher with dietary calcium than with supplements⁹. There is an ongoing debate over the negative role of calcium (dietary or supplements) in cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, kidney stones and prostate cancer, as well as its positive effect in hypertension, colorectal cancer, preeclampsia and weight management⁸⁴. For these reasons, we recommend that calcium intake should be mostly dietary and within recommended allowances. Supplements should only be considered for patients with OP under pharmacological treatment or subjects unable to have an adequate calcium intake through diet.

Vitamin D is essential for bone development and maintenance throughout life, and it also has an important role in muscle, improving strength and function⁸⁹. Vitamin D is obtained primarily from sun exposure, as the relevant dietary sources are very few (fresh or canned oily fish, cod liver oil, egg yolk)⁸⁹. Skin mediated production varies greatly with age, skin type, latitude, time of day and season and use of sunscreen products. Supplementation of vitamin D may be considered in special situations (namely OP subjects under pharmacological treatment) and is recommended by the Directorate General of Health for those over 65 years of age^{9,90}. The currently recommended intake of vitamin D in adults varies from 600 to 6000 UI/day, according to age, gender and body mass index^{89,154}.

There is strong evidence that exercise begun early in life contributes to higher peak bone mass. The importance of physical exercise in adults lies not only in the potential to reduce bone loss and improve muscle strength, but also in helping to prevent falls by enhancing coordination, balance and posture. Resistance training and weight-bearing exercises are the most beneficial for bone mass (ie, dancing, jogging, climbing stairs)^{155,156}.

Finally, excessive alcohol intake (more than 3 units/day for men and 2 units/day for women) and smoking are deleterious for bone and considered clinical risk factors for fractures. Excessive alcohol intake and smoking should be avoided in order to prevent osteoporosis^{40,155}.

QUESTION 11. WHEN SHOULD AN OSTEOPOROTIC PATIENT BE REFERRED TO A RHEUMATOLOGIST?

- **Recommendation 11.** *A referral to rheumatology should be considered in case of unclear fracture risk assessment, doubts regarding treatment strategies, secondary osteoporosis, inadequate response to therapy or unremitting pain after fracture.*

Rheumatologists provide care for patients with OP in a cost-efficient, evidence-based and patient centered approach. The main aim in the treatment of an OP patient is to prevent a fragility fracture, improve quality of life and prevent disability. Rheumatologists work in a variety of settings in the hospital, namely outpatient office, infusion center and inpatient clinic. In addition, they are intensively trained and experienced in the diagnosis and management of complex cases of osteoporosis. OP patients should be referred to a rheumatologist when there is an inadequate response to therapy, which is indicated by significant loss of BMD or occurrence of fragility fracture in patients with good compliance to appropriate therapy, as defined in recommendation 8c.

In selected cases, referral may also be indicated if the caring physician is uncertain about the absolute risk of fracture, about the secondary nature of osteoporosis or the most appropriate treatment. This may also be justified to reassure patients who feel anxious or disturbed by the diagnosis or its management.

Referral should be based on appropriate information, including a clear expression of the questions to be addressed and all clinically pertinent information, such as current and previous medications, FRAX[®] estimates and relevant medical history, imaging and lab results.

AREAS WHERE EVIDENCE IS LACKING

In the present OP recommendations, the SPR recommends FRAX[®] algorithm to evaluate individuals absolute risk of fracture. A recent randomized controlled trial revealed that FRAX[®] algo-

rithm is a feasible and effective screening tool in reducing hip fractures¹⁵⁷. However, it is important to note that evidence linking FRAX® scores to treatment efficacy is lacking¹⁵⁸. In addition, comparative effectiveness trials evaluating pharmacologic treatments for low bone density or osteoporosis and high risk of fracture patients are also lacking¹¹⁹.

CONCLUSION

This article presents the 2018 update of the Portuguese recommendations for diagnosis and management of OP in adults. They are meant to provide a valid guide on OP diagnosis, fracture risk assessment, pharmacological treatment decision, therapeutic options and duration, informed by national evidence and circumstances. These recommendations may not be appropriate in all situations and we encourage clinicians to use this information together with their best clinical judgment in the individual case.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

None of the authors report conflicts of interest

CORRESPONDENCE TO

José António Pereira da Silva
Reumatologia
Centro Hospitalar e Universitário de Coimbra
3000-075 Coimbra
jdasilva@chuc.min-saude.pt

