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Screening for Osteoporosis to Prevent Fractures: An Evidence Review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force

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Structured Abstract

Purpose: To review the evidence on screening for osteoporosis to prevent fractures in community-dwelling adults in primary care settings.

Data Sources: MEDLINE, Embase, the Cochrane Library, and trial registries through January 9, 2024; bibliographies from retrieved articles, outside experts, and surveillance of the literature through July 31, 2024.

Study Selection: Two reviewers independently selected English-language studies. We included trials or systematic reviews (SRs) that evaluated the benefits or harms of screening for osteoporosis or fracture risk in adults without known osteoporosis or medical conditions associated with bone metabolism compared with no screening or usual care and that reported fracture, mortality, or harm outcomes. We included studies or recent SRs that reported on the accuracy of risk assessment instruments or bone mineral density (BMD) for predicting fracture or the diagnostic accuracy of risk assessment instruments for identifying osteoporosis. We included randomized, controlled trials (RCTs) that reported on U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved bisphosphonates or denosumab for the treatment of osteoporosis among participants without secondary osteoporosis or prior fragility fracture. Except for studies of predictive accuracy, we excluded studies with poor methodological quality.

Data Extraction: One reviewer extracted data and a second checked accuracy. Two reviewers independently rated methodological quality for all included studies using predefined criteria. When more than one similar study was available, we conducted meta-analyses.

Data Synthesis: We included 145 studies (in 195 publications). Three RCTs and three SRs reported on the direct benefits of screening in European women (median ages, 71 to 76 years); one of the trials and one of the SRs also reported on the direct harms of screening. Two-staged screening interventions were used by two trials, which included a Fracture Risk Assessment Tool $[FRAX^{\circ}]$ risk estimate followed by BMD testing if the estimated risk was above a specified threshold; the third trial, which required participants to have at least one clinical risk factor, performed BMD testing, vertebral fracture assessment, falls risk assessment, and laboratory measures related to bone metabolism. Across trials, screening was associated with a reduced risk of hip fractures (pooled relative risk [RR], 0.83 [95% confidence interval {CI}, 0.73 to 0.93]; 3 RCTs; 42,009 participants) and major osteoporotic fractures (MOFs) (pooled RR, 0.94 [95% CI, 0.88 to 0.99]; 3 RCTs; 42,009 participants) compared with usual care. The absolute risk differences corresponding to these estimates are 5 (hip) to 6 (MOF) fewer fractures per 1,000 participants screened. One RCT reported no difference in anxiety between screened and unscreened participants. One SR estimated the risk for overdiagnosis as between 11.8 and 24.1 percent.

For predicting fracture, six SRs and 30 unique cohorts reported on the accuracy of 11 risk assessment instruments, and 22 unique cohorts reported on the accuracy of BMD alone. Calibration outcomes were limited. For risk assessment instruments, discrimination as measured by area under the curve (AUC) ranged from 0.52 to 0.93 and varied by instrument, inclusion of BMD as an input, and fracture type. The AUC of BMD alone for predicting MOF or hip fracture ranged from 0.60 to 0.86. Forty-three unique cohorts reported on the diagnostic accuracy of risk

assessment instruments for identifying osteoporosis. In women, AUCs ranged from 0.32 to 0.87 across 11 instruments. In men, AUCs ranged from 0.62 to 0.94 across 12 instruments. Five studies reported information relevant to screening intervals that suggested no additional predictive accuracy for repeat BMD testing at an interval of 4 to 8 years.

Twenty-seven RCTs reported on the benefits of treatment, and 40 RCTs and three cohort studies reported on the harms of treatment. Compared with placebo, bisphosphonates (pooled RR, 0.67 [95% CI, 0.45 to 1.00]; 6 RCTs; 12,055 participants) and denosumab (RR, 0.60 [95% CI, 0.37 to 0.97] from the largest RCT of 7,808 participants) were associated with a reduction in hip fractures; these drugs were also associated with reductions in vertebral fractures and nonvertebral fractures. The absolute risk difference across fracture types and medications ranged from 3 fewer to 44 fewer per 1,000 participants treated compared with placebo. For mortality, the pooled RR for bisphosphonates was 0.71 (95% CI, 0.49 to 1.05; 6 RCTs; 3,714 participants) and the pooled RR for denosumab was 0.79 (95% CI, 0.58 to 1.07; 5 RCTs; 8,828 participants). Compared with placebo, no statistically significant associations were observed for discontinuation due to adverse events, serious adverse events, or gastrointestinal adverse events (pooled RRs ranging from 0.97 to 2.18).

Limitations: Direct evidence for BMD screening alone was not available. Direct evidence was available for screening in older European women that included country-specific fracture risk estimations, but this evidence was limited by modest adherence in intervention groups and contamination in control groups. Limited direct evidence for harms was identified. Predictive and diagnostic accuracy were limited by heterogeneity in populations evaluated, analytic methods used, and insufficient reporting of calibration. For treatment, populations exclusively comprising persons with prior fragility fracture or secondary osteoporosis or in long-term care were not included. Only FDA-approved bisphosphonates for prevention or treatment of osteoporosis and denosumab were included, and comparative effectiveness and harms were not addressed. Few studies of treatment in men were eligible. Treatment studies enrolled persons with osteoporosis based on BMD rather than fracture risk, and sample sizes and treatment durations may not have been adequate for the detection of rare harms such as osteonecrosis of the jaw and atypical femur fractures.

Conclusions: Screening in older, higher-risk women was associated with a small absolute risk reduction in hip and MOF fractures compared with usual care. Screening strategies varied and no direct evidence evaluated screening using dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry alone or screening in women younger than age 65 years or in men. Risk assessment instruments, BMD at the hip or spine has poor to modest discrimination in men and older women for predicting fracture and studies of calibration were limited. For identifying osteoporosis, risk assessment instruments had modest to good accuracy in men and modest accuracy in older women. In women younger than age 65 years, risk assessment instruments had poor predictive (fracture) and diagnostic (osteoporosis) discrimination. Treatment of osteoporosis with FDA-approved bisphosphonates or denosumab was associated with reductions in vertebral, nonvertebral, and hip fractures with no increase in discontinuations due to adverse events or serious adverse events compared with placebo in studies conducted over one to several years' duration; however, data about rare and longer-term harms were limited from the evidence included in this update.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Scope and Purpose

This report will be used by the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) to update its 2018 recommendations for screening for osteoporosis to prevent fractures.¹ The USPSTF recommended screening for osteoporosis with bone measurement testing to prevent fractures in women age 65 years or older (B recommendation). For postmenopausal women younger than age 65 years, the USPSTF recommended screening with bone measurement testing for those at increased risk of osteoporosis, as determined by a formal clinical risk assessment tool (B recommendation). For men, the evidence was insufficient to assess the balance of benefits and harms (I statement). These recommendations and statements were consistent with the prior recommendation from 2011 ;² the primary difference was that for postmenopausal women younger than age 65 years, the 2018 recommendation updated the threshold to consider bone mineral density (BMD) testing based on fracture risk assessment. The USPSTF suggested that postmenopausal women younger than age 65 years with at least the 10-year risk of major osteoporotic fracture (MOF) from the Fracture Risk Assessment Tool (FRAX®) for a 65-year-old White woman of average weight (73.9 kg) and height (160.3 cm) based on National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2011–2014 data (MOF risk of 8.4%) could be used to identify younger women for bone measurement testing.^{1, 3}

Condition Definition

Osteoporosis is a disorder of the skeletal system and is characterized by decreased bone mass, microarchitectural deterioration of bone tissue, and a consequent increase in bone fragility and risk of fractures. ⁴ The ability to measure bone density (related to bone mass) using dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) in grams/centimeter², also referred to as areal BMD, was available in routine clinical practice by the 1990s. However, differences in DXA machines made by different manufacturers led to widely varying absolute BMD results (in grams/centimeter²) for a single individual depending on the machine used. This variation led to the use of relative measures to express BMD results, specifically T-scores, to account for variation across DXA machines. In 1994, the World Health Organization (WHO) operationalized the definition of osteoporosis in postmenopausal White women as bone density at the hip or spine that is 2.5 standard deviations (SDs) or lower (T-score \leq -2.5) than the mean BMD measured at the femoral neck (FN) for a reference population of young healthy White women. WHO chose this threshold because the lifetime risk of osteoporotic fracture in women was at least 30 to 40 percent and a Tscore of -2.5 (acknowledged by WHO as somewhat arbitrary) would categorize approximately 30 percent of women as having osteoporosis. At the time this threshold was selected, it was not known whether the 30 percent of women identified based on T-score would be the same women who would eventually have a fracture.^{5, 6} We now know that although there is some overlap in these populations, they are not the same.

Soon after the WHO definition, DXA machine manufacturers reached consensus on using a specific reference population for FN and total hip (TH) BMD measurements that is still used today. This reference population is White women ages 20 to 29 years from NHANES III (1988–

1994).⁷ After the implementation of T-scores to report BMD for women, BMD for men was still being reported in reference to a young male population.⁸ However, because males have a higher average BMD than females, the same absolute BMD measurement in grams/centimeter² for a male would result in a lower T-score in reference to a young male population than in reference to a young female population.⁸ Because fracture risk for males and females is similar at the same absolute BMD (in grams/centimeter²),⁹ the use of sex-specific reference populations for generating T-scores results in more osteoporosis diagnoses and treatment among males compared with females with the same absolute BMD.⁸ The sex differences in BMD do not appear to be explained by nutrition, level of activity, weight, or lean mass but may be explained by bone size.¹⁰

The use of country- or race-specific reference populations to calculate T-scores also leads to different T-scores for the same absolute BMD. To ensure that the same absolute BMD result in grams/centimeter² generates the same T-score worldwide, it is necessary for all DXA manufacturers to use the same reference population for all persons (without regard to sex, race, or country of origin). Thus, the International Society for Clinical Densitometry recommended using the Caucasian (non-race-adjusted) young female NHANES III reference standard for calculating FN and TH BMD T-scores for both males and females and for all racial and ethnic groups.¹¹ Because lumbar spine (LS) BMD was not included in NHANES III data, DXA machines use their own reference data for reporting T-scores at the LS. These are referred to as "local reference populations" and vary by manufacturer.

Osteoporosis and low bone mass (T-score between -1.0 and -2.5, formerly referred to as osteopenia) are asymptomatic risk factors for fragility fractures (also known as "low-energy" or "low-trauma" fractures), which are fractures sustained from a fall from standing height or lower that would not cause a fracture in most healthy persons.¹² Although low-trauma hip and vertebral fractures are usually considered to be fragility fractures, low-trauma fractures at other skeletal sites often depend on the fall circumstances, and there is debate as to whether such fractures should be considered fragility fractures. For example, higher physical activity is associated with an increased risk for wrist fracture but lower risk of proximal humerus fractures. Bone density is one of many risk factors for fragility fractures, and persons with a BMD in the osteoporotic range have a higher relative risk of fragility facture compared with those in the low or normal bone mass range. But the majority of fragility fractures actually occur in persons with low or normal bone mass because these categories of BMD include many more people compared with the category of persons with osteoporosis.¹³⁻¹⁶ As a result, some experts have suggested a revision to the operational definition of osteoporosis.¹⁷ Many consider a personal history of a fragility fracture as pathognomonic for osteoporosis, regardless of T-score. The U.K. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence noted that although osteoporosis is defined by a T-score of -2.5 or below on a DXA scan, the diagnosis may be assumed in women age 75 years or older if the responsible clinician considers a DXA scan to be clinically inappropriate or infeasible.¹⁸ The National Bone Health Alliance has proposed that in addition to a T-score of less than or equal to -2.5 at the spine or hip, the identification of a hip fracture; vertebral, proximal humerus, pelvis, or some wrist fractures in persons with low bone mass; or fracture risk assessment scores above prespecified thresholds should confer an osteoporosis diagnosis.^{19, 20}

Prevalence and Burden of Disease

An analysis of NHANES data from 2017 to 2018 suggests an age-adjusted prevalence of osteoporosis of 12.6 percent among the noninstitutionalized U.S. population age 50 years or older; the prevalence was higher in women $(19.6%)$ compared with men $(4.4%)$.²¹ Prevalence is higher among persons age 65 years or older (Women 27.1%, Men 5.7%) compared with persons ages 50 to 64 years (Women 13.1%, Men 3.3%).²¹ Prevalence also varied by race and ethnicity: prevalence was 12.9 percent in non-Hispanic White persons, 18.4 percent in non-Hispanic Asian persons, and 14.7 percent in Hispanic persons; these differences were not statistically significant.²² The prevalence in non-Hispanic Black persons was 6.8 percent and was significantly different from other racial and ethnic groups.²² The prevalence of osteoporosis or low bone mass is 51.5 percent in women and 33.5 percent in men.²¹

The most worrisome concern resulting from osteoporosis is a fragility fracture, which can lead to significant morbidity and mortality.²³ These fractures are associated with an increase in excess mortality,²⁴ risk of subsequent fractures,²⁵⁻²⁷ loss of independence,^{28, 29} reduced ability to perform activities of daily living, $28, 29$ and psychological consequences.²⁹ Mortality associated with a hip fracture is highest in the first few months immediately after the fracture.^{30, 31} Although osteoporosis and fragility fractures are more common in women than men,³² excess mortality is more common in men.³²⁻³⁴ Among Medicare beneficiaries in 2016, 40 percent with a new osteoporotic fracture were hospitalized within a week of fracture, and among those with hip fracture, 90 percent were hospitalized.³⁵ One review found that only between 40 and 60 percent of persons experiencing a hip fracture recovered their prefracture level of mobility and ability to perform instrumental activities of daily living, while only 40 to 70 percent gained their level of independence for basic activities of daily living.²⁸ The burden associated with hip fractures is more commonly reported than the burden associated with vertebral or other fractures, leading to a concern that the burden from vertebral fractures and other fractures may be underestimated.^{23,} ³⁶ However, despite excess mortality associated with fractures, trials of fracture prevention have not clearly demonstrated a reduction in mortality.

Based on Medicare fee-for-service and Medicare Advantage data, the number of beneficiaries who experienced a new osteoporotic fracture was 1.8 million in 2016.³⁵ Appendix A Table 1 depicts the age-standardized incidence of hip fractures from a cohort of over 1.8 million Medicare Advantage health plan enrollees between 2007 and 2017.³⁵ Age-standardized incidence rates of fragility fractures decreased between 2007 and 2013.^{35, 37} This decline was hypothesized to be because of increasing rates of obesity, increasing use of antiresorptive agents, and birth cohort effects.³⁸ However, because of the aging of the population, the absolute incidence is increasing. Further, recent studies have suggested that the decline in age-standardized fracture rates may have plateaued in the last 5 to 7 years.^{35, 39, 40}

Etiology and Natural History

Fragility fractures can be a consequence of osteoporosis. Although those with osteoporosis have the greatest relative risk of fracture, most fractures occur in those with low bone mass (i.e., Tscores between -1.0 and 2.5) or normal bone density (T-score >-1) because they represent a greater share of the population.^{13, 41-45}

Osteoporosis may occur either without a known cause (referred to as primary osteoporosis) or secondary to a medical condition or medications (referred to as secondary osteoporosis).⁴⁶ Postmenopausal osteoporosis is considered a type of primary osteoporosis.⁴⁶ Secondary osteoporosis is bone loss associated with certain medical conditions: various endocrine conditions of the pituitary, thyroid, parathyroid, or reproductive organs; eating disorders; disorders of the gastrointestinal (GI) or biliary tract; renal disease; bone marrow disorders; and cancer.^{46, 47} Secondary osteoporosis can also result after organ transplantation and can arise from chronic use of medications with known deleterious effects on bone mass, such as glucocorticoids, immunosuppressants, antiepileptic medications, heparin, gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists, and some long-acting progesterone agents used as contraceptives (which may be reversible).^{46, 47} The identification and management of secondary osteoporosis is outside of the scope of the USPSTF's current recommendation.

A biological basis for differences in the age of onset and the prevalence of osteoporosis between males and females exists. We note that most of the research in the area of bone metabolism and fractures uses the terms "men" and "women" to refer to biological sex (male and female); we use the terms used by individual study authors in this report, which is typically "men" and "women." Women lose bone mass at a younger age, and the rate of loss is faster than for men.¹⁰ The prevalence of low bone mass in women increases rapidly beginning around age 60 years, and the prevalence of osteoporosis doubles by age 70 years, whereas the prevalence of osteoporosis only doubles by age 80 years for men.¹⁰ Transmen and transwomen who have not undergone any hormonal treatment associated with transitioning likely have the same risks and prevalence as persons assigned female and male sex at birth, respectively.

Data from the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation (SWAN),⁴⁸ a multisite longitudinal epidemiologic study in the United States, reported that bone turnover increases about 2 years before the final menstrual period, increases rapidly for the next 4 years with a peak 2 years after the final menstrual period, and subsequently plateaus thereafter. However, the rate of turnover after this plateau is approximately 20 percent higher than premenopausal levels. In SWAN, larger increases in bone turnover were observed for women with body mass index (BMI) less than 25 kg/m², and the smallest increases in turnover were observed in women with BMI greater than 30 kg/m². Furthermore, higher turnover levels were observed among Japanese Americans, and smaller turnover levels were observed among African Americans, even after adjusting for other variables such as BMI.

Risk Factors

Although bone density is an important risk factor for fragility fractures for both males and females, advancing age is the more critical determinant.⁴⁹ Older adults have much higher fracture rates than younger adults with the same BMD because of concurrent increasing risk from declining bone quality and an increasing tendency to fall.⁵⁰ Appendix A Figure 1 demonstrates the impact of age on estimated fracture risk based on the FRAX calibrated to the U.S. population by race (Caucasian, Black, Hispanic, Asian). As seen in this figure, the risk of fracture is higher at age 70 years compared with age 50 years, holding BMD constant for both males and females of all races and ethnicities. Race-neutral estimated fracture risks from FRAX calibrated to the Canadian and U.K. populations are also provided in this figure for comparison.

Bone density may not be as useful a predictor of fracture risk, particularly in younger persons. An Australian case-control study evaluating the relationship between osteoporosis and fragility fractures found that only 20 percent of women ages 50 to 59 years with incident fracture had osteoporosis. In comparison, 45 percent, 60 percent, and 70 percent of those ages 60 to 69 years, 70 to 79 years, and age 80 years or older with incident fractures had osteoporosis.⁴⁵ Fractures in younger persons that occur at some sites (e.g., wrist) may be associated with higher physical activity levels and greater risk-taking behaviors, so some experts have suggested they should not be considered fragility fractures.

Aside from medical conditions and medications (e.g., corticosteroids) associated with secondary osteoporosis, additional risk factors include menopausal status in women, previous osteoporotic fracture, low body weight (less than 58 kg [127 lbs]), parental history of hip fracture, cigarette smoking, and excess alcohol consumption.^{51, 52} Diabetes treated with insulin (type 1 or type 2) increases the risk of fracture but has a variable relationship with BMD. Type 1 diabetes is associated with a reduction in BMD and an increased risk of fracture. Type 2 diabetes has a variable relationship. Some studies have observed that type 2 diabetes mellitus (DM) is associated with both increased BMD and fracture risk, suggesting BMD may be less useful in predicting fracture risk because bone integrity, not density, may be responsible for fracture in this population.⁵³ However, two recent large cohort studies suggest negligible contribution of type 2 DM to overall fracture risk. One study among men in the United Kingdom observed no association between type 2 DM and future fracture, 54 while another study among adults in Sweden observed a small increase in relative risk of MOF and in hip fracture for persons with diabetes, but negligible contribution of diabetes to overall fracture risk when all other risks were considered.⁵⁵ Further, the association between type 2 DM and fracture risk was absent when competing mortality was considered.

A systematic review (SR) and meta-analysis identified risk factors associated with fragility fractures in men.⁵⁶ The review found statistically significant associations between fractures and increasing age, low BMI, excessive alcohol intake (daily intake or greater than 10 servings per week), current smoking, chronic corticosteroid use, history of prior fractures, history of falls within the past year, hypogonadism, history of cerebrovascular accident, and history of diabetes.

Racial differences in both the prevalence of osteoporosis and incidence of osteoporotic fractures are discussed in detail in **Appendix A Contextual Question 3**. Studies reported lower fracture incidence in Asian, Hispanic, and Black populations compared with White populations among both men and women.⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹ Decreases in BMD are observed with increasing age across all races and ethnicities, but differences in BMD alone are not sufficient to explain racial and ethnic differences in fracture incidence. For example, Asian women have been found to have lower BMD than White women but lower fracture risk.⁶⁰⁻⁶² Moreover, racial categories are broad, are socially determined, and vary between countries. It is possible that unaccounted for environmental differences between racial and ethnic groups are responsible for differences in fracture incidence or that racial and ethnic differences in fracture incidence may reflect differences in underlying clinical risks in these populations. U.S. racial categories obscure the tremendous diversity that occurs within racial groups.

Rationale for Screening/Screening Strategies

The rationale for screening is to identify persons with osteoporosis or at risk of a fragility fracture and provide treatment to increase bone mass or prevent further losses to minimize the occurrence of fragility fractures and related morbidity.

Bone Measurement Tests

As described earlier, the WHO defines osteoporosis in postmenopausal females and males age 50 years or older as a BMD measurement associated with a T-score of -2.5 or lower obtained through DXA at a central skeletal site (e.g., total hip, FN, or LS). This definition is widely used throughout the world and has remained unchanged for decades. Compared with other imaging modalities, DXA has been correlated to biomechanical bone strength and clinical fracture outcomes and uses low doses of radiation.⁶³ Further, centrally measured DXA was the test used for diagnosis of osteoporosis among participants enrolled in nearly all trials of bone-conserving pharmacotherapies.⁶⁴ Evidence suggests that BMD at any skeletal site can predict fracture risk, but fracture risk at a specific site (e.g., hip or spine) is best predicted by BMD measurement at that site.⁶⁵ Further, morbidity of fragility fractures at central sites, particularly the hip, is much higher than morbidity of fragility fractures that occur at other sites.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ For these reasons, and because centrally measured DXA does not require any followup tests to confirm the diagnosis of osteoporosis, it is the test recommended for assessing BMD and is the one that is used most widely.

Other bone measurement tests are available but are not in widespread use for primary screening.⁶³ These include enhancements to traditional DXA scanning such as vertebral fracture assessment or trabecular bone score, quantitative ultrasound, DXA measured at peripheral sites (e.g., wrist), quantitative computed tomography, and radiograph absorptiometry. ⁶⁹ However, none of these tests were used to identify participants for randomized, controlled trials (RCTs) of pharmacotherapy for fracture prevention.

Risk Assessment Tools

BMD alone may not be a sensitive enough screening tool for identifying persons at high fracture risk.⁶⁹ Some experts recommend a screening approach that assesses for increased fracture risk, rather than identifying osteoporosis, because 1) most fragility fractures occur in persons without osteoporosis, 2) measured bone density only reflects one aspect of bone quality, and 3) nonskeletal factors also contribute to fracture risk.⁶⁹ Several risk assessment tools that incorporate age and sex, with or without other risk factors, have been developed to assess the risk for current osteoporosis or to predict the risk for future fragility fracture. **Appendix A Table 2** summarizes tools that were evaluated in the prior review for the USPSTF.^{3, 70} These tools were originally developed to either 1) identify osteoporosis or 2) predict fracture risk, but subsequent studies have evaluated the diagnostic or predictive accuracy of many of them with respect to both outcomes. However, some of the risk assessment tools were developed on small cohorts using homogenous populations or have limited published evidence. Three instruments $(FRAX, ^{12, 71}$ Fracture Risk Calculator [FRC],^{72, 73} and the Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator^{74, 75}) can be used with or without BMD as a risk factor input. The instruments designed to identify

osteoporosis generally require fewer risk inputs than instruments designed to predict future fracture. Additionally, several instruments include risk factors (such as personal history of fragility fracture or medical conditions or medications known to be associated with secondary osteoporosis), suggesting that the population for which these tools were developed includes persons beyond a general primary care screening population.

Some risk assessment instruments incorporate race or ethnicity as a risk factor. These include the Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation (SCORE) to identify a person's current risk for osteoporosis (i.e., T-score $\langle -2.5 \rangle^{76}$ and two fracture risk prediction instruments: FRAX, calibrated for use internationally, and QFracture, developed for use in the United Kingdom.⁷⁷ Additional information about how race and ethnicity are used in these risk assessment tools is in **Appendix A Contextual Question 2**.

The most studied fracture risk assessment instrument is FRAX; however, its underlying model parameters are not publicly available. It was derived from nine cohorts in Europe, the United States, Japan, and Canada and further validated in an additional 11 cohort studies.^{12, 71} Detailed information about FRAX is in **Appendix A Additional Background**. As of release version 4.2, 73 different country-specific versions of FRAX are available that have been calibrated using country-specific fracture incidence and mortality data, which is considered a competing risk in the model.⁷⁸ As of 2016, FRAX was incorporated into 120 guidelines worldwide and added into DXA machine software following regulatory approval by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and has been incorporated into clinical decision support tools within electronic health record systems.⁶⁹ For the United States, four different versions of FRAX are available that have been calibrated based on racial- and ethnic-specific fracture incidence data, including a version for non-Hispanic Caucasians, a version for non-Hispanic Blacks, a version for Hispanics, and a version for non-Hispanic Asians. It is unclear what version of FRAX clinicians should use for persons who are mixed race, of other races, or immigrants from other countries who are now living in the United States.⁷⁹ In the wake of recent attention to racial bias in clinical algorithms, some have raised questions regarding the validity of race-specific FRAX calculators, which predict lower rates of fracture for people of color compared with White persons of the same age, BMD, and clinical risk factors.^{80, $\hat{\delta}^1$} Few countries other than the United States have developed race-specific versions of FRAX, and other countries with similar ethnic diversity as the United States (e.g., United Kingdom, Australia, Canada) use a single version of FRAX with all races and ethnicities.

Interventions

Reducing fracture risk involves addressing underlying modifiable risks through approaches such as smoking cessation, increased physical activity, avoidance of heavy alcohol use, adequate calcium and vitamin D intake, and fall prevention interventions in older persons at increased risk for falls. However, most relevant to the scope of this update is the use of pharmacologic treatment to increase bone mass or prevent further loss of bone mass.

First-line therapy typically includes drugs within the bisphosphonate class. FDA-approved drugs for prevention or treatment include four bisphosphonates (alendronate, zoledronic acid, risedronate, ibandronate), the RANK-ligand inhibitor denosumab, the sclerostin inhibitor

romosozumab, recombinant parathyroid hormone agents (teriparatide, abaloparatide), estrogen (with or without progesterone), selective estrogen receptor modulators (raloxifene, bazedoxifene in combination with estrogen), and calcitonin. Although most second-line agents have demonstrated efficacy at reducing loss of bone mass or decreasing fragility fractures, not all have demonstrated efficacy for specifically reducing hip fractures.^{82, 83} Off-label treatments (i.e., drugs that do not have an FDA-approved indication for the prevention or treatment of osteoporosis) include testosterone, tamoxifen, and other bisphosphonates (i.e., etidronate, pamidronate, tiludronate). **Appendix A Table 3** provides detailed information related to bisphosphonate drugs with FDA-approved indications and denosumab for the prevention or treatment of osteoporosis in the United States.

For primary prevention of fractures, pharmacotherapy is generally recommended for T-scores of -2.5 or less (osteoporosis). Further, pharmacotherapy may also be warranted based on shared decision making for persons with T-scores between -1.0 and -2.5 (low bone mass) who are at high risk for fracture as determined based on clinical judgment or increasingly based on standardized risk calculators such as FRAX. For primary fracture prevention in the United States, the Bone Health and Osteoporosis Foundation (formerly known as the National Osteoporosis Foundation [NOF]) recommends treatment for individuals with low bone mass who have a 10-year hip fracture risk of at least 3 percent or a 10-year MOF risk of at least 20 percent based on FRAX.⁸⁴ The hip fracture risk threshold was selected based on a U.S.-specific economic analysis of cost-effectiveness from a societal perspective sponsored by the NOF and that assumed one-step BMD screening, use of generic bisphosphonates, and a willingness-to-pay threshold of \$60,000 per quality-adjusted life-year gained.^{80, 85} These treatment thresholds have not been evaluated in trials. The use of absolute fracture risk in addition to BMD increases the number of candidates for pharmacologic therapy in the United States.^{86, 87} Some countries have adopted the U.S. thresholds for intervention, while others use age-dependent thresholds or a combination of fixed and age-dependent thresholds.⁸⁸ Countries may establish different risk thresholds for initiating treatment based on country-specific epidemiology, competing health priorities, costs, and resource availability.⁸⁸ For example, Japan recommends the use of FRAX in persons without a prior fracture with a T-score between -1.8 and -2.7 and recommends treatment for an MOF risk of 15 percent or higher.⁸⁹

Current Clinical Practice

Screening and primary prevention of osteoporosis in asymptomatic adults without known risks for secondary osteoporosis or prior fragility fracture is within the scope of practice for most primary care providers (PCPs). Guidelines developed by various organizations and specialty societies vary widely and provide recommendations based on age, sex, menopausal status, and other characteristics (**Appendix A Table 4**). Many guidelines recommend fracture risk assessment, DXA measurement, or both. Variation with respect to population, timing, and frequency also exists. Some guidelines include recommendations for those with prior fractures or at-risk conditions (e.g., long-term glucocorticoid steroid use), which is beyond the scope of the review for the USPSTF.

In 2023, the Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care (CTFPHC) issued updated recommendations for screening to prevent primary fragility fractures.⁹⁰ The CTFPHC

recommends screening women age 65 years or older with the Canadian FRAX tool to facilitate shared decision making about pharmacotherapy. If pharmacotherapy is a consideration, it then recommends ordering DXA testing to facilitate re-estimation of fracture risk with a BMD input. The CTFPHC recommends against screening in men age 40 years or older and in women younger than age 65 years.

For primary osteoporosis, nearly all guidelines acknowledge that a variety of medications are available and can be effective for treating osteoporosis. Some specifically state that bisphosphonates should be used as first-line therapy. Some also suggest denosumab as initial therapy, particularly for patients who are intolerant of bisphosphonates or because of its proven efficacy for reducing hip fracture.⁹¹ However, as the field has evolved from focusing solely on the treatment of osteoporosis to identification and treatment of high fracture risk, guidelines diverge about when to treat. Some guidelines focus on BMD exclusively when deciding whether to begin treatment, others on predicted fracture risk assessment, often without a specific rationale.

An SR of osteoporotic fracture risk assessment and treatment guidelines identified 120 guidelines⁸⁸ recommending the use of FRAX-based fracture risks for conducting DXA testing and considering treatment. Of these, 38 did not provide a rationale for how fracture probabilities derived should be used for decision making. Some guidelines recommend DXA testing or treatment using fixed-probability thresholds (k=58, a group that includes the USPSTF 2011 and 2018 recommendations), while others recommend an age-dependent threshold $(k=22)$ or a combination of the two $(k=2)$. Of the guidelines referencing fixed-probability thresholds for treatment, over half $(k=39)$ reference an absolute fracture risk of 20 percent or greater for MOF as the threshold for treatment in those with low bone mass.

Implementation in Practice

The implementation of screening for osteoporosis in practice is heavily influenced by quality performance measures related to this service. In 2006, the National Committee for Quality Assurance introduced the Healthcare Effectiveness Data and Information Set measure assessing the percentage of women ages 65 to 85 years who report ever having received a bone density test to screen for osteoporosis.⁹² The rate of receipt of bone density tests rose in the ensuing decade.⁹³ In 2006, 64.4 percent of women ages 65 to 85 years in a Medicare health maintenance organization plan and 71.3 percent in a Medicare preferred provider organization reported ever having a bone density test. By 2014, these numbers had risen to 74.2 percent and 78.5 percent, respectively. The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) Measures Inventory now includes "Screening for Osteoporosis for Women Ages 65–85 Years of Age."⁹⁴ Despite these quality measures, a review of the CMS data between 2006 and 2016 found that performance gaps persist in osteoporosis identification and treatment.⁹² A study using a sample of U.S. Medicare claims-based data evaluated physician-reported reasons for not providing recommended screening or treatment. In this study, 24 percent of claims documented that care was considered but not provided because of contraindications, other reasons, or patient preference.⁹⁵ This suggests that it may be difficult to achieve further improvement on this measure beyond current levels. However, racial differences in screening and treatment exist. Black women are less likely to be screened and treated for osteoporosis than White women.^{96, 97} Additional information about

differences in receipt of screening and treatment for osteoporosis by race and ethnicity is addressed in **Appendix A Contextual Question 4**.

Although some underuse may exist, some studies have also identified overuse of BMD screening. The Choosing Wisely Campaign, which is endorsed by multiple medical societies, lists bone density testing as a test that should be considered carefully before ordering in women younger than age 65 years and in men younger than age 70 years with no risk factors.⁹⁸ The National Physicians Alliance Good Stewardship Working Group defines overuse as DXA screening in women younger than age 65 years or men younger than 70 years with no risk factors.⁹⁹ CMS includes a measure to decrease overuse: "Appropriate Use of DXA Scans in Women Under 65 Years Who Do Not Meet the Risk Factor Profile for Osteoporotic Fracture (eCQM)." ¹⁰⁰ Findings from the National Ambulatory Medical Care Survey indicated that overuse of DXA in primary care accounted for \$527 million per year in expenditures.¹⁰¹ Further, a study in a large regional healthcare system suggested that about one half of women younger than age 65 years without risk factors received DXA screening over a 7-year period.⁹⁶

Poor treatment adherence among those identified with osteoporosis and offered medication potentially limits the beneficial impact of widespread, routine screening. In one study conducted in the United States, nearly 30 percent of persons who were prescribed bisphosphonates filled the prescription, and only half of those who filled the prescription were still taking medication 1 year later.¹⁰² In an analysis of a U.S. commercial insurance database from January 2009 to March 2020, alendronate was the most common medication used for osteoporosis, representing just over 60 percent of prescriptions for bone-directed therapies.¹⁰³ Further, denosumab prescriptions increased since 2009 and represented about 20 percent of prescriptions by the end of the study period, outpacing all other medications except alendronate.¹⁰³ Over 92 percent of prescriptions were directed to women and 76 percent were to persons older than the age of 65 years.¹⁰³

Chapter 2. Methods

Key Questions and Analytic Framework

The Evidence-based Practice Center (EPC) investigators, USPSTF members, and Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) Medical Officers developed the scope and key questions (KQs). **Figure 1** shows the analytic framework and KQs that guided the review. Five KQs were developed for this review:

- 1. Does screening for fracture risk or osteoporosis reduce fractures and fracture-related morbidity and mortality in adults?
- 2a. What is the predictive accuracy of risk assessment tools for identifying adults who are at increased risk for hip fractures or major osteoporotic fractures?
- 2b. What is the predictive accuracy of BMD testing with DXA at central skeletal sites for identifying adults who are at increased risk for hip or major osteoporotic fractures?
- 2c. What is the diagnostic accuracy of risk assessment tools for identifying adults with osteoporosis?
- 2d. What is the evidence to determine screening intervals, and how do these intervals vary by baseline or current individual fracture risk?
- 3. What are the harms of screening for fracture risk or osteoporosis?
- 4. What is the effectiveness of pharmacotherapy with selected FDA-approved medications on fracture incidence and fracture-related morbidity and mortality?
- 5. What are the harms associated with selected FDA-approved medications?

We also addressed the following contextual questions:

- 1. What is the evidence from modeling studies about the effectiveness of risk screening strategies that use different ages at which to start and stop screening and different screening intervals?
- 2. How do various fracture risk assessment tools use race and ethnicity in fracture risk calculations?
- 3. What is the incidence of fractures among persons of different races and ethnicities in the United States in the last 10 to 15 years, and what factors might explain differences in incidence among different races and ethnicities?
- 4. What are the differences in rates of screening or treatment initiation among persons of different races and ethnicities, and what might explain these differences?
- 5. What are the implications of using fixed-fracture risk thresholds for decisions regarding stepwise screening or treatment?
- 6. What is the evidence for rare harms of bisphosphonate treatment (i.e., osteonecrosis of the jaw, atypical femur fractures) from observational studies that use noneligible control groups or are uncontrolled?
- 7. What is the evidence for rebound fractures after discontinuation of denosumab?

These contextual questions are not shown in the analytic framework because they were not analyzed using the same systematic methods as the KQs. They were intended to provide additional background or contextual information for interpreting the results of the KQ and were addressed through targeted literature searches to identify the most recent and relevant information to the questions at hand.

Data Sources and Searches

We searched PubMed/MEDLINE, Embase, and the Cochrane Library for English-language articles published through January 9, 2024. We used Medical Subject Headings as search terms and keywords when appropriate to describe relevant populations, tests, interventions, outcomes, and study designs and applied additional limits on the completed search to remove case reports, case series, articles with child in the title, and articles with a type categorized as conference abstract. The complete search strategy for all data sources is detailed in **Appendix B.1**. We conducted targeted searches for unpublished literature by searching ClinicalTrials.gov and the WHO International Clinical Trials Registry Platform. In addition to database searches, we reviewed reference lists of relevant articles, studies suggested by expert reviewers, and comments received during public commenting periods. Since January 2024, we conducted ongoing surveillance through article alerts and targeted searches of journals to identify major studies published in the interim that may affect the conclusions or understanding of the evidence and the related USPSTF recommendation. The last surveillance was conducted on July 31, 2024.

Study Selection

We developed inclusion and exclusion criteria for populations, interventions, comparators, outcomes, settings, and study designs with input from the USPSTF (**Appendix B.2**). We included good- or fair-quality, English-language studies focused on adults age 40 years or older conducted in countries categorized as *very high* on the Human Development Index.¹⁰⁴ Other criteria were specific to each KQ. For KQ 1 (direct benefits of screening), we included controlled trials of screening vs. no screening or usual care that reported fracture or mortality outcomes among persons not known to have osteoporosis, prior fragility fracture, or medical conditions or medications associated with secondary osteoporosis. Eligible screening strategies comprised risk assessment instruments, DXA measurement of BMD, or both. For KQ 3, we used similar criteria as KQ 1 except that we looked for harms of screening and allowed for controlled cohort studies in addition to trials.

