

# Premenopausal osteoporosis

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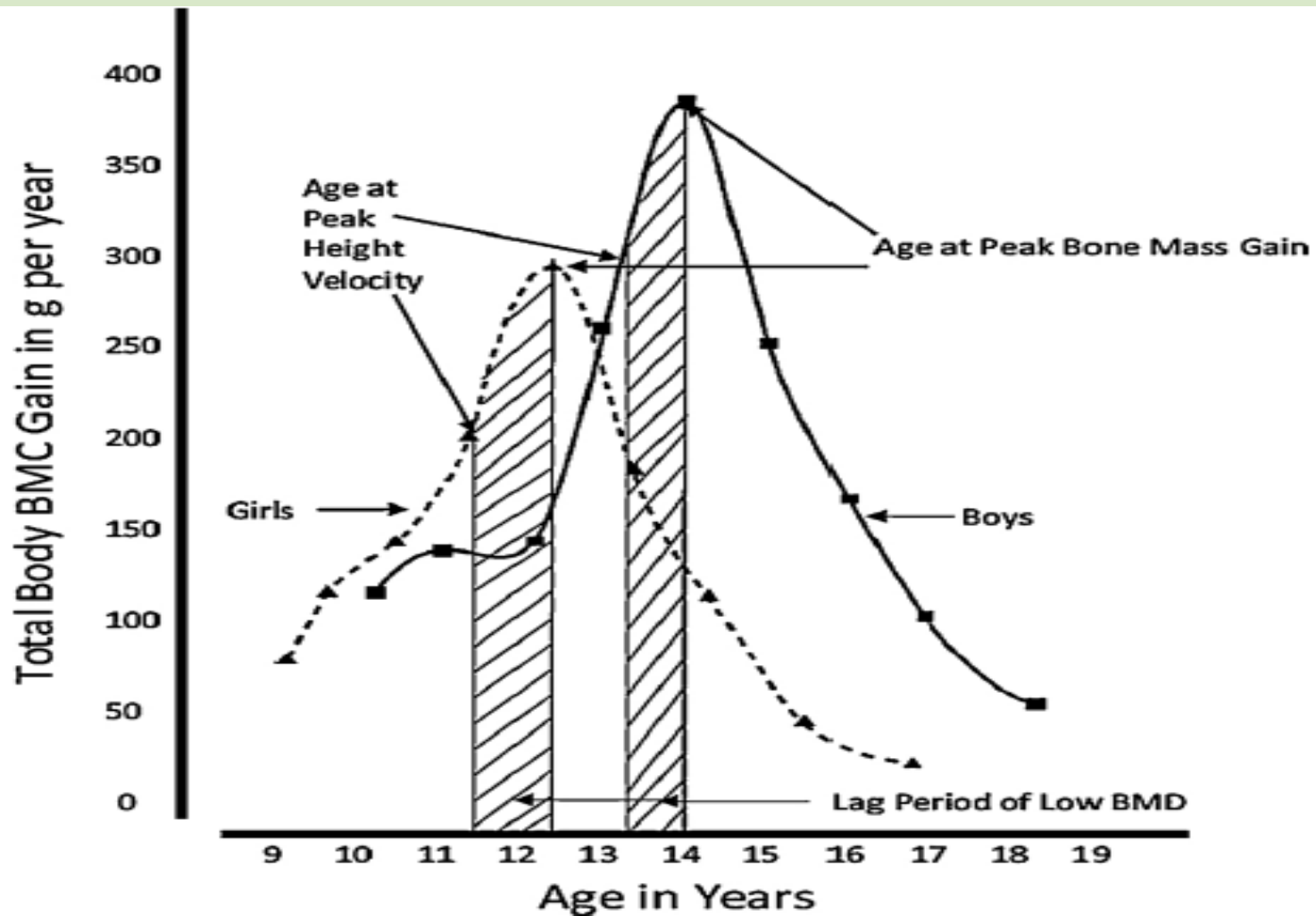
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- Fragility fractures in PW **are rare** and mostly due to **secondary osteoporosis**, i.e. in presence of an underlying disease such as **hormonal, inflammatory** or **digestive disorders**. In absence of another disorder, **low bone density (BMD) together with fragility fractures qualifies as “idiopathic osteoporosis”**. In contrast, low BMD alone does not necessarily represent osteoporosis in **absence of bone microarchitectural abnormalities**.