REFERENCES

1. Kanis JA, Melton LJ, Christiansen C, Johnston CC, Khaltaev N. The diagnosis of osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res.* 1994;9(8): 1137-1141.
2. Kanis JA. Diagnosis of osteoporosis and assessment of fracture risk. *Lancet.* 2002;359(9321):1929-1936.
3. Bliuc D, Nguyen ND, Nguyen TV, Eisman JA, Center JR. Compound risk of high mortality following osteoporotic fracture and refracture in elderly women and men. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2013;28(11):2317-2324.
4. Frost SA, Nguyen ND, Center JR, Eisman JA, Nguyen TV. Excess mortality attributable to hip-fracture: a relative survival analysis. *Bone.* 2013;56(1):23-29.
5. Hernlund E, Svedbom A, Ivergard M, et al. Osteoporosis in the European Union: medical management, epidemiology and economic burden. A report prepared in collaboration with the International Osteoporosis Foundation (IOF) and the European Federation of Pharmaceutical Industry Associations (EFPIA). *Archives of osteoporosis.* 2013;8(1-2):136.
6. de Pina MF, Alves SM, Barbosa M, Barros H. Hip fractures cluster in space: an epidemiological analysis in Portugal. *Osteoporosis international : a journal established as result of cooperation between the European Foundation for Osteoporosis and the National Osteoporosis Foundation of the USA.* 2008;19(12):1797-1804.
7. Oliveira CM, Alves SM, Pina MF. Marked socioeconomic inequalities in hip fracture incidence rates during the Bone and Joint Decade (2000-2010) in Portugal: age and sex temporal trends in a population based study. *Journal of epidemiology and community health.* 2016;70(8):755-763.
8. Branco JC, Rodrigues AM, Gouveia N, et al. Prevalence of rheumatic and musculoskeletal diseases and their impact on health-related quality of life, physical function and mental health in Portugal: results from EpiReumaPt- a national health survey. *RMD Open.* 2016;2(1): e000166.
9. Circular Normativa Direção Geral da Saúde - Orientação técnica sobre suplemento de Cálcio e Vitamina D em pessoas idosas. Nº: 13/DSCS/DPCD/ DSQC Ad.
10. Marques A, Lourenco O, da Silva JA. The burden of osteoporotic hip fractures in Portugal: costs, health related quality of life and mortality. *Osteoporosis international : a journal established as result of cooperation between the European Foundation for Osteoporosis and the National Osteoporosis Foundation of the USA.* 2015.
11. Branco JC, Felicissimo P, Monteiro J. [Epidemiology of hip fractures and its social and economic impact. A revision of severe osteoporosis current standard of care]. *Acta reumatologica portuguesa.* 2009;34(3):475-485.
12. Marques A, Mota A, Canhao H, et al. A FRAX model for the estimation of osteoporotic fracture probability in Portugal. *Acta Reumatol Port.* 2013;38(2):104-112.
13. Kanis JA, Oden A, McCloskey EV, et al. A systematic review of hip fracture incidence and probability of fracture worldwide. *Osteoporos Int.* 2012;23(9):2239-2256.
14. Marques A, Lourenco O, da Silva JA, Portuguese Working Group for the Study of the Burden of Hip Fractures in P. The burden of osteoporotic hip fractures in Portugal: costs, health related quality of life and mortality. *Osteoporos Int.* 2015;26(11):2623-2630.
15. Rachner TD, Khosla S, Hofbauer LC. Osteoporosis: now and the future. *Lancet.* 2011;377(9773):1276-1287.
16. Adler RA, El-Hajj Fuleihan G, Bauer DC, et al. Managing Osteoporosis in Patients on Long-Term Bisphosphonate Treatment: Report of a Task Force of the American Society for Bone and Mineral Research. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2016;31(10):1910.
17. Rubin KH, Abrahamsen B, Friis-Holmberg T, et al. Comparison of different screening tools (FRAX(R), OST, ORAI, OSIRIS, SCORE and age alone) to identify women