For KQ 2, we included cohort studies or SRs of cohort studies that evaluated the accuracy of risk assessment instruments (KQ 2a) or BMD alone (KQ 2b) for predicting future incident fractures or the diagnostic accuracy of DXA for identifying osteoporosis (KQ 2c). For predictive accuracy, we sought studies reporting calibration or discrimination outcomes and for diagnostic accuracy, we sought studies reporting discrimination outcomes. Calibration measures the extent to which predicted fracture risks are similar to observed risks over time for the population overall and across the spectrum of predicted risks. Discrimination measures the extent to which a risk assessment (KQ 2a) or BMD (KQ 2b) identifies persons who ultimately experience a fracture as higher risk compared with those who do not. For KQ 2c, discrimination measures the extent to which risk assessment instruments identify persons with osteoporosis compared with those without osteoporosis. Discrimination reported with area under the receiver operating characteristics curve (AUC), sensitivity, and specificity were eligible for KQ 2a, 2b, and 2c. For risk assessment instruments, we included only instruments that had been evaluated in at least two independent external cohorts to the development cohort. We allowed risk assessment instruments that had been evaluated in only one external cohort if it was conducted in men because of a more limited pool of evidence for use of such tools in men. We limited primary research studies for KQ 2a and 2b to studies conducted in countries with hip fracture incidence similar to the United States.¹⁰⁵ We did not include any accuracy data from model development cohorts. For KQ 2a and KQ 2b, we included poor-quality studies because of the limited pool of good- or fair-quality predictive accuracy studies. For KQ 2d, we included studies reporting data that would inform conclusions related to screening intervals.

For KQs 4 and 5 (benefits and harms of treatment), we included RCTs or controlled cohort studies (for harms only) that reported on FDA-approved bisphosphonates or denosumab compared with placebo and that reported fracture, mortality, or harm outcomes. The review was limited to these agents for women because this was not a comprehensive review of all treatment options and bisphosphonates and denosumab are the most frequently prescribed agents. We also considered studies of teriparatide, abaloparatide, or romosozumab for men because of the limited pool of treatment studies among men. We excluded studies where the majority of enrolled participants had secondary osteoporosis or prior fragility fractures.

Two team members independently reviewed titles, abstracts, and full-text articles using study selection criteria to determine inclusion in or exclusion from this update. Disagreements were resolved by discussion or review by a third reviewer. We reassessed studies included in the prior 2018 review^{3, 70} against the updated study selection criteria for this update. We screened all citations using the DistillerSR platform (DistillerSR, Inc.) and managed citations using EndNote Version 9.2 (ClarivateTM).

Data Abstraction and Quality Assessment

One reviewer abstracted relevant information for each included study into a structured form in DistillerSR including design, population, intervention, comparator, outcomes, timing, and setting. A second person reviewed all data abstractions for accuracy. We considered data from the same study population or cohort but reported in separate publications as one study. We contacted study authors to clarify study data when needed.

We assessed the risk of bias for each included study using design-specific risk of bias assessments (RoB 2 for RCTs, 106 ROBINS-I for nonrandomized studies of interventions, 107 QUADAS-2 for diagnostic test accuracy,¹⁰⁸ ROBIS for SRs).^{109, 110} For predictive accuracy of risk assessment instruments, we first evaluated the risk of bias of each instrument in its development cohort(s) using the full PROBAST risk of bias instrument adapted to include health equity signaling items.^{111, 112} We next evaluated the risk of bias of studies assessing these instruments in external validation cohorts using an adapted version of the PROBAST short form.¹¹⁰ For all study designs, we translated risk-of-bias ratings from instruments to methodological quality ratings using predefined criteria developed by the USPSTF and adapted for this topic (**Appendix B.3**). ¹¹³ Two independent investigators assigned quality ratings for each study. Disagreements were resolved by discussion or review by a third reviewer.

Data Synthesis and Analysis

We synthesized findings for each KQ in tabular and narrative format. To determine whether meta-analyses were appropriate, we assessed the clinical and methodological heterogeneity of the studies following established guidance that includes evaluating the similarities in study population, intervention, dose, and frequency and similarities in timing and specification of outcomes.¹¹⁴ For KQs 1, 3, 4, and 5, when at least two similar studies were available, quantitative synthesis was conducted with random-effects models using the inverse-variance weighted method (DerSimonian and Laird) to estimate pooled effects.¹¹⁵ We calculated pooled relative risks (RRs) and 95 percent confidence intervals (CIs) for fracture and mortality outcomes; we then re-expressed the pooled RRs as absolute risk differences (ARDs) per 1,000 persons screened or treated.¹¹⁶ Statistical significance was assumed when 95 percent CIs of pooled results did not cross the null effect. All testing was two-sided. For all quantitative syntheses, we used the I^2 statistic to assess statistical heterogeneity.^{117, 118} An I^2 from 0 to 40 percent might not be important, 30 to 60 percent may represent moderate heterogeneity, 50 to 90 percent may represent substantial heterogeneity, and 75 percent or greater represents considerable heterogeneity.^{117, 118} For KO 4 and KO 5, data were pooled across dosage groups for studies with more than one active intervention arm and we conducted sensitivity analyses for alternative types of vertebral fractures (clinical vs. vertebral), for drug dosages that were not FDA-approved dosages, and for alternative pooling methods to account for rare or zero events in one or both study arms.¹¹³ We conducted all quantitative analyses using Stata version 17 (StataCorp LLC).

We assessed the overall strength of the body of evidence for each comparison and outcome organized by KQ as high, moderate, low, or insufficient using methods developed for the USPSTF (and the EPC program), based on the quality of studies and limitations, consistency of results between studies, precision of findings, and risk of reporting bias.^{113, 119} We also assessed the applicability of the findings to U.S. primary care populations and settings.

Expert Review and Public Comment

A draft research plan for this topic was posted on the USPSTF website for public comment from August 12, 2021, to September 9, 2021. In response, the USPSTF included additional outcomes,

added two contextual questions regarding rare but serious harms, and listed special populations of interest. The USPSTF also made several minor additions and wording changes to improve the clarity and specificity of the research approach.

A draft report was reviewed by four content experts, five representatives of federal partners, USPSTF members, and AHRQ Medical Officers and was revised based on comments received. In response to these comments, additional sensitivity analyses were conducted for KQ 1 and KQ 4 and new information related to overdiagnosis was added for KQ 3. Several new studies were added to KQ 2, and results were further stratified by men, women, and younger women. Additional sources of heterogeneity were discussed for KQ 2, and additional limitations were noted for all KQs. In addition, the draft report was posted for public comment from June 11, 2024, to July 8, 2024. Based on public comments, we made revisions to improve the clarity of the report, but no new eligible studies were identified.

USPSTF and AHRQ Involvement

Members of the USPSTF helped develop the scope of work, including the analytic framework and KQs, and review the evidence synthesis. AHRQ staff provided project oversight, conducted reviews of the draft report, and helped facilitate an external review of the evidence synthesis.

Chapter 3. Results

Results of Literature Searches

We included 145 unique studies published in 195 articles for this update review (**Figure 2**). Three RCTs and three SRs (published in 14 articles) reported direct evidence for the benefits of screening $(KQ 1)$.¹²⁰⁻¹³³ One RCT (published in 2 articles)^{120, 121} and one SR^{131, 132} reported on direct evidence for the harms of screening. Six $SRs^{131, 134-138}$ and 30 cohort studies (published in 49 articles)^{72, 73, 139-181} reported on the accuracy (discrimination or calibration or both) of various risk assessment instruments for predicting fracture (KQ 2a). Twenty-two unique cohorts (published in 28 articles) reported on the accuracy of BMD for predicting fracture $(KQ 2b)$.^{15, 146,} 150, 151, 154, 156, 157, 160-162, 166, 172, 175, 176, 179, 182-194 Findings from 43 unique cohorts published in 54 articles reported on the diagnostic accuracy of fracture risk assessment instruments for identifying osteoporosis as defined by a BMD T-score of less than -2.5 (KQ 2c).^{141, 143, 159, 195-245} Five studies reported information relevant to the determination of screening intervals (KQ 2d).²⁴⁶⁻²⁵⁰ Twenty-seven RCTs (published in 36 articles) reported on the benefits of treatment.²⁵¹⁻ 286 Lastly, 40 RCTs in 48 articles^{251-254, 256-269, 272-280, 284-304} and three controlled cohorts studies³⁰⁵⁻ ³⁰⁷ reported on the harms of treatment. A list of studies for which we reviewed the full-text article but excluded is provided in **Appendix C** along with the reason for exclusion. Note that although studies may have multiple reasons for exclusion, we only recorded one reason.

KQ 1. Does Screening for Fracture Risk or Osteoporosis Reduce Fractures or Fracture-Related Morbidity or Mortality in Adults?

We identified three pragmatic, fair-quality RCTs (published in 10 articles) that evaluated screening compared with no screening in older European women.¹²⁰⁻¹²⁹ In this section, we provide a summary of the study characteristics and findings from these trials. Detailed study, population, and intervention characteristics are described in **Appendix D Table 1** with additional narrative description in **Appendix E.1** and detailed outcomes in **Appendix D Table 8**. In addition, we identified three good-quality $SRs¹³⁰⁻¹³³$ that included these three trials. One of these SRs 131, 132 was conducted in support of the CTPHC's 2023 recommendation on screening for primary prevention of fragility fractures. ⁹⁰ Details about the included SRs are in **Appendix D Table 9** with SR quality ratings in **Appendix D Tables 23–27**.

Study Characteristics

We identified three fair-quality, pragmatic RCTs (**Table 1**): the Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation (ROSE) study (N=34,229 randomized population; N=18,605 per protocol 1 analysis population), ¹²⁶⁻¹²⁹ the Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women (SCOOP) study (N=12,483 randomized), $120-123$ and the Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst (SALT) Osteoporosis Study (SOS) (N=11,032 randomized).^{124, 125} ROSE and SOS are new to this update. All three RCTs randomized persons to screening vs. usual care (i.e., no systematic screening) and reported clinical fracture outcomes. All three RCTs included older European women (median ages, 71 to 76 years) who we presumed to be predominantly White (exact racial and ethnicity characteristics not reported in two of the three trials). Other inclusion

and exclusion criteria varied across studies. Among those enrolled, the mean or median 10-year FRAX-estimated risk of MOF was 19 percent in SCOOP, 20 percent in ROSE, and 24.6 percent in SOS; the 10-year estimated hip fracture risks were 8.5 percent, 6.7 percent, and 11.6 percent, respectively.120, 124, 126 The proportion of participants with a prior fracture was 12.6 percent in ROSE, 22 percent in SCOOP, and 43 percent in SOS; however, there was significant variability in the definition and reporting of prior fractures between trials.^{120, 124, 126}

Two RCTs (SCOOP¹²⁰ and ROSE¹²⁴) used a two-step screening intervention consisting of a FRAX risk assessment (without BMD input) on participants randomized to screening, then invited those with a high fracture risk score $(\geq 15\%$ risk for MOF in ROSE; at or above the agebased hip risk threshold in SCOOP) for DXA. In both studies, DXA results and treatment recommendations were shared with the participant and their PCP, who made final decisions about treatment. In contrast, SOS included women already known to have at least one clinical risk factor for osteoporosis and conducted a DXA, vertebral fracture assessment, blood chemistries, falls risk assessment, and FRAX without BMD input on all participants randomized to screening.¹²⁴ The FRAX risk was recalculated with BMD information, and results of all tests and recommendations were provided to the participant's PCP. The comparison group in all three studies was routine care as guided by the participant's PCP.

We rated study quality of the three primary research studies as fair largely because of issues related to contamination in the control groups, poor to modest adherence in the intervention groups, and lack of blinding, which was not feasible because of the pragmatic nature of the trials (**Appendix D Tables 18–22**).

In addition to the three primary studies that we included in our analysis, we identified three SRS ¹³⁰⁻¹³³ The SR authored by Merlijn et al¹³⁰ included the same three RCTs that we included in our analysis. The SR authored by Gates et al was performed in support of the CTFPHC recommendation and included two additional studies.¹³¹ One of these additional studies³⁰⁸ was excluded in the previous USPSTF SR on this topic³ for an ineligible study design as it was a nonconcurrent cohort study. The other additional study was an RCT of population-based screening with DXA compared with usual care in women ages 45 to 54 years (Aberdeen Prospective Osteoporosis Screening Study).³⁰⁹ Women with DXA results in the lowest quartile of the first 1,000 persons screened were considered "high risk," and their results were shared with their PCPs, who were advised to offer hormone replacement therapy when the woman reached menopause assuming no contraindications.³⁰⁹ This study was excluded in the previous USPSTF SR on this topic³ for poor quality. Further, the treatment intervention used in this study is no longer standard practice in the United States. The SR authored by Auais et al included the same three RCTs, plus 11 additional studies focused on cost or qualitative research studies.¹³³

Findings

All three included RCTs confirmed fractures through medical records or radiology reports and were powered for evaluating differences in any fracture (SCOOP, SOS) or MOF (ROSE). SOS also reported MOF outcomes and a broader composite of osteoporotic fractures, while SCOOP reported osteoporotic fractures excluding those of the hand, foot, skull, or cervical vertebrae. All three studies reported hip fractures as secondary outcomes.

The impact of screening on fracture and mortality outcomes is depicted in **Figure 3**. For fracture outcomes, we used the per-protocol results from the ROSE trial in our quantitative synthesis because this comparison was the most methodologically comparable with the intention to treat (ITT) analytic results in the SCOOP and SOS trials. Randomization in the SCOOP and SOS trials occurred after collection of the data that were needed to calculate a baseline FRAX score. The ROSE trial randomized participants prior to mailing the questionnaire used to collect information required to calculate baseline FRAX and nearly 40 percent of those randomized did not return the baseline questionnaire and so could not be included in subsequent steps of the screening intervention. The pooled RR for the effect of screening on hip fractures was 0.83 (95% CI, 0.73 to 0.93; 3 RCTs; 42,009 participants; $I^2=0.0\%$), and the pooled RR for MOF was 0.94 (95% CI, 0.88 to 0.99; 3 RCTs; 42,009 participants; *I ²*=0.0%) (**Figure 3**). When we removed SCOOP from the MOF analysis, the pooled RR estimate was 0.93 (95% CI, 0.86 to 1.00; see note in **Figure 3**). The pooled estimates for "all" fractures or "osteoporotic" fractures favored screening but were not statistically significant (**Figure 3**). The ARDs across these outcomes ranged from 5 to 6 fewer fractures per 1,000 participants for screening compared with usual care. No significant association was observed for all-cause mortality; we calculated a pooled RR of 0.99 (95% CI, 0.95 to 1.04; 3 studies; 57,633 participants; $I²=0%$), which corresponds to an absolute effect of 1 fewer death per 1,000 persons screened (95% CI, from 5 fewer to 4 more).^{120,} 124, 126

Except for one outcome in the SCOOP trial, the authors did not observe any statistically significant differences in any reported fracture outcomes ("all," osteoporotic, MOF, or hip) or mortality outcomes in the three trials over the years of followup, which ranged from 3.7 to 5 years. The SCOOP trial reported a statistically significant reduction in hip fractures in the screening vs. control group (adjusted hazard ratio [aHR], 0.72 [95% CI, 0.59 to 0.89]), which was a prespecified secondary endpoint.¹²⁰ We also conducted a sensitivity analysis (**Appendix E Figure E.1-1)** for osteoporotic, MOF, and hip fracture outcomes using the ROSE ITT analytic sample. In this analysis, the pooled RRs for osteoporotic, MOF, and hip fractures moved closer to the null effect and were no longer statistically significant for MOF and hip fracture compared with our main analysis that used the per-protocol analytic sample.

The fracture results reported in the three $SRs^{130-133}$ that we identified were consistent with our pooled findings using the ROSE per-protocol analytic sample (**Appendix D Table 9)**. The pooled estimate for all-cause mortality reported in one of the SRs¹³¹ was also similar to our estimate.

Findings in Specific Populations

All three RCTs conducted subgroup analyses. In the ROSE trial, authors carried out three subgroup analyses by age (65 to 69 years, 70 to 74 years, and 75 years or older) and reported no significant effect modification by age (results not shown by authors).¹²⁶ ROSE authors also adjusted for differences in baseline characteristics such as prior fracture and found no significant effect modification. In SOS, authors adjusted analyses for significant differences in baseline characteristics and observed no significant interaction effect with age, history of fracture after age 50 years, or recent fracture for the primary outcome of all fractures (p=0.60, 0.48, and 0.34, respectively).¹²⁴ In SCOOP, authors observed a significant interaction effect with baseline FRAX risk (as a continuous measure) for hip fracture ($p=0.02$), but not for other fracture outcomes, after controlling for baseline characteristics.¹²⁰ A related finding was observed in the second perprotocol analysis for ROSE; authors observed that most of the between-group differences in MOF events were driven by differences in the hip fracture component of that composite outcome.

KQ 2. Accuracy of Screening Strategies

KQ 2a. Predictive Accuracy of Osteoporosis and Fracture Risk Assessment Instruments

Summary

Thirty cohort studies (published in 49 articles^{72, 73, 139-181, 310-313}) and six $SRs^{131, 134-138}$ reported on the accuracy (discrimination or calibration or both) of 11 risk assessment instruments for predicting fracture (KQ 2a). We judged all of the SRs to be good quality; however, authors of SRs generally rated the included primary studies as poor quality, and we also evaluated all of the primary studies we included as poor quality. We relied primarily on findings reported by the SRs, supplemented by results from the primary studies.

Two SRs^{131, 132, 137} and 25 cohorts reported in 40 articles^{72, 73, 139, 141-158, 160, 161, 163-173, 176, 177, 181, 311-} ³¹³ reported on calibration outcomes for six risk assessment models (FRAX, Fracture Risk Evaluation Model [FREM], FRC, Garvan, Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool [OST], QFracture) for the prediction of MOF, hip fracture, or both. Calibration results were heterogenous with no discernible patterns with respect to instrument, age, or sex.

Six SRs^{131, 132, 134-138} and 16 cohorts published in 25 articles^{73, 139-143, 146, 159, 160, 163, 165, 172-181, 311, 312} reported on the discriminative accuracy of 11 risk assessment models (EPIC, FRAX, FRC, FREM, Garvan, ORAI, OSIRIS, OST, QFracture, SCORE, Women's Health Initiative [WHI] Prediction Model) to predict MOF or hip fracture or both using primarily AUC. Findings were heterogenous, spanning a range considered *poor* accuracy (AUC, 0.52) to *very good* accuracy (AUC, 0.93); however, most were between 0.60 and 0.80. Sources of heterogeneity in AUC estimates likely include age and source of population evaluated, variation in outcome definitions, and differences in analytic methods used by authors. Discrimination was largely similar in men and women. For risk assessment instruments with the option to include BMD as an input (FRAX, FRC, Garvan), the predictive accuracy was improved when BMD was included compared with when it was not included. Further, some instruments (FRAX, FRC, Garvan, QFracture) had higher accuracy for predicting hip fracture than for predicting MOF. Few studies reported sensitivity or specificity of specific risk thresholds. In one cohort of U.S. women ages 50 to 64 years, a FRAX risk threshold of 9.3 percent had a 26 percent sensitivity and 83 percent specificity to predict MOF.¹³⁹

Study Characteristics

Six good-quality SRs reported on the predictive accuracy (calibration, discrimination, or both) of various risk assessment instruments.^{131, 132, 134-138} Five were new to this update.^{131, 132, 135-138} Three SRs^{134, 135, 138} reported only discrimination outcomes, two SRs^{136, 137} reported both discrimination and calibration outcomes, and one $SR^{131, 132}$ primarily focused on calibration outcomes and

included discrimination outcomes that were reported in the previous USPSTF review on this topic.³ Some primary research studies included in the three SRs reporting only discrimination outcomes reported calibration outcomes, and we have included these calibration data as new in this update. Detailed study and population information for the primary research studies is in **Appendix D Table 2**, and detailed information about the included SRs is in **Appendix D Table 12**.

We observed substantial overlap of included studies across the included SRs. Marques et al, published in 2015, used search dates through September 2014 and included 45 studies; however, accuracy data were not reported from all studies that were included.¹³⁴ Jiang et al, published in 2017, used search dates through July 2016 but only focused on the predictive accuracy of the FRAX instrument, so only seven studies were included.¹³⁶ Beaudoin et al, published in 2019, used search dates through August 2017^{135} and included 53 studies.¹³⁵ Sun et al, published in 2022, used search dates through April 2021 and included 68 studies of 70 prediction models and 138 reports of external validation.¹³⁷ The review by Gates et al (in support of the CTFPHC) was published in 2023 and included search dates through June 2021 and included 59 articles from 32 unique cohorts.^{131, 132} The most recent review, Adami et al, included search dates through December 2020 and included 43 articles; however, this review was focused exclusively on FRAX and two less commonly used risk assessment instruments (FRA-HA and DeFRA).¹³⁸ We note that most of these reviews included some studies from the development cohorts used to develop the risk assessment instruments, were conducted in countries that we excluded from this update as not very highly developed per the United Nations' Human Development Programme Index¹⁰⁴ (e.g., China), or were conducted in countries with a different category of hip fracture incidence than the United States (e.g., Denmark, high incidence).¹⁰⁵ Detailed study quality ratings for the SRs are in **Appendix D Tables 33–37**. We did not evaluate the risk of bias for the primary studies included in these SRs. However, we note that authors of the most recent and comprehensive SRs judged their included studies as nearly all high risk of bias. $131, 137$

In addition to the SRs, we identified 30 cohorts (published in 49 articles^{72, 73, 139-181, 310-313}) that reported discrimination, calibration, or both and that (with some exceptions) were either not included in the SRs or were published subsequent to the search dates covered by the SRs. Several of these studies reported data for more than one risk assessment instrument. We assessed nearly all studies as poor quality (i.e., high risk of bias) (**Appendix D Tables 28–32**) for all instruments evaluated because either no fracture risk model development study has been performed (e.g., OST), or the original model development studies were assessed as high risk of bias (**see Appendix G**) and the external validation analyses included in this update had risk of bias related to patient selection bias, missing data for risk factors or outcomes, and deviations in how risks and outcomes were ascertained as compared with the development cohort.

Of the 30 primary research cohorts, 13 articles were published representing five unique U.S. cohorts.^{72, 73, 139-143, 145, 146, 152, 153, 165, 311 One of these U.S. cohorts^{72, 145, 146} was exclusively among} men, one was conducted in a mixed-sex population,³¹¹ and the rest were exclusively in women. The remaining cohorts were from Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Israel, Belgium, France, Portugal, Poland, and Spain. Most were exclusively women, but 11 cohorts included mixed populations of men and women, and in some cases, results were reported separately for men and women. The mean or median age ranged from approximately 50 years to 75 years. Cohorts were either retrospectively assembled based on clinical or administrative healthcare use

data, such as BMD registries, electronic health records, or billing claims data; or data were collected in prospective, population-based epidemiologic studies or clinical trials, sometimes but not always focused on osteoporosis.

Findings

Calibration

Detailed calibration findings from the included SRs and the primary research studies are reported in **Appendix D Table 11**.

The Gates et al SR (in support of the CTFPHC) synthesized calibration findings for FRAX (with and without BMD), Garvan (with and without BMD), QFracture, FRISC, and FRC (with and without BMD).^{131, 132} For FRAX, authors stratified results by study risk of bias. Authors concluded with very low certainty that FRAX demonstrated poor performance among the high risk of bias studies (13 studies for hip fracture without BMD, 12 studies for MOF without BMD, 13 studies for hip fracture with BMD, and 16 studies for MOF with BMD). The authors concluded with low (hip fractures, 3 studies) and moderate (MOF, 3 studies) certainty that FRAX without BMD may be well-calibrated among the three studies with unclear risk of bias that were specifically evaluating external validations of the FRAX-Canada model.^{131, 132} Further, authors concluded with low certainty that FRAX with BMD may perform poorly for hip fractures (3 studies) but had moderate certainty that it was probably well-calibrated for MOF (3 studies). $131, 132$

Authors of the Sun et al SR reported that calibration measures were only reported by primary study authors for 33 (24%) of the 138 models evaluated, and 31 (22%) showed "good fitness."¹³⁷ However, the SR authors reported only 22 (16%) used suitable methods for measuring calibration.

Of the primary research studies we identified, 25 cohorts were described in 40 articles^{72, 73, 139, 141-} 158, 160, 161, 163-173, 176, 177, 181, 311-313 that reported on calibration. Most focused on FRAX calibration. In the WHI cohort, the overall observed vs. expected ratio for FRAX was 1.0 (range of 0.76 to 1.15 across risk categories), and the calibration slope was 1.04.¹³⁹ For hip fracture, the overall observed-to-expected ratio was 1.0 (range, 0.27 to 1.63 across risk categories), and the calibration slope was 1.59, with significant overprediction at the lowest risk categories and significant underprediction at the three highest categories.¹³⁹ Calibration appeared similar when stratified by race and ethnicity in the two analyses among women ages 50 to 64 years that reported data by race or ethnicity.^{141, 143} Data from the other two U.S. cohorts of women were somewhat limited; FRAX appeared to underestimate risk in older age groups¹⁶⁵ and underestimate risk in women with obesity.^{152, 153} Data from the male U.S. cohort (MrOs) were also somewhat limited; one analysis suggested the risk of MOF (with or without BMD) was overestimated and the risk of hip fracture (with BMD) was underestimated.¹⁴⁵ In the other analysis of the MrOs cohort, the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit values suggested poor calibration for both MOF and hip fracture.¹⁴⁶ Data related to the calibration of other instruments were limited and are reported in **Appendix D Table 11**.

Discrimination

Six SRs^{131, 132, 134-138} and 16 cohorts published in 25 articles^{73, 139-143, 146, 159, 160, 163, 165, 172-181, 311, 312} not included in one or more of the SRs (with some exceptions) reported discrimination outcomes (AUC, sensitivity, specificity). Detailed findings are in **Appendix D Table 10** (primary studies) and **Table 12** (SRs). **Figures 4a** (women), **4b** (men), and **4c** (mixed-sex) summarize predictive discrimination with respect to AUC outcomes organized by instrument and by whether results were obtained from SRs or primary research studies. The AUCs varied widely depending on instrument, inclusion of BMD input as a risk, fracture type predicted, age range of the population evaluated, and whether authors were reporting the overall AUC (maximum AUC possible over all potential thresholds) or an AUC associated with a specific threshold. Of the three instruments that can assess risk with or without a BMD input (FRAX, FRC, Garvan), models with BMD generally reported higher AUCs than the same model without the inclusion of BMD. Studies evaluated FRAX, FRC, Garvan, and QFracture in men, women, and mixed-sex populations, and findings appeared similar across these populations. OST and WHI were only evaluated in women. Of the four instruments predicting risk for both MOF and hip fracture (FRAX, FRC, Garvan, QFracture), predictive accuracy appeared generally higher for prediction of hip fracture than MOF. For studies reporting outcomes specifically for women ages 50 to 64 years, the AUCs ranged from 0.52 to 0.71 across instruments. For the other studies of women (not reporting by age), the AUCs ranged from 0.63 to 0.89. For studies reporting outcomes for men, the AUCs ranged from 0.63 to 0.93. For studies reporting outcomes for mixed-sex populations, the AUCs ranged from 0.61 to 0.88.

Compared with the number of studies reporting AUC outcomes, fewer studies reported on sensitivity and specificity, and across studies the thresholds evaluated varied. FRAX was the most commonly reported-on instrument. In the WHI cohort of women ages 50 to 64 years not taking osteoporosis medication (n=62,492), the sensitivity of FRAX without BMD input for MOF risk greater than 9.3 percent was 26 percent, and the specificity was 83 percent.¹³⁹ In a cohort of Spanish women (n=1,090), the sensitivity of a 5 percent threshold was 61 percent, and the specificity was 72 percent.¹⁷⁴ For MOF with BMD input, the sensitivity of a fracture risk of 20 percent or higher was 20 percent, and the specificity was 93 percent in the Manitoba BMD registry cohort $(n=54,459)$.¹⁶⁰ From the same cohort, the sensitivity was 62 percent and specificity 79 percent for a fracture risk of 3 percent or higher for prediction of hip fracture with BMD input.

With respect to instruments other than FRAX, sensitivity and specificity varied. One study reported on the sensitivity (83%) and specificity (65%) of a 3 percent risk threshold for QFracture in predicting hip fracture in an Australian cohort of men and women ages 40 to 89 years with diabetes $(n=1,251)$.¹⁷³ Two studies reported on the sensitivity and specificity of OST at a score threshold of less than 2. Among women ages 50 to 64 years from the WHI cohort $(n=99,431)$, the sensitivity was 40 percent, and the specificity was 61 percent.¹³⁹ In an analysis of women ages 40 to 59 years from the Manitoba BMD registry, the sensitivity was 46 percent, and the specificity was 62 percent $(n=8,254)$.¹⁵⁹

The studies reporting on the predictive accuracy in the MrOs cohort of men (n=5,200) selected risk thresholds equivalent to a sensitivity of 90 percent for all instruments evaluated (FRAX,

Garvan, OFracture), precluding a comparison with findings from other cohorts.¹⁴⁶ No studies reported on the sensitivity or specificity for the FRC.

Accuracy outcomes by race and ethnicity. Accuracy results stratified by race or ethnicity were only reported by one cohort published in three articles.^{140, 142, 143} The WHI cohort, which was 89 percent White, reported findings for FRAX, Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator, and OST stratified by White, African American, Hispanic, and Asian race or ethnicity. However, results were only reported for women ages 50 to 64 years. CIs for AUC estimates were largely overlapping for the various race and ethnicity subgroups, precluding any conclusions about differences in predictive accuracy by race or ethnicity.

KQ 2b. Predictive Accuracy of BMD Measurement for Incident Fractures

Summary

Twenty-eight publications from 22 unique cohorts, a third of which we deemed poor quality, reported on the accuracy of BMD measurement (typically at the FN) for prediction of incident fractures. 15, 146, 150, 151, 154, 156, 157, 160-162, 166, 172, 175, 176, 179, 182-194 Most studies were conducted among women, and the mean age of participants varied from 49 years to 75 years with followup for incident fractures of 8 to 12 years, although some had shorter or longer followups. Four cohorts reported at least one type of calibration outcome, but few reported detailed information or the same information to allow for comparison across studies.^{146, 150, 185, 192} Thirteen unique cohorts reported on the discrimination of BMD as a continuous variable for predicting MOF with AUCs ranging from 0.60 to 0.80.^{146, 150,} 151, 154, 156, 157, 166, 172, 175, 176, 179, 183, 189, 190, 193 Twelve cohorts reported AUC outcomes for predicting hip fracture ranging from 0.64 to 0.86.146, 150, 151, 154, 157, 166, 172, 176, 179, 183, 185, 187, 193, 194 Substantial heterogeneity precluded quantitative synthesis, but the AUC estimates for hip fracture appeared higher than the estimates for MOF. Fewer studies reported sensitivity and specificity and thresholds varied. Discrimination outcomes for men appeared similar to estimates for the overall body of evidence, which was predominantly in women. Discrimination outcomes for women younger than age 65 years were limited to two studies.160, 190

Study Characteristics

Twenty-eight publications from 22 unique cohorts reported on the accuracy of BMD measurement for prediction of incident fractures.^{15, 146}, 150, 151, 154, 156, 157, 160-162, 166, 172, 175, 176, 179, 182-194 Individual study details are in **Appendix D Table 3**. We assessed 10 of these analyses (covering 7 unique cohorts) as poor quality.15, 151, 156, 175, 176, 179, 185, 186, 189, 194 The rest were fair quality. Detailed study quality ratings are in **Appendix D Tables 38–42**. Three unique cohorts were from the United States;^{146, 187, 192} the rest were from Canada (2 cohorts^{154, 157, 160-162, 183, 184,} ¹⁹³), countries in Europe (8 cohorts^{15, 175, 176, 179, 185, 188-190}), countries in Asia (5 cohorts^{150, 151, 156,} ^{182, 194}), Australia (2 cohorts^{186, 191}), New Zealand (1 cohort¹⁶⁶), or Israel (1 cohort¹⁷²).

Most analyses used data collected from prospective, population-based epidemiologic studies focused either on bone health, osteoporosis, or aging generally. The exceptions were an analysis based on the WHI (United States) that used data from both the clinical trial and observational

study components, ¹⁸⁷ an analysis based on electronic health data and administrative billing data collected through usual care in Israel, 172 and a provincial BMD registry with administrative billing data in Canada.^{157, 160-162, 183, 193} The cohort sample sizes varied from 400 to 68,730 persons, and the mean age of included persons varied from 49 years to 75 years. Two cohorts were exclusively men, ^{146, 182} four cohorts included both men and women, ^{15, 154, 157, 161, 162, 176, 193} and the rest were exclusively women. Only persons with available BMD measurements were included in the reported analyses; other inclusion/exclusion criteria varied across cohorts. For example, some of the reported analyses excluded persons who were known to be taking antiosteoporosis medication^{146, 150, 151, 161, 166, 189, 191, 193} or who were known to have secondary osteoporosis or metabolic bone disease,¹⁵⁶ while other cohorts allowed persons on treatment or did not specify treatment status. Similarly, the proportion of persons with a history of fracture at baseline enrollment also varied and was reported using different definitions. Among the studies conducted exclusively or mostly in women that reported mean T-score at the FN at baseline, Tscores ranged from -1.0 to -1.5. The two studies conducted exclusively in men did not report baseline T-scores.^{146, 182} Among the studies reporting the prevalence of osteoporosis at baseline, the range was 4.9 to 31.7 percent.

Findings

Individual cohort findings are in **Appendix D Table 13**. Across these cohorts, incident fractures were reported over a followup ranging from 4 to 25 years; however, followup of 8 to 12 years was most common because many studies also evaluated the predictive accuracy of fracture risk assessments designed to predict fracture over a 10-year time period. In the cohorts reporting on men, the incidence of MOF was 3.7 to 10.7 percent, and the incidence of hip fracture ranged from 1.5 to 4.2 percent over a followup of 5.4 to 15.8 years. Among the cohorts reporting on women, the incidence of MOF ranged from 3.3 to 15.0 percent, and the incidence of hip fracture ranged from 0.5 to 15.9 percent over followup of 4.5 to 25 years. In addition to differences in length of followup, the anatomic site of BMD measurement varied across studies; FN was most commonly used, but some studies reported outcomes based on measurement at the TH or LS or based on the lowest measurement from the FN, TH, or LS.

Calibration

Four cohorts reported at least one type of calibration outcome, but few reported detailed information or the same information to allow for comparison across studies (**Appendix E.2** Table 1).^{146, 150, 185, 192} Only two cohorts reported goodness-of-fit outcomes (poor in 1 cohort¹⁸⁵) and good in the other¹⁴⁶). Only one cohort reported calibration plots, which showed a doseresponse effect across quartiles of predicted risk but no other information to interpret the calibration.¹⁵⁰ One cohort reported hip and nonvertebral fractures after 25 years; participants in the highest quartile of BMD had lower incidence of fractures compared with those in the lower quartile of BMD.¹⁹² Lastly, one study reported the observed-to-expected ratio for hip fracture $(0.83 \, [95\% \, CI, 0.65 \, \text{to } 1.04])$, suggesting poor calibration.¹⁸⁵

Discrimination

Twenty-six articles reporting on 20 unique cohorts reported discrimination outcomes (**Figure 5**). 15, 146, 150, 151, 154, 156, 157, 160-162, 166, 172, 175, 176, 179, 183-191, 193, 194 Thirteen unique cohorts reported on

the discrimination of BMD as a continuous variable for predicting MOF with AUCs ranging from 0.60 to 0.80.^{146, 150, 151, 154, 156, 157, 166, 172, 175, 176, 179, 183, 189, 190, 193 Twelve unique cohorts} reported AUC outcomes for predicting hip fracture ranging from 0.64 to 0.86.146, 150, 151, 154, 157, 166, 172, 176, 179, 183, 185, 187, 193, 194 Substantial heterogeneity precluded quantitative synthesis, but the AUC estimates for hip fracture appeared higher than the estimates for MOF.

Fewer studies reported sensitivity and specificity outcomes. In studies that used a BMD T-score of less than -2.5 as the threshold for a positive test, the sensitivity ranged from 17.5 to 51.3 percent for MOF^{150, 160-162, 175} and from 25.0 to 66.7 percent for hip fractures.^{15, 150, 160, 162, 187} The specificity for MOF ranged from 70.9 to 95.4 percent^{160, 161, 175} and from 88.6 to 94.0 percent for hip fractures.^{15, 160, 162, 187}

Discrimination outcomes in younger women. Only two studies reported on the discrimination of BMD alone specifically in younger women.^{160, 190} In one population-based prospective cohort study of women ages 45 to 54 years in the United Kingdom, the AUC for predictive accuracy of continuous BMD at the FN was 0.64 (95% CI, 0.63 to 0.66) over a followup of 3 to 12 years; sensitivity and specificity were not reported.¹⁹⁰ In a BMD registry from Manitoba, Canada, the prediction of MOF, based on a T-score less than -2.5, had a sensitivity of 6.7 percent for women ages 40 to 49 years, 9.7 percent for women ages 50 to 59 years, and 18.5 percent for women ages 60 to 69 years compared with 30.1 percent for women ages 70 to 79 years and 49 percent for women age 80 years or older.¹⁶⁰ Similarly, specificity decreased from 98 percent in women ages 40 to 49 years to 69 percent for women age 80 years or older.¹⁶⁰ For the prediction of hip fractures, a similar pattern was observed with the lowest sensitivity for women ages 40 to 49 years (19%) and the highest sensitivity for women age 80 years or older (54%) .¹⁶⁰

Discrimination outcomes in men. Only one study that exclusively enrolled men reported discrimination outcomes.¹⁴⁶ In this retrospective analysis of participants in a community-based population study of mostly White men age 65 years or older, the AUC for continuous BMD over a followup of 15.8 years was 0.76 (95% CI, 0.71 to 0.80) for the prediction of MOF and was very similar for the prediction of hip fracture (0.76 [95%, CI, 0.721 to 0.81]).¹⁴⁶ The T-score threshold cutoff associated with a sensitivity of 90 percent for MOF prediction was -0.21 and for hip fracture was -0.36; both used a young, White female reference range for T-scores.¹⁴⁶

Three analyses reported outcomes separately for women and men from within the same study.^{15,} ^{162, 176} One analysis reported data from three population-based cohort studies in Portugal (N=1,897). Marques et al reported AUC estimates in men that were higher for prediction of both MOF (0.80 vs. 0.66) and hip fracture (0.82 vs. 0.68).¹⁷⁶ In Trajanoska et al, a population-based study from the Netherlands (N=11,052), AUCs were not reported, but the sensitivity was lower in men (20% vs. 38%) and specificity was higher (94% vs. 91%) for the prediction of hip fracture over 11 years of followup based on a threshold T-score of less than -2.5.¹⁵ A similar pattern was observed for nonvertebral fractures. In data from the Manitoba BMD registry, sensitivity was also lower in men compared with women for the prediction of MOF (18% vs. 28%) and the prediction of hip fracture (31% vs. 43%), while the specificities were very similar for each fracture type between sexes (89% for women, 92% for men). 162

Two studies reported on mixed-sex populations of men and women;^{154, 157} these estimates appear similar to the estimates from studies that exclusively analyzed women or men with AUCs ranging from 0.66 to 0.68 for MOF prediction and 0.76 to 0.80 for hip fracture prediction.