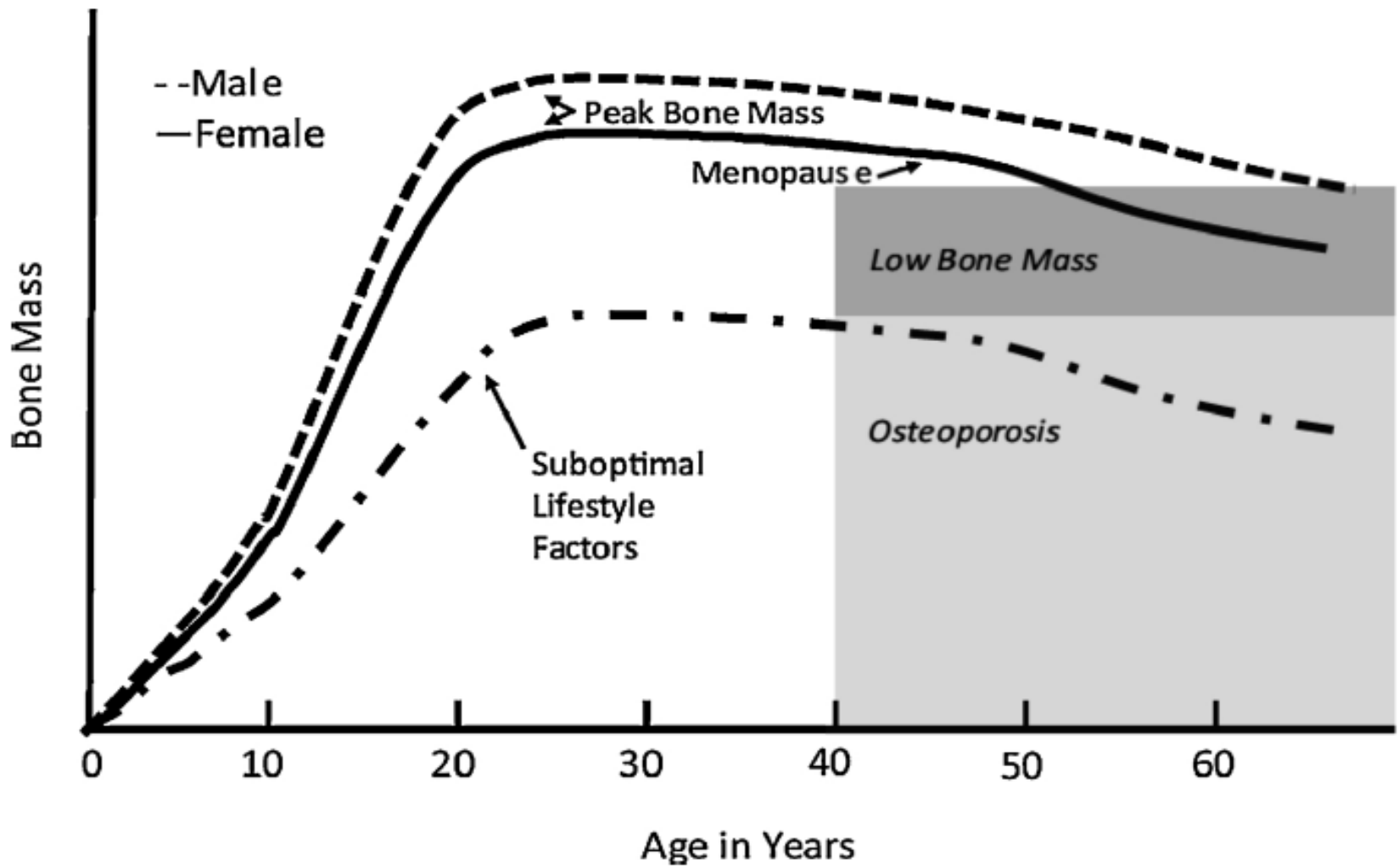
- The prevalence of “osteoporosis” in premenopausal women varies **from 0.5 to 50% depending on the population studied**, the definition of osteoporosis used, and the referral center involved.
- In premenopausal women with **known causes of secondary osteoporosis**, the prevalence of low bone mass (defined as **Z-score  $\leq -2$** ) was recently reported as **17.3%** in patients affected by **systemic lupus erythematosus**, **7.3%** in **rheumatoid arthritis**, **44.5%** in **Cushing diseases**, **35%** in **HIV**, and **45%** in **cystic fibrosis**, and these disorders are associated with an **increased risk of fragility fractures**.
- A premenopausal woman with a **prior fracture has a 35 to 75% higher risk of** having a fracture in her postmenopausal years than a premenopausal woman without fracture.