- with increased risk of fracture. A population-based prospective study. *Bone*. 2013;56(1):16-22.
18. Wright NC, Saag KG, Dawson-Hughes B, Khosla S, Siris ES. The impact of the new National Bone Health Alliance (NBHA) diagnostic criteria on the prevalence of osteoporosis in the United States: supplementary presentation. *Osteoporos Int*. 2017;28(11):3283-3284.
 19. Kanis JA, McCloskey EV, Johansson H, et al. European guidance for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis in postmenopausal women. *Osteoporos Int*. 2013;24(1):23-57.
 20. Cosman F, de Beur SJ, LeBoff MS, et al. Clinician's Guide to Prevention and Treatment of Osteoporosis. *Osteoporos Int*. 2014;25(10):2359-2381.
 21. Papaioannou A, Morin S, Cheung AM, et al. 2010 clinical practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis in Canada: summary. *CMAJ*. 2010;182(17):1864-1873.
 22. Camacho PM, Petak SM, Binkley N, et al. American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists and American College of Endocrinology Clinical Practice Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Postmenopausal Osteoporosis - 2016. *Endocr Pract*. 2016;22(Suppl 4):1-42.
 23. Rossini M, Adami S, Bertoldo F, et al. Guidelines for the diagnosis, prevention and management of osteoporosis. *Reumatismo*. 2016;68(1):1-39.
 24. Tarantino U, Iolascon G, Cianferotti L, et al. Clinical guidelines for the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis: summary statements and recommendations from the Italian Society for Orthopaedics and Traumatology. *J Orthop Traumatol*. 2017;18(Suppl 1):3-36.
 25. Marques A, Lucas R, Simoes E, Verstappen SMM, Jacobs JWG, da Silva JAP. Do we need bone mineral density to estimate osteoporotic fracture risk? A 10-year prospective multicentre validation study. *RMD Open*. 2017;3(2):e000509.
 26. Marques A, Lourenco O, Ortsater G, Borgstrom F, Kanis JA, da Silva JA. Cost-Effectiveness of Intervention Thresholds for the Treatment of Osteoporosis Based on FRAX((R)) in Portugal. *Calcif Tissue Int*. 2016;99(2):131-141.
 27. Marques A, Rodrigues AM, Romeu JC, et al. Multidisciplinary Portuguese recommendations on DXA request and indication to treat in the prevention of fragility fractures. *Acta Reumatol Port*. 2016;41(4):305-321.
 28. Tavares V, Canhao H, Gomes JA, et al. [Recommendations for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis]. *Acta Reumatol Port*. 2007;32(1):49-59.
 29. Kanis JA, Oden A, Johnell O, et al. The use of clinical risk factors enhances the performance of BMD in the prediction of hip and osteoporotic fractures in men and women. *Osteoporos Int*. 2007;18(8):1033-1046.
 30. Hippisley-Cox J, Coupland C. Predicting risk of osteoporotic fracture in men and women in England and Wales: prospective derivation and validation of QFractureScores. *BMJ*. 2009;339:b4229.
 31. Schuit SC, van der Klift M, Weel AE, et al. Fracture incidence and association with bone mineral density in elderly men and women: the Rotterdam Study. *Bone*. 2004;34(1):195-202.
 32. Marques A, Ferreira RJ, Santos E, Loza E, Carmona L, da Silva JA. The accuracy of osteoporotic fracture risk prediction tools: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2015;74(11):1958-1967.
 33. Genant HK, Cooper C, Poor G, et al. Interim report and recommendations of the World Health Organization Task-Force for Osteoporosis. *Osteoporos Int*. 1999;10(4):259-264.
 34. Organization WH. Assessment of fracture risk and its application to screening for postmenopausal osteoporosis. WHO Technical Report Series 1994;843.
 35. Rubin KH, Friis-Holmberg T, Hermann AP, Abrahamson B, Brixen K. Risk assessment tools to identify women with increased risk of osteoporotic fracture: complexity or simplicity? A systematic review. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2013;28(8):1701-1717.
 36. Farr JN, Khosla S. Skeletal changes through the lifespan—from growth to senescence. *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2015;11(9):513-521.
 37. Kanis JA, Adachi JD, Cooper C, et al. Standardising the descriptive epidemiology of osteoporosis: recommendations from the Epidemiology and Quality of Life Working Group of IOF. *Osteoporos Int*. 2013;24(11):2763-2764.
 38. Lentle B, Cheung AM, Hanley DA, et al. Osteoporosis Canada 2010 guidelines for the assessment of fracture risk. *Can Assoc Radiol J*. 2011;62(4):243-250.
 39. Blain H, Masud T, Dargent-Molina P, et al. A comprehensive fracture prevention strategy in older adults: the European Union Geriatric Medicine Society (EUGMS) statement. *Aging Clin Exp Res*. 2016;28(4):797-803.
 40. Kanis JA, Hans D, Cooper C, et al. Interpretation and use of FRAX in clinical practice. *Osteoporos Int*. 2011;22(9):2395-2411.
 41. Jamal SA, West SL, Nickolas TL. The clinical utility of FRAX to discriminate fracture status in men and women with chronic kidney disease. *Osteoporos Int*. 2014;25(1):71-76.
 42. Majumdar SR, Leslie WD, Lix LM, et al. Longer Duration of Diabetes Strongly Impacts Fracture Risk Assessment: The Manitoba BMD Cohort. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2016;101(11):4489-4496.
 43. Bolton JM, Morin SN, Majumdar SR, et al. Association of Mental Disorders and Related Medication Use With Risk for Major Osteoporotic Fractures. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2017;74(6):641-648.
 44. Johnell O, Kanis JA, Oden A, et al. Predictive value of