Accuracy outcomes by race and ethnicity. Of the studies reporting the race or ethnicity of participants, studies enrolled exclusively or predominantly White participants (89% or more). No studies reported calibration or discrimination outcomes by race or ethnicity.

KQ 2c. Diagnostic Accuracy of Risk Assessment Instruments for Identifying Osteoporosis

Summary

Forty-three unique cohorts (published in 54 articles) reported on diagnostic test accuracy of 15 risk assessment instruments for identifying osteoporosis.^{141, 143, 159, 195-245} More than half of the studies enrolled populations with a mean age between 60 and 69 years and studies included women, men, or both. Differences in reference standards, risk assessment score thresholds, and study populations precluded a quantitative synthesis. In women, AUCs ranged from 0.32 to 0.87 across 35 articles evaluating 11 instruments (**Figure 6a**). Five articles reported results from three independent cohorts that retrospectively evaluated the accuracy of a FRAX MOF risk threshold of 8.4 percent or 9.3 percent in women ages 50 to 64 years; AUCs ranged from 0.55 to 0.62. In men, AUCs ranged from 0.62 to 0.94 across 18 articles evaluating 12 instruments (**Figure 6b**). Three articles reported on accuracy among mixed populations of men and women for the FRAX, OST, or Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator (**Figure 6c**).^{196, 239, 241} Findings in these studies were consistent with the findings reported for men and women separately. Several studies reported findings stratified by age, but few studies reported findings stratified by race or ethnicity.

Study Characteristics

We identified 54 articles reporting on diagnostic test accuracy of risk assessment instruments for identifying osteoporosis (**Appendix D Table 4**) from 43 unique cohorts.^{141, 159, 195-245} Sixteen studies^{197, 198, 201, 202, 212, 216, 218, 219, 221, 229, 232, 235, 237, 238, 240, 244} were conducted exclusively in men, three studies^{196, 239, 241} were conducted among a mixed population of men and women (proportion of women ranged from 45% to 87%) but did not report results separately for men and women, and two studies^{233, 243} included men and women but reported results separately by sex; the rest of the studies were conducted exclusively in women. The mean age across studies ranged from 50.5 to 80.4 years, with just over half of the studies enrolling populations with a mean age between 60 and 69 years. We rated one study²⁰⁵ as good quality; the rest were fair quality. Detailed study quality ratings are in **Appendix D Tables 43–47**. Common risk-of-bias issues included lack of consecutive or random enrollment of patients, no information about blinding of index and reference tests, and lack of information about interval between risk assessment and DXA testing. Further, about a third of studies were conducted on data collected during usual care from persons referred for DXA; the rest of the studies recruited persons from healthcare settings or were population-based cohort studies. Twenty-two analyses were conducted in U.S. cohorts.^{141, 143, 195,} 197, 198, 202, 216, 219-222, 224, 226, 230-232, 234-238, 241

Fifteen unique risk assessment instruments were evaluated as index tests for identifying osteoporosis. Most instruments were originally developed to identify persons at high risk for osteoporosis; however, three instruments (FRAX, Garvan, and the **V**eterans **A**ffairs **F**racture **A**bsolute **R**isk **A**ssessment [VA-FARA]) were originally designed as fracture risk prediction $\overline{\text{in}}$ struments.^{141, 195, 196, 200, 220, 232-239, 241} Authors evaluated instruments against a reference standard of a T-score based on DXA BMD measurement most commonly at the FN, but many studies also used measurements at the TH or LS or against the lowest T-score from across the three sites. Methods used to determine discrimination varied; authors either computed AUC across the range of all possible threshold (i.e., "continuous" or "overall" AUC) or computed AUC with respect to a specific threshold, or both.

Findings

Studies reported discrimination outcomes including AUC, sensitivity, and specificity to describe the accuracy of these risk assessments for identifying osteoporosis. Some studies reported accuracy outcomes for more than one risk assessment instrument for the same study population, and some studies reported sensitivity and specificity outcomes using different risk assessment score thresholds, often prespecified but sometimes empirically derived to maximize sensitivity. In some cases, results for women and men were presented separately, and in other cases results for the "mixed" population of men and women were reported as one estimate. This heterogeneity precluded a quantitative synthesis of accuracy results.

The instrument most commonly evaluated was the **O**steoporosis **S**elf-assessment **T**ool (OST), which was reported in 26 unique cohorts from 31 articles.^{143, 159, 195, 196, 198-201, 203, 205, 208-210, 214,} 216-219, 221, 223, 225, 228, 230, 231, 234-237, 240, 242, 243 Other instruments reported in more than 10 articles included the **O**steoporosis **R**isk **A**ssessment **I**nstrument (ORAI) reported in 21 unique cohorts in 22 articles, 199, 203, 206-210, 214, 217, 223-228, 230, 231, 233, 234, 236, 242, 245 the **S**imple **C**alculated **O**steoporosis **R**isk **E**stimation (SCORE) reported in 18 cohorts in 20 articles, $\frac{195}{203}$, $\frac{203}{206}$, $\frac{207}{211}$, $\frac{217}{222}$, $\frac{224}{224}$, $\frac{228}{228}$, $\frac{230}{229}$, $\frac{231}{231}$, $\frac{233}{234}$, $\frac{236}{234}$, $\frac{242}{245}$ and FRAX reported from 12 unique cohorts in 15 articles.^{141, 195, 196, 200, 220,} 232-239, 241 A summary of findings is depicted in **Figures 6a** (women), **6b** (men), and **6c** (mixed populations) with detailed findings in **Appendix D Table 14**. A detailed narrative description of findings organized by risk assessment instrument is in **Appendix E.3**.

Accuracy in Women

We identified 28 unique cohorts (reported in 35 articles) for 11 risk assessment instruments evaluated in populations that were exclusively women or that reported results separately for women (**Figure 6a**). 141, 143, 159, 195, 199, 200, 203-211, 213-215, 217, 220, 222-228, 230, 231, 233, 234, 236, 242, 243, 245 The instruments evaluated in women included **A**ge, **B**one, **N**o **E**strogen (ABONE), **A**ge, **ME**nopause, **M**enarche, **B**MI (AMMEB), FRAX, Garvan, **N**ational **O**steoporosis **F**oundation tool (NOF), ORAI, **OS**teoporosis **I**ndex of **RIS**k (OSIRIS), OST, OST for **A**sians (OSTA), SCORE, and **S**tudy of **O**steoporotic **F**ractures Research Group **S**tudy **U**tilizing **R**isk **F**actors (SOFSURF). Across instruments, the AUC ranged from 0.32 to 0.87, excluding one study that we deemed an outlier because of extreme values.²⁴⁵ Sensitivity ranged from 5 to 100 percent, and specificity ranged from 0 to 100 percent; however, these ranges represent different score thresholds, some of which were prespecified and some of which were empirically derived to maximize sensitivity. A detailed description of findings for each risk assessment instrument is in **Appendix E.3**.

Accuracy in Women Younger Than Age 65 Years

Several articles reported on accuracy of risk assessment instrument specifically among women ages 50 to 64 years (selected parts of **Figure 6a**). Five articles^{141, 195, 220, 234, 236 reported results} from three independent cohorts that retrospectively evaluated the accuracy of the USPSTF's present (8.4%) or former (9.3%) suggested FRAX MOF risk threshold for DXA screening in women younger than age 65 years. The AUC in these studies ranged from 0.55 to 0.62, sensitivity ranged from 5 to 49 percent and specificity ranged from 63 to 96 percent. In one study from the WHI (N=8,134), the sensitivity was 5 percent among women ages 50 to 54 years, 17 percent among women ages 55 to 59 years, and 49 percent among women ages 60 to 64 years.¹⁴¹ The sensitivities of FRAX for the USPSTF's suggested threshold reported by the other included articles ranged from 24 to 37 percent. The specificity across these five studies ranged from 63.4 to 95.8 percent. In addition to reporting on the accuracy of a specific FRAX risk threshold, two studies using data from the WHI also reported the AUC of FRAX when treated continuously without respect to a specific risk threshold; the AUC was 0.59 for MOF¹⁴⁰ and was 0.68 for hip. 143

Several articles also reported on the accuracy of other risk assessment instruments among women younger than age 65 years. Six cohorts (in 8 articles^{143, 159, 195, 200, 209, 228, 234, 236}) reported an AUC for OST of 0.63 to 0.83, six cohorts^{195, 209, 226, 228, 234, 236} reported an AUC of 0.58 to 0.87 for SCORE, and five cohorts^{209, 226, 228, 234, 236} reported an AUC for ORAI of 0.60 to 0.84.

Accuracy in Men

We identified six studies for four risk assessment instruments that were developed exclusively for men (**Figure 6b**). 197, 202, 216, 218, 232, 237 The **M**ale **O**steoporosis **R**isk **E**stimation **S**core $(MORES, 2$ cohorts in 3 articles^{197, 202, 232}), the **Male O**steoporosis Screening Tool (MOST, 1) cohort²¹⁸), the Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation (MSCORE, 1 cohort²¹⁶) and the VA-FARA (1 cohort²³⁷). In these studies, AUCs ranged from 0.64 to 0.88. These estimates were similar to those observed for other non-male specific risk assessment instruments (e.g., OST) evaluated within these cohorts.

We also identified studies evaluating other risk instruments that were not developed specifically for men (**Figure 6b**). These included the ABONE, FRAX, Garvan, ORAI, OSIRIS, OST, OSTA, and SCORE. Across these other instruments, the AUCs ranged from 0.62 to 0.94.198, 201, 212, 216, 218, 219, 221, 229, 232, 233, 235, 237, 238, 240, 243, 244 A detailed description of findings for each risk assessment instrument is in **Appendix E.3**.

Accuracy in Mixed-Sex Populations

Three studies reported on accuracy among mixed populations of men and women for FRAX, OST, and Garvan (**Figure 6c**). 196, 239, 241 Findings in these studies were consistent with the findings reported for men and women separately.

Accuracy by Age

In addition to the studies related to FRAX for women younger than age 65 years discussed above, nine cohorts reported in 11 articles reported findings on other instruments stratified by age.159, 195, 198, 200, 209, 221, 226, 228, 234, 236, 240 Three cohorts reported findings exclusively among men^{198, 221, 240} for the OST instrument, while eight articles reported findings exclusively among women for the NOF, ORAI, OST, and SCORE instruments.^{159, 195, 200, 209, 226, 228, 234, 236}

Among women, the AUCs in the studies reporting by age ranged from 0.58 to 0.87 across instruments. Sensitivity ranged from 44 to 100 percent, and specificity ranged from 10 to 81 percent, but score thresholds used to determine sensitivity and specificity varied by study, precluding direct comparisons. Meaningful differences in findings by age were observed for the same instrument evaluated by different studies. For example, in a population-based sample of postmenopausal women from the Rochester, MN, region (N=202), authors reported age-stratified results for the women ages 45 to 64 years and the women age 65 years or older for the NOF, ORAI, and SCORE. Differences in AUCs and sensitivity between age strata were small with overlapping CIs, suggesting no meaningful differences between age groups.²²⁶ However, large differences in specificity were observed for ORAI and SCORE, with specificity across the three instruments ranging from 0 to 8 percent in the older women and from 19 to 69 percent in the younger women.²²⁶ Yet, in a study published 10 years later from the same clinical setting among women ages 50 to 64 years (N=290) and using the same score thresholds that were used in the earlier study, the AUCs reported for ORAI and SCORE were more than 0.2 units lower than those reported in the earlier study for both instruments, and sensitivity was also meaningfully lower (sensitivity 99% and 100% for ORAI and SCORE, respectively, vs. 52% and 74% in the later study).²³⁴ However, these differences may be partially explained by the use of a different reference standard in the later study (BMD at the FN or LS vs. BMD at the FN only used in the earlier study).

One study conducted among Caucasian women (N=4,025) referred for DXA in a single Belgian city reported discrimination stratified by age (45 to 64 years, 65 years or older).²⁰⁹ In this study, the AUCs for ORAI, OST, and SCORE were similar in both age strata (range, 0.75 to 0.76); however, the authors chose different scoring thresholds to determine a positive test for the different age groups, precluding a direct comparison of sensitivity between age groups.²⁰⁹

In a study of men enrolled from specialty clinics in Veterans Affairs (VA) settings ($N=181$), the AUCs for the OST instrument ranged from 0.70 to 0.99 across four age categories from 50 to 59 years to 80 years or older; however, there was not a clear linear trend: the lowest AUC was in the age group 70 to 79 years and the highest was in the age group 80 years or older.²²¹ In a separate study of men enrolled from four VA sites (N=518), the sensitivity of the OST was higher and specificity was lower among men older than age 65 years compared with younger men at both of the score thresholds reported ($OST \leq 6$, $OST \leq 0$).¹⁹⁸ In another study among men referred for DXA at an academic health center in Taiwan (N=834), the AUCs for the OST instrument were similar among men younger than age 65 years (0.66) and men age 65 years or older (0.68) ²⁴⁰

Accuracy by Race or Ethnicity

Six cohorts reported findings stratified by race or ethnicity.^{140, 142, 143, 198, 202, 216, 221, 224} Four of the six cohorts were men, and three of those studies were among men recruited from VA clinical settings. Substantial heterogeneity with respect to instruments, score thresholds used, and racial categories evaluated precludes any definitive conclusion about differences in accuracy by race or ethnicity. In one VA study $(N=518)$, the sensitivity of the OST was higher and the specificity
lower for both score thresholds reported (OST≤6, OST≤0) among Caucasians compared with African Americans; for example, sensitivity for the less than 0 threshold was 25 percent in African Americans and 42 percent in Caucasian participants, and specificity was 87 percent and 85 percent, respectively.¹⁹⁸ In another VA study (N=197), authors reported on accuracy data for MSCORE, OST, and the reduced MSCORE.²¹⁶ The sensitivity of these instruments was higher and specificity was lower for African Americans compared with Caucasians, but only when using a Caucasian reference range for calculating T-scores from raw BMD measurements (which is the standard method for calculating T-scores for persons of all races).²¹⁶ Outcomes were similar when an African American reference range was used.²¹⁶ In the third VA study (N=181), the AUCs reported for White persons (0.85) were reasonably similar to the AUCs reported for Black persons (0.80) .²²¹ In an analysis of U.S. NHANES data (N=2,944 men age 50 years or older), authors reported on the accuracy of MORES for White, African American, Mexican American, and "other" race and ethnicities.²⁰² Across the groups, sensitivity ranged from 60 percent (White) to 95 percent (other), and specificity ranged from 55 percent (other) to 69 percent (White).²⁰²

Two cohorts reported on differences in accuracy by race and ethnicity among women. In a cohort of postmenopausal women identified from a university-based family practice (N=226), AUCs were similar for Hispanic and African American persons compared with the full study population for the ORAI and SCORE instruments; sensitivities and specificities varied but were quite imprecise, precluding any definitive conclusions about differences by race or ethnicity.²²⁴ Among women ages 50 to 64 years in the WHI cohort, no discernible pattern of differences in AUC were observed between AUC estimates among persons of different race or ethnicity for the FRAX, Garvan, and OST instruments.^{140, 142, 143}

KQ 2d. What Is the Evidence to Determine Screening Intervals, and How Do These Intervals Vary by Baseline or Current Individual Fracture Risk?

Study Characteristics

We identified three new cohort studies^{$248-250$} for this update for a total of five included studies for this KQ.²⁴⁶⁻²⁵⁰ We rated two as poor quality^{247, 248} and the rest as fair quality; detailed study quality ratings are in **Appendix D Tables 48–52**. Study characteristics are detailed in **Appendix D Table 5** and findings are detailed in **Appendix D Table 15**. 246-248 Four studies were conducted among U.S. cohorts (Framingham Osteoporosis Study, 246 WHI, 249 MrOs, 250 SOF 247) and the fifth study used data from the Manitoba BMD registry in Canada.²⁴⁸ The mean age of participants was 60 in the Manitoba cohort, 248 66 in the WHI cohort, 249 and 72 to 74 years in the other three cohorts. The Framingham Cohort was 61 percent women, 246 MrOs was 100 percent men, 250 and the rest were exclusively women.

All studies used a similar design that evaluated the accuracy of a fracture risk prediction model based on an initial BMD measurement and a repeat BMD measurement at a subsequent interval, which ranged from 4 to 8 years across studies. Followup for fracture ascertainment occurred for 8 to 11 years after the second BMD measurement. Notably, because of this study design, authors excluded participants who experienced a fracture event during the interval between the initial and repeat BMD test.

Findings

In four of the five studies, authors reported similar accuracy when comparing models including only the initial BMD compared with models based on the change in BMD or in models that included both initial BMD and change in BMD. As an illustrative example, the AUC for baseline BMD for predicting MOF in the SOF cohort was 0.68 (95% CI, 0.66 to 0.71), the AUC for BMD change (as a % of initial) was 0.63 (95% CI, 0.61 to 0.66), and the AUC for a model combining initial BMD and change in BMD had an AUC of 0.69 (95% CI, 0.66 to 0.71).²⁵⁰ In the fifth study, authors reported no association between change in spine, TH, or FN BMD and MOF (HRs, 0.93 to 1.02 per SD increase in BMD, all statistically nonsignificant).²⁴⁸

KQ 3. What Are the Harms of Screening for Fracture Risk or Osteoporosis?

Of the three RCTs included for KQ 1, only the SCOOP trial reported on harms of screening.^{120,} 121 Study and population characteristics for the SCOOP trial are detailed in the KQ 1 section.

Anxiety was assessed using the Strait-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Short Form at repeated intervals over the 5-year study period.120, 121 Authors observed no difference in anxiety between screening participants (both those deemed low risk and those deemed high risk who were invited to DXA testing) and the control group participants (p=0.515) (**Appendix D Table 8**).

The included SR for KQ 1 conducted to inform the CTFPHC recommendation on screening for primary prevention of fractures reported on overdiagnosis.^{131, 132} Based on the data reported in the SCOOP and SOS RCTs, the SR authors estimated the proportion of participants overdiagnosed ranged from 11.8 to 24.1 percent.^{131, 132} The method for calculating overdiagnosis in context of being labeled as "high risk" was described in detail in a companion publication and was characterized as evolving by review authors.³¹⁴

KQ 4. What Is the Effectiveness of Pharmacotherapy With Selected FDA-Approved Medications on Fracture Incidence and Fracture-Related Morbidity and Mortality?

We identified 21 RCTs (reported in 27 articles²⁵¹⁻²⁷⁷) comparing bisphosphonates (alendronate, ibandronate, risedronate, or zoledronic acid) with placebo and six RCTs (reported in 9 articles²⁷⁸⁻ ²⁸⁶) comparing denosumab with placebo that reported fracture, mortality, or both. Two RCTs of alendronate, $276, 277$ two RCTs of zoledronic acid, $269-274$ one RCT of ibandronate, 275 and two RCTs of denosumab^{278, 286} were new to this update. Three RCTs were good quality; $251, 254, 255, 269-271$ the rest were fair quality. Detailed study quality ratings are in **Appendix D Tables 53–57**. A summary of study characteristics is in **Table 2** with additional narrative description in **Appendix E.4**. One RCT of zoledronic acid²⁵¹ and one study of denosumab²⁷⁸ were conducted exclusively in men; three studies (all evaluating bisphosphonates) included men, but the proportions comprised between 1 and 8 percent of the enrolled population.295, 298, 299 The rest were conducted exclusively among postmenopausal women. T-score criteria for enrollment across studies varied, but only six required T-scores in the osteoporotic range. The rest enrolled participants with Tscores spanning the range considered low bone mass and osteoporosis or low bone mass only.

Detailed study characteristics are in **Appendix D Table 6**, and detailed study findings are in **Appendix D Table 16**.

Bisphosphonates: Findings

The findings from included trials evaluating the benefits of bisphosphonates compared with placebo for the outcomes of vertebral fractures, nonvertebral fractures, hip fractures, and mortality are summarized in this section and depicted in **Figure 7**. Findings were consistent for each outcome when alternative pooling methods or alternative doses other than FDA-approved doses were used (**Appendix E.4 Table 1**). One study of alendronate, 276 one study of zoledronic acid,²⁶² and one study of ibandronate²⁷⁵ reported fractures other than vertebral, nonvertebral, and hip; these findings are reported in **Appendix D Table 16**. 262

Vertebral Fracture

The impact of bisphosphonates on vertebral fracture outcomes reported in 10 trials is summarized in **Appendix E.4 Figure 1**. 251-254, 256, 258, 260, 261, 269, 277 These studies reported a mix of clinical vertebral fractures, radiographic vertebral fractures, or both. Five of these trials compared alendronate with placebo, $252-254, 256, 277$ two compared risedronate with placebo, $258, 261$ and three compared zoledronic acid with placebo.^{251, 260, 269} The pooled RR for FDA-approved dosages was 0.51 (95% CI, 0.39 to 0.66; 10 RCTs; 9,015 participants; $I^2=0$ %). This corresponds to an ARD of 18 fewer vertebral fractures per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 23 fewer to 13 fewer). One study comparing alendronate with placebo showed a statistically significant reduction in vertebral fractures (1.9% vs. 3.5%; RR, 0.55 [95% CI, 0.38 to 0.80]),²⁵⁴ and two studies comparing zoledronic acid with placebo showed a statistically significant reduction in vertebral fractures (1.5% vs. 4.6%; RR, 0.33 [95% CI, 0.16 to 0.70];²⁵¹ 2.3% vs. 4.9%; RR, 0.47 [95% CI, 0.29 to 0.76]).²⁶⁹ Seven trials were not powered to evaluate vertebral fractures and individually found no statistically significant differences in reported vertebral fracture outcomes.252, 253, 256, 258, 260, 261, 277 Five studies reported zero vertebral fracture events in at least one study arm.252, 253, 258, 260, 261

We conducted a sensitivity analysis based on type of vertebral fracture (**Appendix E.4 Table 2**). Four studies reported clinical vertebral fractures, $^{252, 253, 261, 269}$ three of which reported zero events in both study arms. The pooled RR for clinical vertebral fractures comparing treatment with placebo was 0.44 (95% CI, 0.24 to 0.79; 4 RCTs; 2,373 participants; $I^2=0\%$). Six studies reported radiographic vertebral fractures, $251, 254, 256, 258, 260, 269, 277$ two of which reported zero events in at least one study arm. The pooled RR for radiographic vertebral fractures comparing treatment with placebo was 0.51 (95% CI, 0.39 to 0.66; 7 RCTs; 8,642 participants; I^2 =0%).

Nonvertebral Fracture

The impact of bisphosphonates on nonvertebral fracture outcomes reported in 13 trials is summarized in **Appendix E.4 Figure 2**. 251, 252, 254, 256-261, 268, 269, 272, 277 Six of these studies compared alendronate with placebo, $^{252, 254, 256, 259, 268, 277}$ three compared risedronate with placebo,^{257, 258, 261} and four compared zoledronic acid with placebo.^{251, 260, 269, 272} The pooled RR was 0.81 (95% CI, 0.74 to 0.88; 13 RCTs; 20,929 participants; $I^2=0$ %). This corresponds to an ARD of 28 fewer nonvertebral fractures per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 38 fewer to

18 fewer). Two studies reported zero events in at least one study arm.252, 258 Eleven trials were not powered to evaluate nonvertebral fractures. Three trials individually reported a statistically significant benefit of active medication compared with placebo.^{257, 259, 269} These studies included one evaluating alendronate (2.0% vs. 3.9%; RR, 0.52 [95% CI, 0.30 to 0.89]),²⁵⁹ one evaluating risedronate (9.4% vs. 11.2%; RR, 0.84 [95% CI, 0.74 to 0.95]),²⁵⁷ and one evaluating zoledronic acid (10.1% vs. 14.8%; RR, 0.68 [95% CI, 0.54 to 0.87]).²⁶⁹

Hip Fractures

The impact of bisphosphonates on hip fracture outcomes in six trials is summarized in **Appendix E.4 Figure 3.** ^{254, 256-259, 269} Three of these studies compared alendronate with placebo, ^{254, 256, 259} two compared risedronate with placebo, ^{257, 258} and one compared zoledronic acid with placebo.²⁶⁹ We identified no trials of ibandronate that reported hip fracture outcomes. The pooled RR was 0.67 (95% CI, 0.45 to 1.00; 6 RCTs; 12,055 participants; $I^2=0$ %). This corresponds to an ARD of 3 fewer hip fractures per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 5 fewer to 0 fewer). One study reported zero events in both study arms.²⁵⁸ None of the trials were powered to look at hip fractures as benefits, and none found statistically significant differences in reported hip fracture outcomes.

Mortality

The impact of bisphosphonates on mortality outcomes reported in six trials is summarized in **Appendix E.4 Figure 4**. 251, 264-266, 269, 275 Four of these studies compared ibandronate with placebo^{264-266, 275} and two compared zoledronic acid with placebo.^{251, 269} The pooled RR was 0.71 (95% CI, 0.49 to 1.05; 6 RCTs; 3,714 participants, $I^2=0\%$). This corresponds to an ARD of 10 fewer deaths per 1,000 participants (95% CI, from 17 fewer to 2 more). Three studies reported zero events in at least one study arm.^{264, 266, 275} None of the trials were powered to look at mortality as benefits, and none found statistically significant differences in mortality outcomes.

Bisphosphonates: Findings for Specific Populations of Interest

Only one trial of a bisphosphonate agent was conducted among men.²⁵¹ This trial reported on the effectiveness of zoledronic acid in 1,199 men with mean FN T-scores of -2.2. Men were eligible to participate if they had a T-score of -1.5 or less (based on the device-specific reference values for men). The authors found a reduced risk of morphometric vertebral fractures in the treatment arm (1.5% vs. 4.6%; RR, 0.33 [95% CI, 0.16 to 0.70]) but no significant difference in nonvertebral fractures (0.9% vs. 1.3%; RR 0.65 [95% CI, 0.21 to 1.97]).²⁵¹

One study new to this update reported similar effectiveness of zoledronic acid compared with placebo among persons stratified by baseline BMD as well as when stratified by baseline fracture risk as measured by FRAX (hip and MOF) and the Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator.²⁶⁹

The study population of one large multicenter trial investigated the impact of risedronate on hip fractures in a study population with 41 percent of participants having a prior vertebral fracture at baseline. When including all participants in the study population, the pooled RR for bisphosphonates was 0.72 (95% CI, 0.58 to 0.91; 18,740 participants; $I^2=0$ %). When including only participants ages 70 to 79 years without prior vertebral fracture, the pooled RR for bisphosphonates was 0.67 (95% CI, 0.45 to 1.00; 12,057 participants).²⁵⁷

Denosumab: Findings

The findings from included trials studying the benefits of denosumab compared with placebo are summarized in this section and include outcomes of vertebral fractures, nonvertebral fractures, hip fractures, and mortality (**Figure 7**). One trial was conducted exclusively in men; ²⁷⁸ the rest were conducted exclusively in postmenopausal women. Findings were consistent for each outcome when alternative pooling methods or alternative doses other than FDA-approved doses were used (**Appendix E.4 Table 3**).

Fractures

The impact of denosumab on fracture outcomes reported in five trials^{278-280, 284, 285} are summarized in **Appendix E.4 Figure 5**. Four studies^{278, 279, 284, 285} were not powered to look at fractures as outcomes, and events were rare in both study arms of these trials (range, 0 to 7 fracture events) such that the pooled RRs were dominated by results of the large FREEDOM trial.^{278, 279, 284, 285} Authors of the FREEDOM trial (N=7,808) reported a statistically significant difference in incident radiographic vertebral fractures (2.3% vs. 7.2%; RR, 0.32 [95% CI, 0.26 to 0.41]), incident clinical vertebral fractures (0.8% vs. 2.5%; RR 0.31 [95% CI, 0.20 to 0.47]), nonvertebral fractures (6.1% vs. 7.5%; RR, 0.80 [95% CI, 0.67 to 0.95]), and hip fractures (0.7% vs. 1.1%; RR, 0.60 [95% CI, 0.37 to 0.97]).280, 303 These correspond to an ARD of 48 fewer per 1,000 participants (95% CI, from 52 fewer to 42 fewer) for radiographic vertebral fractures, 17 fewer per 1,000 participants (95% CI, from 20 fewer to 13 fewer), 15 fewer per 1,000 participants (95% CI, from 24 fewer to 4 fewer) for nonvertebral fractures, and 4 fewer per 1,000 participants (95% CI, from 7 fewer to 0 fewer) for hip fractures. The FREEDOM study also reported significant reductions in multiple new vertebral fractures compared with placebo (see **Appendix D Table 16**). 280, 303

We conducted a sensitivity analysis based on type of vertebral fracture (**Appendix E.4 Table 4**). Two studies reported clinical vertebral fractures, $278, 280$ one of which reported zero events in the intervention arm. The pooled RR for clinical vertebral fractures was 0.31 (95% CI, 0.21 to 0.47; 7,635 participants; $I^2=0\%$). One study evaluated radiographic vertebral fractures²⁸⁵ but only reported one event in the placebo arm.

Mortality

Five trials reported mortality outcomes, but none were powered for this outcome.^{280, 284-286} In the largest of the trials (FREEDOM, N=7,762 for this outcome) mortality was 1.8 percent in the denosumab arm compared with 2.3 percent in the placebo arm (calculated RR, 0.78 [95% CI, 0.57 to 1.06]).²⁸⁰ Deaths were rare in the other four trials; one trial²⁸⁵ reported zero deaths in the denosumab and placebo arms, and three trials^{278, 284, 286} reported one death each in the denosumab arms. The pooled RR was 0.79 (95% CI, 0.58 to 1.07; 5 RCTs; 8,828 participants; $I^2=0\%$) (**Appendix E.4 Figure 6**). This corresponds to an ARD of 4 fewer deaths per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 9 fewer to 1 more).

Denosumab: Findings for Specific Populations of Interest

Authors of the FREEDOM trial reported on a preplanned analysis evaluating the effectiveness of denosumab as a function of baseline fracture risk.280, 282 A linear model demonstrated no

significant interaction between treatment effect and baseline fracture risk ($p=0.72$). However, analyses using a cubic spline function suggested a relationship ($p<0.001$). Compared with placebo, there was increasing efficacy of denosumab as baseline fracture risk increased between 5 percent and 18 percent with a leveling off (to slight decrease) in efficacy at baseline risks higher than 18 percent.

KQ 5. What Are the Harms Associated With Selected FDA-Approved Medications?

We identified 40 RCTs (reported in 48 articles^{251-254, 256-269, 272-280, 284-304}) comparing bisphosphonates (alendronate, ibandronate, risedronate, or zoledronic acid) or denosumab with placebo that assessed harm outcomes. In addition, we identified three controlled cohort studies evaluating bisphosphonates compared with placebo.³⁰⁵⁻³⁰⁷ We evaluated five RCTs as good quality;^{251, 254, 269, 289, 290, 298, 300, 301} the rest of the RCTs and the controlled cohort studies were fair quality.

Bisphosphonates: Overview of the Evidence From RCTs

Thirty-four RCTs (published in 40 articles^{251-254, 256-269, 272-277, 287-302}) reported on harms from bisphosphonates; four were new to this update.^{275-277, 302} A summary of RCT characteristics is in **Table 2** with additional narrative description in **Appendix E.4**. Detailed study characteristics are in **Appendix D Table 6**, and detailed findings are in **Appendix D Table 16**.

Bisphosphonates: Findings From RCTs

The findings from included trials reporting the harms of bisphosphonates compared with placebo are summarized in this section, including discontinuations due to adverse events, serious adverse events, upper GI adverse events, and other rare harm outcomes (**Figure 7**). Findings were consistent for each outcome when alternative pooling methods or data from the non-FDAapproved doses were used (**Appendix E.4 Table 5**).

Discontinuations Due to Adverse Events

Twenty-seven RCTs reported discontinuations due to adverse events; however, none were powered for this outcome. 252-254, 256-261, 264, 266-268, 272, 275-277, 288, 291-294, 296-299, 302 Three RCTs reported only data for the intervention arm and thus could not be included in the pooled estimate.^{253, 292, 293} ²⁷² The pooled RR was 1.00 (95% CI, 0.92 to 1.08; 25 RCT comparisons; 18,617 participants; $I^2=0\%$; **Appendix E.4 Figure 7**). This corresponds to an ARD of 0 fewer discontinuations for adverse event per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 9 fewer to 9 more). The two largest RCTs contributing to this pooled estimate were the Fracture Intervention Trial (FIT) study ($N=4,432$) comparing alendronate with placebo²⁵⁴ and an international multicenter study comparing risedronate with placebo $(N=9,331)$.²⁵⁷ In FIT, discontinuations due to adverse events were 10.0 percent in the active drug group compared with 10.2 percent in the placebo group (RR, 0.98 [95% CI, 0.82 to 1.16]).^{254, 289} In the risedronate trial, discontinuations due to adverse events were 17.7 percent in the active drug group compared with 18.0 percent in the placebo group (RR, 0.98 [95% CI, 0.89 to 1.10]).²⁵⁷ One trial reported zero discontinuations due to adverse events in at least one study arm.²⁷²

Serious Adverse Events

Twenty-two RCTs reported serious adverse events; however, none were powered for this outcome. 251, 257, 259-261, 264, 266-268, 272, 275, 276, 287, 288, 291-293, 295-297, 299, 302 Two RCTs could not be included in the pooled estimate because authors did not report data for the control arms.^{292, 293} The pooled RR was 0.97 (95% CI, 0.91 to 1.04; 21 RCT comparisons; 13,878 participants; $I²=0%$; **Appendix E.4 Figure 8**). This corresponds to an ARD of 6 fewer serious adverse events per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 18 fewer to 8 more). In the largest study contributing to this pooled estimate, an international multicenter RCT ($N=9,331$) comparing risedronate with placebo, serious adverse events occurred in 30.4 percent of the risedronate group and 31.0 percent of the placebo group.²⁵⁷ Three RCTs reported zero events in both the placebo and active drug study arms.^{266, 272, 295} The absolute incidence reported across this drug class was 0.7 to 25.3 percent across study arms, suggesting large variation in rigor of ascertainment methods across included studies.

GI Adverse Events

Twenty-six RCTs (representing 27 comparisons) reported GI adverse events. 252, 256-259, 261, 264, 266- 269, 272, 275, 276, 289, 291-300, 302 None of the RCTs were powered for this outcome, and only one trial reported statistically significant differences in GI adverse events between the placebo and treatment arms.²⁷² In this trial, the outcome was described as "gastrointestinal acute phase reactions" reported by patients at 1 week postinfusion, potentially measuring a different outcome from the other RCTs. The pooled RR was 1.02 (95% CI, 0.98 to 1.06; 27 RCT comparisons; 22,280 participants; *I ²*=0%; **Appendix E.4 Figure 9**). This corresponds to an ARD of 5 more GI adverse events per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 5 fewer to 16 more). The two largest RCTs contributing to this pooled estimate were the FIT study $(N=4,432)^{254}$ and the international, multicenter study of risedronate compared with placebo $(N=9,331)$ ²⁵⁷ In FIT, the incidence of upper GI adverse events was 47.6 percent in the alendronate group and 46.2 percent in the placebo group (calculated RR, 1.03 [95% CI, 0.98 to 1.08]). 254, 289 In the study of risedronate, the incidence of upper GI adverse events was 21.2 percent in the risedronate group and 21.8 percent in the placebo group (calculated RR, 0.91 [95% CI, 0.88 to 1.07]).²⁵⁷

Cardiovascular Outcomes

Eight RCTs reported on one or more cardiovascular outcomes.251, 254, 262, 269, 272, 287, 295, 300 Six RCTs reported on the incidence of atrial fibrillation.^{251, 254, 262, 269, 272, 287} RR estimates ranged from 0.98 to 1.51; however, none were statistically significant. Furthermore, three of these RCTs reported zero events in both study arms.^{262, 272, 287} Three RCTs reported on incidence of myocardial infarction.^{251, 269, 300} RR estimates ranged from 0.61 to 4.68 and were very imprecise because of small sample sizes and rare events. The estimate for this harm was statistically significant in the study comparing zoledronic acid with placebo (RR 4.68 [95% CI, 1.02 to 21.5]) in men but was not statistically significant in the other two RCTs. One trial reported multiple other cardiac outcomes (stroke, transient ischemic attack, cardiac deaths) all of which were nonsignificant and imprecise.²⁶⁹

Osteonecrosis of the Jaw

Five RCTs, including two new to this update, $^{269, 272}$ reported no cases of osteonecrosis of the jaw. 251, 262, 287 Additional information about this rare outcome from studies not eligible for inclusion is addressed as **Contextual Question 6** in **Appendix F**.

Atypical Fractures of the Femur

We did not identify any RCTs that reported on the rare outcome of atypical femur fracture. Additional information about this rare outcome from studies not eligible for inclusion is addressed as **Contextual Question 6** in **Appendix F.3**.

Bisphosphonates: Evidence From Controlled Cohort Studies

Three fair-quality cohort studies set in Denmark,³⁰⁵ Sweden and Denmark,³⁰⁶ and South Korea³⁰⁷ addressed potential harms of bisphosphonate use. Two studies were limited to new users; $305,307$ the third study provided sensitivity analyses for a treatment-naïve cohort.³⁰⁶ The studies predominantly $(86\%^{306})$ and $91\%^{307})$ or solely comprised women.³⁰⁵ Two studies did not report the prevalence of fractures among participants at the start of the study; $306, 307$ one study reported differences in prevalence of fractures at baseline (12% for alendronate vs. 4% for nonusers).³⁰⁵ One study was limited to zoledronic acid,³⁰⁶ a second to alendronate,³⁰⁵ and the third included all bisphosphonates (which may have included non-FDA-approved bisphosphonates).³⁰⁷ Detailed study characteristics are in **Appendix D Table 7** and detailed findings are in **Appendix D Table 17**. Study quality ratings are in **Appendix D Tables 58–65**.