- The bone mineral density (BMD) of premenopausal women depends primarily on their **bone accrual during childhood and adolescence** as the **final peak bone mass is reached around the age of 20 years, depending on the skeletal site.**
- However a recent retrospective case control study including 12,970 premenopausal women reported a **significant decrease of fracture risk with the use of combined oral contraceptives (COC).**



**Peak bone mineral accretion rate occurs at  $12.5 \pm 0.9$  years in girls and  $14.1 \pm 0.9$  years in boys.**

- In 2016, the National Osteoporosis Foundation (NOF) published a position statement **on peak bone mass and lifestyle, as lifestyle habits may contribute to 20–40% of the mean variance of adult peak bone mass.**
- For subjects **younger than 40 years old**, the International Society for Clinical Densitometry (ISCD) proposed us BMD **Z-scores below or equal to -2** (comparison to age and sex matched value) **to define “low bone mass”, which is a value “below the expected range for age”.**



## Risk factors for developing osteoporosis or osteopenia

<b>Unmodifiable</b>	Genetics
	Age
<b>Dietary and Lifestyle</b>	Calcium Deficiency
	Vitamin D Deficiency
	Protein Deficiency
	Anorexia Nervosa
<b>Medication</b>	Glucocorticoids
	Depot Medroxyprogesterone Acetate (DMPA)
	Antiepileptic Drugs (AEDs)
	Proton-Pump Inhibitors (PPI)
<b>Gastrointestinal Disorders</b>	Celiac Disease
	Irritable Bowel Syndrome
<b>Endocrine Disorders</b>	Hypogonadism
	Hperthyroidism
	Hyperparathyroidism
	Growth Hormone Deficiency
	Diabetes Mellitus Type-1
<b>Inflammatory Disease</b>	Rheumatoid Arthritis
	System Lupus Erythematosus
<b>Other Considerations</b>	Depression
	Breastfeeding



- The International Osteoporosis Foundation (IOF) also defines **low bone mass in the young as Z-scores below -2, however only before 20 yrs of age.** Thereafter, they kept the same definition as in post-menopausal women, namely a T score  $\leq -2.5$  for individuals older than 20 years and in the absence of delayed puberty.
- **Vertebral and/or multiple fragility fractures with low BMD** are a hallmark of osteoporosis for both societies. Hence, for premenopausal women with low BMD (i.e. Z-score  $\leq -2$  or T-score  $\leq -2.5$ ) but without fractures, a diagnosis of low peak bone mass vs. osteoporosis may be difficult to ascertain

## BMD changes during pregnancy<sup>1</sup>

Pregnancy and lactation may temporarily reduce BMD (longitudinal studies) and this must be considered when a single BMD measurement is interpreted:

- Lumbar spine BMD decreases 3-5% with pregnancy
- Lumbar spine BMD decreases 3-10% over a six-month lactation period (determined by duration of lactation and associated amenorrhoea)
- Recovery of BMD/return to baseline BMD expected after 6-18 months.

Some possible secondary causes of osteoporosis and bone fragility in young adults.