- BMD for hip and other fractures. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2005;20(7):1185-1194.
45. Marshall D, Johnell O, Wedel H. Meta-analysis of how well measures of bone mineral density predict occurrence of osteoporotic fractures. *BMJ.* 1996;312(7041):1254-1259.
 46. Johansson H, Kanis JA, Oden A, Johnell O, McCloskey E. BMD, clinical risk factors and their combination for hip fracture prevention. *Osteoporos Int.* 2009;20(10):1675-1682.
 47. Cummings SR, Nevitt MC, Browner WS, et al. Risk factors for hip fracture in white women. Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group. *N Engl J Med.* 1995;332(12):767-773.
 48. Kanis JA, Johansson H, Johnell O, et al. Alcohol intake as a risk factor for fracture. *Osteoporos Int.* 2005;16(7):737-742.
 49. Kanis JA, Johnell O, Oden A, et al. Smoking and fracture risk: a meta-analysis. *Osteoporos Int.* 2005;16(2):155-162.
 50. Leslie WD, Morin S, Lix LM, et al. Fracture risk assessment without bone density measurement in routine clinical practice. *Osteoporos Int.* 2012;23(1):75-85.
 51. Hofbauer LC, Hamann C, Ebeling PR. Approach to the patient with secondary osteoporosis. *Eur J Endocrinol.* 2010;162(6):1009-1020.
 52. Sheu A, Diamond T. Secondary osteoporosis. *Aust Prescr.* 2016;39(3):85-87.
 53. Compston J, Cooper A, Cooper C, et al. Guidelines for the diagnosis and management of osteoporosis in postmenopausal women and men from the age of 50 years in the UK. *Maturitas.* 2009;62(2):105-108.
 54. Watts NB, Adler RA, Bilezikian JP, et al. Osteoporosis in men: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2012;97(6):1802-1822.
 55. Painter SE, Kleerekoper M, Camacho PM. Secondary osteoporosis: a review of the recent evidence. *Endocr Pract.* 2006;12(4):436-445.
 56. van Veenendaal LM, de Klerk G, van der Velde D. A painful finger as first sign of a malignancy. *Geriatr Orthop Surg Rehabil.* 2014;5(1):18-20.
 57. Bilezikian JP, Brandi ML, Eastell R, et al. Guidelines for the management of asymptomatic primary hyperparathyroidism: summary statement from the Fourth International Workshop. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;99(10):3561-3569.
 58. Black DM, Cummings SR, Karpf DB, et al. Randomised trial of effect of alendronate on risk of fracture in women with existing vertebral fractures. Fracture Intervention Trial Research Group. *Lancet.* 1996;348(9041):1535-1541.
 59. Chesnut CH, 3rd, Skag A, Christiansen C, et al. Effects of oral ibandronate administered daily or intermittently on fracture risk in postmenopausal osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2004;19(8):1241-1249.
 60. Harris ST, Watts NB, Genant HK, et al. Effects of risedronate treatment on vertebral and nonvertebral fractures in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis: a randomized controlled trial. Vertebral Efficacy With Risedronate Therapy (VERT) Study Group. *JAMA.* 1999;282(14):1344-1352.
 61. Reginster J, Minne HW, Sorensen OH, et al. Randomized trial of the effects of risedronate on vertebral fractures in women with established postmenopausal osteoporosis. Vertebral Efficacy with Risedronate Therapy (VERT) Study Group. *Osteoporos Int.* 2000;11(1):83-91.
 62. Kanis JA, Barton IP, Johnell O. Risedronate decreases fracture risk in patients selected solely on the basis of prior vertebral fracture. *Osteoporos Int.* 2005;16(5):475-482.
 63. Cummings SR, San Martin J, McClung MR, et al. Denosumab for prevention of fractures in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;361(8):756-765.
 64. Neer RM, Arnaud CD, Zanchetta JR, et al. Effect of parathyroid hormone (1-34) on fractures and bone mineral density in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344(19):1434-1441.
 65. Lyles KW, Colon-Emeric CS, Magaziner JS, et al. Zoledronic acid and clinical fractures and mortality after hip fracture. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357(18):1799-1809.
 66. Black DM, Thompson DE, Bauer DC, et al. Fracture risk reduction with alendronate in women with osteoporosis: the Fracture Intervention Trial. FIT Research Group. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2000;85(11):4118-4124.
 67. Johansson H, Oden A, McCloskey EV, Kanis JA. Mild morphometric vertebral fractures predict vertebral fractures but not non-vertebral fractures. *Osteoporos Int.* 2014;25(1):235-241.
 68. Black DM, Schwartz AV, Ensrud KE, et al. Effects of continuing or stopping alendronate after 5 years of treatment: the Fracture Intervention Trial Long-term Extension (FLEX): a randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2006;296(24):2927-2938.
 69. Bone HG, Hosking D, Devogelaer JP, et al. Ten years' experience with alendronate for osteoporosis in postmenopausal women. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;350(12):1189-1199.
 70. Miller PD, McClung MR, Macovei L, et al. Monthly oral ibandronate therapy in postmenopausal osteoporosis: 1-year results from the MOBILE study. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2005;20(8):1315-1322.
 71. Reginster JY, Adami S, Lakatos P, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of once-monthly oral ibandronate in postmenopausal osteoporosis: 2 year results from the MOBILE study. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2006;65(5):654-661.
 72. Eisman JA, Civitelli R, Adami S, et al. Efficacy and tole-