GI Cancers

One fair-quality controlled cohort study set in Denmark³⁰⁵ reported on the incidence of GI cancers, specifically colon cancer³⁰⁵ among women newly exposed to alendronate when compared with matched nonuser controls over 5 years of followup. The study reported a lower risk of developing colon cancer in new alendronate users when compared with matched nonusers of alendronate (aHR, 0.69 [95% CI, 0.60 to 0.79]).³⁰⁵

Cardiovascular Outcomes

One fair-quality controlled cohort study set in Sweden and Denmark³⁰⁶ reported on cardiovascular outcomes. A propensity-score matched cohort of treatment-naïve users of zoledronic acid compared with nonusers in Sweden and Denmark reported no statistically significant differences in atrial fibrillation (aHR, 1.18 [95% CI, 0.99 to 1.40]), myocardial infarction (aHR, 0.92 [95% CI, 0.64 to 1.31]), and cardiovascular mortality (aHR, 0.97 [95% CI, 0.81 to 1.15]) but did find a statistically significant increased risk for heart failure (aHR, 1.32 [95% CI, 1.08 to 1.61]). This study did not control for known confounders of heart failure such as BMI, smoking and alcohol exposure, hypertension, and metabolic syndrome. It is possible that the zoledronic acid users may have had a higher inherent risk of heart failure.³⁰⁶

Atypical Femur Fractures

Two fair-quality controlled cohort studies set in Sweden and Denmark³⁰⁶ and South Korea³⁰⁷ consistently reported increased risk of atypical femur fractures with bisphosphonate exposure. The propensity-score matched cohort of new users of zoledronic acid compared with nonusers in Sweden and Denmark reported an increased risk of atypical femur fractures (aHR, 2.46 [95% CI, 1.17 to 5.15]). However, this study could not control for known confounders of fracture such as baseline levels of calcium and vitamin D, bone density, BMI, smoking and alcohol exposure, hypertension, and metabolic syndrome and could not rule out that zoledronic acid users may have higher inherent risks of frailty. The South Korean study of new bisphosphonate users reported an increased risk of atypical femur fractures with bisphosphonate use (aHR, 1.53 [95% CI, 1.36 to 1.73]) over a mean of 1 year followup when compared with matched bisphosphonate nonuser control participants.³⁰⁷ The study did not adjust for confounders other than age, sex, systemic use of glucocorticoids, and comorbidity and may have included drugs not approved by the FDA for osteoporosis.

Denosumab: Overview of the Evidence

We identified six fair-quality RCTs (published in 8 articles^{278-280, 284-286, 303, 304}) that assessed the harms of denosumab compared with placebo (**Figure 7**); two were new to this update.^{278, 286} A summary of RCT characteristics is in **Table 2** with additional narrative description in **Appendix E.4**. Detailed study characteristics are in **Appendix D Table 6**, and detailed findings are in **Appendix D Table 16**. Findings were consistent for each outcome when alternative pooling methods or data from the non-FDA-approved doses were used (**Appendix E.4 Table 6**).

Denosumab: Findings

Discontinuation Due to Adverse Events

Five RCTs^{278, 280, 284-286} reported discontinuations due to adverse events. However, none of the studies were powered for this outcome.²⁸⁶ The pooled RR was 1.16 (95% CI, 0.87 to 1.54; 5 RCTs; 8,826 participants; *I ²*=0%; **Appendix E.4 Figure 10**). This corresponds to an ARD of 3 more discontinuations per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 3 fewer to 11 more). This pooled estimate was mostly influenced by the large FREEDOM study (N=7,762) where the incidence of discontinuations due to adverse events was 2.4 percent in the denosumab arm compared with 2.1 percent in the placebo arm (calculated RR, 1.15 [95% CI, 0.85 to 1.54]).^{280, 303}

Serious Adverse Events

Six RCTs^{278-280, 284-286} reported serious adverse events; however, none of the studies were powered for this outcome. The pooled RR was 1.04 (95% CI, 0.97 to 1.12; 5 RCTs; 8,934 participants; $I^2=0\%$; **Appendix E.4 Figure 11**). This corresponds to an ARD of 9 more serious adverse events per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 7 fewer to 28 more). This pooled estimate was mostly influenced by the large FREEDOM study (N=7,762) where the incidence of serious adverse events was 25.8 percent in the denosumab group and 25.1 percent in the placebo group (calculated RR, 1.03 [95% CI, 0.95 to 1.11]).^{280, 303}

Upper GI Adverse Events

Four RCTs reported upper GI adverse events; however, none of these studies were powered for this outcome.^{279, 284-286} Events were rare across all study groups, including two RCTs with zero events in the placebo arm.^{284, 285} The pooled RR was 2.18 (95% CI, 0.74 to 6.46; 4 RCTs; 932 participants; $I^2=0\%$; **Appendix E.4 Figure 12**). This corresponds to an ARD of 14 more GI adverse events per 1,000 participants treated (95% CI, from 3 fewer to 66 more).

Cardiovascular Outcomes

Two RCTs reported cardiovascular outcomes.^{280, 284, 303} In the large FREEDOM study, authors reported no significant difference in cardiovascular events (calculated RR, 1.04 [95% CI, 0.85 to 1.27]).280, 303 A second trial reported no difference in "cardiac disorders," but events were rare and estimates imprecise (calculated RR, 0.45 [95% CI, 0.02 to 10.83]).²⁸⁴

Osteonecrosis of the Jaw

Three RCTs reported on the rare outcome of osteonecrosis of the jaw.^{278, 280, 286} Zero events were reported in all studies, one of which was the large FREEDOM study.280, 303 Additional information about this rare outcome from studies not eligible for inclusion is addressed as **Contextual Question 6** in **Appendix F.3**.

Atypical Femur Fracture

Two RCTs, new to this update, reported on the rare outcome of atypical femur fracture.^{278, 286} Zero events occurred in both studies. Additional information about this rare outcome from studies not eligible for inclusion, such as the FREEDOM long-term extension study, is addressed as **Contextual Question 6** in **Appendix F.3**.

Rebound Vertebral Fractures

No studies that were included for KQ 5 had study designs sufficient to evaluate the outcome of rebound vertebral fractures after denosumab discontinuation. We describe findings for this outcome from studies not eligible for inclusion in this update as **Contextual Question 7** in **Appendix F.4**.

Other Adverse Events

Three RCTs reported additional harm outcomes related to skin disease and infection.^{280, 284, 285} In the FREEDOM RCT, a higher incidence of eczema was observed in the denosumab arm compared with placebo (RR, 1.81 [95% CI, 1.34 to 2.44]), and a higher risk for serious skin infection was also observed but was imprecise (RR, 15.0 [95% CI, 1.98 to 113.2]).²⁸⁰ There was no difference in the risk of serious infections (RR, 1.19 [95% CI, 0.95 to 1.49]).²⁸⁰ Another RCT also reported a higher incidence of rash (calculated RR, 2.82 [95% CI, 1.04 to 7.64]) and serious infection (calculated RR, 8.1 [95% CI, 1.02 to 63.6]).²⁸⁵ A third study reported no difference in serious infection (calculated RR, 3.5 [95% CI, 0.07 to 190.8]).²⁸⁴

Chapter 4. Discussion

Summary of Evidence

Table 3 summarizes the evidence synthesized in this report by KQ and provides our EPC's assessment of the strength of evidence (SOE) and applicability. Compared with the prior review on this topic,³ our certainty as reflected in our SOE ratings has increased as a result of new direct evidence for KQ 1. Whereas our previous SOE rating for KQ 1 was insufficient for mortality and fracture outcomes except hip (which was rated as low SOE for benefit in the prior review), in this update we rated MOF and hip fracture outcomes as moderate SOE for benefit, osteoporotic fractures as low SOE for benefit, and mortality as low for no effect. We continue to grade the direct evidence as insufficient for harms of screening (KQ 3) but have identified additional data on overdiagnosis for consideration compared with the prior review.

We identified some new evidence related to treatment benefits (KQ 4) and harms (KQ 5) in this update. Our SOE ratings for treatment benefits (KQ 4) remained largely the same as the prior review: low to moderate SOE for benefit across multiple fracture outcomes for both bisphosphonates and denosumab. For treatment harms (KQ 5), we graded the evidence for each outcome separately as compared to the prior report; with low (denosumab) to moderate (bisphosphonates) SOE for both discontinuations due to adverse events and serious adverse events and moderate SOE for no effect on upper GI adverse events for bisphosphonates and low SOE for increased upper GI adverse events for denosumab. As in the prior report, we note that the evidence included for KQ 5 is not sufficient for evaluating the effect of treatment on very rare harms such as osteonecrosis of the jaw, atypical femur fractures, rebound vertebral fractures, or harms that may emerge after prolonged duration of treatment.

The scope of the KQs on accuracy changed between the prior report and the current update so direct SOE comparisons are not possible. Further, in this update we rated SOE for specific instruments and among subpopulations wherever possible, further limiting a direct comparison with the prior review's SOE ratings.

Benefits and Harms of Screening (KQs 1 and 3)

For this update, we included three trials (ROSE, SOS, and SCOOP) providing direct evidence for screening. All studies were pragmatic in nature, relying on participants' PCPs to initiate further evaluation and treatment in response to positive screening tests. As with most trials of screening, the proportion of participants who received treatment was a relatively small proportion of those randomized. We found moderate SOE for a small absolute benefit of screening on hip fractures (5 fewer per 1,000 screened) and MOF (6 fewer per 1,000 screened) and low SOE for osteoporotic fractures (5 fewer per 1,000 screened). The absolute magnitude of benefit observed is similar to that observed for hip fracture prevention from treatment with bisphosphonates or denosumab in persons with known osteoporosis, but smaller than the benefit observed for vertebral or nonvertebral fracture prevention. These estimates are based on pooling with the perprotocol population from the ROSE trial, which is methodologically most similar to the study designs used in SCOOP and SOS. Our sensitivity analysis using the ROSE ITT population (**Appendix E.1 Figure 1**) predictably led to smaller estimates of absolute effect and that do not

exclude a null effect because of the large proportion of participants (nearly 40%) who were included in the analysis without receiving the intervention.

The only individually statistically significant fracture reduction outcome was for hip fractures (a secondary endpoint) in the SCOOP trial. This finding was unexpected given that hip fractures are a subset of MOF and are much rarer events than other fractures. The study authors suggested that because they used the 10-year estimated hip fracture risk to determine recommendations for DXA, they were perhaps preferentially targeting persons more likely to suffer hip fractures than other fracture types. The hip fracture outcome may be spurious or biased because the relative magnitude of effect is inconsistent with findings for the other fracture outcomes, which occurred with much higher frequency. It is also a relatively large relative reduction, considering few participants were actually treated with medication. However, the authors reported a post hoc analysis in which only participants with the highest percentile of FRAX baseline hip probability benefited from screening, 122 and findings from the ROSE trial also suggested that most of the benefit with respect to MOF could be attributed to reductions in hip fracture.

All three trials enrolled individuals at high risk for fracture. The SOS trial enrolled a higher risk population (43% had prior fractures) than ROSE and SCOOP and conducted a more extensive battery of tests as its screening intervention. Further, the populations in all three studies were likely at higher risk of fracture than an average screening population in the United States. For example, a 65-year-old White woman in the United States of average height (159.7 cm) and weight (75.6 kg) based on 2015–2018 NHANES data³¹⁵ with no additional clinical risk factors has a 10-year risk of MOF of 8.2 percent and a hip fracture risk of 1.0 percent according to FRAX (without BMD input).³¹⁶ These risks are well below the mean FRAX-estimated risks in the SCOOP, ROSE, and SOS study populations (MOF risks ranged from 19% to 24.6%; hip fracture risks ranged from 6.7% to 11.6%). If one considers that individuals with the risk factors of glucocorticoid use, rheumatoid arthritis, secondary osteoporosis, or prior fracture are not in the target population for screening (i.e., DXA testing would be indicated for these individuals as part of disease management), then the highest estimated risk possible for a 65-year-old White woman of average height and weight and unknown BMD without such risks but with all other FRAX-specified risks (i.e., smoking, alcohol use, parental hip fracture) is 19 percent for MOF and 2.9 percent for hip fracture. Those risks increase slightly for women with lower BMIs and decrease slightly for those with higher BMIs. For a 65-year-old Black woman with the same height, weight, and risks, the highest possible risk is 8.9 percent (MOF) and 1.3 percent (hip), which is well below the risk of women in the included trials. One of the SRs included for KQ 1 also reviewed the acceptability of screening by patients and reported women who are low risk based on age have a high intention of getting screened; however, no studies report on the intentions of higher-risk women.¹³¹ The ROSE trial authors analyzed subjects who declined DXA testing and reported a higher level of comorbidities and health behaviors that also portend a higher fracture risk, suggesting a selection bias toward healthy individuals.¹²⁸ Thus, achieving population-level benefits of screening likely requires implementation strategies to ensure it is reaching those at highest risk.

We judged the SOE as low for no effect on mortality because of imprecision and study limitations. Only one trial reported on a single harm outcome (anxiety); 120 no differences were observed between groups. We judged the strength of evidence for these anxiety harms as insufficient because of study limitations related to modest uptake and adherence, and because of a single study body of evidence. One of the included SRs reported estimates for overdiagnosis of between 118 and 241 per 1,000 women screened. We assessed the SOE for overdiagnosis as insufficient, primarily because of study limitations in the underlying RCTs included in the SR and evolving methods for estimating this harm, which involves extrapolation. Overdiagnosis for identifying a high-risk probability is conceptually different than overdiagnosis of overt conditions (e.g., cancer), and the exact methods to estimate overdiagnosis in this context are still evolving and will generally be limited by less than perfect calibration of risk prediction instruments.³¹⁴

Another consideration is the applicability of the screening interventions used in these trials. The 2018 USPSTF strategy recommends universal BMD assessment in women age 65 years or older and a two-staged approach (formal risk assessment followed by BMD) for postmenopausal women younger than age 65 years. A two-staged approach was used with FRAX in SCOOP and ROSE for women of all ages; however, country-specific FRAX prediction models were used with thresholds unique to each study. SCOOP used an age-dependent hip fracture risk threshold to offer DXA, which varied from 5.2 to 8.4 percent, whereas ROSE offered DXA to participants above a 15 percent MOF risk threshold, regardless of age. If a two-stage approach were replicated in the United States, it is not entirely clear what thresholds should be used and whether thresholds should be fixed or vary based on age or other factors. It is also not clear how patient values and preferences about getting screened should be incorporated. The implications of using fixed risk thresholds vs. age-dependent thresholds are addressed further in **Contextual Question 5** in **Appendix F.2**. In brief, fixed thresholds may result in over or under screening or treatment while age-dependent thresholds may be difficult to use in practice. In contrast to SCOOP and ROSE, the SOS trial used an intensive intervention consisting of DXA, vertebral fracture assessment (imaging test), FRAX (country specific), fall risk assessment, and laboratory evaluation to evaluate for secondary causes of osteoporosis for women allocated to screening. Whether such an intensive intervention is feasible in usual primary care settings in the United States is not clear, nor is it clear whether the intensity of the intervention is warranted because this intervention had a similar magnitude of benefit compared with the less intensive interventions used in SCOOP and ROSE.

Accuracy (KQ 2)

Although this update includes more direct evidence for the benefits of screening compared with the prior review for older postmenopausal women, it may still be useful to consider the indirect evidence pathway for screening given the limitations and applicability of the direct evidence and because direct evidence for men and younger postmenopausal women is lacking entirely. Currently the USPSTF recommends universal DXA testing in women beginning at age 65 years, without regard to clinical risks. Because most fragility fractures occur in persons without osteoporosis, accurate risk assessment instruments could help identify the highest risk persons for subsequent risk reduction treatment, including but not limited to pharmacotherapy. However, because pharmacotherapy trials to date have not enrolled persons based on fracture risk, the role of such instruments with respect to decisions about DXA screening and treatment remains unclear.

Predictive Accuracy

The evidence for predictive accuracy of risk assessments and BMD measurement was very heterogeneous; further, it was poor methodologic quality. This poor quality partly reflects increased rigor of design and reporting standards for prognostic studies in recent years. The predictive accuracy of some risk assessment instruments (KQ 2a) appears to be similar to that of BMD alone (KQ 2b). Although many measures of accuracy exist, most studies reported discrimination measures only and specifically AUC.

We rated the SOE for the predictive accuracy of risk assessment instruments for discrimination as either low (FRAX, FRC, Garvan, QFracture) or insufficient (OST, WHI) and for calibration as low for FRAX and insufficient for all others evaluated. Accuracy appears higher for instruments that can incorporate a BMD input (FRAX, Garvan, FRC); however, this may not be particularly useful when considering such instruments as the first assessment step for determining who to refer for further DXA testing in a two-stage screening approach. Thus, for USPSTF consideration, our findings related to instruments without a BMD input are likely the most applicable to decision making.

A particular challenge to using risk assessment instruments in practice is determining the risk threshold to apply for clinical action. The evidence in this update suggests that multiple instruments can reasonably predict MOF or hip fractures at various thresholds, but the inconsistency of findings across the evidence base limits a strong conclusion about the use of a specific instrument at a specific threshold. Commonly applied thresholds (3% for hip fracture risk and 20% for MOF risk) were derived as thresholds for considering treatment (not screening) and were based on a cost-effectiveness analysis.^{80, 85} We note that the predictive accuracy of more complex risk assessment instruments involving multiple clinical or demographic risks appears to be similar to the accuracy of simpler assessments with fewer risks.

We rated the SOE for the predictive accuracy of BMD alone as low for discrimination outcomes because results were inconsistent and study quality was poor, and we rated the SOE for calibration outcomes as insufficient because the evaluation of BMD alone as a predictor was not the primary study aim for any of these studies, so authors reported limited calibration information. Discriminative accuracy varied widely among the different cohorts when considering BMD as a continuous measure; it appears better for hip prediction than for MOF, which could be explained by the fact that FN was the site most often used for measuring BMD, but also because MOF is a heterogenous outcome compared with hip fracture. Predictive accuracy in men appears to be similar or better than in women, though we note that the men enrolled in studies of accuracy may not be generalizable to the general primary care population as they may have been identified from referrals for BMD testing, specialty care, or primary care clinics caring for medically complex patients, such as VA settings. BMD alone is already used in practice for clinical decision making related to treatment; however, the evidence in this update confirms that the T-score threshold defining osteoporosis $\langle \langle -2.5 \rangle$ is not very sensitive and is only modestly specific for predicting future fragility fracture. This appears particularly true among younger women, but the evidence for this group is limited.

Diagnostic Accuracy

Given that the evidence base for pharmacotherapy is based on treating persons with osteoporosis or low bone mass, the accuracy of risk assessment instruments to identify which persons are likely to be candidates based on BMD is critical. Like the evidence base for predictive accuracy, the evidence base for the diagnostic accuracy of various risk assessment instruments (KQ 2c) was very heterogeneous in terms of populations evaluated, reference standards used, and score thresholds evaluated. Accuracy as evaluated by AUC was modest to good, but sensitivity and specificity ranges within and across studies were wide. We rated the SOE for discrimination outcomes for FRAX, OST, and OSTA as low in both women and men. For women, we rated the SOE as low for ABONE, NOF, ORAI, OSIRIS, and SCORE and insufficient for AMMEB, Garvan, and SOFSURF. For men, we rated the SOE as low for MORES and MOST and insufficient for ABONE, Garvan, MSCORE, ORAI, OSIRIS, SCORE, and VA-FARA. To be used in clinical practice, thresholds need to be established to determine a positive screening test. Many studies evaluated alternative thresholds than the ones established in development cohorts to optimize sensitivity in their population. In some cases, the alternative thresholds may have involved a slight tweak to the score threshold, but in other studies it may have involved a much larger adjustment to the threshold. A test whose threshold is not robust across a spectrum of populations may not be suitable for widespread use.

Repeat Screening

We did not identify any direct evidence (KQ 1) evaluating a strategy of repeat screening. As part of our assessment of the indirect evidence (KQ 2d), we did identify studies comparing the predictive accuracy of repeat screening with DXA BMD after 4 to 8 years with a baseline DXA BMD and we rated the SOE as moderate for similar predictive accuracy (**Table 3**). Further evidence from contextual question 1 (**Appendix F.1**) provides evidence from studies evaluating the time taken for women to transition across various BMD categories. In an analysis of the SOF cohort of postmenopausal women age 65 years or older, it took on average 17 years for 10 percent of women with a normal BMD at baseline to transition to an osteoporotic range, and a similar figure was observed for women with T-scores between -1.0 and -1.49 .³¹⁷ The transition interval decreased for women with T-scores between -1.50 and -1.99 (4.7 years) at baseline and women with T-scores between -2.0 and -2.49 (1.1 years) at baseline.³¹⁷ Several other studies have attempted to identify optimal screening intervals by assessing the time to transition to osteoporosis or a 10 percent fracture risk and the time for 1 percent of women to transition to an actual fracture event. These authors estimate various intervals, but a pattern of shorter intervals with advancing age is consistent across studies.

Considerations Regarding Race-Based Prediction Models

Of special note are the findings related to using FRAX in women younger than age 65 years with the MOF risk thresholds suggested by the USPSTF's current (8.4%) or past (9.3%) recommendation. Analyses of this threshold in three unique cohorts suggested poor sensitivity and only modest specificity. A further concern with these thresholds is that they represent the risks for a 65-year-old White woman of average height and weight. This benchmark was selected by the USPSTF based on its existing recommendation that women age 65 years or older should be screened with DXA. However, if the goal is to use the risk of a 65-year-old woman with no

other clinical risks as a benchmark, then the risk for any given individual may be more fairly evaluated against the risk of a 65-year-old of the same height, weight, and race. For example, the estimated risk for a younger Black woman could be evaluated against the risk for a 65-year-old Black woman (equivalent to 4.2% for BMI of 25.0 kg/m^2). Such an approach would solve issues inherent in using a fixed threshold based on risk of a White woman; however, across the population, it would result in persons of varying fracture risks being referred for DXA. Further, this approach is likely not feasible to implement in time-constrained primary care settings. The issue related to referral of persons with varying fracture risk is already inherent in the recommendation for universal DXA screening in women at age 65 years. MOF risks for women with a BMI of 25 kg/m² vary between a low of 4.2 percent (Black woman, no other clinical risk) and 22 percent (White woman with parental history, smoking, and alcohol use). See **Appendix F.2 Contextual Question 5** for additional information concerning use of fixed thresholds with risk assessment tools.

For further consideration is whether a race-based prediction model should be used for clinical decision making at all. The United States is one of only a few countries that use FRAX calibrated for specific racial groups; other countries with multiethnic populations (e.g., Canada, United Kingdom) use one race-neutral FRAX calculator. Race-informed prediction models do not accommodate multiracial individuals or the underlying heterogeneity in risk that exists within a single racial group. Other race-neutral prediction models with fewer inputs appear to be as accurate or more accurate than FRAX or similarly complex assessments. However, challenges remain as to what the appropriate threshold for decision making would be for these instruments and whether it should vary for different populations or clinical contexts.

Benefits and Harms of Treatment

Treatment of osteoporosis is well established in clinical practice. We found moderate SOE for treatment with bisphosphonates for the primary prevention of vertebral and nonvertebral fractures and low SOE for benefit on hip fractures and mortality. We analyzed studies of bisphosphonates as a class; however, it is important to note that not all drugs in the class have demonstrated efficacy with respect to hip fracture outcomes. We found moderate SOE for denosumab with respect to the primary prevention of vertebral fractures and low SOE for nonvertebral fractures, hip fractures, and mortality. An SR and network meta-analysis³¹⁸ in support of the January 2023 clinical practice guideline on pharmacotherapy issued by the American College of Physicians³¹⁹ found similar conclusions regarding bisphosphonate and denosumab treatment with respect to fracture outcomes; however, this review included a broader scope that did not limit to primary prevention populations and did not exclude poor-quality studies. We rated serious adverse events and discontinuations due to adverse event outcomes as either low or moderate SOE for no effect comparing active drug (bisphosphonate or denosumab) and placebo. For upper GI adverse events, we rated the evidence as moderate SOE for no effect for bisphosphonates and low for harm for denosumab.

We identified several applicability concerns with this body of evidence. Of the studies that reported fracture or mortality outcomes, a minority specifically required T-scores less than -2.5; the rest enrolled participants with T-scores spanning the range considered low bone mass and osteoporosis or low bone mass only. All but one study of denosumab and one study of bisphosphonates were conducted in postmenopausal women. Although studies of abaloparatide,

teriparatide, and romosozumab were eligible for inclusion for men, we did not identify any such studies because studies of those agents were conducted among populations with prior fracture or with secondary osteoporosis; these populations were not eligible for inclusion in this update review. For this update, we identified only one study published since the prior review (the other five studies newly included in this update were published between 1996 and 2012 and we identified them through handsearches of systematic reviews identified in the current update). Because treatment is now standard of care for osteoporosis, we think future placebo-controlled trials are unlikely. Future updates for this topic may want to consider the treatment benefit and harm evidence as foundational.³¹⁸

Limitations of the Evidence

We note several limitations with the three trials included for KQ 1. First, they were all pragmatic trials conducted among older European women (median ages, 71 to 76 years) using interventions that included non-U.S. fracture prediction models. The proportion of persons eligible who participated was low (about one-third) in one trial¹²⁰ with evidence of healthy selection bias, and the receipt of the screening intervention was suboptimal in the other two trials $(55\%$ in ROSE¹²⁶ and 76% in SOS^{124}). The three trials were underpowered because the observed proportion of women with treatment indications and who adhered to treatment were lower than expected and because of contamination in control arms from secular trends in screening and treatment. For all these reasons, the estimate of benefits from these trials probably represents the lower bounds of screening efficacy for the eligible population. Yet, these findings may reflect the real-world effectiveness of a systematic screening program. It is not clear whether similar findings would be observed if screening were offered entirely through the participant's PCP office, which is a model more applicable to USPSTF considerations. Although these estimates represent the lower bounds of efficacy, it is not entirely clear that the findings are applicable to populations with lower fracture risk or U.S. settings given the use of country-specific FRAX prediction models and the thresholds for action (i.e., further screening with DXA or treatment) used in these trials. As described earlier, the women in these trials represented a population with a higher risk than we might expect to encounter in a primary prevention population of women with a screening indication based on age alone. Whether it is possible to conduct a large-scale trial of screening among women age 65 years or older in the United States given that universal screening with DXA is a common practice is not clear.

Although we identified many studies for the KQ on accuracy, heterogeneity in populations, thresholds used, and incomplete reporting precluded robust conclusions. For both predictive and diagnostic accuracy, a number of studies were conducted using retrospectively assembled datasets of persons referred for BMD, some of whom may already have a diagnosis of osteoporosis or take medication or may have had a prior fracture. Many predictive accuracy studies focused only on discrimination outcomes and did not report sufficient information about calibration. Some used proxy data for selected risk factors or omitted those factors if data were not available, or participants were observed for fewer years than the duration used in the risk model development studies. Further, it is unclear whether data on FRAX from other countries is applicable to the U.S. setting given that FRAX is calibrated to each country's fracture incidence. We tried to mitigate this issue by limiting the KQs on predictive accuracy to countries with similar hip fracture incidence as the United States (moderate incidence). The diagnostic accuracy studies varied in how the DXA reference standard was measured (e.g., different anatomic sites for T-score, different reference range used to calculate T-scores from raw BMD measure).

The major limitation in the treatment literature for primary prevention is that few studies include men, and studies enrolled persons based on BMD T-scores and not fracture risk. Although data suggest treatments are probably safe compared with placebo, few studies eligible for this update review were sufficiently designed to report on rare or duration-dependent harms such as osteonecrosis of the jaw, atypical femur fractures, or rebound vertebral fractures.

A concern across the evidence for all KQs relates to the lack of diverse populations enrolled in studies. Many studies did not report the race or ethnicity of enrolled populations, and those that did mostly enrolled exclusively or vast majority White populations. Given the differences in fracture incidence among persons of different races and ethnicities in the United States, studies enrolling sufficient numbers from diverse populations are needed to determine the applicability of findings in different populations.

Future Research Needs

Because the predictive accuracy of most risk assessment instruments is similar to that of BMD alone, trials that randomize participants to fracture risk assessment vs. DXA for screening and then treat based on fracture risk or T-score would provide direct evidence for comparing such screening strategies and would address a gap about whether pharmacotherapy based on fracture risk is effective for reducing fractures. It is not clear what screening strategy should be evaluated in such trials, including whether the focus should be on identifying osteoporosis to treat with medication or whether a more comprehensive screening strategy to address a broader set of fracture determinants should be evaluated. Further, if a country-specific risk assessment tool, such as FRAX, is used, then trials conducted in the United States using the U.S. version of FRAX would ensure applicability of findings to U.S. settings. In addition, future trials of screening should specify harm outcomes a priori and use adequate ascertainment methods. In the absence of future trials offering direct evidence, decision analyses could help fill in gaps regarding optimal starting and stopping stages for women or identifying optimal screening approaches; however, it is not clear whether enough screening trial evidence exists for robust inputs into such analyses.

Rigorously designed research on instruments for fracture risk prediction or osteoporosis identification that are applicable to general, unselected primary care populations and that are feasible for use in such settings is needed. Thoughtful consideration for whether and how race is used in such instruments is critical as is research associated with selecting thresholds for action resulting from the use of such instruments in practice. Whether the focus of future research should be on improving existing instruments, such as with the addition of fall history or propensity, on developing new instruments, or on improving provider and patient understanding and decision making from the use of current instrument is unclear.

Given that treatment of osteoporosis in older, screen-detected women without contraindications is considered standard of care, it is unlikely that future placebo-controlled trials of treatment in such populations will be conducted for ethical reasons. However, research that evaluates

treatment of osteoporosis among screen-detected men and younger women without known clinical risks would likely have equipoise. To date, most studies that have enrolled men or younger women focus on persons with a history of prior fracture or who have underlying medical conditions or take medications associated with secondary osteoporosis.

Our search of trial registries identified three ongoing studies (**Appendix H**) but none that appear to address the specific research needs described in this section.

Limitations of the Review

This review focused on only one aspect of fracture prevention, which was to identify and pharmacologically treat osteoporosis. We did not evaluate comprehensive approaches to fracture prevention that might include screening, counseling, medication, physical therapy, and other interventions to prevent falls or improve physical function in older adults. Preventing falls is addressed by a separate USPSTF recommendation.³²⁰

This review did not address the use of DXA testing as part of disease management in persons with a history of fragility fracture or medical conditions or medications associated with secondary osteoporosis. DXA testing in such persons is clinically indicated along with other medical tests or interventions for risk mitigation. Thus, we do not consider DXA testing in such individuals as screening, so results from this review cannot be applied to such populations.

We did not evaluate the comparative effectiveness and harms of alternative pharmacotherapies, and we did not evaluate evidence concerning duration of treatment or temporary drug holidays. For treatment benefits and harms, we focused on studies for primary prevention and did not include trials conducted predominantly amond persons with secondary osteoporosis or history of fragility fracture. Our review scope was not comprehensive for evaluting rare harms of treatment; several authors have reported on these harms using study designs broader than what we used for the KQs in this update (**Appendix F, Contextual Questions 6 and 7**).

Our review was limited to English-language publications published in peer-reviewed journals and conducted in very highly developed countries. We did not include conference abstracts or data from completed but unpublished studies posted in trial registries.

Conclusions

Screening in older, higher-risk women was associated with a small absolute risk reduction in hip fractures and MOF compared with usual care. Screening strategies varied and no direct evidence evaluated screening using DXA alone or screening in women younger than age 65 years or in men. Risk assessment instruments and BMD at the hip or spine has poor to modest discrimination in men and older women for predicting fracture and studies of calibration were limited. For identifying osteoporosis, risk assessment instruments had modest to good accuracy in men and modest accuracy in older women. In women younger than age 65 years, risk assessment instruments had poor predictive (fracture) and diagnostic (osteoporosis) discrimination. Treatment of osteoporosis with FDA-approved bisphosphonates or denosumab was associated with reductions in vertebral, nonvertebral, and hip fractures with no increase in

discontinuations due to adverse events or serious adverse events compared with placebo in studies conducted over one to several years' duration; however, data about rare and longer-term harms were limited from the evidence included in this update.

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Figure 1. Analytic Framework

Screening for Osteoporosis to Prevent Fractures 75 75 RTI–UNC EPC

Some studies (articles) are included in more than one KQ.

Abbreviations: HDI=human development index; KQ=key question' RCT=randomized, controlled trial; SR=systematic review; U.S.=United States.

Figure 3. Randomized, Controlled Trials of Screening vs. Usual Care—Fracture and Mortality Outcomes (KQ 1)

Figure 3. Randomized, Controlled Trials of Screening vs. Usual Care—Fracture and Mortality Outcomes (KQ 1)

Note: This analysis used the first per-protocol data from the ROSE trial for the fracture outcomes because these data reflect a similar study design as the intention to treat (ITT) data reported in SCOOP and SOS. Appendix E.1 Figure 1 provides a sensitivity analysis using the ITT data from the ROSE trial for the fracture outcomes. The data for mortality is the ITT population for ROSE because per-protocol data for ROSE was not reported.

* SCOOP reported an outcome entitled "Osteoporotic Fractures," which was defined as clinical fractures excluding hand, foot, skull, or cervical vertebrae. This definition differs from the definition of MOF used by the other two studies (hip, clinical vertebral, distal forearm, and humerus); as such, we have included SCOOP "Osteoporosis" outcome in the estimate for both "Osteoporotic Fractures" and for "MOF" in this figure. The RR estimate for MOF without SCOOP included is 0.93 (95% CI, 0.86 to 1.00); Absolute Effect: 6 fewer (from 12 fewer to 0 fewer). It is also not clear that fractures associated with trauma were excluded from SCOOP.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; AUC=area under the curve; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; F/U=followup; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N/n=number; NR=not reported; PriorFx=prior fracture; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women; SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst (SALT) Osteoporosis Study; vs.=versus; y=year.

Figure 4a. Accuracy of Risk Instruments for Predicting Major Osteoporotic Fractures and Hip Fractures in Women (KQ 2a)

BMD NR, Range represented when no symbol, otherwise symbol represents pooled (SR) or individual (primary study) estimate and 95% CI.

Figure 4a. Accuracy of Risk Instruments for Predicting Major Osteoporotic Fractures and Hip Fractures in Women (KQ 2a)

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; FREM=Fracture Risk Evaluation Model; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OSIRIS=OSteoporosis Index of RISk; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Evaluation; SR=systematic reviews; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Figure 4b. Accuracy of Risk Instruments for Predicting Major Osteoporotic Fractures and Hip Fractures in Men (KQ 2a)

represented when no symbol, otherwise symbol represents pooled (SR) or individual (primary study) estimate and 95% CI.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; EPIC=Escala de Prediccion de fracturas Implementable en historia Clínica electronica - fracture prediction scale implementable in electronic medical record; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Instrument; FREM=Fracture Risk Evaluation Model; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; SR=systematic reviews.

Figure 4c. Accuracy of Risk Instruments for Predicting Major Osteoporotic Fractures and Hip Fractures in Mixed-Sex Populations (KQ 2a)

Figure 4c. Accuracy of Risk Instruments for Predicting Major Osteoporotic Fractures and Hip Fractures in Mixed-Sex Populations (KQ 2a)

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Instrument; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; SR=systematic reviews.

Total N With Fracture Area Under the Curve Estimate (95% CI) Study Sex N *MOF* Baleanu, 2021¹⁷⁹ Women 3,030 281 0.69 (0.65 to 0.71) Bolland, 2011¹⁶⁶ Women 1,422 279 0.60 (0.56 to 0.62) Chapurlat, 2020¹⁷⁵ Women 2,100 61 0.62 (0.56 to 0.68) Cheung, 2012¹⁵⁰ Women 2,266 106 **Definition Cheung**, 2012¹⁵⁰ 0.71 (0.66 to 0.76) Fraser, 2011¹⁵⁴ Mixed 6,697 695 **Definition in the U.S. 10.66 (0.64 to 0.69)** Goldshtein, 2018¹⁷² Women 16,578 2,263 \Box \Box 0.62 (0.59 to 0.64) Gourlay, 2017^{146} Women 4.994 326 $\qquad \qquad$ $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ $\qquad \q$ MBR-Hans, 2011¹⁸³ Women 29,407 1,668 0.68 (0.66 to 0.69) MBR-Leslie, 2010¹⁵⁷ Mixed 39,603 2,543 | | | | | | 0.68 (0.67 to 0.69) Marques, 2017¹⁷⁶ Women 1,943 145 $\vert \frac{1}{2} \vert \frac{1}{2} \vert$ $\vert \frac{1}{2} \vert$ 0.66 (0.63 to 0.68) Men 683 33 | | | | | | | 0.80 (0.76 to 0.84) Stewart, 2006¹⁹⁰ Women 3,883 128

and a set of the set of the set of 0.63 to 0.66) Tamaki, 2011¹⁵¹ Women 815 43 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\n\hline\n\textbf{1}\quad & \textbf{0.64 (0.57 to 0.72)}\n\hline\n\end{array}$ Tanaka, 2010¹⁵⁶ Women 400 60 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\n\hline\n\text{} & 0.65(0.58 \text{ to } 0.73)\n\end{array}$ Tremollieres, 2010¹⁸⁹ Women 2,196 145 **Definition in the United State** 1 0.66 (0.60 to 0.73) *Hip Fracture* Baleanu, 2021¹⁷⁹ Women 3,030 47 0.81 (0.76 to 0.86) Bolland, 2011¹⁶⁶ Women 1,422 57 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \textbf{Bolland, 2011}^{166} & \textbf{Women } 1,422 & 57 & \textbf{0.64 (0.57 to 0.72)} \hline \end{array}$ Cheung, 2012¹⁵⁰ Women 2,266 21 \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert 0.86 (0.79 to 0.92) Fraser, 2011¹⁵⁴ Mixed 6,697 175 | \rightarrow 0.76 (0.72 to 0.79) Goldshtein, 2018¹⁷² Women 16,578 481 \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert 0.78 (0.74 to 0.83) Gourlay, 2017¹⁴⁶ Men 4,994 175 0.76 (0.72 to 0.81) Iki, 2021¹⁹⁴ Women 1,331 68 | | | | **| |** | 0.86 (NR) Marques, 2017¹⁷⁶ Women 1,943 20 \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert Men 683 8 | | | \rightarrow | 0.82 (0.78 to 0.86) MBR-Hans, 2011¹⁸³ Women 29,407 293 **0.80** 0.80 0.77 to 0.82) MBR-Leslie, 2010¹⁵⁷ Mixed 39,603 549 0.80 (0.78 to 0.82) Robbins, 2007¹⁸⁷ Women 10,750 80 \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert \vert 0.79 (0.73 to 0.85) Sund, 2014¹⁸⁵ Women 2,755 21 0.74 (0.64 to 0.83) Tamaki, 2011¹⁵¹ Women 815 4 $\left| \begin{array}{ccc} \hline \end{array} \right|$ $\left| \begin{array}{ccc} \hline \end{array} \right|$ = 0.82 (0.67 to 0.98) 0.50 0.60 0.70 0.80 0.90 1.00 AUC (95% CI)

Figure 5. Accuracy of Bone Mineral Density for Predicting Major Osteoporotic Fractures and Hip Fractures (KQ 2b)

 \blacksquare =women; \blacklozenge = men; \blacktriangle =mixed population of men and women

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; CI=confidence interval; KQ=key question; MBR=Manitoba BMD Registry; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N/n=number; NR=not reported.