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Gastrointestinal-related

- Inflammatory bowel disease (in particular Chron's disease)
- Malabsorption
- Coeliac disease
- Cystic fibrosis

Endocrine-related

- Hyperparathyroidism
- Hypovitaminosis D
- Turner syndrome
- Klinefelter's syndrome
- Anorexia nervosa
- Other hypogonadisms
- Cushing's syndrome
- Type 1 diabetes
- Pregnancy

Systemic-, hematologic- and inflammatory diseases

- Juvenile/rheumatoid arthritis
- Connective tissue diseases
- Leukemia
- Organ transplant
- Systemic mastocytosis
- Nephropathies
- Human immunodeficiency virus disease

Various genetic diseases

- Hemochromatosis
- Osteoporosis imperfecta
- Marfan syndrome
- Gaucher's disease
- Galactosemia
- Duchenne
- Thalassemia

Medications

- Glucocorticoids
- Anticonvulsants
- GnRH agonists/antagonists
- Aromatase inhibitors
- Cytotoxic chemotherapy
- Long-term Heparin
- Long-term Proton Pump Inhibitors

## Possible causes of low bone density in premenopausal women<sup>3</sup>

Inherited	Nutritional	Endocrine	Medications	Other
Osteogenesis imperfecta Homocystinuria Marfan's syndrome	Malabsorption Chronic liver disease Alcoholism Calcium deficiency Vitamin D deficiency	Hypogonadism Hyperthyroidism Cushing's syndrome Hyperparathyroidism Anorexia nervosa	Glucocorticoids Anticonvulsants Heparin Excess thyroid GnRH agonists	Multiple myeloma Rheumatoid arthritis Mastocytosis Immobilisation Hypercalciuria

GnRh – gonadotropin releasing hormone  
 Progesterone based contraception  
 Early initiation of oral contraception

Major causes of secondary osteoporosis in the young

Chronic and inflammatory	Inflammatory bowel disease	Malabsorption
	Coeliac disease	HIV
	Nephropathies	Organ transplant
	Cystic fibrosis	Connective tissue diseases
	(Juvenile) rheumatoid arthritis	Thalassemia
	Systemic mastocytosis	Leukemia
	Endocrine	Diabetes type I
	Hypovitaminosis D	Hyperparathyroidism
	Hypogonadism (amenorrhea, Turner, anorexia nervosa)	
	Hyperthyroidism	Pregnancy
Neuromuscular and metabolic	Duchenne	Galactosemia
	Gaucher's disease	Glycogen storage disease
	Hemochromatosis	Marfan syndrome
Medications	Glucocorticoids	Glitazones
	<u>PPIs (chronic use)</u>	
	Anticonvulsants	<u>Cyclosporine (tacrolimus)</u>
	Aromatase inhibitors, depot MPA	GnRH inhibitors
	<u>High-dose thyroxine</u>	Heparin (long-term)
	Cytotoxic chemotherapy	<u>HAART</u>

*HIV* human immunodeficiency virus, *MPA* medroxyprogesterone acetate (used as contraceptive), HAART highly active antiretroviral therapy, *PPIs* proton pump inhibitors

~~Major causes of amenorrhea due to abnormalities in the hypothalamic-pituitary-ovarian axis~~ Adapted from Corrine K Welt, Robert L Barbieri, William F Crowley, Jr, Mitchell E Geffner, Kathryn A Martin, Uptodate 2019.

Abnormality	Causes
✓ Hypothalamic dysfunction	Isolated GnRH deficiency Functional hypothalamic amenorrhea <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Weight loss, eating disorders</li> <li>- Excessive exercise (including but not exclusively: running, ballet dancing, figure skating, gymnastics)</li> <li>- Stress</li> <li>- Severe or prolonged illness</li> </ul> Inflammatory or infiltrative diseases Brain tumors – e.g., craniopharyngioma Cranial irradiation Traumatic brain injury Other syndromes - Prader-Willi, Laurence-Moon-Biedl, leptin mutations
✓ Pituitary dysfunction	Hyperprolactinemia, including lactotroph adenomas Other pituitary tumors - acromegaly, corticotroph adenomas (Cushing's disease) Other tumors - meningioma, germinoma, glioma Genetic causes of hypopituitarism Empty sella syndrome Pituitary infarct or apoplexy
✓ Ovarian dysfunction	Primary ovarian insufficiency (premature ovarian failure) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Turner syndrome, fragile X permutation, chemotherapy and radiotherapy, somatic chromosomal defects, autoimmune, idiopathic</li> </ul>
✓ Other	Polycystic ovary syndrome Hyperthyroidism Hypothyroidism Uncontrolled diabetes mellitus types 1 and 2 Exogenous androgen use

HPO: hypothalamic-pituitary-ovarian; GnRH: gonadotropin-releasing hormone.