- rability of intravenous ibandronate injections in postmenopausal osteoporosis: 2-year results from the DIVA study. *J Rheumatol.* 2008;35(3):488-497.
73. McClung MR, Geusens P, Miller PD, et al. Effect of risedronate on the risk of hip fracture in elderly women. Hip Intervention Program Study Group. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344(5):333-340.
 74. Black DM, Delmas PD, Eastell R, et al. Once-yearly zoledronic acid for treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;356(18):1809-1822.
 75. Sorensen OH, Crawford GM, Mulder H, et al. Long-term efficacy of risedronate: a 5-year placebo-controlled clinical experience. *Bone.* 2003;32(2):120-126.
 76. Rossouw JE, Anderson GL, Prentice RL, et al. Risks and benefits of estrogen plus progestin in healthy postmenopausal women: principal results From the Women's Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2002;288(3):321-333.
 77. Anderson GL, Limacher M, Assaf AR, et al. Effects of conjugated equine estrogen in postmenopausal women with hysterectomy: the Women's Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2004;291(14):1701-1712.
 78. Cummings SR, Black DM, Thompson DE, et al. Effect of alendronate on risk of fracture in women with low bone density but without vertebral fractures: results from the Fracture Intervention Trial. *JAMA.* 1998;280(24):2077-2082.
 79. Abrahamsen B, Brask-Lindemann D, Rubin KH, Schwarz P. A review of lifestyle, smoking and other modifiable risk factors for osteoporotic fractures. *Bonekey Rep.* 2014;3:574.
 80. Rodrigues AM, Caetano-Lopes J, Vale AC, et al. Smoking is a predictor of worse trabecular mechanical performance in hip fragility fracture patients. *J Bone Miner Metab.* 2012;30(6):692-699.
 81. Maddalozzo GF, Turner RT, Edwards CH, et al. Alcohol alters whole body composition, inhibits bone formation, and increases bone marrow adiposity in rats. *Osteoporos Int.* 2009;20(9):1529-1538.
 82. Maurel DB, Boisseau N, Benhamou CL, Jaffre C. Alcohol and bone: review of dose effects and mechanisms. *Osteoporos Int.* 2012;23(1):1-16.
 83. Yoon V, Maalouf NM, Sakhaee K. The effects of smoking on bone metabolism. *Osteoporos Int.* 2012;23(8):2081-2092.
 84. Harvey NC, Biver E, Kaufman JM, et al. The role of calcium supplementation in healthy musculoskeletal ageing : An expert consensus meeting of the European Society for Clinical and Economic Aspects of Osteoporosis, Osteoarthritis and Musculoskeletal Diseases (ESCEO) and the International Foundation for Osteoporosis (IOF). *Osteoporos Int.* 2017;28(2):447-462.
 85. Bolland MJ, Grey A, Avenell A, Gamble GD, Reid IR. Calcium supplements with or without vitamin D and risk of cardiovascular events: reanalysis of the Women's Health Initiative limited access dataset and meta-analysis. *BMJ.* 2011;342:d2040.
 86. Bolland MJ, Barber PA, Doughty RN, et al. Vascular events in healthy older women receiving calcium supplementation: randomised controlled trial. *BMJ.* 2008;336(7638):262-266.
 87. Lewis JR, Zhu K, Prince RL. Adverse events from calcium supplementation: relationship to errors in myocardial infarction self-reporting in randomized controlled trials of calcium supplementation. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2012;27(3):719-722.
 88. Lewis JR, Radavelli-Bagatini S, Rejnmark L, et al. The effects of calcium supplementation on verified coronary heart disease hospitalization and death in postmenopausal women: a collaborative meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2015;30(1):165-175.
 89. Holick MF. Vitamin D deficiency. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357(3):266-281.
 90. Rizzoli R, Boonen S, Brandi ML, et al. Vitamin D supplementation in elderly or postmenopausal women: a 2013 update of the 2008 recommendations from the European Society for Clinical and Economic Aspects of Osteoporosis and Osteoarthritis (ESCEO). *Curr Med Res Opin.* 2013;29(4):305-313.
 91. LeBlanc ES, Chou R, Pappas M. Screening for vitamin D deficiency. *Ann Intern Med.* 2015;162(10):738.
 92. Murad MH, Drake MT, Mullan RJ, et al. Clinical review. Comparative effectiveness of drug treatments to prevent fragility fractures: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2012;97(6):1871-1880.
 93. Freemantle N, Cooper C, Diez-Perez A, et al. Results of indirect and mixed treatment comparison of fracture efficacy for osteoporosis treatments: a meta-analysis. *Osteoporos Int.* 2013;24(1):209-217.
 94. Perez Edo L, Alonso Ruiz A, Roig Vilaseca D, et al. [2011 Up-date of the consensus statement of the Spanish Society of Rheumatology on osteoporosis]. *Reumatol Clin.* 2011;7(6):357-379.
 95. Lems WF, Dreinhofer KE, Bischoff-Ferrari H, et al. EULAR/EFORT recommendations for management of patients older than 50 years with a fragility fracture and prevention of subsequent fractures. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2017;76(5):802-810.
 96. Jamal SA, Ljunggren O, Stehman-Breen C, et al. Effects of denosumab on fracture and bone mineral density by level of kidney function. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2011;26(8):1829-1835.
 97. Hiramatsu R, Ubara Y, Sawa N, et al. Denosumab for low bone mass in hemodialysis patients: a noncontrolled trial. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2015;66(1):175-177.