Note: This plot depicts the range of AUC estimates (line with no symbol) from across 2 or more studies OR a single study point estimate and 95% CI when only one study reported an AUC estimate. The number of studies (k) in AUC, sensitivity, and specificity columns is provided when the estimate reported was from a fewer number of studies than

Figure 6a. Accuracy of Risk Assessment Instruments for Identifying Osteoporosis in Women (KQ 2c)

what is reported in the second column. Not all studies reported all three outcomes. Unless otherwise indicated, populations generally included postmenopausal women (>45, >50, >55, >60 years), but in some cases women as young as 40 years without regard to menopausal status were enrolled.

* Thresholds evaluated included ≥ 1.5 , ≥ 2 , ≥ 3 .

 \dagger Does not include one study that was an extreme outlier.²⁴⁵

 $\stackrel{+}{\text{MOF}}$ risk >8.4 percent (2018 USPSTF recommendation) or 9.3 percent (2011 USPSTF recommendation).

 $\frac{8}{3}$ The most common threshold was \geq 9, but threshold varied from 8 to 20; the sensitivities and specificities reflect estimates from across all score thresholds.

Score thresholds for sensitivity and specificity varied from \lt -3 to \lt 1.5.

The most common threshold was <2, but thresholds evaluated included $\leq 1, \leq 0, \leq -1, \leq -2.9$, and some studies did not report threshold because they only reported AUC.

 $*$ Excluding two outliers (AUC 0.32¹⁹⁹ and 0.22).²²⁵

** The most common threshold was <2, but also included studies that did not report threshold (AUC only) and threshold of \leq 1.

^{††} The most common threshold was ≤-1, but also included <0, <-1, ≤-2.

[#] The most common threshold evaluated was ≥6, but other thresholds included >7, ≥7, ≥8, ≥11, ≥12, ≥20.75, and some studies where no threshold (AUC only) was reported were also evaluated.

§§ The most common threshold evaluated was \geq 6, but \geq 6, \geq 7, and \geq 7 were also evaluated.

^{II} Thresholds evaluated included ≥1, >1.7, ≥0.

Abbreviations: ABONE=Age, Bone, No Estrogen; AMMEB=Age, years after Menopause, age at MEnarche; AUC=area under the curve; CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; OF=osteoporotic fractures; N/n=number; NR=not reported; NOF=National Osteoporosis Foundation; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OSIRIS=OSteoporosis Index of RISk; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; OSTA=OST for Asians; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; Sn=sensitivity; SOFSURF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group Study Utilizing Risk Factors; Sp=specificity; USPSTF=U.S. Preventive Services Task Force.

Note: This plot depicts the range of AUC estimates (line with no symbol) from across 2 or more studies OR a single study point estimate and 95% CI when only one study reported an AUC estimate. The number of studies (k) in AUC, sensitivity, and specificity columns is provided when the estimate reported was from a fewer number of studies than what is reported in the second column. Not all studies reported all three outcomes.

Figure 6b. Accuracy of Risk Assessment Instruments for Identifying Osteoporosis in Men (KQ 2c)

* MOF risk ≥8.4 percent (2018 USPSTF recommendation) or 9.3 percent (2011 USPSTF recommendation).

† Threshold ≤26 for U.S. participants; ≤21 for Hong Kong participants.

ǂ In a separate cohort of 134 African Americans derived from a convenience sample, the sensitivity was either 93 percent or 100 percent and the specificity was either 73 percent or 79 percent depending on whether a Caucasian or African American reference range was used to calculate T-scores. See **Appendix D Table 13** for details.

§ The most common threshold evaluated was <2; however, the following thresholds were also evaluated: $\leq 6, \leq 3, \leq 1, \leq 0.99, \leq 0, \leq 1, \leq -2$, and several studies that did not report thresholds because they only reported AUC.

The most common threshold evaluated was \leq -1, but \lt 2, \leq 1, \leq 0, and \lt 0.5 were also evaluated.

Abbreviations: ABONE=Age, Bone, No Estrogen; AUC=area under the curve; CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; MORES=Male Osteoporosis Risk Estimation Score; MOST=Male Osteoporosis Screening Tool; MSCORE=Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; OF=osteoporotic fractures; N/n=number; NR=not reported; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; OSTA=OST for Asians; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity; USPSTF=U.S. Preventive Services Task Force; VA-FARA=Veterans Affairs Fracture Absolute Risk Assessment.

Figure 6c. Accuracy of Risk Assessment Instruments for Identifying Osteoporosis in Mixed-Sex Populations (KQ 2c)

* Used empirically derived, age-based thresholds.

Abbreviations: CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; k=number of studies; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; OF=osteoporotic fractures; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; N =number; NR=not reported; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity.

Figure 7. Results of Randomized, Placebo-Controlled Trials of Treatment for Osteoporosis, Fractures, Mortality, and Harms (KQs 4 and 5)

* Although multiple studies reported, the evidence base is dominated by one large $(N=7,808)$ study.

† We conducted a sensitivity analysis limiting to studies reporting clinical vertebral fractures (4 studies) and the pooled RR was 0.44 (95% CI, 0.24 to 0.79; 2,373 participants, *I ²*=0%).

Abbreviations: AE=adverse event; ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; GI=gastrointestinal; KQ=key question; N/n=number; RR=relative risk.

Table 1. Summary of Randomized, Controlled Trials of Screening for Fracture Risk or Osteoporosis (KQs 1 and 3)

Table 1. Summary of Randomized, Controlled Trials of Screening for Fracture Risk or Osteoporosis (KQs 1 and 3)

* Excluding fingers, toe, skull, and face.

[†] Excluding hands, feet, nose, skull, or cervical vertebrae.

 $\stackrel{+}{ }$ Clinical risk factors: previous fracture after age 50, parental hip fracture, BMI<19 kg/m², rheumatoid arthritis, menopause <45 years, malabsorption syndrome, chronic liver disease, type 1 diabetes, immobility.

Abbreviations: aHR=adjusted hazard ratio; aSHR=adjusted subhazard ratio; BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; CI=confidence interval; DXA=dual-energy Xray absorptiometry; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; IQR=interquartile range; ISRCTN=International Standard Randomised Controlled Trial Registry; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N=number of participants; NCT=National Clinical Trial; NR=not reported; NTR=Dutch National Trial Register; PCP=primary care provider; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women; SD=standard deviation; SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium enTrombosedienst (SALT) Osteoporosis Study; U.K.=United Kingdom; VFA=vertebral fracture assessment.

Table 2. Randomized, Placebo-Controlled Trials of Treatment for Osteoporosis (KQs 4 and 5)

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Table 2. Randomized, Placebo-Controlled Trials of Treatment for Osteoporosis (KQs 4 and 5)

* Studies define this in varying ways: any fracture, fracture after age 50, fragility fracture, and vertebral fracture only.

[†] 5 mg/day or 10 mg/day or 40 mg/day for 3 months, then 2.5 mg/day for 21 months; 20 mg/day for 1 year, then placebo for 1 year, then placebo for 1 year, then placebo for 1 year.

 \pm Only the portion of the enrolled population without prior vertebral fracture was used for this review.

§ Dosage was 20 mg for first 2 years and lowered to 5 mg in the final year.

ǁ Includes the alendronate, risedronate, and placebo arms.

¶ 50 mg per month; 50 mg for the first month, then 100 mg for months 2–3; 100 mg per month; 150 mg per month.

0.25 mg every 3 months, 0.5 mg every 3 months, 1 mg every 3 months, 4 mg every 1 year, 2 mg every 6 months.

 $*$ 6 mg, 14 mg, or 30 mg every 3 months; 14 mg, 60 mg, 100 mg, or 210 mg every 6 months.

 $\ddot{\uparrow}$ 14 mg, 60 mg, or 100 mg every 6 months.

ǂǂ T-scores based on male reference range.

Abbreviations: ADAMO= Study to Compare the Efficacy and Safety of DenosumAb Versus Placebo in Males With Osteoporosis; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FN=femoral neck; FREEDOM=Fracture Reduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months KQ=key question; LS=lumbar spine; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N/n= number; NR=not reported; SD=standard deviation; TH=total hip.

* Rated down 1 level for study limitations.

[†] Rated down 1 level for imprecision and 1 level for study limitations.

‡ Rated down 1 level for inconsistency and 1 level for study limitations.

§ Not enough data to evaluate SOE.

^ǁ Downgraded 1 level for study limitations and 1 level for inconsistency.

¶ Downgraded 1 level for study limitations, 1 level for inconsistency, and 1 level for imprecision.

Downgraded 1 level for study limitations, including indirectness as these study designs did not directly compare a strategy of repeat screening with single screening.

Abbreviations: ABONE=Age, Bone, No Estrogen instrument; AE=adverse event; AMMEB=Age, years after Menopause, age at Menarche Index; ARD=absolute risk difference; AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; EHR=electronic health record; FN=femoral neck; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; FREEDOM=Fracture Reduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months; Fx=fracture; GI=gastrointestinal; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; MORES=Male Osteoporosis Risk Estimation Score; MOST=Male Osteoporosis Screening Tool;

MSCORE=Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; NA=not available; NOF=National Osteoporosis Foundation tool; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OSIRIS=OSteoporosis Index of RISk; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; OSTA=OST for Asians; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROB=risk of bias; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation; RR=relative risk; SAE=serious adverse event; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; Sn=sensitivity; SOFSURF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group Study Utilizing Risk Factors; Sp=specificity; U.S. Preventive Services Task Force; VA-FARA=Veterans Affairs Fracture Absolute Risk Assessment; vs.=versus; WHI, Womens Health Initiative Prediction Model.

Prevalence and Burden

Abbreviations: N=number.

Appendix A Figure 1. FRAX Estimates of the 10-Year Risk for Major Osteoporotic Fracture and Hip Fracture at a Bone Mineral Density T-Score of -2.5 and Body Mass Index of 25 at Ages 50 and 70 Years With No Other Clinical Risks³²²

Abbreviations: FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture defined as fracture of the hip, spine (clinical), wrist, or humerus; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States.

Risk Assessment Instruments

Appendix A Table 2. Risk Assessment Instruments for Identifying Osteoporosis or Predicting Fracture

* Separate risk calculators are available for U.S. Caucasian, Black, Hispanic, and Asian persons.

 \dagger Can be used with or without BMD either at femoral neck, lumbar spine, or both depending on instrument.

^ǂ Must include BMD at lumbar spine.

Note: this table does not include the Fracture Risk Evaluation Model, which uses age, sex, and 38 clinical risk factors for women and 43 risk factors for men.

Abbreviations: ABONE=assessing age, body size, and estrogen use; AMMEB=Age, years after Menopause, age at Menarche; BMI=body mass index; BMD=bone mineral density; COPD=chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; FRISC=Fracture and Immobilization Score; FRISK=Fracture Risk Score; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; FRP=Fracture Risk Prediction; MORES=Multiple Outcomes of Raloxifene Trial; MOST=Male Osteoporosis Screening Tool; MSCORE=Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; NOF=National Osteoporosis Foundation; OI=Osteoporosis Identification; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OSIRIS=Osteoporosis Index of Risk; OST=osteoporosis self-assessment tool; OSTA=Osteoporosis Self-assessment Tool for Asians; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimate; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; SOFSURF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Simple Useful Risk Factors; U.S.=United States; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Additional Information: Fracture Risk Assessment Tool

The most studied fracture risk assessment instrument is Fracture Risk Assessment Tool (FRAX), released in 2008 and developed by the University of Sheffield in the United Kingdom during the time the University hosted the World Health Organization's (WHO's) Collaborating Centre for Metabolic Bone Disease (1991 to 2010).^{12, 71} FRAX predicts the 10-year probability of hip fracture or major osteoporotic fractures (MOFs) (hip, spine, wrist, shoulder) for persons ages 40 to 90 years using demographic and clinical factors alone or in combination with bone mineral density (BMD) measured at the femoral neck (FN).⁸⁹ Risks predicted by FRAX without BMD are not as accurate when compared with FRAX with the use of BMD; however, risks predicted by FRAX without BMD are similar to risks predicted by BMD alone.³²³

FRAX was derived from nine cohorts in Europe, the United States, Japan, and Canada and further validated in an additional 11 cohort studies.^{12, 71} As of spring 2021, 73 different countryspecific versions of FRAX were available that have been calibrated using country-specific fracture incidence and mortality data (which is considered a competing risk in the model). ⁷⁸ For the United States, four different versions of FRAX are available that have been calibrated based on racial- and ethnic-specific fracture incidence data, including unique versions for non-Hispanic Caucasians, non-Hispanic Blacks, Hispanics, and non-Hispanic Asians.⁶⁹ We note that the group labels used to describe the race-specific FRAX calculators may not be consistent with current preferred terminology for various racial and ethnic groups.

As of 2016, FRAX was incorporated into 120 guidelines worldwide and added into dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) software following regulatory approval by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and has been incorporated into clinical decision support tools within electronic health record systems.⁸⁹ The most commonly cited limitations of the FRAX instrument include use of binary exposure to glucocorticoids and alcohol use (yes/no vs. quantified dose exposure), lack of use of lumbar spine (LS) BMD or trabecular bone score, no information collected about history of falls, frailty, and lack of medical conditions such as diabetes that may portend an increased risk.^{69, 84, 324} Falls and propensity to fall become increasingly important risk factors with advancing age. Further, FRAX has only been validated for use with FN BMD, and using FRAX in persons with low BMD at the LS but relatively normal BMD at the FN may underestimate fracture risk.⁸⁴ Because hip fracture incidence in the United States is lower in most non-White racial and ethnic groups, predicted fracture risk estimates for persons in these racial and ethnic groups will always be lower than for White persons of the same age, sex, weight, BMD, and clinical risks used in the FRAX model. See **Appendix A Contextual Question 2** for additional information about the use of race and ethnicity in FRAX.

USPSTF's Prior Recommendations Related to Use of FRAX

In the last two updates to its recommendations, the USPSTF has recommended BMD testing in all women age 65 years or older but only recommended BMD testing for women ages 50 to 64 years who are at increased risk of osteoporosis, as determined by a formal clinical risk assessment tool (topline recommendation).¹ In the clinical considerations, the USPSTF suggests that one approach in women younger than age 65 years is to screen individuals when their risk of a 10-year MOF is equivalent to that of a 65-year-old White woman with no other clinical risks.¹

In the 2011 recommendation, this risk was 9.3 percent based on risk for a White women with BMI of 25 kg/m². In the 2018 recommendation, this risk was 8.4 percent based on the risk for a White woman of average height and weight in the United States, which was a BMI slightly higher than 25 kg/m².

The usefulness of the USPSTF's approach in younger women is unclear. Identifying persons with a T-score less than -2.5 is important because that is the population for whom trial evidence supports treatment. However, tools other than FRAX that were developed specially to identify osteoporosis are simpler and have higher diagnostic accuracy than FRAX.¹³⁹ Several studies have retrospectively applied the USPSTF FRAX criteria to a sample of women to evaluate accuracy for identifying osteoporosis;^{141, 195, 220, 234, 236} these are included in **key question (KQ) 2c** of this update.

Although the use of FRAX does have limitations, the field has evolved toward trying to identify those at risk for fracture and not just those with osteoporosis because most fragility fractures occur in persons with T-scores greater than -2.5. Age is a large driver of fracture risk relative to the T-score in older populations, and because fracture risk has greater between-country variability than BMD does, some researchers argue that treatment decisions should probably be based on fracture risk and not BMD alone.⁸⁹ For example, in a 65-year-old female, the 10-year MOF risk of 20 percent (the treatment threshold in the United States) corresponds to a FN Tscore of -4.6 in Venezuela but only -2.0 in Iceland.⁸⁹ For these reasons, some experts and organizations recommend fracture risk assessment as the initial screening approach for all ages, with subsequent BMD testing for persons at an intermediate or higher risk (see **Appendix A Table 4** in the subsequent section). Randomized, controlled trials (RCTs) are now available (see **KQ 1** of main report) that compare a screening strategy that uses FRAX risk calculation followed by BMD in selected patients who score above a certain risk threshold; however, no published studies have been designed to evaluate a treatment strategy based on FRAX, although some treatment trials may now report baseline characteristics related to fracture risk and provide results stratified by fracture risk.⁸⁹

Pharmacologic Treatment of Osteoporosis

Appendix A Table 3. FDA-Approved Pharmacologic Agents for the Prevention or Treatment of Osteoporosis Included in this Review

Abbreviation: FDA=Food and Drug Administration.

Recommendations and Guidelines for Screening From Professional Organizations

Recommendations for screening developed by various organizations and specialty societies share commonalities but also have significant differences (**Appendix A Table 4**). In general, most guidelines focus on postmenopausal women and use the WHO standard for defining osteoporosis. One important difference among guidelines is that some recommend screening for fracture risk via fracture risk assessment tools such as FRAX, while some recommend screening for osteoporosis via BMD measured through DXA. Current guidelines from several organizations recommend a combination of fracture risk assessment and DXA screening.

The most recent guideline recommending a combination approach is the 2023 Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care (CTFPHC) recommendation for screening to prevent primary fragility fractures.⁹⁰ The CTFPHC recommends screening women age 65 years or older with the Canadian FRAX tool to facilitate shared decision making about pharmacotherapy. If pharmacotherapy is considered, it then recommends ordering DXA testing in order to facilitate re-estimation of fracture risk with a BMD input. The CTFPHC recommends against screening in men age 40 or older and in women younger than age 65 years.

Other examples include the 2020 American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists (AACE) Guideline, which recommends evaluating all women age 50 years or older for fracture risk and consider BMD measurement based on clinical fracture risk profile.⁹¹ The AACE guidelines state that osteoporosis should be diagnosed based on a T-score of -2.5 or lower in the LS, FN, total hip (TH), and/or distal third of the radius in the absence of a prevalent fracture, or in patients with a T-score between -1.0 and -2.5 and increased fracture risk using FRAX country-specific thresholds. Similarly, the 2017 National Institutes for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) (United Kingdom) recommended fracture risk–based screening for all women age 65 years or older and all men age 75 years or older (i.e., using FRAX or the QFracture), followed by BMD screening if indicated.³²⁵ The NICE guidelines also recommended screening in women younger than age 65 years and men younger than age 75 years in the presence of fracture risk factors. In 2019, the Endocrine Society updated its guidelines for postmenopausal women and noted that screening should be determined using country-specific clinical fracture risk assessment tools (e.g., FRAX) and patient preference, though the guidelines for women are ambiguous with respect to whether BMD should be used to determine fracture risk.³²⁶ The Osteoporosis Canada 2023 Guideline Update Group recommends assessing all men and postmenopausal women age 50 or older with the Canadian FRAX or the Canadian Association of Radiologists and Osteoporosis Canada 10-year fracture risk assessment tool, CAROC. Then, based on age, prior fractures, and risk profile criteria, obtain BMD and calculate 10-year fracture risk with BMD.³²⁷

Other guidelines focus on osteoporosis screening via DXA measurement of BMD. The International Society for Clinical Densitometry (ISCD) 2019 guidelines recommend central skeletal site BMD screening in all women age 65 years or older and all men age 70 years or older.¹¹ It also recommends BMD screening for postmenopausal women younger than age 65 years and men younger than age 70 years who have risk factors for osteoporosis.¹¹ The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists recommends BMD screening with DXA beginning at age 65 years in all women and selective screening with BMD in women younger than age 65

years who have an elevated risk of osteoporosis based on a formal clinical risk assessment tool, with repeat screening no sooner than 2 years after initial screening for those with a BMD near a treatment threshold at the time of initial screening.³²⁸ The National Osteoporosis Foundation's (NOF's), now the Bone Health and Osteoporosis Foundation, most recent clinical guideline (2022) recommends BMD evaluation in all women age 65 years or older and all men age 70 years or older. It also recommends BMD testing in postmenopausal women, women in menopausal transition, men ages 50 to 69 years with clinical risk factors, and adults with fractures at age 50 years or older.⁸⁴

An outlier in recommending against screening, the United Kingdom National Screening Committee, reviewed three recent $\text{RCTs}^{120, 124, 126}$ on screening for fracture risk (SCOOP, ROSE, SOS) and did not find the evidence compelling enough to recommend a screening program and continues to favor case finding. Other guidelines remain mostly unchanged from the last time the USPSTF reviewed this topic (2018), including those from the American College of Preventive Medicine and the American College of Radiology.

Organization,							
Year	Population	Recommendations					
American Association of Clinical Endocrinology, 202091	Postmenopausal women	Screening Evaluate all postmenopausal women age 50 years or older for osteoporosis risk \bullet Include a detailed history, physical examination, and clinical fracture risk assessment with FRAX or other risk \bullet assessment tool in the initial evaluation for osteoporosis Consider BMD testing based on clinical fracture risk profile \bullet Treatment When BMD is measured, use DXA measurement (spine and hip, 1/3 radius if indicated) \bullet Osteoporosis should be diagnosed based on presence of fragility fractures even in the absence of metabolic \bullet bone disorders or a normal T-score or on a T-score of -2.5 or lower in the lumbar spine, femoral neck, total hip, or 1/3 radius even in the absence of a prevalent fracture, and the diagnosis persists even if subsequent measures improve Osteoporosis may also be diagnosed in patients with a T-score between -1.0 and -2.5 and increased fracture \bullet risk using FRAX (Fracture Risk Assessment Tool) country-specific thresholds Approved agents with efficacy to reduce hip, nonvertebral, and spine fractures, including alendronate, \bullet denosumab, risedronate, and zoledronate, are appropriate as initial therapy for most osteoporotic patients with high fracture risk Abaloparatide, denosumab, romosozumab, teriparatide, and zoledronate should be considered for patients \bullet unable to use oral therapy and as initial therapy for patients at very high fracture risk Ibandronate and raloxifene may be appropriate initial therapy in some cases for patients requiring drugs with					
American Academy of Family Physicians, 2021329	Postmenopausal women Men	spine-specific efficacy Same recommendations as the 2018 USPSTF recommendations: Women age 65 years or older (B) \bullet In younger women whose fracture risk is equal to or greater than that of a 65-year-old White woman who has \bullet no additional risk factors (B) Insufficient evidence to assess the balance of benefits and harms of screening for osteoporosis in men \bullet					
American College of Obsetrics and Gynecology, 2021328	Women	Screening by DXA: Postmenopausal patients age 65 years or older \bullet Younger postmenopausal patients if they are at elevated risk of osteoporosis based on a formal clinical risk \bullet assessment tool Repeat screening no sooner than 2 years after initial screening for postmenopausal patients with BMD near \bullet treatment thresholds at the time of initial screening					

Appendix A Table 4. Recommendations for Fracture or Osteoporosis Screening by Organization

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; CAROC=Canadian Association of Radiologists and Osteoporosis Canada 10-year fracture risk assessment tool; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FDA=U.S. Food and Drug Administration; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; IU/day=international unit per day; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; PTH=parathyroid hormone: Promising Developments in Osteoporosis Treatment; ROSE=Risk‐Stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study; SD=standard deviation; SERM=selective estrogen receptor modulator; UKNSC=United Kingdom National Screening Committee; USPSTF=U.S. Preventive Services Task Force.

Contextual Questions 2–4

CQ 2. How Do Various Risk Assessment Tools Use Race and Ethnicity in Osteoporosis or Fracture Risk Calculations?

Summary

Although several fracture risk estimators have been developed, only two that are commonly used in clinical practice incorporate race or ethnicity: the FRAX, calibrated for use internationally, and QFracture, developed in the United Kingdom.⁷⁷ Several other fracture risk assessment models have been developed—the Women's Health Initiative (WHI) model,¹⁸⁷ the Established Populations for the Epidemiologic Study of the Elderly (EPESE) model,³³⁶ the American Bone Health Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC),^{73,337} and the Study of Osteoporotic Fracture (SOF)-based screening tool⁵²—but these models are not commonly used. The only osteoporosis risk assessment tool that incorporates race or ethnicity into the assessment is the Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation (SCORE) tool.⁷⁶

Fracture Risk Assessments

FRAX

FRAX, the most widely used fracture risk assessment tool, is a tool that was developed for use internationally with country-specific estimates derived through calibrating fracture risk to country-specific fracture incidence and mortality data.^{71, 338, $\frac{339}{9}$} FRAX was originally calibrated to the U.S. White population using population-based data from Olmsted County, MN, prior to the availability of the Nationwide Inpatient Sample (NIS), a large U.S. hospital discharge database; however, the data from Olmsted County have been subsequently shown to be similar to NIS data.12, 71, 340-342 For Black, Asian, and Hispanic populations, race-specific FRAX calculators were created by applying the ratio of race- and sex-specific hip fracture incidence rates (0.43 and 0.53 for Black women and men, 0.53 and 0.58 for Hispanic women and men, and 0.50 and 0.64 for Asian women and men) derived from multiple epidemiologic studies to the calculators developed for the U.S. White population.⁸⁰

Because hip fracture incidence in the United States is lower in these racial and ethnic groups, predicted risk estimates for persons in these racial and ethnic groups will always be lower than for White persons of the same age, sex, weight, BMD, and clinical risks used in the FRAX model (**see Appendix F.2, CQ5 for further details**). In the wake of recent attention to racial bias in clinical algorithms, some have raised questions regarding the validity of race-specific FRAX calculators. The relationships between age and clinical risk factors (including BMD) with fracture incidence are the same across all racial groups in $FRAX$;⁸⁰ however, the predicted risk for persons of different races or ethnicities occurs because of calibration of the race-specific calculators, which use race-specific hip fracture incidence data. Of note, although FRAX is available for countries with multiracial populations such as Canada and the United Kingdom, the only countries with race and ethnicity-specific FRAX models are Singapore, South Africa, and the United States.³⁴³

Whether these differences in absolute fracture risk reflect bias in the FRAX prediction model or whether these differences simply reflect the end result of using a model calibrated to racespecific incidence data is a matter of debate. Some experts state the lower absolute risks produced by FRAX for Black, Asian, and Hispanic populations simply reflect the underlying epidemiology of fractures in those populations.³⁴⁴ Other experts have acknowledged the limitations of race in FRAX, where it likely serves as a proxy for environmental factors; does not account for multiracial people; and minimizes the diversity within racial groups, which, for BMD, may be even greater than the diversity between racial groups.³²⁴ These acknowledged limitations are all consistent with the USPSTF's current perspective on race as a social, not a biologic, construct.³⁴⁵ However, experts also note some biological differences within and between populations that may explain some of the observed variability in fracture incidence.³⁴³ This is discussed further in **Contextual Question 3** below.

Because treatment recommendations that incorporate predicted fracture risk in the United States are based on fixed predicted risk thresholds (e.g., FRAX \geq 20% MOF risk or \geq 3% hip fracture risk) that are not specific to race, Black, indigenous, and persons [of color](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/person%20of%20color) populations may be less likely to be identified as high risk and offered treatment compared with White persons of the same age, BMD, and clinical risk profile.^{324, 344} Similarly, other conditions that increase fracture risk and that disproportionately affect persons of color (e.g., diabetes) may result in biased underestimates of risk.324, 344 This in turn may lead to less treatment for at-risk individuals belonging to "low-risk" racial groups if these underestimates result in misclassification below the fixed risk thresholds used to recommend treatment. Studies evaluating the sequelae of fracture have found greater postfracture morbidity and mortality in Black women than in White women.³⁴⁶ For these reasons, many recommend avoiding strict application of treatment thresholds at the individual level to account for additional risks that are not taken into account by the FRAX model. $343, 344$

Other acknowledged limitations of the current versions of race-specific U.S. FRAX models are that they do not use the most currently available data for race-specific fracture incidence (estimates are from cohort studies in the 1980s and 1990s) and the mortality data used as a competing risk are from 2004 and have not been updated, which would perpetuate underestimates of fracture risk that don't reflect recent gains in life expectancy across racial and ethnic groups.³²⁴ Further, because FRAX incorporates age-, race-, and sex-specific mortality data as a competing risk, 340 residual differences in life expectancy by race and ethnicity may reflect the impact of structural racism on health and this may result in continued underestimates of fracture risk in non-White populations.³²⁴

QFracture

In contrast to FRAX, QFracture uses what its developers define as ethnicity as a variable in its sex-specific equations estimating fracture risk.¹⁴⁷ The ethnic groups used in QFracture differ from those in FRAX, suggesting that conceptualizations of race and ethnicity and their relevance to disease risk differ between societies. The ethnicities used in QFracture are White, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, other Asian, Black African, Black Caribbean, Chinese, and other including "mixed." Notably, Hispanics are not included, likely because Hispanic is an ethnic group created in the United States and is not recognized as an ethnic group elsewhere.³⁴⁷ In the 2012 version of QFracture, White women (and those with unknown racial category) have the

highest predicted risk of fracture, while Black Caribbean (hazard ratio [HR], 0.23 relative to White women), Bangladeshi (HR, 0.44), Pakistani (HR, 0.46), and Black African (HR, 0.48) women have the lowest predicted fracture rates.¹⁴⁷ Among men, White persons (and those with unknown racial category) have the highest predicted risk of fracture, while Bangladeshi (HR, 0.29 relative to White men), Black Caribbean (HR, 0.38), Black African (HR, 0.52), and persons from "other" ethnic groups (HR, 0.57) have the lowest predicted fracture rates.¹⁴⁷ QFracture has been updated with 2016 data not described in the literature, but a review of the tool suggests similar associations between ethnicity and fracture persist.³⁴⁸ Nevertheless, Black persons are less than 3.5 percent of the U.K. population and are not a representative sample of Caribbean and African persons.³⁴⁹⁻³⁵¹ Little data exist regarding the distribution of nationalities among the U.K. Black population, but data suggest that Black Africans primarily comprise Nigerians, Ghanaians, and Somalis,³⁵¹ and Black Caribbeans have majority Jamaican ancestry.³⁵²

Other Models

Other models that include race in fracture risk estimation include the WHI,¹⁸⁷ the EPESE models,³³⁶ the American Bone Health FRC,^{73, 337} and the SOF-based screening tool.⁵² In the WHI and the EPSE models, race is dichotomized as White vs. non-White and is used as one of eight and 11 fracture risk factors, respectively, in multivariable models predicting fracture risk. The WHI model, which was developed in the United States, includes Hispanic persons in the non-White group, so White is presumed to mean non-Hispanic White (NHW) in that model. Hispanic ethnicity was not discussed in the EPESE model. The coefficients in the multivariable analyses used to create both models were then translated into a point system for which White persons receive more points, indicating greater fracture risk. The SOF tool includes 12 risk factors that were found to be associated with hip fracture in multivariate models. The presence of each factor is assigned 1 point; three additional factors can result in a point being subtracted from the overall score, and African American race is one of those three factors. We did not identify any studies evaluating the EPESE or SOF tool that met eligibility criteria for inclusion in **KQ 2** of this update.

Osteoporosis Risk Assessments

The SCORE tool was developed initially to identify a patient's risk of osteoporosis (i.e., T-score \langle -2.5) as opposed to fracture risk.⁷⁶ Race is dichotomized in SCORE; however, the categories used by SCORE are Black vs. non-Black. Race is one of six factors used in this additive model.⁷⁶ The SCORE equation was developed from multivariable linear regressions estimating BMD. The coefficients from the model were then translated into a point system representing osteoporosis risk. Individuals with a SCORE value greater than 6 are at moderate to high risk of osteoporosis. Of note, identifying as non-Black adds 5 points to SCORE, whereas identifying as Black adds 0 points.

CQ 3. What Is the Incidence of Fractures Among Persons of Different Races and Ethnicities in the United States in the Last 10 to 15 Years, and What Factors Might Explain Differences in Incidence Among Different Races and Ethnicities?

Summary

The few studies documenting differences in fracture incidence have found that non-Hispanic Black (NHB) and Asian Americans have lower rates of fracture compared with NHW and Hispanic Americans. Racial differences in fracture incidence have been attributed to differences in bone quality, bone morphology, and fall frequency. Studies have reported that NHB Americans have higher BMD than other racial groups, and Asian Americans (who have lower fracture risk) have been primarily found to have lower BMD than NHW Americans. However, studies comparing NHW Americans with NHB and Asian U.S. subpopulations (i.e., Black immigrants and Asian ethnic subgroups) and studies comparing White and Black persons outside the United States have mixed findings. Studies evaluating racial difference in bone quality (architecture, hip axis length) and fall frequency were also inconclusive.

Fracture Incidence

U.S. studies evaluating fracture incidence among persons of different races and ethnicities have been primarily conducted with White persons as the comparator group; therefore, our discussion here reflects that approach. To our knowledge, only three studies using data from the last 15 years have been conducted to evaluate racial differences in fracture incidence. Two were clinicbased cohort studies^{57, 58} and one used administrative data.⁵⁹ Liu et al used 2010 Kaiser Permanente Northern California data to calculate age-adjusted hip fracture incidence rates (per 100,000) that were highest among NHW men (137) and lowest among Asian men (45), with Hispanic (98) and NHB (80) men in between (see **Appendix A Table 5**).⁵⁷ A study using 2012 Kaiser data found White women had the highest age-adjusted incidence of hip fracture (288 per 100,000), followed by Hispanic (198), Asian (148), and NHB women (87).⁵⁸ Authors also found that Asian women had the highest rate of femoral diaphyseal fractures (27 per 100,000), followed by NHB (10), Hispanic (6), and NHW (5) women. Finally, the incidences of osteoporotic fracture (per 10,000) among Medicare fee-for-service 2016 beneficiaries were 389, 381.9, 271.8, 259.6, and 166.8 for Native American, NHW, Hispanic, Asian, and Black persons, respectively.⁵⁹ After adjusting for age and sex, the order of fracture incidence by race remained unchanged.

	2010°	2012^*	2012^{\degree}	2016					
Fracture type	Hip	Hip	Femoral diaphysis	Several					
Sex	Male	Female	Female	Male and Female					
Asian	45	148		2.596					
Hispanic	98	198		2,718					
NHB	80	87	10	1.668					
NHW	137	288		3,819					
North American Native				3,890					

Appendix A Table 5. Fracture Incidence (per 100,000) by Study Year, Fracture Type, Race and Ethnicity, and Sex57-59

* Age-adjusted.

† Hip, distal femur shaft/distal femur, pelvis/sacrum, tibia/fibula, radius/ulna, clavicle, spine, rib. **Abbreviations:** NHB=non-Hispanic Black; NHW=non-Hispanic White.

Racial or ethnic differences in fracture incidence have primarily been attributed to differences in BMD, bone microarchitecture, hip geometry, and fall frequency, each of which we discuss in the following section.

Bone Mineral Density

Studies of men and women have consistently demonstrated that NHB Americans have greater age-adjusted BMD than NHW³⁵³⁻³⁵⁸ and Hispanic Americans.^{353, 355, 356, 359} Differences in body size (height, weight, or both) explain some differences but residual differences after adjusting for body size are unexplained.

Studies comparing White and Black Americans without consideration of Hispanic ethnicity have shown Black Americans to have greater age-adjusted BMD than White Americans.^{358, 360-364} A study of older adolescent American girls found Black Americans to have greater BMD than White and Asian Americans.³⁶⁵ Black American men and women have also been shown to have slower rates of BMD decline with age than White Americans.^{360, 366}

Comparisons between NHW, Hispanic, and Asian Americans have had varied findings. Studies of BMD in Hispanic and NHW Americans have found mixed results, including lower, 367 greater,³⁵³ and similar^{354, 356, 368} BMD in Hispanic Americans compared with NHW Americans. One study also found faster rates of bone density decline in Hispanic Americans compared with NHB and NHW Americans.³⁵³ Asian Americans have primarily been found to have lower BMD than White Americans, although this difference has been explained by differences in body size.^{60,} 354, 356

Racial Differences in BMD Among U.S. Subpopulations, U.S. Immigrant, and Non-U.S. Populations

Although NHB persons have greater BMD than other U.S. racial groups, little is known about why this racial difference exists, whether racial differences in BMD exist outside the United States, or whether Black immigrants differ from Black American-born persons. To our knowledge, only two studies have evaluated BMD in Black African immigrants residing in the United States. Gong and colleagues studied 55 male and 88 premenopausal female immigrants from South Sudan.³⁶⁹ The authors found that the South Sudanese immigrants had lower lumbar BMD but similar hip and total body BMD compared with White and Black American normative values.³⁶⁹ Melton et al found that compared with White American women, Somali-born women in the United States had a similar BMD at the LS but a greater BMD at the FN .³⁷⁰

Studies evaluating BMD in Black persons living outside the United States are few, often small in size, and have mixed findings. Demeke and colleagues found that Somali immigrant women (N=67) living in Sweden had lower BMD (LS and left and right hip) than a Black American reference group and lower LS BMD (but similar left and right hip) than a White American reference group.³⁷¹ A comparison between Black Gambian women living in Gambia and White British women living in the United Kingdom age 45 years or older (N=586) found that after

adjusting for weight, age, and height, Gambian-born women had lower BMD at the LS.³⁷² In a study comparing Black Gambian-born U.K. immigrants and White U.K. residents (N=39), Black Gambian-born men had greater BMD at the FN alone but similar BMD at the LS, hip trochanter, radius, and whole body compared with White men.³⁷³ In this same study, Gambian-born women and British women had similar BMD.³⁷³ A study of South African Black and White women (N=294) found similar distal radius and lumbar BMD but greater femoral BMD among Black women 374

Likewise, few studies have been conducted evaluating Hispanic subgroups to determine whether patterns seen in the larger Hispanic population are present in Hispanic subpopulations (e.g., Mexican Americans, Puerto Rican Americans). Of note, studies evaluating differences in BMD between Hispanic and White persons in other countries could not be conducted because Hispanics are only defined as a population in the United States. Studies using National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) data have shown that Mexican American men and women had a higher prevalence of osteoporosis³⁷⁵ and lower lumbar $BMD³⁵⁵$ than NHW and NHB men and women. A study by Noel et al—using Boston Puerto Rican Osteoporosis Study and the NHANES 2005–2010 data—found that Puerto Rican men had a higher prevalence of osteoporosis than NHW and NHB men and a similar prevalence of osteoporosis to Mexican American men.³⁵⁹ Puerto Rican women were found to have similar rates of osteoporosis as NHW and Mexican women but higher rates than NHB women.