- **Premenopausal women with recent major fragility fractures (hip, vertebral, proximal humerus and distal forearm fractures) should be considered at high risk for further fractures in the short to medium term, and further assessment is recommended.**
- Osteoporosis in premenopausal women is more frequently caused by underlying diseases.
- The majority of the subjects were found to have a **cause of secondary osteoporosis at a range varying between 50% to 90% depending on the setting and time of diagnosis.**

## Clinical scenarios of suboptimal bone health in premenopausal women

- Low bone mass with known secondary cause
- Idiopathic low bone mass (no fracture, no secondary cause)
- Secondary osteoporosis (glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis)
- Idiopathic osteoporosis (prior fracture, no secondary cause)



## Management options

- Lifestyle modifications
- Address the underlying secondary cause
- Bone-specific therapy
  - Bisphosphonates
  - Teriparatide
  - Denosumab

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## Laboratory tests—general screening

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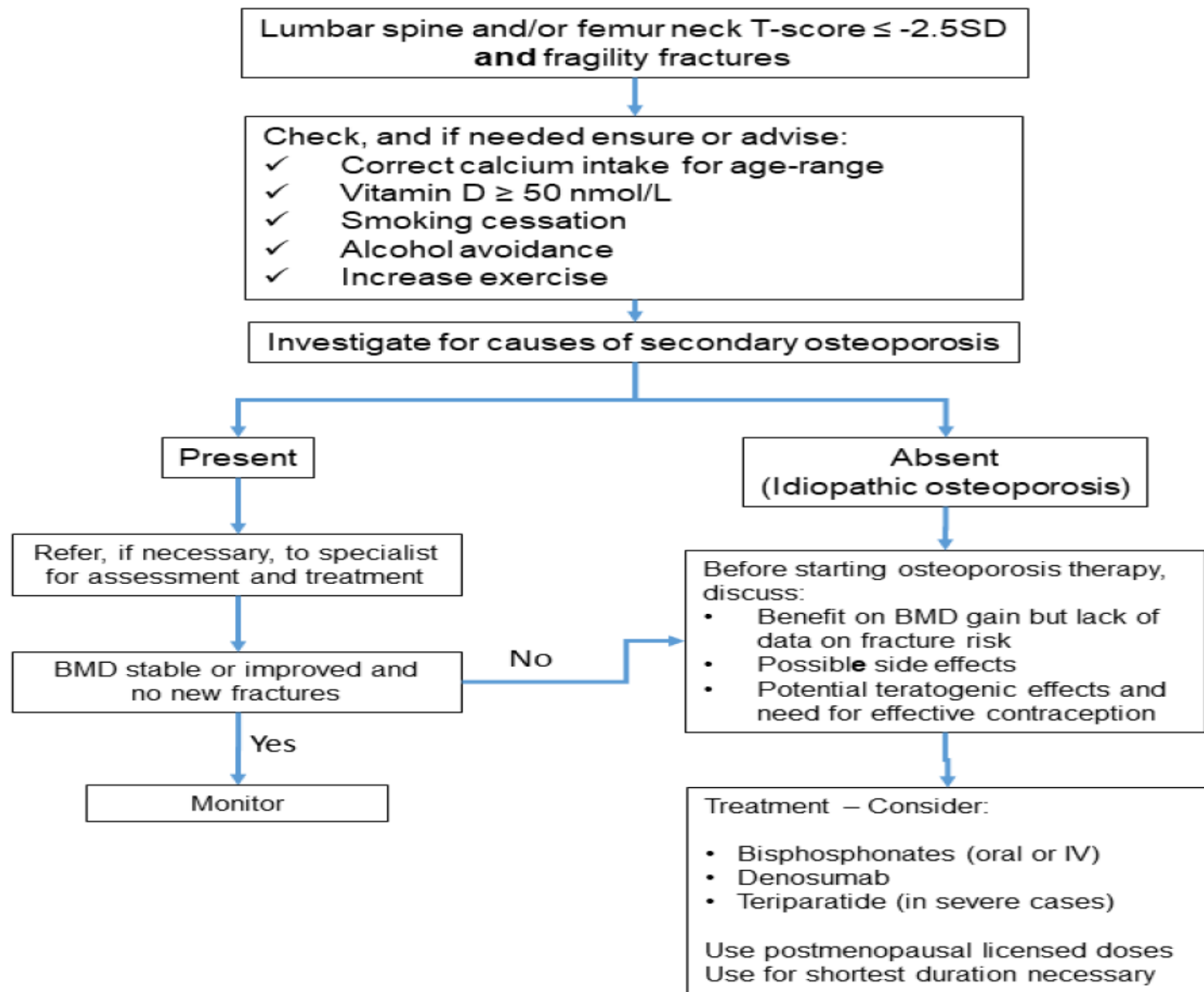
Mineral metabolism	Serum calcium (corrected for albumin) Serum phosphate Creatinine 25(OH)D iPTH ALP (bone specific) BTMs (for instance, s-CTX and s-PINP) <sup>a</sup>
Inflammation, hematopoietic disorder	Blood cell count ESR or CRP
Hepatic disease	GOT, GPT, $\gamma$ -GT
Diabetes (primary or secondary)	Fasting glucose, Hba1C
Thyroid dysfunction	TSH
Hypogonadism (men)	Total testosterone
Malabsorption, Coeliac disease	24-h urinary calcium Anti-endomysial, anti-transglutaminase