98. Festuccia F, Jafari MT, Moioli A, et al. Safety and efficacy of denosumab in osteoporotic hemodialysed patients. *J Nephrol*. 2017;30(2):271-279.
99. Schipper LG, Fleuren HW, van den Bergh JP, Meinardi JR, Veldman BA, Kramers C. Treatment of osteoporosis in renal insufficiency. *Clin Rheumatol*. 2015;34(8):1341-1345.
100. Boonen S, Sellmeyer DE, Lippuner K, et al. Renal safety of annual zoledronic acid infusions in osteoporotic postmenopausal women. *Kidney Int*. 2008;74(5):641-648.
101. Warriner AH, Outman RC, Saag KG, et al. Management of osteoporosis among home health and long-term care patients with a prior fracture. *South Med J*. 2009;102(4):397-404.
102. Jamal SA, Bauer DC, Ensrud KE, et al. Alendronate treatment in women with normal to severely impaired renal function: an analysis of the fracture intervention trial. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2007;22(4):503-508.
103. Ishani A, Blackwell T, Jamal SA, Cummings SR, Ensrud KE, Investigators M. The effect of raloxifene treatment in postmenopausal women with CKD. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2008;19(7):1430-1438.
104. Miller PD, Schwartz EN, Chen P, Misurski DA, Krege JH. Teriparatide in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis and mild or moderate renal impairment. *Osteoporos Int*. 2007;18(1):59-68.
105. FDA U.S. Food and Drug Administration: protecting and promoting your health. Update of safety review follow-up to the October 1, 2007 early communication about the ongoing safety review of bisphosphonates. In. Silver Spring (MD): FDA U.S. Food and Drug Administration; 2008.
106. Kyrgidis A, Toulis KA. Denosumab-related osteonecrosis of the jaws. *Osteoporos Int*. 2011;22(1):369-370.
107. Abrahamsen B, Jorgensen HL, Laulund AS, et al. The excess risk of major osteoporotic fractures in hypothyroidism is driven by cumulative hyperthyroid as opposed to hypothyroid time: an observational register-based time-resolved cohort analysis. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2015;30(5):898-905.
108. Muschitz C, Kocijan R, Fahrleitner-Pammer A, et al. Overlapping and continued alendronate or raloxifene administration in patients on teriparatide: effects on areal and volumetric bone mineral density—the CONFORS Study. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2014;29(8):1777-1785.
109. Cosman F, Eriksen EF, Recknor C, et al. Effects of intravenous zoledronic acid plus subcutaneous teriparatide [rhPTH(1-34)] in postmenopausal osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2011;26(3):503-511.
110. Cosman F, Wermers RA, Recknor C, et al. Effects of teriparatide in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis on prior alendronate or raloxifene: differences between stopping and continuing the antiresorptive agent. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2009;94(10):3772-3780.
111. Leder BZ, Tsai JN, Uihlein AV, et al. Denosumab and teriparatide transitions in postmenopausal osteoporosis (the DATA-Switch study): extension of a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2015;386(9999):1147-1155.
112. Briot K, Cortet B, Thomas T, et al. 2012 update of French guidelines for the pharmacological treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis. *Joint Bone Spine*. 2012;79(3):304-313.
113. Leder BZ, Neer RM, Wyland JJ, Lee HW, Burnett-Bowie SM, Finkelstein JS. Effects of teriparatide treatment and discontinuation in postmenopausal women and eugonadal men with osteoporosis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2009;94(8):2915-2921.
114. Miller PD, Bolognese MA, Lewiecki EM, et al. Effect of denosumab on bone density and turnover in postmenopausal women with low bone mass after long-term continued, discontinued, and restarting of therapy: a randomized blinded phase 2 clinical trial. *Bone*. 2008;43(2):222-229.
115. Cummings SR, Eckert S, Krueger KA, et al. The effect of raloxifene on risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women: results from the MORE randomized trial. Multiple Outcomes of Raloxifene Evaluation. *JAMA*. 1999;281(23):2189-2197.
116. Martino S, Cauley JA, Barrett-Connor E, et al. Continuing outcomes relevant to Evista: breast cancer incidence in postmenopausal osteoporotic women in a randomized trial of raloxifene. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2004;96(23):1751-1761.
117. Vogel VG, Costantino JP, Wickerham DL, et al. Effects of tamoxifen vs raloxifene on the risk of developing invasive breast cancer and other disease outcomes: the NSABP Study of Tamoxifen and Raloxifene (STAR) P-2 trial. *JAMA*. 2006;295(23):2727-2741.
118. Barrett-Connor E, Mosca L, Collins P, et al. Effects of raloxifene on cardiovascular events and breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;355(2):125-137.
119. Qaseem A, Forciea MA, McLean RM, Denberg TD, Clinical Guidelines Committee of the American College of P. Treatment of Low Bone Density or Osteoporosis to Prevent Fractures in Men and Women: A Clinical Practice Guideline Update From the American College of Physicians. *Ann Intern Med*. 2017;166(11):818-839.
120. Adler RA. Osteoporosis in men: a review. *Bone Res*. 2014;2:14001.
121. Watts NB, Adler RA, Bilezikian JP, et al. Osteoporosis in men: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2012;97(6):1802-1822.
122. Boonen S, Reginster JY, Kaufman JM, et al. Fracture risk and zoledronic acid therapy in men with osteoporosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;367(18):1714-1723.
123. Tremollieres FA, Ceausu I, Depypere H, et al. Osteopo-