Studies of U.S. Asian subpopulations have generally shown lower or similar BMD when compared with White women. For example, a study of FN BMD among older Asian Americans of Filipino, Chinese, or Japanese descent and White American women found that the Asian women had similar BMD, which was lower than those of NHW women.⁶⁰ The difference between Asian American and NHW women decreased when BMD was adjusted for height.⁶⁰ In a study of premenopausal women ages 42 to 52 years, Finkelstein and colleagues reported that Chinese and Japanese Americans had similar lumbar, spine, and FN BMD as White Americans, when adjusted for age, age at menarche, weight, years of oral contraceptive use, physical activity, number of prior pregnancies, educational level, total calcium intake, cigarette smoking, and alcohol intake, but lower than Black Americans (though this difference was not significant for Chinese American women at the LS).³⁷⁶ When the analysis was limited to women weighing less than 70 kg, Chinese and Japanese American women had similar LS BMD as Black Americans and slightly greater (though not significantly so) than White Americans. In the subset of women weighing less than 70 kg, Japanese, Chinese, and White American women had similar FN BMD, which was lower than those of Black Americans (though this difference was not significant for Chinese American women). Other studies of Chinese American women have found lower BMD at LS, TH, and FN than White American women.^{61, 62} However, a study of Filipina, Hispanic, and NHW American women found that Filipinas had higher total body (but similar hip and LS) BMD than the other two groups. 368

Bone Microarchitecture

Bone microarchitecture includes cortical and trabecular volumetric BMD, cortical and trabecular area, cortical and trabecular thickness, cortical porosity, cortical perimeter, trabecular separation, and trabecular number. Trabecular bone score is correlated with trabecular microarchitecture.³⁷⁷ Studies evaluating racial and ethnic differences in bone microarchitecture associations are few

and findings were sometimes mixed. Compared with White Americans, Black Americans have microarchitecture favoring reduced^{362, 365, 378, 379} and increased fracture risk.³⁵⁵ A study by Jain and colleagues found that among women younger than age 60 years, White women had higher trabecular bone scores than Black women but similar scores among those age 60 years or older.³⁸⁰ Black older adolescent girls have also been shown to have better bone microarchitecture than their Asian counterparts.³⁶⁵ Studies comparing Asian and White American women found Asian women have greater cortical^{381, 382} and trabecular³⁸² thickness than White women, both of which are associated with lower fracture risk.

Hip Geometry

Studies evaluating racial differences in hip geometry have varied findings. Differences in hip axis length have been posited as explaining racial differences in fracture: shorter hip axis length is associated with lower risk of fracture.³⁸³ Some studies on hip axis length have found Black Americans to have shorter hip axis lengths than White Americans;^{379, 384, 385} others have found that NHB Americans have hip axis lengths similar to NHW^{358, 386} and Mexican Americans.³⁸⁶ In one study, Asian Americans were found to have a shorter hip axis length³⁸⁴ than White Americans, but in a different study, Japanese Americans had a similar hip axis length as White Americans after adjusting for height.³⁸⁷

Fall Frequency

A possible explanation for racial and ethnic differences in fracture incidence is differences in fall frequency among older adults. In three studies, White adults reported a greater number of falls compared with Black adults, but in two of these studies, differences in fall frequency were not medically or statistically meaningful.³⁸⁸ Shumway-Cook and colleagues examined falls using Medicare Current Beneficiary Survey data and found that NHW adults were more likely (odds ratio [OR], 1.40 [95% confidence interval (CI), ²⁶⁰ 1.20 to 1.63]) to *report* at least one fall in the prior year than those who identified with other racial groups.³⁸⁸ However, there was no significant difference in medically injurious falls (falls for which participants sought medical assistance) between NHW adults and the non-White racial group when the analysis was limited to those who had fallen.³⁸⁸ In contrast, a study of Black and White older adults in the Boston area found that White participants were more likely (risk ratio [RR], 1.77 [95% CI, 1.14 to 2.74]) than Black participants to experience injurious falls.³⁸⁹ However, not all studies indicated racial differences in fall frequency. Finally, a study by Faulkner and colleagues found that although White women had numerically higher fall rates, these rates were not significantly different than Black women's rates (RR, 1.30 [95% CI, 0.93 to 1.83]).³⁹⁰

CQ 4. What Are the Differences in Rates of Screening or Treatment Initiation Among Persons of Different Races and Ethnicities, and What Might Explain These Differences?

Summary

Racial disparities in screening and treatment were found. Black women are less likely to be screened and treated for osteoporosis than White women.⁷⁹ Studies comparing Hispanic and NHW women had mixed results regarding screening but consistently found that Hispanic women were more likely to be treated for osteoporosis. In two different studies, Asian women were found to have similar rates of screening as White women but higher rates of treatment. Differences in screening and treatment could be attributed to patient factors (such as awareness of osteoporosis, competing health issues that require greater attention), clinician factors (e.g., knowledge and bias), and system factors related to differences in where patients access care.

Detailed Information

Racial disparities in osteoporosis screening and treatment exist (see **Appendix A Tables 6** and **7**). In the United States, Black women are less likely than White women to be screened^{79, 391-397} and treated for osteoporosis, $97, 398-400$ even after diagnosis of fracture. $401-405$ They are also less likely than White women to receive preventive antiosteoporosis treatment after steroid initiation.⁴⁰⁶ For example, in a 2015 retrospective clinic-based cohort study of women without prior treatment, screening, or diagnosis of osteoporosis (N=50,995), Black women were far less likely than White women (HR, 0.60 [95% CI, 0.54 to 0.65]) to have an incident $DXA.^{391}$ Comparisons between White women and other racial groups were mixed and sometimes inconsistent. Compared with White women, studies reported inconsistent findings: depending on the study, Hispanic women had lower, $397 \sinilar$, 391 or higher rates of incident DXA. Hispanic women were also found to have higher rates of treatment after fracture^{402, 403} and after a diagnosis of osteoporosis⁴⁰⁰ than White women. Asian women were also found to have similar rates of incident $\overline{D}XA^{391}$ but higher rates of treatment⁴⁰⁰ after a diagnosis of osteoporosis compared with White women.⁴⁰⁷

VI VIWVI										
Race/Ethnicity	HR (95% CI)		OR (95% CI)				Proportion Receiving Testing			
White	Referent	Referent	5.96 (3.01 to	Referent	Referent	Referent	38.4% (p<0.05) ⁶³			
	group ⁶¹	q roup ⁶⁴	11.79) ⁶²	group ⁶⁵	group ⁶⁶	$group^{67}$				
Asian	1.04 (0.96									
	to 1.13)									
Black	0.60(0.54)	0.695	Reference	0.39(0.22)	$0.47(0.39)$ to	0.52 (0.43 to	29.8%			
	to 0.65)	(p<0.05)	group	to 0.68)	(0.58)	0.62)				
Hispanic	0.93(0.86)	1.571				0.66(0.54)				
	to 1.01)	(p<0.05)				0.80				
Other	0.95(0.87)									
	to 1.04)									
Unknown	1.01(0.96)									
	to 1.06)									

Appendix A Table 6. Racial Differences in BMD Testing for Osteoporosis in Women Age 60 Years or Older

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; HR=hazard ratio; OR=odds ratio.

* From logistic regression models; represent the change in predicted probability of treatment. Positive values represent higher likelihood of receiving treatment compared with White persons; negative values indicate lower likelihood of receiving treatment compared with White persons.

Abbreviations: CI=confidence interval; OR=odds ratio.

In Burgess and colleagues' review of provider contributions to racial health disparities, the authors described how ecological fallacies, whereby an individual is presumed to represent the racial population to which they belong, can contribute to disparities.⁴⁰⁸ As such, the data indicating that White women are at greatest risk of fractures may result in reduced osteoporosis screening and treatment for those who do not share that identity. In fact, in a Canadian qualitative study of adults ages 50 to 79 years with a history of fracture, the authors found that provider understanding about racial differences in bone fragility was a barrier to BMD testing and treatment in a group of adults for which BMD testing would most certainly be indicated.⁴⁰⁹ In a breakout session examining barriers to equitable osteoporosis care, participants identified lack of knowledge regarding the need to screen racially minoritized patients as a barrier.⁴¹⁰ Thus, racial disparities in fracture risk at a population level can translate into underscreening and undertreatment among racially and ethnically minoritized people.

Differences in care could also be attributed to provider bias, although we did not find any studies examining bias as it relates to osteoporosis screening or treatment. A study by Van Ryn and colleagues found that physicians held negative views of Black patients compared with White patients.⁴¹¹ Additionally, studies showing racial disparities in pain management indicated that provider bias has significant impacts on patient care.⁴¹² Racial animosity may unconsciously result in less time spent counseling and educating patients on their risk of osteoporosis and less interest in motivating and encouraging patients to complete screening. A recent study found that provider assumptions about the values held by racially and ethnically minoritized persons presented a barrier to advanced care planning.⁴¹³ Likewise, beliefs about patients' values regarding preventive care may also be associated with the extent to which clinicians spend time educating patients on osteoporosis and fracture risk and the effort they invest in ensuring that their patients get screened.

Racial differences in where patients access care may also be a contributor to racial differences in osteoporosis management. Racial and ethnic minorities are more likely than White patients to be seen by resident physicians, 414 who offer little patient continuity. 415 Lack of continuity may result in disengagement in preventive services. Few studies have been conducted evaluating resident and faculty care, with mixed results. One study found that residents and faculty scored

similarly on health counseling metrics.⁴¹⁴ A more recent study found that residents' patients fared worse in chronic disease management and cancer screening than those of faculty.⁴¹⁶

Patient factors also contribute to racial differences in osteoporosis screening and treatment. Solomon and colleagues found that patients who did not identify as White were less likely to adhere to osteoporosis treatment than those who did identify as White.⁴⁰⁵ There are many explanations for this finding, for example, differences in care seeking for preventive care in general or the belief by patients themselves that Black women do not get osteoporosis could lead to reduced uptake of preventive treatments. In a qualitative study evaluating osteoporosis treatment preferences and medication adherence, some African American participants reported lack of interest in osteoporosis treatment given their low risk of fracture.⁴¹⁷ In this study, prescription fatigue was also a reason patients described for not taking medications, a problem of greater relevance to populations with a higher burden of disease. Medication cost could also be a factor: lower-income patients reduce pill burden to save money. Racial differences in educational achievement, a function of structural racism⁴¹⁸ that results in economic and educational inequity, likely translate into racial differences in osteoporosis knowledge,⁴¹⁹ which has an impact on treatment adherence.

B.1 Update Search Strategies

PubMed April 1, 2016, through July 14, 2021

Appendix B. Additional Methods

Cochrane Central April 1, 2016, through July 14, 2021

Embase April 1, 2016, through July 14, 2021

Bridge Search PubMed, July 1, 2021, through November 10, 2022

Appendix B. Additional Methods

Bridge Search Cochrane Central 2020 through November 10, 2022

Bridge Search Embase 2021 through November 10, 2022

Bridge Search PubMed August 1, 2022, through January 9, 2024

Bridge Search Cochrane Central 2022 through January 9, 2024

Bridge Search Embase 2022 through January 9, 2024

B2 Detailed Eligibility Criteria

* For the purposes of this review, we use the terms *men* and *women* consistent with how they are typically used in the underlying evidence base for this topic. *Men* refers to persons assigned male sex at birth. *Women* refers to persons assigned female sex at birth. Studies that include gender-diverse individuals, including those who have undergone gender-affirming therapy (e.g., transmen, transwomen), were not excluded from the scope of this review. However, studies that *exclusively* enrolled populations who take hormone therapy that affects bone density were excluded from this review, consistent with our criteria that exclude studies that focused on populations with secondary osteoporosis or who took chronic medications that have known effects on bone metabolism. For such populations, individualized clinical decisions about bone density testing in the context of condition and medication management are required.

[†] This review is not intended as a comprehensive review of all available pharmacologic therapies. Second-line therapies (abaloparatide, teriparatide, romosozumab) were excluded for women because the USPSTF is likely to have sufficient evidence to determine the net benefit of treatment based on the evidence for FDA-approved bisphosphonates and denosumab, as determined by the most recent review before this update. We only consider these drugs for men given the paucity of treatment studies generally available for men. Although romosozumab is not currently FDA approved for men, it is currently in Phase 3 studies for men, so it was included in this update. Hormone therapy and selective estrogen receptor modulators were reviewed in a separate USPSTF review on hormone therapy, so they were not included in this update.

‡ Major osteoporotic fracture is typically defined as fractures of the hip, wrist, and humerus and clinical vertebral fractures.

§ Countries with "moderate" hip fracture incidence in addition to the United States include Australia, Canada, Chile, Estonia, Finland, France, Israel, Japan, Kuwait, Lithuania, Malaysia, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Russia, South Korea, Spain, and Thailand.¹⁰⁵

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CT=computerized tomography; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FDA=Food and Drug Administration; FRA=fracture risk assessment; KQ=key question; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; ORA=osteoporosis risk assessment; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; USPSTF=U.S. Preventive Services Task Force.

B.3 U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Quality Rating Criteria

Criteria for Randomized, Controlled Trials and Cohort Studies

- Initial assembly of comparable groups
- Randomized, controlled trials (RCTs)—adequate randomization, including concealment and whether potential confounders were distributed equally among groups; cohort studies consideration of potential confounders with either restriction or measurement for adjustment in the analysis; consideration of inception cohorts
- Maintenance of comparable groups (includes attrition, crossovers, adherence, and contamination)
- Important differential loss to followup or overall high loss to followup
- Measurements that are equal, reliable, and valid (includes masking of outcome assessment)
- Clear definition of interventions
- Important outcomes considered
- Analysis: Adjustment for potential confounders for cohort studies or intention-to-treat analysis for RCTs; for cluster RCTs, correction for correlation coefficient

Definition of Ratings Based on Above Criteria Randomized, Controlled Trials and Cohort Studies

Good: Meets all criteria: Comparable groups are assembled initially and maintained throughout the study (followup $\geq 80\%$); reliable and valid measurement instruments are used and applied equally to the groups; interventions are spelled out clearly; important outcomes are considered; and appropriate attention is given to confounders in analysis. In addition, intention-to-treat analysis is used for RCTs.

Fair: Studies will be graded "fair" if any or all of the following problems occur, without the important limitations noted in the "poor" category below: Generally comparable groups are assembled initially, but some question remains on whether some (although not major) differences occurred in followup; measurement instruments are acceptable (although not the best) and generally applied equally; some but not all important outcomes are considered; and some but not all potential confounders are accounted for. Intention-to-treat analysis is lacking for RCTs.

Poor: Studies will be graded "poor" if any of the following major limitations exist: Groups assembled initially are not close to being comparable or maintained throughout the study; unreliable or invalid measurement instruments are used or not applied equally among groups (including not masking outcome assessment); and key confounders are given little or no attention. Intention-to-treat analysis is lacking for RCTs.

Criteria for Systematic Reviews

- Comprehensiveness of sources considered/search strategy used
- Standard appraisal of included studies
- Validity of conclusions
- Recency and relevance (especially important for systematic reviews)

Definition of Ratings Based on Above Criteria for Systematic Reviews

Good: Recent, relevant review with comprehensive sources and search strategies; explicit and relevant selection criteria; standard appraisal of included studies; and valid conclusions

Fair: Recent, relevant review that is not clearly biased but lacks comprehensive sources and search strategies

Poor: Outdated, irrelevant, or biased review without systematic search for studies, explicit selection criteria, or standard appraisal of studies

Sources: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force, Procedure Manual, Appendix VI. 2017⁴²⁰; Harris et al, 2001.⁴²¹

List of Exclusion Codes:

- X1 Not published in English or ineligible publication type
- X2 Ineligible population
- X3 Ineligible study design or timing
- X4 Ineligible geographic setting (except non very high HDI)
- X5 Ineligible or no intervention
- X6 Ineligible or no comparator
- X7 Ineligible or no outcome
- X8 Not in very high HDI country
- X9 Study superseded by new evidence or duplicate or covered by included SR
- X10 Poor quality
- 1. What evidence for bisphosphonate drug holidays? *Drug Ther Bull*. 2020 Jun;58(6):88. doi: 10.1136/dtb.2020.000017. PMID: 32188686. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 2. Abrahamsen B, Pazianas M, Eiken P, et al. Esophageal and gastric cancer incidence and mortality in alendronate users. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2012 Mar;27(3):679-86. doi: 10.1002/jbmr.1481. PMID: 22113985. Exclusion Code: X10.
- 3. Adachi JD, Bone HG, Daizadeh NS, et al. Influence of subject discontinuation on longterm nonvertebral fracture rate in the denosumab FREEDOM Extension study. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord*. 2017 Apr 27;18(1):174. doi: 10.1186/s12891-017- 1520-6. PMID: 28449657. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 4. Adami G, Arioli G, Bianchi G, et al. Radiofrequency echographic multi spectrometry for the prediction of incident fragility fractures: a 5-year follow-up study. *Bone*. 2020 May;134:115297. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2020.115297. PMID: 32092480. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 5. Agarwal A, Baleanu F, Moreau M, et al. External validation of FRISBEE 5-year fracture prediction models: a registry-based cohort study. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2022 Dec 23;18(1):13. doi: 10.1007/s11657-022- 01205-7. PMID: 36564674. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 6. Agarwal A, Leslie WD, Nguyen TV, et al. Performance of the Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator in individuals with diabetes: a registry-based cohort study. *Calcif Tissue Int*. 2022 Jun;110(6):658-65. doi: 10.1007/s00223-021-00941-1. PMID: 34994831. Exclusion Code: X9.
- 7. Ahadzadeh Ardebili A, Fu T, Dunnewold N, et al. Bisphosphonates preserve bone mineral density and suppress bone turnover markers in early menopausal women: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized trials. *JBMR Plus*. 2023 Jun;7(6):e10748. doi: 10.1002/jbm4.10748. PMID: 37283657. Exclusion Code: X2.
- 8. Ahmed LA, Nguyen ND, Bjornerem A, et al. External validation of the Garvan nomograms for predicting absolute fracture risk: the Tromso study. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(9):e107695. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0107695. PMID: 25255221. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 9. Ahmed LA, Schirmer H, Fonnebo V, et al. Validation of the Cummings' risk score; how well does it identify women with high risk of hip fracture: the Tromso Study. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2006;21(11):815-22. doi: 10.1007/s10654-006-9072-3. PMID: 17119878. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 10. Aktas I, Nazikoglu C, Kepez A, et al. Effect of intravenous zoledronic acid infusion on electrocardiographic parameters in patients with osteoporosis. *Osteoporos Int*. 2016 Dec;27(12):3543-7. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 016-3684-6. PMID: 27344642. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 11. Akyea RK, McKeever TM, Gibson J, et al. Predicting fracture risk in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a UK-based population-based cohort study. *BMJ Open*. 2019 Apr 3;9(4):e024951. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2018-024951. PMID: 30948576. Exclusion Code: X2.
- 12. Albert SG, Wood E. Meta-analysis of clinical fracture risk reduction of antiosteoporosis drugs: direct and indirect comparisons and meta-regressions. *Endocr Pract*. 2021 Jul 9doi: 10.1016/j.eprac.2021.06.015. PMID: 34252583. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 13. Albertsson D, Mellstrom D, Petersson C, et al. Hip and fragility fracture prediction by 4 item clinical risk score and mobile heel BMD: a women cohort study. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord*. 2010 Mar 24;11:55. doi: 10.1186/1471-2474-11-55. PMID: 20334634. Exclusion Code: X7.
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- 17. Amith N, Augustine S, Raj SPS, et al. Evaluation of effectiveness of MORES to identify men at risk of osteoporosis. *European Journal of Molecular and Clinical Medicine*. 2022;9(7):5772-9. Exclusion Code: X8.
- 18. Anagnostis P, Paschou SA, Gkekas NN, et al. Efficacy of anti-osteoporotic medications in patients with type 1 and 2 diabetes mellitus: a systematic review. *Endocrine*. 2018 Jun;60(3):373-83. doi: 10.1007/s12020-018-1548-x. PMID: 29411304. Exclusion Code: X2.
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- 43. Bhandari M, Jin L, See K, et al. Does teriparatide improve femoral neck fracture healing: results from a randomized placebocontrolled trial. *Clin Orthop Relat Res*. 2016 May;474(5):1234-44. doi: 10.1007/s11999- 015-4669-z. PMID: 26932738. Exclusion Code: X₂
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Appendix C. Excluded Studies

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- 168. Henry MJ, Pasco JA, Sanders KM, et al. Fracture risk (FRISK) score: Geelong Osteoporosis Study. *Radiology*. 2006 Oct;241(1):190-6. doi: 10.1148/radiol.2411051290. PMID: 16928979. Exclusion Code: X9.
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- 170. Hillier TA, Cauley JA, Rizzo JH, et al. WHO absolute fracture risk models (FRAX): do clinical risk factors improve fracture prediction in older women without osteoporosis? *J Bone Miner Res*. 2011 Aug;26(8):1774-82. doi: 10.1002/jbmr.372. PMID: 21351144. Exclusion Code: X7.
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- 172. Ho-Pham LT, Doan MC, Van LH, Nguyen TV. Development of a model for identification of individuals with high risk of osteoporosis. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2020 Jul 22;15(1):111. doi: 10.1007/s11657-020- 00788-3. PMID: 32699999. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 173. Hoff M, Meyer HE, Skurtveit S, et al. Validation of FRAX and the impact of selfreported falls among elderly in a general population: the HUNT study, Norway. *Osteoporos Int*. 2017 Oct;28(10):2935-44. doi: 10.1007/s00198-017-4134-9. PMID: 28668994. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 174. Hoff M, Skovlund E, Meyer HE, et al. Does treatment with bisphosphonates protect against fractures in real life? The HUNT study, Norway. *Osteoporos Int*. 2021 Jul;32(7):1395-404. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 021-05845-2. PMID: 33479844. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 175. Høiberg MP, Rubin KH, Hermann AP, et al. Diagnostic devices for osteoporosis in the general population: a systematic review. *Bone*. 2016 Nov;92:58-69. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2016.08.011. PMID: 27542659. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 176. Holloway KL, Mohebbi M, Betson AG, et al. Prediction of major osteoporotic and hip fractures in Australian men using FRAX scores adjusted with trabecular bone score. *Osteoporos Int*. 2018 Jan;29(1):101-8. doi: 10.1007/s00198-017-4226-6. PMID: 28940052. Exclusion Code: X9.
- 177. Holloway-Kew KL, Zhang Y, Betson AG, et al. How well do the FRAX (Australia) and Garvan calculators predict incident fractures? Data from the Geelong osteoporosis study. *Osteoporos Int*. 2019 Oct;30(10):2129-39. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 019-05088-2. PMID: 31317250. Exclusion Code: X9.
- 178. Hsu CY, Wu CH, Yu SF, et al. Novel algorithm generating strategy to identify high fracture risk population using a hybrid intervention threshold. *J Bone Miner Metab*. 2020 Mar;38(2):213-21. doi: 10.1007/s00774-019-01046-4. PMID: 31583541. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 179. Huang G, Coviello A, LaValley MP, et al. Surgical menopause and frailty risk in community-dwelling older women: study of osteoporotic fractures. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 2018 Nov;66(11):2172-7. doi: 10.1111/jgs.15505. PMID: 30251302. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 180. Huang JY, Song WZ, Huang M. Effectiveness of osteoporosis selfassessment tool for Asians in screening for osteoporosis in healthy males over 40 years old in China. *J Clin Densitom*. 2017 Apr-Jun;20(2):153-9. doi: 10.1016/j.jocd.2017.01.003. PMID: 28153410. Exclusion Code: X8.
- 181. Huang ML, Hsieh TJ, Lin SS, Huang WC. Associations between trabecular bone score and bone mineral density in Taiwanese older adult men. *Journal of Men's Health*. 2023;19(1):15-22. doi: 10.22514/jomh.2023.005. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 182. Huang X, Chen B, Thabane L, et al. Fragility of results from randomized controlled trials supporting the guidelines for the treatment of osteoporosis: a retrospective analysis. *Osteoporos Int*. 2021 Sep;32(9):1713-23. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 021-05865-y. PMID: 33595680. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 183. Hundrup YA, Jacobsen RK, Andreasen AH, et al. Validation of a 5-year risk score of hip fracture in postmenopausal women. The Danish nurse cohort study. *Osteoporos Int*. 2010 Dec;21(12):2135-42. doi: 10.1007/s00198-010-1176-7 [doi]. PMID: 20157806. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 184. Hung WC, Lin YL, Cheng TT, et al. Establish and validate the reliability of predictive models in bone mineral density by deep learning as examination tool for women. *Osteoporos Int*. 2023 Sep 20doi: 10.1007/s00198-023-06913-5. PMID: 37728768. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 185. Iconaru L, Charles A, Baleanu F, et al. Selection for treatment of patients at high risk of fracture by the short versus long term prediction models - data from the Belgian FRISBEE cohort. *Osteoporos Int*. 2023 Jun;34(6):1119-25. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 023-06737-3. PMID: 37022466. Exclusion Code: X2.
- 186. Iconaru L, Moreau M, Kinnard V, et al. Does the prediction accuracy of osteoporotic fractures by BMD and clinical risk factors vary with fracture site? *JBMR Plus*. 2019 Dec;3(12):e10238. doi: 10.1002/jbm4.10238. PMID: 31844826. Exclusion Code: X3.

Appendix C. Excluded Studies

- 187. Iki M, Fujita Y, Tamaki J, et al. Trabecular bone score may improve FRAX(R) prediction accuracy for major osteoporotic fractures in elderly Japanese men: the Fujiwara-kyo Osteoporosis Risk in Men (FORMEN) Cohort Study. *Osteoporos Int*. 2015 Jun;26(6):1841-8. doi: 10.1007/s00198-015-3092-3. PMID: 25752623. Exclusion Code: X9.
- 188. Iki M, Fujita Y, Tamaki J, et al. Trabecular bone score may improve FRAX® prediction accuracy for major osteoporotic fractures in elderly Japanese men: the Fujiwara-kyo Osteoporosis Risk in Men (FORMEN) Cohort Study. *Osteoporos Int*. 2015 Jun;26(6):1841-8. doi: 10.1007/s00198-015- 3092-3. PMID: 25752623. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 189. Iki M, Tamaki J, Kadowaki E, et al. Trabecular bone score (TBS) predicts vertebral fractures in Japanese women over 10 years independently of bone density and prevalent vertebral deformity: the Japanese Population-Based Osteoporosis (JPOS) cohort study. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2014 Feb;29(2):399-407. doi: 10.1002/jbmr.2048 [doi]. PMID: 23873699. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 190. İlgezdi ZD, Aktaş İ, Doğan Metin F, et al. Acute effect of zoledronic acid infusion on atrial fibrillation development in patients with osteoporosis. *Anatol J Cardiol*. 2015 Apr;15(4):320-4. doi: 10.5152/akd.2014.5333. PMID: 25413229. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 191. Imai T, Hosoi T, Hagino H, et al. Antiresorptive drugs and the risk of femoral shaft fracture in men and women with osteoporosis: a cohort study using the national database of health insurance claims of Japan. *J Epidemiol*. 2023 Dec 5;33(12):633-9. doi: 10.2188/jea.JE20220099. PMID: 36567127. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 192. Indhavivadhana S, Rattanachaiyanont M, Angsuwathana S, et al. Validation of osteoporosis risk assessment tools in middle-aged Thai women. *Climacteric*. 2016 Dec;19(6):588-93. doi: 10.1080/13697137.2016.1231176. PMID: 27667093. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 193. Inoue D, Muraoka R, Okazaki R, et al. Efficacy and safety of risedronate in osteoporosis subjects with comorbid diabetes, hypertension, and/or dyslipidemia: a post hoc analysis of phase III trials conducted in Japan. *Calcif Tissue Int*. 2016 Feb;98(2):114-22. doi: 10.1007/s00223-015- 0071-9. PMID: 26466937. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 194. Iqbal SM, Qamar I, Zhi C, et al. Role of bisphosphonate therapy in patients with osteopenia: a systemic review. *Cureus*. 2019 Feb 27;11(2):e4146. doi: 10.7759/cureus.4146. PMID: 31058029. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 195. Ishibashi H, Crittenden DB, Miyauchi A, et al. Romosozumab increases bone mineral density in postmenopausal Japanese women with osteoporosis: a phase 2 study. *Bone*. 2017 Oct;103:209-15. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2017.07.005. PMID: 28687496. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 196. Izano MA, Lo JC, Adams AL, et al. Bisphosphonate treatment beyond 5 years and hip fracture risk in older women. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2020 Dec 1;3(12):e2025190. doi: 10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.25190. PMID: 33284336. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 197. Jain RK, Weiner MG, Zhao H, Vokes T. Comorbid conditions and GFR predict nonvertebral fractures in patients with diabetes in an ethnic-specific manner. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2020 Jun 1;105(6)doi: 10.1210/clinem/dgaa141. PMID: 32193529. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 198. Jang SP, Yeo I, So SY, et al. Atypical femoral shaft fractures in female bisphosphonate users were associated with an increased anterolateral femoral bow and a thicker lateral cortex: a case-control study. *Biomed Res Int*. 2017;2017:5932496. doi: 10.1155/2017/5932496. PMID: 28459066. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 199. Japan Registry for Clinical Trials.. Phase III clinical study of MN-10-T AI for patients with osteoporosis at higher fracture risk. 2016. Exclusion Code: X1.
- 200. Japan Registry for Clinical Trials. ITM-058 phase 3 study. 2017. Exclusion Code: X1.
- 201. Jiang X, Good LE, Spinka R, Schnatz PF. Osteoporosis screening in postmenopausal women aged 50-64 years: BMI alone compared with current screening tools. *Maturitas*. 2016 Jan;83:59-64. doi: 10.1016/j.maturitas.2015.09.009. PMID: 26471931. Exclusion Code: X9.
- 202. Johnson T, Fox E, Hassanbein S. Implementing an electronic medical record osteoporosis self-assessment tool score which identifies patients at risk for osteoporosis promotes osteoporosis evaluation. *Geriatric Orthopaedic Surgery and Rehabilitation*. 2021;12:21514593211002157. doi: 10.1177/21514593211002157. PMID: 35186418. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 203. Jonasson GB, Sundh V, Hakeberg M, et al. Evaluation of clinical and radiographic indices as predictors of osteoporotic fractures: a 10-year longitudinal study. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol*. 2018 May;125(5):487-94. doi: 10.1016/j.oooo.2017.11.009. PMID: 29273194. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 204. Japan Registry for Clinical Trials. TRINITY study. 2020. Exclusion Code: X1.
- 205. Jung SM, Han S, Kwon HY. Dose-intensity of bisphosphonates and the risk of osteonecrosis of the jaw in osteoporosis patients. *Front Pharmacol*. 2018;9(JUL):796. doi: 10.3389/fphar.2018.00796. PMID: 30079024. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 206. Kalvesten J, Lui LY, Brismar T, Cummings S. Digital X-ray radiogrammetry in the study of osteoporotic fractures: comparison to dual energy x-ray absorptiometry and FRAX. *Bone*. 2016 May;86:30-5. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2016.02.011. PMID: CN-01137905. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 207. Kälvesten J, Lui LY, Brismar T, Cummings S. Digital X-ray radiogrammetry in the study of osteoporotic fractures: comparison to dual energy x-ray absorptiometry and FRAX. *Bone*. 2016 May;86:30-5. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2016.02.011. PMID: 26921822. Exclusion Code: X9.
- 208. Kanazawa I, Notsu M, Miyake H, et al. Assessment using serum insulin-like growth factor-I and bone mineral density is useful for detecting prevalent vertebral fractures in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Osteoporos Int*. 2018 Nov;29(11):2527-35. doi: 10.1007/s00198-018-4638-y. PMID: 30030585. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 209. Kanis JA, Harvey NC, Lorentzon M, et al. Combining fracture outcomes in phase 3 trials of osteoporosis: an analysis of the effects of denosumab in postmenopausal women. *Osteoporos Int*. 2021 Jan;32(1):165-71. doi: 10.1007/s00198-020- 05699-0. PMID: 33156354. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 210. Kanis JA, Johansson H, Harvey NC, et al. Adjusting conventional FRAX estimates of fracture probability according to the recency of sentinel fractures. *Osteoporos Int*. 2020 Oct;31(10):1817-28. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 020-05517-7. PMID: 32613411. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 211. Kanis JA, Johnell O, Oden A, et al. FRAX and the assessment of fracture probability in men and women from the UK. *Osteoporos Int*. 2008 Apr;19(4):385-97. doi: 10.1007/s00198-007-0543-5. PMID: 18292978. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 212. 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 Aug;18(8):1033-46. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 007-0343-y. PMID: 17323110. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 213. Karimi Fard M, Aminorroaya A, Kachuei A, et al. Alendronate improves fasting plasma glucose and insulin sensitivity, and decreases insulin resistance in prediabetic osteopenic postmenopausal women: a randomized triple-blind clinical trial. *Journal of Diabetes Investigation*. 2019 May;10(3):731‐7. doi: 10.1111/jdi.12944. PMID: CN-01991102. Exclusion Code: X8.
- 214. Karlsson L, Mesterton J, Tepie MF, et al. Exploring methods for comparing the realworld effectiveness of treatments for osteoporosis: adjusted direct comparisons versus using patients as their own control. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2017 Sep 21;12(1):81. doi: 10.1007/s11657-017-0375-7. PMID: 28936581. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 215. Kasai H, Mori Y, Ose A, et al. Prediction of fracture risk from early-stage bone markers in patients with osteoporosis treated with once-yearly administered zoledronic acid. *J Clin Pharmacol*. 2021 May;61(5):606-13. doi: 10.1002/jcph.1774. PMID: 33135182. Exclusion Code: X2.
- 216. Keaveny TM, Crittenden DB, Bolognese MA, et al. Greater gains in spine and hip strength for romosozumab compared with teriparatide in postmenopausal women with low bone mass. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2017 Sep;32(9):1956-62. doi: 10.1002/jbmr.3176. PMID: 28543940. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 217. Keech CA, Sashegyi A, Barrett-Connor E. Year-by-year analysis of cardiovascular events in the Multiple Outcomes of Raloxifene Evaluation (MORE) trial. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2005 Jan;21(1):135-40. doi: 10.1185/030079904x18045. PMID: 15881485. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 218. Kellier-Steele N, Casso D, Anderson A, et al. Assessing the incidence of osteosarcoma among teriparatide-treated patients using linkage of commercial pharmacy and state cancer registry data, contributing to the removal of boxed warning and other labeling changes. *Bone*. 2022 Jul;160:116394. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2022.116394. PMID: 35318162. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 219. Kendler DL, Bone HG, Massari F, et al. Bone mineral density gains with a second 12-month course of romosozumab therapy following placebo or denosumab. *Osteoporos Int*. 2019 Dec;30(12):2437-48. doi: 10.1007/s00198-019-05146-9. PMID: 31628490. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 220. Kendler DL, Chines A, Brandi ML, et al. The risk of subsequent osteoporotic fractures is decreased in subjects experiencing fracture while on denosumab: results from the FREEDOM and FREEDOM Extension studies. *Osteoporos Int*. 2019 Jan;30(1):71-8. doi: 10.1007/s00198-018-4687-2. PMID: 30244369. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 221. Keshtkar A, Tabatabaie O, Matin N, et al. Clinical performance of seven prescreening tools for osteoporosis in Iranian postmenopausal women. *Rheumatol Int*. 2015 Dec;35(12):1995-2004. doi: 10.1007/s00296-015-3286-1. PMID: 25980683. Exclusion Code: X8.
- 222. Khanizadeh F, Rahmani A, Asadollahi K, Ahmadi MRH. Combination therapy of curcumin and alendronate modulates bone turnover markers and enhances bone mineral density in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *Arch Endocrinol Metab*. 2018 Aug;62(4):438-45. doi: 10.20945/2359- 3997000000060. PMID: 30304108. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 223. Kharroubi A, Saba E, Ghannam I, Darwish H. Evaluation of the validity of osteoporosis and fracture risk assessment tools (IOF one minute test, SCORE, and FRAX) in postmenopausal Palestinian women. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2017 Dec;12(1):6. doi: 10.1007/s11657-016-0298-8. PMID: 28013446. Exclusion Code: X8.
- 224. Kim H, Kim JH, Kim MJ, et al. Low predictive value of FRAX adjusted by trabecular bone score for osteoporotic fractures in Korean women: a communitybased cohort study. *Endocrinol Metab (Seoul)*. 2020 Jun;35(2):359-66. doi: 10.3803/EnM.2020.35.2.359. PMID: 32615720. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 225. Kim HY, Jang EJ, Park B, et al. Development of a Korean Fracture Risk Score (KFRS) for predicting osteoporotic fracture risk: analysis of data from the Korean National Health Insurance Service. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(7):e0158918. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0158918. PMID: 27399597. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 226. Kim S, Bang HH, Yoo H, et al. Difference in bone mineral density change at the lateral femoral cortices according to administration of different bisphosphonate agents. *J Bone Metab*. 2016 May;23(2):85-93. doi: 10.11005/jbm.2016.23.2.85. PMID: 27294080. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 227. Kim SH, Lee YK, Kim TY, et al. Incidence of and risk for osteonecrosis of the jaw in Korean osteoporosis patients treated with bisphosphonates: a nationwide cohort-study. *Bone*. 2021 Feb;143:115650. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2020.115650. PMID: 32956854. Exclusion Code: X10.
- 228. Kim Y, Tian Y, Yang J, et al. Comparative safety and effectiveness of alendronate versus raloxifene in women with osteoporosis. *Sci Rep*. 2020 Jul 6;10(1):11115. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020- 68037-8. PMID: 32632237. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 229. Kirilova E, Kirilov N, Bischoff F. Predictive ability of the osteoporosis self-assessment tool for assessing the risk of osteoporosis. *Revmatologiia (Bulgaria)*. 2019;27(3):3-9. Exclusion Code: X10.
- 230. Kittithaworn A, Toro-Tobon D, Sfeir JG. Cardiovascular benefits and risks associated with calcium, vitamin D, and antiresorptive therapy in the management of skeletal fragility. *Womens Health (Lond)*. 2023 Jan-Dec;19:17455057231170059. doi: 10.1177/17455057231170059. PMID: 37129172. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 231. Kline GA, Lix LM, Morin SN, Leslie WD. Fracture risk in Asian-Canadian women is significantly over-estimated by the Canadian Association of Radiologists-Osteoporosis Canada risk prediction tool: retrospective cohort study. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2022 Oct 6;17(1):133. doi: 10.1007/s11657-022- 01173-y. PMID: 36201065. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 232. Klop C, de Vries F, Bijlsma JW, et al. Predicting the 10-year risk of hip and major osteoporotic fracture in rheumatoid arthritis and in the general population: an independent validation and update of UK FRAX without bone mineral density. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2016 Dec;75(12):2095-100. doi: 10.1136/annrheumdis-2015-208958. PMID: 26984006. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 233. Koh JH, Myong JP, Yoo J, et al. Predisposing factors associated with atypical femur fracture among postmenopausal Korean women receiving bisphosphonate therapy: 8 years' experience in a single center. *Osteoporos Int*. 2017 Nov;28(11):3251-9. doi: 10.1007/s00198- 017-4169-y. PMID: 28748389. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 234. Kong L, Zuo K, Ma L. Clinical effect of zoledronic acid in the treatment of senile osteoporosis. *Pak J Med Sci*. 2020 Nov-Dec;36(7):1703-7. doi: 10.12669/pjms.36.7.1964. PMID: 33235601. Exclusion Code: X2.
- 235. Kong SH, Kim S, Kim Y, et al. Development and validation of common data model-based fracture prediction model using machine learning algorithm. *Osteoporos Int*. 2023 Aug;34(8):1437-51. doi: 10.1007/s00198-023-06787-7. PMID: 37195320. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 236. Kranenburg G, Bartstra JW, Weijmans M, et al. Bisphosphonates for cardiovascular risk reduction: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Atherosclerosis*. 2016 Sep;252:106-15. doi: 10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2016.06.039. PMID: 27513349. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 237. Kruse C, Eiken P, Vestergaard P. Machine learning principles can improve hip fracture prediction. *Calcif Tissue Int*. 2017 Apr;100(4):348-60. doi: 10.1007/s00223- 017-0238-7. PMID: 28197643. Exclusion Code: X5.
- 238. Kucukler FK, Simsek Y, Turk A, et al. Osteoporosis and silent vertebral fractures in nursing home resident elderly men in Turkey. *J Clin Densitom*. 2017 Apr-Jun;20(2):188-95. doi: 10.1016/j.jocd.2015.05.064. PMID: 26071170. Exclusion Code: X2.
- 239. Kužma M, Hans D, Koller T, et al. Less strict intervention thresholds for the FRAX and TBS-adjusted FRAX predict clinical fractures in osteopenic postmenopausal women with no prior fractures. *J Bone Miner Metab*. 2018 Sep;36(5):580-8. doi: 10.1007/s00774-017-0864-1. PMID: 28884422. Exclusion Code: X3.