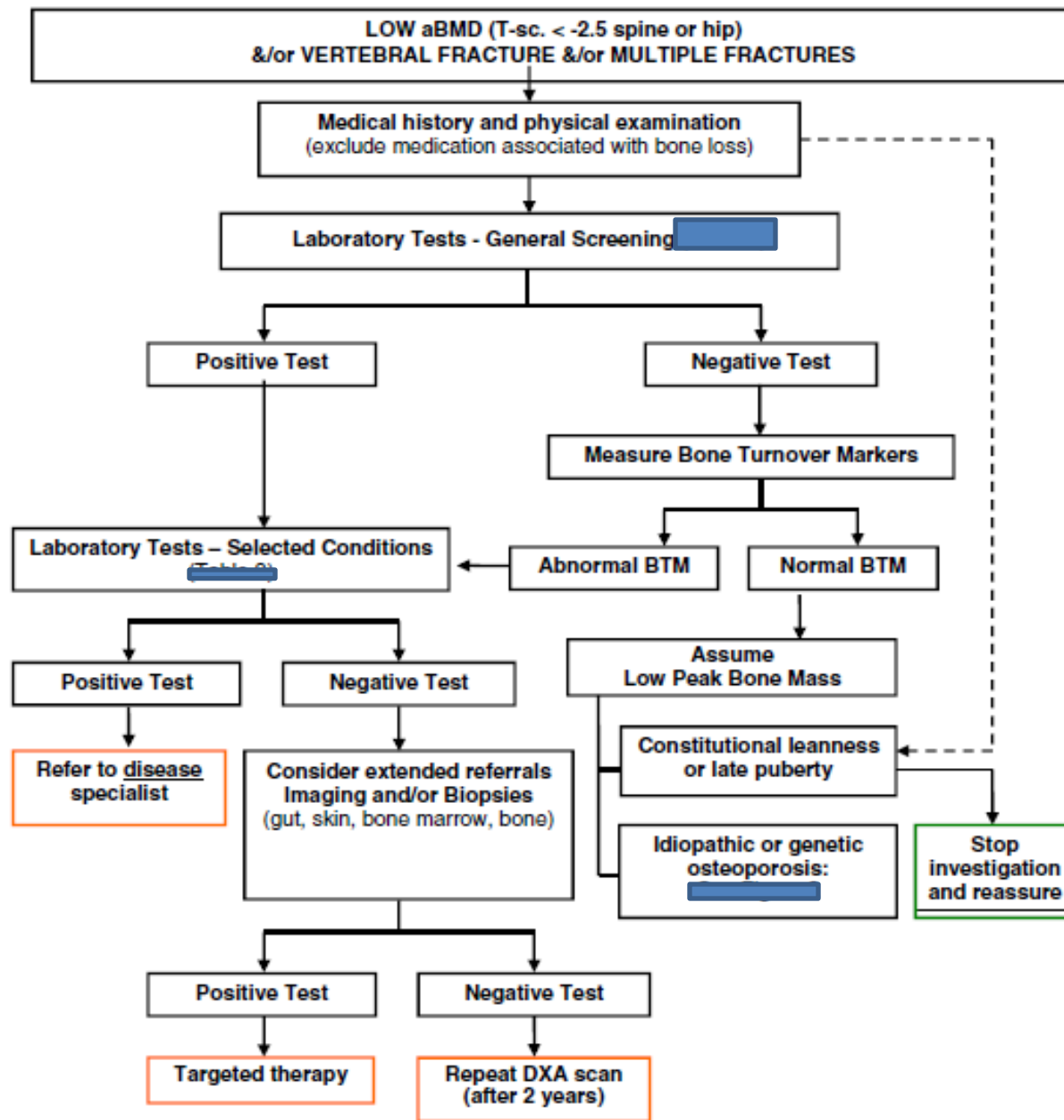
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## Laboratory tests—selected conditions