- rosis management in patients with breast cancer: EMAS position statement. *Maturitas*. 2017;95:65-71.
124. Buckley L, Guyatt G, Fink HA, et al. 2017 American College of Rheumatology Guideline for the Prevention and Treatment of Glucocorticoid-Induced Osteoporosis. *Arthritis Rheumatol*. 2017;69(8):1521-1537.
 125. Briot K, Cortet B, Roux C, et al. 2014 update of recommendations on the prevention and treatment of glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis. *Joint Bone Spine*. 2014;81(6):493-501.
 126. Maraka S, Kennel KA. Bisphosphonates for the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis. *BMJ*. 2015;351:h3783.
 127. Kothawala P, Badamgarav E, Ryu S, Miller RM, Halbert RJ. Systematic review and meta-analysis of real-world adherence to drug therapy for osteoporosis. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2007;82(12):1493-1501.
 128. Imaz I, Zegarra P, Gonzalez-Enriquez J, Rubio B, Alcazar R, Amate JM. Poor bisphosphonate adherence for treatment of osteoporosis increases fracture risk: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Osteoporos Int*. 2010;21(11):1943-1951.
 129. McCloskey EV, Beneton M, Charlesworth D, et al. Clodronate reduces the incidence of fractures in community-dwelling elderly women unselected for osteoporosis: results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled randomized study. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2007;22(1):135-141.
 130. Cummings SR, Karpf DB, Harris F, et al. Improvement in spine bone density and reduction in risk of vertebral fractures during treatment with antiresorptive drugs. *Am J Med*. 2002;112(4):281-289.
 131. Chen P, Miller PD, Delmas PD, Misurski DA, Krege JH. Change in lumbar spine BMD and vertebral fracture risk reduction in teriparatide-treated postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2006;21(11):1785-1790.
 132. Austin M, Yang YC, Vittinghoff E, et al. Relationship between bone mineral density changes with denosumab treatment and risk reduction for vertebral and non-vertebral fractures. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2012;27(3):687-693.
 133. Diez-Perez A, Adachi JD, Agnusdei D, et al. Treatment failure in osteoporosis. *Osteoporos Int*. 2012;23(12):2769-2774.
 134. Lewiecki EM, Cummings SR, Cosman F. Treat-to-target for osteoporosis: is now the time? *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2013;98(3):946-953.
 135. Vasikaran S, Eastell R, Bruyere O, et al. Markers of bone turnover for the prediction of fracture risk and monitoring of osteoporosis treatment: a need for international reference standards. *Osteoporos Int*. 2011;22(2):391-420.
 136. Ravn P, Hosking D, Thompson D, et al. Monitoring of alendronate treatment and prediction of effect on bone mass by biochemical markers in the early postmenopausal intervention cohort study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1999;84(7):2363-2368.
 137. Bauer DC, Black DM, Garnero P, et al. Change in bone turnover and hip, non-spine, and vertebral fracture in alendronate-treated women: the fracture intervention trial. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2004;19(8):1250-1258.
 138. Eastell R, Barton I, Hannon RA, Chines A, Garnero P, Delmas PD. Relationship of early changes in bone resorption to the reduction in fracture risk with risedronate. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2003;18(6):1051-1056.
 139. Eastell R, Krege JH, Chen P, Glass EV, Reginster JY. Development of an algorithm for using PINP to monitor treatment of patients with teriparatide. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2006;22(1):61-66.
 140. Eastell R, Christiansen C, Grauer A, et al. Effects of denosumab on bone turnover markers in postmenopausal osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2011;26(3):530-537.
 141. Diez-Perez A, Naylor KE, Abrahamsen B, et al. International Osteoporosis Foundation and European Calcified Tissue Society Working Group. Recommendations for the screening of adherence to oral bisphosphonates. *Osteoporos Int*. 2017;28(3):767-774.
 142. Naylor KE, Jacques RM, Paggiosi M, et al. Response of bone turnover markers to three oral bisphosphonate therapies in postmenopausal osteoporosis: the TRIO study. *Osteoporos Int*. 2016;27(1):21-31.
 143. Black DM, Reid IR, Boonen S, et al. The effect of 3 versus 6 years of zoledronic acid treatment of osteoporosis: a randomized extension to the HORIZON-Pivotal Fracture Trial (PFT). *J Bone Miner Res*. 2012;27(2):243-254.
 144. Dell RM, Adams AL, Greene DF, et al. Incidence of atypical nontraumatic diaphyseal fractures of the femur. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2012;27(12):2544-2550.
 145. Ensrud KE, Barrett-Connor EL, Schwartz A, et al. Randomized trial of effect of alendronate continuation versus discontinuation in women with low BMD: results from the Fracture Intervention Trial long-term extension. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2004;19(8):1259-1269.
 146. Ravn P, Christensen JO, Baumann M, Clemmesen B. Changes in biochemical markers and bone mass after withdrawal of ibandronate treatment: prediction of bone mass changes during treatment. *Bone*. 1998;22(5):559-564.
 147. Watts NB, Chines A, Olszynski WP, et al. Fracture risk remains reduced one year after discontinuation of risedronate. *Osteoporos Int*. 2008;19(3):365-372.
 148. Russell RG. Bisphosphonates: the first 40 years. *Bone*. 2011;49(1):2-19.
 149. Compston J, Bowring C, Cooper A, et al. Diagnosis and management of osteoporosis in postmenopausal women and older men in the UK: National Osteoporosis