Appendix C. Excluded Studies

- 240. Kvist AV, Faruque J, Vallejo-Yagüe E, et al. Cardiovascular safety profile of romosozumab: a pharmacovigilance analysis of the US Food and Drug Administration Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS). *Journal of Clinical Medicine*. 2021 Apr 13;10(8)doi: 10.3390/jcm10081660. PMID: 33924496. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 241. Lam MT, Sing CW, Li GHY, et al. Development and validation of a risk score to predict the first hip fracture in the oldest old: a retrospective cohort study. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2020 Apr 17;75(5):980- 6. doi: 10.1093/gerona/glz178. PMID: 31353417. Exclusion Code: X4.
- 242. Langdahl BL, Hofbauer LC, Forfar JC. Cardiovascular safety and sclerostin inhibition. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2021 Jun 16;106(7):1845-53. doi: 10.1210/clinem/dgab193. PMID: 33755157. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 243. Langdahl BL, Ljunggren Ö, Benhamou CL, et al. Fracture rate, quality of life and back pain in patients with osteoporosis treated with teriparatide: 24-month results from the Extended Forsteo Observational Study (ExFOS). *Calcif Tissue Int*. 2016 Sep;99(3):259-71. doi: 10.1007/s00223-016- 0143-5. PMID: 27137783. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 244. Langdahl BL, Silverman S, Fujiwara S, et al. Real-world effectiveness of teriparatide on fracture reduction in patients with osteoporosis and comorbidities or risk factors for fractures: Integrated analysis of 4 prospective observational studies. *Bone*. 2018 Nov;116:58-66. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2018.07.013. PMID: 30021126. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 245. Langdahl BL, Teglbjaerg CS, Ho PR, et al. A 24-month study evaluating the efficacy and safety of denosumab for the treatment of men with low bone mineral density: results from the ADAMO trial. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2015 Apr;100(4):1335-42. doi: 10.1210/jc.2014-4079 [doi]. PMID: 25607608. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 246. Lauppe R, Åkesson KE, Ljunggren Ö, et al. Differing impact of clinical factors on the risk of fracture in younger and older women in the general population and an osteoporosis clinic population. *Arch Osteoporos*. 2019 Apr 8;14(1):45. doi: 10.1007/s11657-019-0592-3. PMID: 30963310. Exclusion Code: X7.
- 247. Laura I, Felicia B, Alexia C, et al. Which treatment to prevent an imminent fracture? *Bone Rep*. 2021 Dec;15:101105. doi: 10.1016/j.bonr.2021.101105. PMID: 34386562. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 248. Leder BZ, Mitlak B, Hu MY, et al. Effect of abaloparatide vs alendronate on fracture risk reduction in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2020 Mar 1;105(3):938-43. doi: 10.1210/clinem/dgz162. PMID: 31674644. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 249. Leder BZ, Zapalowski C, Hu MY, et al. Fracture and bone mineral density response by baseline risk in patients treated with abaloparatide followed by alendronate: results from the phase 3 ACTIVExtend trial. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2019 Dec;34(12):2213-9. doi: 10.1002/jbmr.3848. PMID: 31411768. Exclusion Code: X6.
- 250. Lee HJ, Hwang SY, Kim SC, et al. Relationship between metabolic syndrome and bone fracture risk in mid-aged Korean women using FRAX scoring system. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord*. 2020 May;18(4):219- 24. doi: 10.1089/met.2019.0060. PMID: 32077792. Exclusion Code: X3.
- 251. Lee WY, Sun LM, Lin MC, et al. A higher dosage of oral alendronate will increase the subsequent cancer risk of osteoporosis patients in Taiwan: a population-based cohort study. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(12):e53032. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0053032. PMID: 23300854. Exclusion Code: X10.
- 252. Leeyaphan J, Rojjananukulpong K, Intarasompun P, Peerakul Y. Development and Validation of a New Clinical Diagnostic Screening Model for Osteoporosis in Postmenopausal Women. *J Bone Metab*. 2023 May;30(2):179-88. doi: 10.11005/jbm.2023.30.2.179. PMID: 37449350. Exclusion Code: X8.
- 253. Lello S, Sorge R, Surico N. Osteoporosis's Menopausal Epidemiological Risk Observation (O.M.E.R.O.) study. *Gynecol Endocrinol*. 2015;31(12):992-8. doi: 10.3109/09513590.2015.1063605. PMID: 26172928. Exclusion Code: X1.
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Appendix C. Excluded Studies

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Appendix C. Excluded Studies

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Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRAX MOF=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool: Major Osteoporotic Fracture; Fx=fracture; GP=general practitioner; IQR=interquartile ratio; ISRCTN**=**International Standard Randomised Controlled Trial Number; ITT=intention to treat; N=number; NCT=National Clinical Trial; NR=not reported; NTR=Netherlands Trial Registry; PCP=primary care provider; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study; SD=standard deviation; U.K.=United Kingdom; VFA=vertebral fracture assessment.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CaMos=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; DXA=dual energy X-ray absorptiometry; ECOSAP=Ecografia Osea en Atencio Primaria cohort; FDA=U.S. Food and Drug Administration; FN=femoral neck; FRAX=fracture risk assessment tool; FRIDEX=Fracture RIsk factors and bone DEnsitometry type central dual X-ray; FROCAT=abbreviation not defined; IQR=interquartile range; IU=international units; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; MrOs=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men Cohort; N=number; NR=not reported; OFELY= Os des Femmes de Lyon; QUALYOR=QUalité Osseuse LYon Orléans; RA=rheumatoid arthritis; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; THIN=The Health Improvement Network; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 3. Characteristics of Included Studies for Predictive Accuracy of Bone Mineral Density Alone for Fracture (Key Question 2b)

Appendix D Table 3. Characteristics of Included Studies for Predictive Accuracy of Bone Mineral Density Alone for Fracture (Key Question 2b)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CaMos=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; DOES=Dubbo Osteoporosis Epidemiology Study; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FN=femoral neck; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; HRT=hormone replacement therapy; IQR=interquartile range; LS=lumbar spine; MOF=major

osteoporotic fracture; N=number; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NR=not reported; OFELY=Os des Femmes de Lyon; QUALYOR= QUalité Osseuse LYon Orléans; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROB=risk of bias; SD=standard deviation; TH=total hip; U.S.=United States.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CaMos=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FN=femoral neck; GP=general practitioner; KNHANES=Korean National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; KQ=key question; LS=lumbar spine; MN=Minnesota; N=number; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NHW=non-Hispanic White; NR=not reported; OR=odds ratio; ROB=risk of bias; SD=standard deviation; TH=total hip; U.S.=United States; VA=Veterans Affairs.

Appendix D Table 5. Characteristics of Included Studies for Evidence on Repeat Screening (Key Question 2d)

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; HR=hazard ratio; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N=number; NR=not reported; SD=standard deviation; U.S.=United States.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CEE=conjugated equine estrogen; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FREEDOM=Fracture Reduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months; Fx=fracture; IV=intravenous; m=month; N=number; NA=not applicable; NR=not reported; OR=odds ratio; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROB=risk of bias; SD=standard deviation; y=year.

Appendix D Table 7. Study Characteristics of Included Cohort Studies for Harms of Treatment (Key Question 5)

Appendix D Table 7. Study Characteristics of Included Cohort Studies for Harms of Treatment (Key Question 5)

Abbreviations: BP=bisphosphonate; IV=intravenous; LQ=lower quartile; N/n=number; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias; RR=risk ratio; UQ=upper quartile.

Appendix D Table 8. Outcomes from Included Trials for Direct Benefits and Harms of Screening (Key Questions 1 and 3)

Appendix D Table 8. Outcomes from Included Trials for Direct Benefits and Harms of Screening (Key Questions 1 and 3)

Appendix D Table 8. Outcomes from Included Trials for Direct Benefits and Harms of Screening (Key Questions 1 and 3)

Abbreviations: aSHR=adjusted subhazard ratio; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRAX MOF=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool: Major Osteoporotic Fracture; Fx=fracture; HR=hazard ratio; ISRCT**N=**International Standard Randomised Controlled Trial Number; ITT=intention to treat; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NCT=National Clinical Trial; NR=not reported; NTR=Netherlands Trial Registry; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; RR=risk ratio; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study; vs.=versus.

Appendix D Table 9. Included Systematic Reviews for Direct Benefits and Harms of Screening (Key Question 1 and 3)

Appendix D Table 9. Included Systematic Reviews for Direct Benefits and Harms of Screening (Key Question 1 and 3)

* The review authors describe this study as a controlled clinical trial; however, the primary study design is described as a nonconcurrent cohort study.

Abbreviations: AFF=atypical femur fracture**;** ARD=absolute risk difference**;** CCT= controlled clinical trial; CI=confidence interval; VFA=vertebral fracture assessment; HR=hazard ratio; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; ONJ=osteonecrosis of the jaw; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; RR=relative risk ratio.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; ECOSAP=Ecografia Osea en Atencio Primaria; EPIC= Escala dePredicci´on de fracturas Implementable en historia Clínica electronica; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FREM=Fracture Risk Evaluation Model; FRIDEX=Fracture RIsk factors and bone DEnsitometry type central dual X-ray; FROCAT=abbreviation not defined; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; MrOs= Osteoporotic Fractures in Men Cohort; NNS=number needed to screen; NR=not reported; OF=osteoporotic fracture; OFELY=Os des Femmes de Lyon; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; QUALYOR=QUalité Osseuse LYon Orléans; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; SR=systematic review; THIN=The Health Improvement Network; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States.

Note: The Sun et al SR¹³⁷ did not synthesize calibration outcomes by instrument and are not included in this table. Authors of this SR summarized calibration findings as follows: **"**Calibration measurements were reported for 33 (24%) models, with 31 (22%) models showing good fitness. Calibration was assessed with calibration slope (n=18, 13%), the Hosmer-Lemeshow test (n=11, 8%), and the calibration intercept (n=4, 3%). Only 22 (16%) models used suitable methods (calibration slope or calibration intercept) for calibration calculation (Table 2)." (pg. 1229, Sun et al¹³⁷).

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; HR=hazard ratio; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; O/E=observed/expected; OF=osteoporotic fracture; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; PLE=product limit estimate; SD=standard deviation; vs.=versus; U.S.=United States.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=body mass index; CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; Fx=fracture; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; OP=osteoporosis; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OSIRIS=Osteoporosis Index of Risk; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 13. Outcomes from Included Studies for Predictive Accuracy of Bone Mineral Density Alone for Fracture (Key Question 2b)

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CaMos=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; CI=confidence interval; FN=femoral neck; Fx=fracture; HR=hazard ratio; LS=lumbar spine; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N=number; NR=not reported; NV=nonvertebral; OF=osteoporotic fracture; OR=odds ratio; QUALYOR=QUalité Osseuse LYon Orléans; SD=standard deviation; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity; TH=total hip.

Author, Year Study Name Country Study Quality Index Test/Score Threshold/Site of Reference BMD Measurement AUC (95% CI) Sensitivity (95% CI) Specificity (95% CI) Inderjeeth et al, 2020²³⁹ Australia Fair Index Test/Cutoff/BMD Site Garvan hip without BMD/empirically derived, age-stratified risk thresholds/FN or TH or LS or forearm AUC: 0.721 (95% CI, 0.674 to 0.768) Sn: 71.5% (95% CI, NR) Sp: 90.0% (95% CI, NR) AUC values abstracted from Figure 2. Sn and Sp calculated from "total" data provided in Table 2. Index Test/Cutoff/BMD Site Garvan MOF without BMD/empirically derived, age-stratified risk thresholds/FN or TH or LS or forearm AUC: 0.706 (95% CI, 0.658 to 0.753) Sn: 68.5% (95% CI, NR) Sp: 94.8% (95% CI, NR) AUC values abstracted from Figure 2. Sn and Sp calculated from "total" data provided in Table 2. Index Test/Cutoff/BMD Site FRAX Hip without BMD/≥3%/FN or TH or LS or forearm AUC: 0.75 (95% CI, 0.70 to 0.80) Sn: NR Sp: NR AUC values abstracted from Figure 2. Sn and Sp could not be calculated. Index Test/Cutoff/BMD Site FRAX MOF without BMD/≥20%/FN or TH or LS or forearm AUC: 0.76 (95% CI, 0.71 to 0.81) Sn: NR Sp: NR AUC values abstracted from Figure 2. Sn and Sp could not be calculated.

Abbreviations: ABONE=Age, Bone, No Estrogen; AMMEB=Age, years after Menopause, age at Menarche; AUC=area under the curve; BMD=body mass index; CI=confidence interval; FH= femoral head; FN=femoral neck; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; fx=fracture; KNHANES=Korean National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; LS=lumbar spine; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; MORES=Male Osteoporosis Risk Estimation Score; MOST=Male Osteoporosis Screening Tool; MSCORE=Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; NA=not applicable; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NOF=National Osteoporosis Foundation Score; NR=not reported; ORAI=Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OSIRIS=OSteoporosis Index of RISk; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; OSTA=OST for Asians;

SE=standard error; Sn=sensitivity; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Score; SOFSURF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group Study Utilizing Risk Factors; Sp=specificity; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States; VA-FARA=electronic record adaptation of FRAX.

Appendix D Table 15. Outcomes From Included Studies for Key Question 2d

Appendix D Table 15. Outcomes From Included Studies for Key Question 2d

Authors depicted two separate receiver operating characteristics curves: one for hip fracture and one for MOF, but only one set of AUC values were reported. AUC adjusted for age, sex, BMI, weight loss, and history of fracture measured at the time of the second BMD.

† Adjusted for current hormone use (yes/no), and Women's Health Initiative Study component (clinical trial/observational study). Major osteoporotic fractures included hip, spine, lower arm/wrist, and upper arm/shoulder.

⁺ Adjusted for age, race/ethnicity, study enrollment site, prior fracture between baseline and 7-year BMD measurements, fall in past year, multimorbidity, score, physical activity, BMI, and percentage weight change between baseline and 7-year BMD measurements.

§ Adjusted for age and weight change.

Major osteoporotic fracture defined as nontraumatic hip, clinical vertebral, forearm, and humerus fracture. HR adjusted for baseline fracture probability.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; HR=hazard ratio; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N=number; NR=not reported; SD=standard deviation; U.S.=United States.

Abbreviations: AE=adverse event; ARD=absolute risk difference; BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; GERD=gastroesophageal reflux disease; GI=gastrointestinal; HR=hazard ratio; IV=intravenous; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; OR=odds ratio; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; RR=risk ratio; RRR=relative risk reduction; vs.=versus.

Appendix D Table 17. Outcomes from Included Cohort Studies for Harms of Treatment (Key Question 5)

Appendix D Table 17. Outcomes from Included Cohort Studies for Harms of Treatment (Key Question 5)

Appendix D Table 17. Outcomes from Included Cohort Studies for Harms of Treatment (Key Question 5)

Abbreviations: aHR=adjusted hazard ratio; ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; HR=hazard ratio; IR=incidence ratio; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias; RR=risk ratio.

Appendix D Table 18. Risk of Bias for Included Trials in Key Questions 1 and 3 (Domain 1 Randomization and Allocation Concealment)

Abbreviations: ROB=risk of bias; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study.

Abbreviations: ITT=intention to treat; ROB=risk of bias; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study.

Appendix D Table 20. Risk of Bias for Included Trials in Key Questions 1 and 3 (Domain 3 Departures from Intended Interventions)

Abbreviations: ROB=risk of bias; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study.

Appendix D Table 21. Risk of Bias for Included Trials in Key Questions 1 and 3 (Domain 4 Outcome Measurement)

Abbreviations: NA=not applicable; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study.

Appendix D Table 22. Risk of Bias for Included Trials in Key Questions 1 and 3 (Domain 5 Selective Outcome Reporting and Overall ROB)

Appendix D Table 22. Risk of Bias for Included Trials in Key Questions 1 and 3 (Domain 5 Selective Outcome Reporting and Overall ROB)

Abbreviations: RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROB=risk of bias; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation Study; SALT-SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium en Trombosedienst Osteoporosis Study; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women study.

Appendix D Table 23. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 1 (Domain 1 Study Eligibility)

Appendix D Table 24. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 1 (Domain 2 Identification and Selection of Studies)

Appendix D Table 25. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 1 (Domain 3 Data Collection and Study Appraisal)

Appendix D Table 26. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 1 (Domain 4 Synthesis and Findings)

Appendix D Table 27. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 1 (Overall Risk of Bias)

Abbreviations: ROB=risk of bias.

Appendix D Table 28. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 1 Participants)

Appendix D Table 28. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 1 Participants)

Appendix D Table 28. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 1 Participants)

Abbreviations: CaMos=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; DXA=dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry; ECOSAP=Ecografia Osea en Atencio Primaria; FRIDEX=Fracture RIsk factors and bone DEnsitometry type central dual X-ray; MrOs=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men; NR=not reported; QUALYOR=QUalité Osseuse LYon Orléans; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; THIN=The Health Improvement Network; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States.

Appendix D Table 29. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 2 Predictors)

Appendix D Table 29. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 2 Predictors)

Appendix D Table 29. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 2 Predictors)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; COPD=chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; ICD=International Classification of Diseases; NR=not reported; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States.

Appendix D Table 30. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 3 Outcomes)

Appendix D Table 30. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 3 Outcomes)

Appendix D Table 30. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 3 Outcomes)

Abbreviations: FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; ICD=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems; NR=not reported; U.K.=United Kingdom; U.S.=United States.

Appendix D Table 31. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 4 Analysis)

Appendix D Table 31. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 4 Analysis)

Appendix D Table 31. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Domain 4 Analysis)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator.

Appendix D Table 32. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Overall)

Appendix D Table 32. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Overall)

Appendix D Table 32. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2a (Overall)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity; U.S.=United States.

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Appendix D Table 34. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 2a (Domain 2 Identification and Selection of Studies)

Appendix D Table 35. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 2a (Domain 3 Data Collection and Study Appraisal)

Abbreviations: QUADAS=Quality Assessment of Studies of Diagnostic Accuracy; ROB=risk of bias.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity; U.S.=United States.

Appendix D Table 37. Risk of Bias for Systematic Reviews Included for Key Question 2a (Overall Risk of Bias)

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; QUADAS=Quality Assessment of Studies of Diagnostic Accuracy; ROB=risk of bias; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; h/o=history of; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; ROB=risk of bias.

Appendix D Table 39. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2b (Domain 2 Predictors)

Abbreviations: BMD=body mass index; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; NR=not reported; NV=nonvertebral; ROB=risk of bias; vs.=versus.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias; vs.=versus.

Appendix D Table 41. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2b (Domain 4 Analysis)

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; OF=osteoporotic fracture; ROB=risk of bias; SD=standard deviation.

Appendix D Table 42. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2b (Overall)

Appendix D Table 42. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2b (Overall)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias.

Appendix D Table 43. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Domain 1 Patient Selection)

Appendix D Table 43. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Domain 1 Patient Selection)

Appendix D Table 43. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Domain 1 Patient Selection)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; EMR=electronic medical records; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; KNHANES=Korean National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NHANES= National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; VA=Veterans Affairs; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 44. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Domain 2 Index Test)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; EMR=electronic medical records; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; fx=fracture; NR=not reported; ORAI= Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument; OST=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool; OSTA=Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool for Asians; ROC=receive operating characteristics curve; SCORE=Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation; Sn=sensitivity; Sp=specificity; USPSTF=U.S. Preventive Services Task Force.

Appendix D Table 45. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Domain 3 Reference Standard)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; ISCD=International Society for Clinical Densitometry; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NR=not reported.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; HRT=hormone replacement therapy; N=number; NA=not applicable; NHANES= National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NR=not reported.

Appendix D Table 47. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Overall Study Quality)

Appendix D Table 47. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Overall Study Quality)

Appendix D Table 47. Risk of Bias of Included Studies for Key Question 2c (Overall Study Quality)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias.

Appendix D Table 48. Risk of Bias for Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 1 Participants)

Abbreviations: DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; Mr.Os=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (study); ROB=risk of bias; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 49. Risk of Bias for Included Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 2 Predictors)

Abbreviations: Mr.Os=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (study); ROB=risk of bias; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 50. Risk of Bias for Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 3 Outcome)

Appendix D Table 50. Risk of Bias for Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 3 Outcome)

Abbreviations: NR=not reported; Mr.Os=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (study); ROB=risk of bias; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 51. Risk of Bias for Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 4 Analysis)

Appendix D Table 51. Risk of Bias for Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 4 Analysis)

Abbreviations: MrOs=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (study); ROB=risk of bias; ; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 52. Risk of Bias for Studies for Key Question 2d (Domain 5 Overall ROB)

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; DXA=dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; Mr.Os=Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (study); ROB=risk of bias; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; WHI=Women's Health Initiative.

Appendix D Table 53. Risk of Bias of Included Trials for Key Questions 4 and 5 (Domain 1 Randomization and Allocation Concealment)

Appendix D Table 53. Risk of Bias of Included Trials for Key Questions 4 and 5 (Domain 1 Randomization and Allocation Concealment)

Appendix D Table 53. Risk of Bias of Included Trials for Key Questions 4 and 5 (Domain 1 Randomization and Allocation Concealment)

Abbreviations: NR=not reported; IVRS=interactive voice response system; ROB=risk of bias; UGI=upper gastrointestinal.

Abbreviations: ITT=intention to treat; IV=intravenous; N=number; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias; vs.=versus.

Abbreviations: ROB=risk of bias.

Abbreviations: NA=not applicable; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias.

Appendix D Table 57. Risk of Bias of Included Trials for Key Questions 4 and 5 (Domain 5 Selective Outcome Reporting and Overall Risk of Bias)

Abbreviations: AE=adverse event; NR=not reported; ROB=risk of bias.

Appendix D Table 58. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 1 Bias Due to Confounding)—Part 1

Abbreviations: N/A=not applicable.

Abbreviations: BMI=body mass index; CVD=cardiovascular disease; GERD=gastroesophageal reflux disease; GI=gastrointestinal; HRT=hormone replacement therapy; N/A=not applicable.

Appendix D Table 60. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 2 Bias in Selection of Participants into the Study)

Appendix D Table 60. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 2 Bias in Selection of Participants into the Study)

Appendix D Table 60. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 2 Bias in Selection of Participants into the Study)

Abbreviations: BP=bisphosphonate; ONJ=osteonecrosis of the jaw.

Appendix D Table 61. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 3 Bias in Classification of Intervention)

Appendix D Table 62. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 4 Bias Due to Deviations From Intended Intervention)

Appendix D Table 62. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 4 Bias Due to Deviations From Intended Intervention)

Abbreviations: BP=bisphosphonate; GI=gastrointestinal; RX=prescription.

Appendix D Table 63. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 5 Bias Due to Missing Data)

Appendix D Table 63. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 5 Bias Due to Missing Data)

Abbreviations: BMI=body mass index; CRC=colorectal cancer; GI=gastrointestinal.

Abbreviations: AFF=atypical femur fracture; BP=bisphosphonate; CRC=colorectal cancer; CVD=cardiovascular disease; ONJ=osteonecrosis of the jaw.

Appendix D Table 65. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 7 Bias in the Selection of the Reported Result and Overall Risk of Bias)

Appendix D Table 65. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 7 Bias in the Selection of the Reported Result and Overall Risk of Bias)

Appendix D Table 65. Risk of Bias of Included Cohort Studies for Key Question 5 (Domain 7 Bias in the Selection of the Reported Result and Overall Risk of Bias)

Abbreviations: GI=gastrointestinal; ONJ=osteonecrosis of the jaw; ROB=risk of bias.

E.1 Detailed Findings for Key Question 1

Detailed study characteristics are reported in **Appendix D Table 1**, and detailed findings are reported in **Appendix D Table 8**.

The ROSE Trial

The ROSE RCT randomly selected women ages 65 to 80 years living in southern Denmark to receive an invitation to participate in a two-step screening process $(n=34,229)$.¹²⁶⁻¹²⁸ Before recruitment, these women were randomized to either screening (n=17,072) with FRAX followed by DXA and vertebral fracture assessment (VFA) if 10-year FRAX MOF risk was greater than or equal to 15 percent or to a control group that continued to receive usual care as directed by their primary care provider (PCP), with no routine screening offered by the study $(n=17,157)$.¹²⁶ Because study participants were identified through the Danish Civil Registration system, study authors applied no clinical exclusion criteria. Results of the DXA test in the screening group were sent to the participant and her general practitioner, which included recommendations based on national guidelines, while control group participants received no further followup. Screening guidelines at the time included a recommendation for measuring BMD if one or more clinical risk factors were present.⁴⁴⁵ Treatment guidelines at the time of the study called for the initiation of treatment for 1) a fragility fracture of the hip or spine, or 2) T-score less than -2.5 with one clinical risk factor, or 3) T-score between -1.0 and -2.5 if on glucocorticoid therapy, or 4) if Tscore less than 4.0 with no clinical risk factors.⁴⁴⁵ Of participants randomized who returned the initial questionnaire with no missing data $(N=20,905)$, the mean (SD) 10-year FRAX risk was 23.2 (11.0) percent for MOF and 10.0 (9.1) percent for hip. Further, 12.3 percent reported a history of a fragility fracture and 9.5 percent reported already being treated for osteoporosis. Of the women who completed a DXA scan in the screening group $(N=5,064)$, the mean T-score was -1.2 (SD 1.0) at the TH and was -1.3 (SD 1.4) at the LS. Further, 3.7 percent had prevalent vertebral fractures.

We assessed the ROSE study as fair quality. Because the study was pragmatic in nature, the intervention was not blinded to participants. No missing data were reported because the analysis was intent-to-treat based on all participants randomized, although 45.6 percent of participants did not receive screening with FRAX (1,132 already on treatment, 2,894 returned questionnaire blank, 104 returned questionnaire with data missing to calculate FRAX, and the rest did not return the questionnaire). Significant differences were found between responders and nonresponders. In the intervention group, 12 percent (2,047/17,072 randomized) were high risk but did not receive a DXA (830 were not interested in a DXA and 1,217 dropped out; or 29% of those with high-risk FRAX scores [2,047/7,056]). Only 7 percent (1,236/17,072 randomized) had a positive DXA for osteoporosis after a FRAX risk above the study threshold, and only 6 percent (986/17,072, or 80% [986/1,236] of those with an indication) received treatment. The authors stated that 23 percent of the screening group received medication after the index date (mailing of questionnaire), which we assumed is the 986 participants started on medication and the 1,132 women who were already receiving medication on the baseline questionnaire along with an unknown number of women who were randomized to screening but who did not return the questionnaire but who may have been prescribed medication by their PCPs through the course of usual care outside of this study.

Appendix E.1 Detailed Findings for Key Question 1

Similarly, in the control group, 45.6 percent (7,831/17,157 randomized) did not participate (1,168 were already on treatment, 3,143 returned a blank questionnaire, 111 returned a questionnaire with missing data to calculate FRAX, and the rest did not return the questionnaire). Additionally, there was contamination in the control group such that 25 percent of the control group received a DXA at some point after the study index date, possibly from increased awareness after completing the baseline questionnaire. The overall difference in the use of osteoporotic medications after the study index date was 5 percent (23% in the intervention vs. 18% in the control group), although it is unclear who was included in the denominators the authors used to report these percentages. The authors did not specify whether these data included those on treatment from the index date (mailing of the questionnaire). Outcome ascertainment was through the national health registry, and persons retrieving data from these health registries were not formally blinded to group allocation.^{126, 127}

At a median followup of 5.0 years, the incidence of MOF for the intent-to-treat analysis (which was the primary study endpoint) was not significantly different in the invitation-to-screening group (9.9%) compared with the control group (10.0%) with an adjusted subhazard ratio (aSHR) of 0.986 (95% CI, 0.922 to 1.055).¹²⁶ The subhazard ratios (SHRs) for hip fracture and all osteoporotic fractures (excluding fingers, toes, skull, and face), both as unadjusted and aSHRs between groups, were also not significantly different. Mortality outcomes were not reported but used as competing outcomes in their SHRs and noted to be virtually complete because the national health registries were used.

Given the potential challenges with the study design (e.g., participants were randomized before giving consent), the authors prespecified a per-protocol analysis to examine fracture outcomes between the screening and control groups with completed FRAX calculations and not in current osteoporotic treatment. The per-protocol incidence of MOF was 725/9,279 (7.8%) in the completed FRAX screening group compared with 786/9,326 (8.4%) in the completed FRAX control group with an aSHR of 0.914 (95% CI, 0.827, 1.011). The per-protocol incidence of hip fracture was 169/9,279 (1.8%) in the completed FRAX screening group compared with 202/9,326 (2.2%) in the control group with an aSHR of 0.82 (95% CI, 0.670 to 1.007), $p=0.059$ ¹²⁶ The per-protocol incidence of all fractures was 996 (10.7%) in the completed FRAX screening group compared with 1,025 (11.0%) in the control group with an aSHR of 0.968 (95%) CI, 0.887 to 1.056).¹²⁶

In a second, post hoc, per-protocol analysis comparing persons with high-risk FRAX who were DXA scanned with high-risk controls, the aSHR for hip fracture was 0.741 (95% CI, 0.578 to 0.950). However, this per-protocol analysis should be interpreted with caution because the women in the DXA-scanned group showed significant differences in baseline characteristics compared with the high-risk controls (e.g., they were younger, had higher rates of previous fractures, and were less likely to smoke), although some of these differences were of uncertain clinical significance. In another analysis with the second per-protocol population, authors excluded hip fractures from the MOF outcome and the MOF results became nonsignificant, suggesting that most of the differences observed for MOF were being driven by differences in hip fractures.

The SCOOP Trial

The SCOOP RCT randomly selected women ages 70 to 85 years from 100 general practices in England and randomized them to either screening (n=6,233) with a FRAX assessment and invitation to DXA if risk was greater than or equal to an age-based threshold or to routine care as directed by the participant's PCP $(n=6,250)$.¹²⁰ Participants were excluded if they were on treatment for osteoporosis (other than calcium and vitamin D) or had known comorbidity or another factor that might make participation inappropriate (e.g., advanced cancer or recent bereavement).¹²¹ Of participants randomized who returned the initial questionnaire with no missing data (N=12,483), the mean (SD) 10-year FRAX risk was 19.3 (8.9) percent for MOF and 8.5 (7.4) percent for hip, and 23 percent had a history of a broken bone since age 50 years. Among those who completed DXA (2,817/6,233 randomized), the mean T-score was -2.6 at the FN. Although the two randomized groups were similar in baseline demographic characteristics, those who participated in the study had higher education, higher socioeconomic status, and more frequent history of previous fractures or parental hip fracture than nonparticipants.¹²⁰

We assessed the SCOOP study as fair quality. Because the study was pragmatic in nature, the intervention was not blinded to participants. There was minimal missing data because the analysis was conducted on an intent-to-treat basis. Of the 49 percent of women in the screening group deemed initially high risk based on FRAX hip fracture risk, 4 percent (247/6,233 randomized) were high risk and did not have a DXA (157 declined, 81 were unable to have hip BMD measured, and 9 died); 45 percent (2,817/6,233 randomized) were high risk and had a DXA. In the screening group, 14 percent (898/6,233 randomized) had a high-risk FRAX after recalculation with the FN BMD. In the screening group, over the course of the study, 24 percent (1,486/6,233 randomized) received at least one prescription for treatment, with 15 percent (953/6,233 randomized) having at least one prescription for treatment in the first 12 months. Of the high-risk screening group (703/898), 78 percent had at least one prescription in the first 6 months.¹²³ In the control group, over the course of the study, 16 percent (982/6,250 randomized) received at least one prescription for treatment, suggesting evidence of contamination.¹²⁰ Outcome ascertainment was verified with medical records, and assessors were blinded to study group assignment. 121

At 5 years followup, the incidence of fractures excluding hands, feet, nose, skull, and cervical vertebrae and without regard to trauma (the study's primary endpoint) for the intent-to-treat analysis was not significantly different in the invitation-to-screening group (12.9%) compared with the control group (13.6%) with an adjusted hazard ratio (aHR) of 0.94 (95% CI, 0.85 to 1.03).¹²⁶Authors reported several prespecified secondary endpoints. The aHR for any clinical fracture (not excluding any site) was not significant, but the incidence of hip fracture was significantly lower in the screening group (2.6%) compared with the control group (3.5%; aHR: 0.72 , 0.59 to 0.89).⁴⁴⁶ All-cause mortality was not significantly different between groups.

In a post hoc analysis evaluating the association between baseline 10-year FRAX hip risk without BMD risk and fracture incidence, there were no significant differences between the screening group and the control group at the 10th, 25th, and 50th percentile of 10-year FRAX hip risk (2.6%, 3.8%, and 6.3%, respectively) for any clinical fracture (with or without selected sites excluded).¹²² There were also no significant differences in any clinical fractures (with or without selected sites excluded) at the 75th and 90th percentiles of 10-year FRAX hip risk (10.5% and

16.8%, respectively), but there were significant differences for hip fracture incidence and when considering FRAX risk as a continuous measure, a significant interaction was observed for the association between FRAX score and hip fracture but not for any clinical fracture (with or without selected sites excluded.¹²²

The SOS Trial

The SOS RCT randomly assigned women ages 65 to 90 years from general practice registries in the Netherlands who had one or more clinical risk factors for osteoporosis and completed baseline information $(N=11,032)$.^{124, 125} Participants were excluded if they were on treatment for osteoporosis currently or in the preceding 5 years or took prednisone. Participants assigned to the screening group (n=5,575) received a multicomponent screening intervention (FRAX [without] BMD], DXA, VFA, falls risk assessment, and blood chemistries to exclude secondary osteoporosis), while those assigned to the control group (n=5,457) received routine care as directed by their PCP. The mean (SD) 10-year FRAX risk of participants was approximately 24 percent (10) for MOF and 11 percent (10) for hip, and 43 percent reported a fracture after age 50 years.

We assessed the SOS study as fair quality. Because the study was pragmatic in nature, the intervention was not blinded to participants. There were little missing data because authors used an intention-to-treat analysis. Twenty-four percent of participants invited to screening $(1,347/5,575$ randomized) did not participate.¹²⁴ Twenty-five percent randomized to screening (1,417/5,575 randomized) had an indication for treatment, but 31 percent of those did not start treatment.¹²⁴ In the screening group, 21 percent $(1,154/5,575$ randomized) received treatment over the course of the study, with 18 percent (982/5,575 randomized) reporting starting treatment and 12 percent (657/5,575 randomized) reporting still being on treatment at 36 months.¹²⁴ In the control group, 6 percent (316/5,457 randomized) received a DXA/VFA over the course of the study; 2 percent (112/5,457 randomized) received DXA/VFA within 3 months of randomization. About 5 percent (291/5,457 randomized) of the control group received treatment over the course of the study—3 percent (167/5,457 randomized) by 18 months.¹²⁴ Outcome ascertainment was blinded, and fractures were confirmed with medical records.¹²⁵

Over a mean followup of 3.7 years, no statistically significant differences were found on the primary outcome of time to first incident fracture of any type. In total, 626 (11.3%) persons in the intervention group had a fracture vs. 632 (11.7%) in the control group (aHR, 0.97 [95% CI 0.87 to 1.08]).¹²⁴ Additionally, no statistically significant differences were found on any secondary fracture measures or mortality.¹²⁴Authors also reported no significant interaction effects with age, history of prior fracture, or recency of prior fracture for the outcome of "all fractures." However, there was a significant interaction with recency of prior fracture (within 2 years of baseline) for MOF and hip fracture, although these analyses were post hoc.¹²⁴

Appendix E.1 Figure 1. Randomized, Controlled Trials of Screening vs. Usual Care: Fracture Outcomes (KQ 1)—Sensitivity Analysis Using the ROSE Intention-to-Treat Sample

* SCOOP reported an outcome entitled "osteoporotic fractures," which were defined as clinical fractures excluding hand, foot, skull, and cervical vertebrae. It is not entirely clear how this definition differs from the definition of MOF used by the other two studies (hip, clinical vertebral, distal forearm, and humerus); as such, we have included SCOOP "osteoporosis" outcome in the estimate for both "osteoporotic fractures" and for "MOF."

Appendix E.1 Figure 1. Randomized, Controlled Trials of Screening vs. Usual Care: Fracture Outcomes (KQ 1)—Sensitivity Analysis Using the ROSE Intention-to-Treat Sample

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; F/U=followup;Fx=fracture; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N/n=number; ROSE=Risk-stratified Osteoporosis Strategy Evaluation; RR=risk ratio; SCOOP=Screening in the Community to Reduce Fractures in Older Women; SOS=Stichting Artsen Laboratorium enTrombosedienst (SALT) Osteoporosis Study; vs.=versus.

E.2 Detailed Calibration Outcomes (Key Question 2b)

Appendix E.2 Table 1. Calibration Outcomes From 12 Unique Cohorts Reported for the Accuracy of Bone Mineral Density to Predict $F(X \cap \mathcal{L})$

* Ratios close to 1 indicate good agreement between observed and predicted.

† P values <0.05 indicate poor fit.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; CI=confidence interval; FN=femoral neck; HR=hazard ratio; KQ=key question; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NR=not reported; SD=standard deviation.