Background	Test
TSH alterations	Free T4
Altered glucose, Cushing's syndrome	24-h free urinary cortisol
Altered testosterone (men)	LH/SHBG (free testosterone)
Amenorrhea, hypogonadism (women)	FSH/estradiol
Altered renal function (CRF)	1,25(OH) <sub>2</sub> D <sub>3</sub>
Hemochromatosis	Ferritin
Hypophosphatasia	ALP, BALP, urinary phosphoethanolamine
Mastocytosis	Tryptase, IgE
Gaucher's disease	Glucocerebrosidase

*TSH* thyroid-stimulating hormone, *LH/SHBG* luteinizing hormone/sex hormone-binding globulin, *FSH* follicle-stimulating hormone, *CRF* chronic renal failure, *BALP* bone-specific alkaline phosphatase, *IgE* immunoglobulin E





LOW BMD &/or VERTEBRAL FRACTURE &/or MULTIPLE FRACTURES

+

No Secondary Causes, no Constitutional Leanness, No Late Puberty



**Family Screen**  
(First degree relatives)  
For BMD and Multiple Fractures

**Mendelian Inheritance**

**Non-Mendelian Inheritance**

**Suspect**

- Osteogenesis Imperfecta
- OPPG
- Other Gene Mutation, Carrier

**True Idiopathic osteoporosis**  
(Polymorphism)

or

**New Gene Mutation**

**Genetic Testing**

Clinical pathway for young adults, with either low BMD and/or vertebral fracture, and/or multiple fractures, where no secondary causes of osteoporosis (including constitutional leanness and delayed puberty) were found

**Table 4** Main monogenic disorders primarily manifest as bone fragility

Monogenic disorders	Gene mutations	Familial pattern of inheritance	Description and main clinical outcome	Incidence
Osteogenesis imperfecta	Col I $\alpha$ 1 and Col I $\alpha$ 2	Autosomal dominant (types I–V)	Fragility fractures, bone deformity, and low BMD	Estimated at 6 to 7 per 100,000 people worldwide
	LEPRE1 and CRTAP (some OI types II, III, and VII) PPIB in type IX	Autosomal recessive (some types II, III, VII, and IX)	Dentinogenesis imperfecta  Mild forms may be manifest as low aBMD only	Types I and IV are the most common forms, affecting 4 to 5 per 100,000 people
Hypophosphatasia	ALPL	Autosomal dominant (adult form)	Defective mineralization, leading to softening of the bones (osteomalacia)	Severe forms affect an estimated 1 in 100,000 newborns. Milder cases, such as those that appear in adulthood, probably occur more frequently
		Autosomal recessive (perinatal)	Recurrent fractures in the foot and thigh bones inducing chronic pain  Loss of adult teeth prematurely Joint pain and inflammation	
Osteoporosis-pseudoglioma syndrome (OPPG)	LRP5 (11q13.4)	Recessive	Fragility fractures, bone deformity, low BMD and partial blindness  Carrier state may be manifest as bone fragility only	Unknown