- Guideline Group (NOGG) update 2013. *Maturitas*. 2013;75(4):392-396.
150. Reid IR, Miller PD, Brown JP, et al. Effects of denosumab on bone histomorphometry: the FREEDOM and STAND studies. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2010;25(10):2256-2265.
 151. Leder BZ, Tsai JN, Jiang LA, Lee H. Importance of prompt antiresorptive therapy in postmenopausal women discontinuing teriparatide or denosumab: The Denosumab and Teriparatide Follow-up study (DATA-Follow-up). *Bone*. 2017;98:54-58.
 152. Weaver CM, Gordon CM, Janz KF, et al. The National Osteoporosis Foundation's position statement on peak bone mass development and lifestyle factors: a systematic review and implementation recommendations. *Osteoporos Int*. 2016;27(4):1281-1386.
 153. Graça P, Camolas J, Gregório MJ, Sousa S. Programa Nacional para a Promoção da Alimentação Saudável In. Lisboa: Direção-Geral da Saúde; 2017.
 154. Holick MF, Binkley NC, Bischoff-Ferrari HA, et al. Evaluation, treatment, and prevention of vitamin D deficiency: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2011;96(7):1911-1930.
 155. Weaver CM, Alexander DD, Boushey CJ, et al. Calcium plus vitamin D supplementation and risk of fractures: an updated meta-analysis from the National Osteoporosis Foundation. *Osteoporos Int*. 2016;27(1):367-376.
 156. Zhao R, Zhao M, Xu Z. The effects of differing resistance training modes on the preservation of bone mineral density in postmenopausal women: a meta-analysis. *Osteoporos Int*. 2015;26(5):1605-1618.
 157. Shepstone L, Lenaghan E, Cooper C, et al. Screening in the community to reduce fractures in older women (SCOOP): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2017.
 158. Kanis JA, Johansson H, Oden A, McCloskey EV. A meta-analysis of the efficacy of raloxifene on all clinical and vertebral fractures and its dependency on FRAX. *Bone*. 2010;47(4):729-735.