Assessment of conditions and management strategies

Background	Assessment	Management
Calcium Deficiency	3-day food journal, serum calcium corrected for albumin	1000 mg/day for prevention Food: broccoli, kale, leafy greens, nuts, legumes
Vitamin D Deficiency	Serum 1,25(OH)D	>30 ng/mL: 800-1000 IU/day <20 ng/mL: 50,000 IU/week for 8 weeks Foods: egg yolk, salmon, mackerel, cod liver oil
Protein Deficiency	Food Frequency Questionnaire	Animal and non-animal protein comprising all essential amino acids
Anorexia Nervosa	Blood laboratory markers related with malnutrition and bone health; serum 1,25(OH)D, ALP, serum calcium, serum phosphate, iPTH, TSH, PSH, estradiol	Refer to mental health and nutrition specialists
Glucocorticoids	Serum calcium corrected for albumin, FSH, estrogen, estradiol	See appropriate management of calcium deficiency
Depot Medroxyprogesterone Acetate	FSH, estradiol	Refer to endocrinologist or gynecologist to discuss other options for birth control
Antiepileptic Drugs	Serum 1,25(OH)D	See appropriate management for vitamin D deficiency
Proton-Pump Inhibitors	3-day food journal to assess dietary calcium, serum calcium corrected for albumin	See appropriate management for calcium deficiency



Celiac Disease	Anti-tissue transglutaminase, antigliadin antibodies, antienomysial antibodies	Refer to gastroenterologist for upper-GI biopsy Education on a gluten-free diet and assessment for nutrient deficiencies due to malabsorption
Irritable Bowel Syndrome	Anti-saccharomyces cerevisiae antibody (Crohn's), perinuclear anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibody (UC), serum 1,25(OH)D	Refer to gastroenterologist and assessment of nutrient deficiencies due to malabsorption
Hypogonadism	FSH, Estradiol, Serum calcium corrected for albumin	Refer to endocrinologist
Hyperthyroidism	TSH, Total T4, Total T3, Free T4, Free T3	Refer to endocrinologist and address appropriate nutrient deficiencies through diet or supplementation
Hyperparathyroidism	Serum calcium corrected for albumin, serum phosphate	Refer to endocrinologist and see appropriate management for calcium deficiency
Growth Hormone Deficiency	Growth hormone	Refer to endocrinologist
Diabetes Mellitus Type-1	HbA1c	Refer to endocrinologist or primary care provider and provide education on dietary approaches to reduce sugar intake
Rheumatoid Arthritis	Rheumatoid Factor, antinuclear antibodies (ANA), serum calcium corrected for albumin, <u>serum magnesium</u> , <u>serum vitamin K</u>	Refer to rheumatologist and address <u>appropriate nutrient deficiencies through diet or supplementation</u>
Systemic Lupus Erythematosus	ANA, serum 1,25(OH)D, <u>dietary protein</u>	Refer to rheumatologist, and address <u>nutritional support for deficiencies</u> . Refer for or provide strength training program.
Depression	Serum 1,25(OH)D, serum calcium corrected for albumin, PTH, 8am plasma ACTH	Refer to mental health professional Address appropriate nutrient deficiencies through diet or supplementation
Breastfeeding	Serum calcium corrected for albumin	See appropriate management for calcium deficiency Those with established osteoporosis may be advised to avoid breastfeeding



## Key learnings

- Low bone mass and idiopathic osteoporosis are uncommon in younger women
- The predictive relationship between BMD and fracture risk is unclear in otherwise healthy premenopausal women
- Extent of bone loss in premenopausal women is defined by DXA Z-score
- The initial diagnostic approach should attempt to identify secondary causes, of which there are many, and to distinguish between low peak bone mass and active bone loss
- Biochemical bone markers may be useful if only a single BMD scan is available
- Oral bisphosphonates and teriparatide, specifically in the setting of glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis, are the only FDA-approved bone-specific therapies in young adult women.