E.3 Detailed Results for Diagnostic Accuracy (KQ 2c)

Age, Body Size, No Estrogen

Study Characteristics

Five fair-quality studies (total N=4,203 participants) reported on the accuracy of Age, Body Size, No Estrogen (ABONE);^{206, 207, 233, 242, 245} three studies were new to this update.^{233, 242, 245} Three studies were conducted in Asian countries, $207, 233, 245$ one was conducted in Greece, 242 and one was conducted in Canada.²⁰⁶ One study included men;²³³ the rest were conducted exclusively among women. The mean age across studies ranged from 62 to 68 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 ranged from 4.0 percent to 24.4 percent across four of the included studies; the prevalence was not reported in one study.²⁴²

Findings

The reported AUC across cohorts ranged from 0.62 to 0.78 using a reference BMD measurement at the FN, LS, or both. The exception to this range was one cohort²⁴⁵ that was an outlier with respect to values reported for four different risk assessment tools, suggesting something unique about the underlying study population or study approach.

The most common score threshold reported was a score greater than or equal to 2, which was reported by four cohorts.^{206, 207, 233, 245} Other included studies reported using a score threshold of greater than 1.5^{242} or greater than or equal to 3.2^{07} The sensitivities ranged from 66 percent to 100 percent, and the specificities ranged from 16.7 percent to 60 percent, excluding the outlier study. 245

One study reported findings separately for men vs. women.²³³ The AUC was 0.78 (95% CI, 0.64) to 0.93) in men and 0.70 (95% CI, 0.61 to 0.77) in women. The sensitivity was the same among men and women (100%); the specificity was 28 percent among men and 10 percent among women.²³³

Age, Menopause, Menarche, BMI

Study Characteristics

Two fair-quality studies (total $N=1,520$ participants) reported on the accuracy of Age, Menopause, Menarche, BMI (AMMEB);^{199, 225} neither was new to this update. Both studies were conducted in Italy, and both were exclusively conducted among postmenopausal women. The mean age of participants in one study¹⁹⁹ was 65 years and in the other study²²⁵ ranged from 57 (normal BMD), 60 (osteopenia), to 62 years (osteoporosis) depending on BMD status. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-scores less than -2.5 at the FN or LS were 33.7 percent in the study¹⁹⁹ enrolling postmenopausal women from general practices (race/ethnicity NR) and 47.4 percent in the study²²⁵ enrolling Caucasian women referred to a university bone metabolic unit for DXA, of which 13 percent were noted to have secondary osteoporosis.

Findings

The reported AUCs were 0.63^{199} and 0.71 , 225 both using reference BMD measurements at the FN or LS. Neither study reported sensitivity or specificity.

Fracture Risk Assessment Tool

Study Characteristics

Fifteen fair-quality studies reporting on 12 unique cohorts^{141, 143, 195, 196, 200, 220, 232-239, 241} (total N=37,756 participants) reported on the accuracy of FRAX. Ten articles were new to this update.^{141, 143, 233-239, 241} One study was conducted in Canada,²⁰⁰ one study was conducted in Taiwan,²³³ and two studies were conducted in Australia.196, 239 The rest of the studies were conducted in the United States. Of studies in the United States, most had a high percentage of White participants, with all but two reporting greater than 85 percent White participants.

Four studies included both men and women, with three including 44 to 65 percent male participants;^{196, 233, 239} another study²⁴¹ included only 13 percent male participants. Four studies included exclusively men.^{232, 235, 237, 238} The other studies included exclusively women.^{141, 195, 200,} ^{220, 234, 236} The mean age across studies ranged from 57 years to 80 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 ranged from 4.5 percent to 25.9 percent. One study had an outlying prevalence of osteoporosis of 51.1 percent; this study had a small sample size (N=45) from a rural area in the United States, included those at increased risk for osteoporosis (e.g., on chronic steroids), and did not report what site or T-score reference range was used to define osteoporosis.²⁴¹

Findings

All but three studies^{141, 195, 238, 241} reported AUCs based on FRAX MOF risk, FRAX hip fracture risk, or both. We included only FRAX risk estimates calculated without the use of BMD because BMD is the reference test for this KQ. Over all studies reporting AUCs, the AUCs ranged from 0.55 to 0.86 using a reference BMD measurement at the FN only or at the lowest site from among the TH, LS , or FN. One study²³⁹ also considered BMD measured at the forearm in addition to the three usual sites. Two studies^{236, 241} did not report the site for the reference BMD measurement used. When limited to AUCs based on FRAX MOF risk only, AUCs ranged from 0.55 to 0.79.^{143, 195, 196, 200, 220, 232-237, 239} When limited to AUCs based on FRAX hip fracture only, AUCs ranged from 0.70 to 0.86.196, 233, 239 In the one study that reported AUCs based on either MOF or hip fracture risk, the AUC was 0.65 (95% CI, 0.59 to 0.71) when calculated based on patient characteristics derived from electronic health record data and was 0.72 (95% CI, 0.67 to (0.78) when based on data collected directly from participants.²³⁷ Four studies conducted exclusively in men or that included results separately for men reported AUCs, and these results ranged from 0.62 to 0.86.^{232, 233, 235, 237}

All but two studies^{200, 239} reported sensitivity and specificity or provided data for us to calculate these estimates. For determining sensitivity and specificity, the thresholds authors used varied by type of fracture risk (MOF vs. hip vs. both) and numeric value used. Some studies reported on multiple thresholds using the same data.

Authors used an MOF risk greater than or equal to 9.3 percent (the threshold suggested for use by the USPSTF's 2011 recommendation) in six studies.^{195, 220, 232, 234-236} The sensitivity for this threshold among the four studies conducted exclusively in women ranged from 24 to 37 percent and the specificity ranged from 73 to 86 percent.^{195, 220, 234, 236} Within the two studies conducted exclusively in men, the sensitivity was 39 percent²³² and 59 percent,²³⁵ and the specificity was 89 percent²³² and 59 percent.²³⁵ An MOF risk greater than or equal to 8.4 percent (suggested by the 2018 USPSTF recommendation) was used in one study conducted exclusively in women and was reported for a variety of age ranges.¹⁴¹ The sensitivity was 5.2 percent for women ages 50 to 54 years, 16.9 percent for women ages 55 to 59 years, and 48.5 percent for women ages 60 to 64 years. The specificity ranged from 95.8 percent for the youngest age group to 63.4 percent for the oldest age group.¹⁴¹

An MOF risk greater than or equal to 20 percent (a commonly used threshold for initiating treatment) was reported in one study.²³³ The sensitivity for this threshold was 0 percent for men and 17 percent for women, and the specificity for this threshold was 99 percent for men and 96 percent for women.

Accuracy was also reported for MOF risk thresholds between 6.5 and 10 percent in three studies.^{196, 235, 238} Sensitivity ranged from 53 percent to 90 percent, and specificity ranged from 32 percent to 65 percent in these studies.

Two studies used a hip fracture risk threshold of 3 percent or greater (a commonly used threshold for initiating treatment).^{196, 233} The sensitivity for this threshold ranged from 80 percent to 92 percent, and the specificity ranged from 37 percent to 71 percent.

Three studies defined a positive screening test based on having either a hip fracture risk greater than 3 percent or having an MOF risk greater than 20 percent (both commonly used thresholds for initiating treatment).^{237, 238, 241} In the studies conducted exclusively in men, sensitivity was 27 percent²³⁸ and 69 percent,²³⁷ and the specificity was 88 percent²³⁸ and 54 percent.²³⁷ In the study conducted predominantly in women (87%), the sensitivity was 100 percent, and the specificity was 91 percent. 241

One study conducted exclusively in men also evaluated other approaches based on either MOF or hip fracture risk (**Appendix D Table 14**).²³⁸

Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator: Hip and MOF Risk

Study Characteristics

Two fair-quality studies (total N=1,084 participants) reported the accuracy of the Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator;^{233, 239} both studies were new to this update. One study was conducted in Taiwan, 233 and the other was conducted in Australia. 239 Both studies included men and women: 55.8 percent of participants across both studies were women. The mean age in one study²³³ was 67.4 years, and the mean age in the other study²³⁹ was 78 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 was 17.5 percent in one study²³³ and was 24.5 percent in the other study, which had the higher mean age.²³⁹

Findings

The reported AUCs for the Garvan Fracture risk ranged from 0.72 to 0.80 for hip fracture and 0.71 to 0.75 for any osteoporotic fracture or MOF using a reference BMD measurement at the FN in one study²³³ or the lowest BMD at the FN, TH, LS, or forearm in the other study.²³⁹

For determining sensitivity and specificity, one study reported score thresholds of greater than or equal to 3 percent for hip fracture risk and greater than or equal to 20 percent for any MOF.²³³ The other study used an empirically derived, age-stratified risk threshold for both hip and MOF risk.²³⁹ The sensitivities ranged from 20 percent to 72 percent, and the specificities ranged from 73 percent to 96 percent across these risk thresholds.

One study reported findings separately for men vs. women for both hip fracture risk and MOF risk.²³³ The AUC for hip fracture risk was 0.72 (95% CI, 0.44 to 1.0) in men and 0.80 (95% CI, 0.73 to 0.88) in women. The AUC for MOF risk was 0.72 (95% CI, 0.46 to 0.98) in men and 0.75 (95% CI, 0.66 to 0.85) in women. The sensitivity for hip fracture risk was 60 percent among men and 28 percent among women; the specificity was 79 percent among men and 95 percent among women. The sensitivity for MOF risk was 20 percent among men and 55 percent among women; the specificity was 96 percent among men and 73 percent among women.

Male Osteoporosis Risk Estimation Score

Study Characteristics

Two fair-quality studies and 1 good-quality study (total $N= 4,788$ participants) reported on the accuracy of the Male Osteoporosis Risk Estimation Score (MORES)^{197, 202, 232}; none of the studies were new to this update. All three studies were conducted in the United States, and all studies were conducted exclusively among predominantly White men (76% to 81% of participants). The mean age for the subjects varied from 63 to 70 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 ranged from 4.3 percent¹⁹⁷ and 4.5 percent²³² in two studies, but was 10 percent in one study.²⁰² The study with the highest prevalence used the BMD reference values from White men ages 20 to 29 years to generate Tscores from, compared to the use of values from NHANES III for young, non-Hispanic women in the other two studies.

Findings

The reported AUCs ranged from 0.66 to 0.87 using reference BMD measurements at the FN, TH, or LS.^{197, 202, 232} One study also evaluated efficacy when reference BMD was any site (thoracic vertebra, LS, arms, ribs, pelvis, legs), and the reported AUC was 0.73^{202}

For determining sensitivity and specificity, all studies reported results based on a score threshold of greater than or equal to 6. The sensitivities ranged from 58 to 96 percent, and the specificities ranged from 61 to 70 percent.

One study²⁰² reported on the sensitivity and specificity of identifying osteoporosis at the LS stratified by age bands of 5 years starting at age 50 years through age 89 years. Sensitivity was

highest in the age group of 80 to 84 years (8%) and lowest in the age group of 50 to 54 years (29%) .²⁰² Specificity was highest in the age group of 50 to 54 years (90%) and lowest in the age group of 85 to 89 years (23%) .²⁰² This study also reported on the sensitivity and specificity for identifying osteoporosis at the LS stratified by race/ethnicity. Sensitivity was lowest in White participants (51% [95% CI, 38% to 64%]) and highest in participants of other (i.e., not African American or Mexican American) ethnicity (90% [95% CI, 66% to 98%]). Specificity was lowest in participants of other ethnicities (50% [95% CI, 40% to 60%]) and highest in White patients $(67\%$ [95% CI, 65% to 70%]).²⁰²

Male Osteoporosis Screening Tool

Study Characteristics

One fair-quality study (total N=4,658 participants) reported on the accuracy of the Male Osteoporosis Screening Tool $(MOST)$ ²¹⁸ it was not new to this update. This study was conducted among men in the United States and Hong Kong from the MrOs cohort study. The mean age of enrolled participants was not reported, but only men age 65 years or older were enrolled in the MrOs cohort study. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 at the FN or at the LS was 5.0 percent among U.S. participants.²¹⁸

Findings

Data were analyzed separately for participants in the United States and Hong Kong. BMD reference measurements were reported for both FN alone and for the lowest T-score from either the FN or LS or TH. 218 The reported AUCs for U.S. participants were 0.799 (FN or LS or TH) and 0.807 (FN only) and for Hong Kong participants were 0.831 (FN or LS or TH) and 0.876 $(FN only).^{218}$

For determining sensitivity and specificity, the data for participants from the United States were reported based on a score threshold of less than or equal to 26. The sensitivity was 89 percent, and the specificity was 50 percent based on lowest site BMD. The data for participants from Hong Kong were reported based on a score threshold of less than or equal to 21. The sensitivity was 87 percent, and the specificity was 59 percent based on lowest site BMD.

Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation

Study Characteristics

One fair-quality study (total n=197 participants) reported on the accuracy of the Male Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation (MSCORE);²¹⁶ it was not new to this update. This study was conducted exclusively in the United States; all participants were men age 40 years or older (94% Caucasian) enrolled from Veterans Affairs general medical or specialty clinic sites. The mean age for participants was 68 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 at the FN was 11.2 percent. This study also reported on a separate cohort of 134 African American men (mean age, 61 years) comprising a convenience sample recruited separately from the original development and validation cohorts.

Findings

The reported AUC for MSCORE was 0.84 (95% CI, 0.74 to 0.95) using a reference BMD measurement at the FN. For determining sensitivity and specificity, the study reported score thresholds of greater than or equal to 9. The sensitivity was 88 percent, and the specificity was 57 percent. In the separate African American convenience sample, the sensitivity was 93 and 100 percent depending on whether a Caucasian or African American BMD reference range was used to calculate the T-score, respectively. Similarly, the specificity was 73 or 79 percent.

National Osteoporosis Foundation Risk Score

Study Characteristics

Four fair-quality studies (total N=4,087 participants) reported on the accuracy of the National Osteoporosis Foundation (NOF) risk score.^{199, 206, 225, 226} No new studies were included in this update. Two studies were conducted in Italy,^{199, 225} one was conducted in Canada,²⁰⁶ and one was conducted in the United States.²²⁶ Participants from the studies in Canada and the United States were recruited from the general population, 206 , 226 while the participants in the Italian studies were from either general practice clinics¹⁹⁹ or referred to an osteoporosis clinic from general practice clinics or gynecologists.²²⁵ All studies included only postmenopausal women. The mean age across studies ranged from 60.5 to 69 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 at the FN only or at the FN or LS ranged from 10 percent to 47 percent across studies.

Findings

The reported AUCs across studies ranged from 0.60 to 0.70 using a reference BMD measurement at the FN only or measurement at the FN and LS. All studies used a threshold score of 1 or more. Only two studies reported sensitivity and specificity.^{206, 226} The sensitivities were 96 percent and 100 percent, and the specificities were 10 percent and 18 percent in those studies. 206, 226

One study reported findings separately for different age groups.²²⁶ The group ages 45 to 64 years had an AUC of 0.69; sensitivity was 100 percent and specificity was 19 percent. The group age 65 years or older had an AUC of 0.60; sensitivity was 100 percent and specificity was 0 percent.

Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument

Study Characteristics

Twenty-two publications199, 203, 206-210, 214, 217, 223-228, 230, 231, 233, 234, 236, 242, 245 covering 21 unique cohorts (total N=24,427 participants) reported on the accuracy of the Osteoporosis Risk Assessment Instrument (ORAI) for 28 comparisons. We rated all analyses as fair quality. Five new studies were included in this update.^{233, 234, 236, 242, 245} Six studies were conducted in the United States, $^{224, 226, 230, 231, 234, 236}$ five in Commonwealth countries, $^{206, 208, 217, 223, 227}$ seven in Europe, ^{199, 203, 208-210, 214, 217, 225, 228, 242} and three studies in Asia.^{207, 233, 245} Twelve studies included

only perimenopausal or postmenopausal women;199, 203, 207, 208, 214, 224-226, 228, 236, 242, 245 the one study that included both men and women was 66 percent women.²³³ Five studies included participants referred for BMD testing or to an osteoporosis-related clinic.^{208, 210, 214, 217, 242} Three studies recruited participants from the general population, $206, 226, 233$ and one study recruited participants from both primary care and specialty clinics.²⁰³ The mean age across studies ranged from 50.5 to 70.5 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 (at one or at least one site if multiple sites measures) had a wide range from 4.6 percent to 47.4 percent, although half were between 10 percent and 30 percent,203, 206-208, 214, 223, 224, 230, 231, $233, 234, 245$ and one study did not report osteoporosis prevalence. 242

Findings

Twenty publications covering 19 unique cohorts reported AUC for women.^{199, 203, 206-210, 214, 217,} 223-226, 228, 230, 233, 234, 236, 242, 245 These AUCs ranged from 0.32 to 0.84 excluding one extreme outlier.²⁴⁵ In this study, only 15 percent of its 150 participants with osteoporosis reported an AUC of 0.047 and 0.129. 245 In another study of 525 participants, half of whom had osteoporosis, authors reported an AUC of 0.32.²²⁵ The AUCs in the rest of the studies ranged from 0.60 to $0.84 \text{ }^{227,231}$

For determining sensitivity and specificity, studies used a variety of thresholds ranging from greater than or equal to 8 up to greater than 15. Two studies examined a range of thresholds: greater than 9, 16, and 20^{207} and greater than 8 and 13,²⁰⁹ respectively. Twelve studies used a threshold greater than or equal to 9.^{203, 206, 207, 214, 224, 226, 230, 231, 234, 236, 245} Five studies used a threshold greater than or equal to $8^{199, 209, 210, 223, 225}$ One study did not report a threshold nor did it report sensitivity or specificity.²¹⁷ Two other studies did not report sensitivity or specificity either.^{225, 447} The sensitivities ranged from 52 percent to 100 percent for studies restricted to those using a threshold of 8 or 9^{199, 203, 206, 207, 209, 210, 214, 223-226, 230, 231, 234, 236, 245 and from 43} percent to 89 percent for the remainder of thresholds.^{207-209, 217, 227, 228, 242} The specificities ranged from 5 percent to 100 percent (restricted to studies using thresholds of 8 or 9) and from 44.7 percent to 86 percent (for the remainder).

Five studies reported results in women younger than age 65 years; however, these studies did not use the same score threshold, which may partially explain the variation in results for sensitivity and specificity.209, 226, 228, 234, 236 The AUCs ranged from 0.60 to 0.84, the sensitivities ranged from 44 percent to 99 percent, and the specificities ranged from 36 percent to 77 percent.^{209, 226,} 228, 234, 236

The one study that included men reported an AUC of 0.87 for men and, using a score threshold of greater than or equal to 9, reported a sensitivity of 100 percent and a specificity of 19 percent.²³³

Osteoporosis Index of Risk

Study Characteristics

Seven fair-quality studies (total $N=7,173$ participants) reported on the accuracy of the Osteoporosis Index of Risk (OSIRIS).^{203, 208, 210, 214, 217, 233, 242} Two new studies were included in

this update.^{233, 242} Six studies were conducted in Europe; two in the United Kingdom,^{199, 225} two in Spain,^{203, 214} one in Belgium,²¹⁰ and one in Greece;²⁴² one study was conducted in Taiwan.⁴⁴⁸ All studies except one included only postmenopausal women; the one study that included both men and women was 66 percent women.²³³ Five studies included participants referred for BMD testing or to an osteoporosis-related clinic.^{208, 210, 214, 217, 242} One study recruited participants from the population,²³³ and one study recruited participants from both primary care and specialty clinics.²⁰³ The mean age across studies ranged from 54 to 67 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 (at one or at least one site if multiple sites measured) ranged from 18 percent to 34 percent across six of the seven included studies; one study did not report osteoporosis prevalence.²⁴²

Findings

The reported AUCs for women across studies ranged from 0.63 to 0.83. For determining sensitivity and specificity, most studies used a threshold of around 1; three studies used a threshold of less than or equal to $1,^{210, 214, 233}$ one study used a threshold of less than $1,^{210}$ and one study reported using a threshold of less than 0.5 and less than 1.5^{242} As outliers, one study used a threshold of less than 0,²⁰⁸ and one used a threshold of less than or equal to -3.²⁰³ One study did not report a threshold nor did it report sensitivity or specificity.²¹⁷ The sensitivities ranged from 58 percent to 100 percent (both restricted to studies using thresholds around 1 and unrestricted), and the specificities ranged from 6 percent to 69 percent (restricted to studies using thresholds around 1).210, 214, 233, 242 This level of variation may be due to the underlying population or sites of reference BMD measurement.

The one study that included men reported an AUC of 0.94 for men and, using a score threshold of less than or equal to 1, reported a sensitivity of 100 percent and a specificity of 29 percent.²³³

Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool

Study Characteristics

Thirty studies reported on the accuracy of Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool (OST).^{159, 195, 196,} 1 miry studies reported on the accuracy of Osteoportons 2014 receptions 2014 1208-201, 203, 205, 208-210, 214, 216-219, 221, 223, 225, 228, 230, 231, 234-237, 240, 242, 243 One study was good quality;²⁰⁵ the rest were fair quality. Seven studies were new to this update.^{234-237, 240, 242, 243} Eleven studies were conducted in the United States, $195, 198, 216, 219, 221, 230, 231, 234-237$ and the rest were conducted in Canada, Australia, or various European or Asian countries. Nine studies were conducted exclusively in men, $^{198, 201, 216, 218, 219, 221, 235, 237, 240}$ one study was conducted in men and women and reported results by sex , 243 one study was conducted in men and women but did not report results separately,¹⁹⁶ and the 19 remaining studies were conducted exclusively in women.^{159, 195,} 199, 200, 203, 205, 208-210, 214, 217, 223, 225, 228, 230, 231, 234, 236, 242 The mean age across studies ranged from 51 years to 80 years; however, more than two-thirds had a mean age of 60 years or older. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 ranged from 4.6 percent to 47.4 percent; the prevalence was not reported in one study.²⁴² The reference standard used to determine the presence of osteoporosis varied across studies: some used a single measurement at only one anatomical site, typically the FN or LS, while others used the lowest Tscore from either the FN or LS or the FN, LS, or TH.

Findings

Across the 29 studies reporting AUCs, estimates ranged from 0.32 to 0.89. Nineteen (63%) studies reported an AUC of 0.70 or higher.^{159, 195, 196, 200, 203, 205, 208-210, 216, 218, 219, 221, 223, 230, 236, 237,} 240, 243

All but four studies reported sensitivity and specificity.^{199, 200, 217, 225} Of those studies reporting sensitivity and specificity, authors used different score thresholds, and some studies reported accuracy results for more than one threshold. The most common threshold used was a score less than 2, reported by 14 studies.^{195, 201, 205, 210, 214, 216, 219, 221, 223, 228, 234-236, 243 Less than 2 is the} threshold specified in the first use of the tool in a U.S. population and was selected based on it resulting in an approximately 90 percent sensitivity.²³¹ This is the same approach used by the original developers of the tool to establish a score threshold; however, the score threshold corresponding to a 90 percent sensitivity among the development cohorts that were in Asian populations was a score less than $-1.^{449}$.

Across the entire evidence base that used varied score thresholds, sensitivities ranged from 29 percent to 95 percent, and specificities ranged from 25 percent to 92 percent. At a threshold of less than 2, the sensitivities ranged from 53 percent to 95 percent, and the specificities ranged from 36 percent to 74 percent. When limited to the 11 studies reporting in women, the sensitivities ranged from 53 percent to 95 percent, and the specificities ranged from 37 percent to 72 percent. Seven studies reported findings among women younger than age 65 years.^{159, 195, 200,} 209, 228, 234, 236 The AUCs ranged from 0.63 to 0.77. Sensitivities ranged from 47 percent to 89 percent, and specificities ranged from 45 percent to 81 percent; however, studies used different thresholds which likely contributed the variability in estimates across studies.

Other reported thresholds included less than (or equal to) 1 (6 studies^{159, 209, 221, 231, 235, 237}), less than (or equal to) -1 (5 studies^{203, 208, 209, 230, 235}), less than (or equal to) 0 (4 studies^{196, 198, 235, 450}), less than 3 (4 studies^{216, 221, 235, 242}), less than -2 (1 study²¹⁸), less than 6 (1 study¹⁹⁸), and less than -1.86 (1 study²⁴⁰). The use of thresholds other than less than 2 or less than -1 appears to be authors' attempts to assess the influence of different cutoff scores on accuracy or to maximize the accuracy of the tool in the specific population under study. These data demonstrate as much variation among studies using the same score threshold as there is variation across studies that used different score thresholds. This variation is likely explained by differences in the site of BMD measurement used to determine osteoporosis, differences in reference values used for determining T-scores, and differences in the characteristics of the study populations (e.g., population-based cohorts vs. referral populations).

In the studies conducted exclusively in men or reporting separately for men, the AUCs ranged from 0.63 to 0.89, and, across the various score threshold used, sensitivities ranged from 40 percent to 93 percent, and specificities ranged from 25 percent to 85 percent.^{198, 201, 216, 218, 219, 221,} $235, 237, 240, 243$ When limited to the studies using a score threshold of less than 2, the sensitivities ranged from 62 percent to 89 percent, and the specificities ranged from 36 percent to 74 percent. 201, 216, 218, 219, 221, 235, 243

Osteoporosis Self-assessment Tool for Asians

Study Characteristics

Eleven fair-quality studies (total $N=8,304$ participants) reported on the accuracy of the Osteoporosis Self-assessment Tool for Asians (OSTA).201, 204, 207, 212, 213, 215, 227, 229, 233, 244, 245 Three new studies were included in this update.^{233, 244, 245} Nine studies were conducted in Asia; four in South Korea;^{204, 215, 229, 244} two in Hong Kong;^{212, 213} and one each in Singapore,²¹⁰ Taiwan,²³³ and Malaysia.²⁴⁵ One study was conducted in Australia (98.6% participants were White),²²⁷ and one study was conducted among a population-based sample in Portugal (race and ethnicity not reported).²⁰¹ Six studies were conducted exclusively among women,^{204, 207, 213, 215,} $227, 245$ four studies were conducted exclusively among men, $201, 212, 229, 244$ and one study included both men (34%) and women (66%).²³³ Most studies recruited participants from the local community $^{201, 207, 212, 213, 227, 233}$ or from nationally representative samples.^{204, 229, 244} One study recruited participants from a primary care clinic, 245 and one study recruited participants from a menopause clinic.²¹⁵ The mean age across studies in women ranged from 59 to 71 years. The mean age across studies in men ranged from 58 to 67 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis in women as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 at one or more sites ranged from 11 percent to 42 percent, and the prevalence in men ranged from 6 percent to 18 percent.

Findings

The reported AUCs for women across studies ranged from 0.62 to 0.87 using a reference BMD measurement at either the FN, LS, or both, except for one study that was an extreme outlier with respect to values reported for this tool (along with five other risk assessment tools), suggesting something unique about the underlying study population or study approach; results for this study are not reported further in the text.²⁴⁵ One study, conducted in Australia, did not report an AUC. 227

The reported AUCs for men across five studies ranged from 0.62 to 0.94.^{201, 212, 229, 233, 244} The AUC in the one study conducted in Portuguese men²⁰¹ did not vary from the AUCs reported by the other studies that were all conducted in Asian countries.

The thresholds used for the OSTA varied widely, ranging from less than 0 to -1 and -2 in women and ranging from less than 2, to 0.5, 0, and -1, in men, with the threshold of less than or equal to -1 most used among both women and men. At this threshold, the sensitivities ranged from 41 percent to 100 percent, and the specificities ranged from 27 percent to 67 percent in women.^{204,} $207, 213, 215, 227, 233$ For the three included studies in men that used the threshold of less than or equal to -1, the sensitivities ranged from 71 percent to 100 percent, and the specificities ranged from 58 percent to 68 percent.^{212, 229, 233}

Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation

Study Characteristics

Twenty publications reporting on 18 unique cohorts (N=24,461 participants) reported on the accuracy of the Simple Calculated Osteoporosis Risk Estimation (SCORE).^{195, 203, 206-211, 217, 222,} 224, 226, 228, 230, 231, 233, 234, 236, 242, 245 We rated all analyses as fair quality. Five of the studies were new to this update.^{233, 234, 236, 242, 245} One study was conducted in Canada,²⁰⁶ six studies were conducted in European countries, ^{203, 208-211, 217, 228, 242} and three studies were conducted in Asian countries.^{207, 233, 245} The rest of the studies were conducted in the United States. A third of participants ($n=186$) in one study were men;²³³ the rest of the studies were conducted exclusively among women. The mean age across studies ranged from 51 years to 69 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 ranged from 4.6 percent to 34.2 percent. This wide variation could be explained by differences in age in the enrolled populations; the study with the lowest prevalence²²⁸ had the lowest mean age, and the study with the highest prevalence²²⁶ had the highest mean age. Studies also varied by whether they reported prevalence based on lowest T-score at any site or based on one site.

Findings

All but one study²³¹ reported AUCs. The AUCs ranged from 0.58 to 0.91 (except for one outlier study that reported 0.072 and 0.161) using a reference BMD measurement at the FN, TH, LS, or lowest T-score from any of the three sites. Two studies^{236, 242} did not report the site for the reference BMD measurement used. When limited to women only, the AUCs ranged from 0.58 to 0.87.

For determining sensitivity and specificity, the most common threshold reported was a score greater than or equal to 6 and was used by 11 studies.^{203, 206, 211, 224, 226, 228, 230, 233, 234, 236, 245 The} sensitivities for this threshold ranged from 54 to 100 percent, and the specificities ranged from 15 to 72 percent (except for outliers in two studies, which reported $8\%^{245}$ and $93\%^{230}$); however, about half of the studies reported specificities less than 50 percent. Five studies reported a score threshold of greater than or equal to $7.^{195, 209, 210, 222, 231}$ The sensitivities for this threshold ranged from 74 to 94 percent, and the specificities ranged from 24 to 71 percent. Five studies reported results for score thresholds of between 8 and 20.75 (**Appendix D Table 14**).207-209, 211, 242

At a score threshold of greater than 6 or 7, sensitivities ranged from 54 to 100 percent, and specificities ranged from 24 to 72 percent (except for one outlier that reported $93\%^{230}$).

Six studies reported findings among women younger than age 65 years.^{195, 209, 226, 228, 234, 236} In this age group, AUCs ranged from 0.58 to 0.87, sensitivities ranged from 62 percent to 100 percent, and specificities ranged from 25 percent to 71 percent; however, the same score threshold was not used by all studies.

One study, conducted in Taiwan, included 34 percent men and reported results separately for men and women.²³³ For men, the AUC was 0.91 with a sensitivity of 100 percent and specificity of 45 percent at a score threshold of 6 or greater in reference to BMD measured at the FN. The AUC for women was 0.80, with a sensitivity of 100 percent and a specificity of 15 percent.
Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group Study Utilizing Risk Factors

Study Characteristics

Three fair-quality studies (total $N=1,720$ participants) reported on the accuracy of Study of Osteoporotic Fractures Research Group Study Utilizing Risk Factors (SOFSURF);^{208, 227, 231} none of the studies were new to this update. One study was conducted in the United Kingdom, 208 one was conducted in Australia, 227 and one was conducted in the United States. 231 All three studies were conducted exclusively among women. The mean age across studies ranged from 60 to 71 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 ranged from 13.8 percent to 41.5 percent. In addition to difference in mean age of the study populations, we note that these studies each used a different normative reference database to transform raw BMD values into T-scores, which may also explain differences in the prevalence of osteoporosis among these studies.

Findings

Only one study (N=208) reported an AUC, which was 0.72 (95% CI, 0.67 to 0.78), using the lowest BMD measurement at the LS or TH as the reference standard.²⁰⁸

All three studies used different score thresholds for determining sensitivity and specificity; one study used a score threshold of greater than or equal to $1,^{208}$ another used a score threshold of greater than 1.7 , 227 and another study used a score threshold of greater than or equal to 0.231 The sensitivities ranged from 72 percent to 92 percent, and the specificities ranged from 36 percent to 67 percent.

Veterans Affairs Fracture Absolute Risk Assessment Tool

Study Characteristics

One fair-quality study (total N=463 participants) reported on the accuracy of the Veterans Affairs Fracture Absolute Risk Assessment tool $(VA-FARA);^{237}$ this study was new to this update. This study was conducted in the United States, and all participants were men (94% Caucasian). The mean age of enrolled participants was 80 years. The prevalence of osteoporosis as measured by DXA BMD T-score less than -2.5 at either the FN, TH, or LS was 24 percent. Only men older than age 70 years assigned to the bone health team at the study site were enrolled, potentially explaining the high incidence of osteoporosis among participants.

Findings

The reported AUC was 0.640 (95% CI, 0.58 to 0.70) using a reference BMD measurement for the lowest T-score at the FN, LS, or TH. For determining sensitivity and specificity, the study reported score thresholds of greater than 20 percent risk for major fracture or 3 percent for hip fracture. The sensitivity was 64 percent, and the specificity was 58 percent.

KQ 4 Detailed Study Characteristics: Bisphosphonates

Alendronate

We identified eight fair- to good-quality RCTs (total N=9,052) that compared alendronate with placebo and reported fracture outcomes; none reported mortality outcomes.^{252-254, 256, 259, 267, 268,} 277 The largest study, which was conducted in the United States, was the Fracture Intervention Trial (FIT; $N=4,432$).²⁵⁴ The remaining seven trials had sample sizes ranging from 144 to 1,908 and consisted of four international multicenter studies^{252, 256, 259} and three U.S. studies.^{253, 268, 277} All studies were conducted in postmenopausal women. All studies reported the race and ethnicity of the study population, the majority of whom were White. Three studies included participants with prior fracture at baseline, making up 48.5 percent of participants in one study, 267 21 percent of participants in the second study, 256 and 34 to 42 percent in the third study. No participants had fractures in three studies.252-254 Two studies did not specify the proportion of participants with fractures at baseline.^{259, 268} The duration of intervention ranged from 1 to 3 years. Three trials compared daily (10 mg) or weekly (70 mg) alendronate with placebo,^{252, 259, 267} whereas the others compared a range of 1 mg to 40 mg of daily alendronate with placebo.253, 254, 256, 268, 277 In the four dose-ranging studies, the groups that received daily doses above 10 mg were switched to a lower dose or placebo during the study period.

Zoledronic Acid

We identified three fair-quality^{260, 262, 272} and two good-quality RCTs^{251, 269} (total N=3,780) examining fracture outcomes for patients receiving zoledronic acid compared with placebo and two that reported mortality.^{251, 269} Two studies were new to this update.^{269, 272} The studies included sample sizes ranging from 50 to 2,000. Four of the trials were conducted in postmenopausal women, $^{260, 262, 269, 272}$ and one included only men ages 50 to 85 years. 251 Three studies reported the race and ethnicity of participants, the majority of whom were White or European,^{251, 260, 269} and two studies did not report race or ethnicity.^{262, 272} Four of the studies reported the proportion of participants with prior fractures at baseline ranging from 14 percent to 42 percent of the total study population,^{251, 262, 269, 272} and one reported no participants with prior fractures.²⁶⁰ The intervention duration ranged from 1 to 6 years. Three studies^{251, 262, 269} compared 5-mg dosages of zoledronic acid intravenous (IV) with placebo, and two studies^{260, 272} included dosages ranging from 0.25-mg to 5-mg IV. Two studies administered zoledronic acid as a single dosage,^{262, 272} one study administered dosages at 12-month intervals,²⁵¹ and one study administered dosages at 18-month intervals.²⁶⁹ Lastly, one study administered dosages at intervals ranging from 3 months to 1 year with shorter intervals being used for lower dosages and longer intervals for higher dosages. 260

Risedronate

We identified four fair-quality RCTs (total N=10,161) examining fracture outcomes for patients receiving risedronate vs. placebo.257, 258, 261, 267 None of these studies reported mortality data. The

studies included sample sizes ranging from 111 to 9,331, with the largest being an international multicenter study.²⁵⁷ All studies were conducted in postmenopausal women, nearly all of whom were White. Two studies reported the prevalence of prior fractures at baseline as 41 percent²⁵⁷ and 48.5 percent, 267 one study reported no participants with fractures at baseline, 258 and one study did not report about this characteristic.²⁶¹ The intervention duration ranged from 3 months to 2 years. All studies compared 5 mg of daily risedronate with placebo. Some studies also compared 2.5 mg daily risedronate²⁵⁷ and a cyclic regimen of 5 mg daily for the first 2 weeks of the month followed by placebo for the rest of the month with placebo.²⁵⁸

Ibandronate

We identified four fair-quality RCTs (total $N=564$) that examined fracture or mortality outcomes for patients receiving ibandronate vs. placebo, none of which reported fracture outcomes.^{264-266,} 275 The studies included postmenopausal women with sample sizes ranging from 144 to 240. All participants in one study were White women, ²⁶⁴ and the other three studies did not report the race or ethnicity of participants. Two studies had no participants with prior fractures, ^{264, 275} and two did not report a history of prior fractures. The intervention duration ranged from 3 months to 2 years. One study compared 150 mg of monthly ibandronate to placebo 275 and one study compared a range of daily doses of ibandronate from 0.25 mg to 5.0 mg with placebo.²⁶⁴ One study compared 0.25 mg daily ibandronate and an intermittent cyclic dose of 20 mg daily for the first 24 days of every 3 months followed by 9 weeks without an active drug with placebo.²⁶⁵ Another study compared monthly doses of ibandronate ranging from 50 to 150 mg with placebo, including one arm that received 50-mg ibandronate for the first month and 100 mg for the next 2 months.²⁶⁶

Sensitivity Analyses KQ 4 Bisphosphonates

Appendix E.4 Table 1. Results From Sensitivity Analyses for KQ 4 Evaluating Various Dosages of Bisphosphonates and Methods for Pooling Data With Rare Events

Abbreviations: CI=confidence interval; FDA=U.S. Food and Drug Administration; KQ=key question; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk.

v ci lcui al III aului ca						
RR Peto OR						
Measure of Effect (95% CI, P value)	Measure of Effect (95% CI, P value)					
0.51 (0.39 to 0.66, $P=0\%$)	0.50 (0.38 to 0.66, $P=0\%$)					
0.44 (0.24 to 0.79, $P=0\%$)	N/A^*					
0.51 (0.39 to 0.66, $P=0\%$)	0.50 (0.39 to 0.65, $P=0\%$)					

Appendix E.4 Table 2. Results From Sensitivity Analyses for KQ 4 Evaluating Different Types of Vertebral Fractures

Only 1 study reported more than 0 clinical vertebral fractures in at least one study arm, therefore meta-analysis was not possible.

Abbreviations: CI=confidence interval; KQ=key question; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk.

KQ 4 Detailed Study Characteristics: Denosumab

We identified six fair-quality RCTs (total N=9,108) evaluating denosumab compared with placebo.278-280, 284-286 Two studies were new to this update.278, 286 The largest study was the phase 3 international, multicenter Fracture Reduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months (FREEDOM) trial (N=7,808).^{280-282, 303} The other four trials had sample sizes ranging from 135 to 365. One study was an international multicenter study²⁷⁸ and the rest were conducted in the United States, 284 the United States and Canada, 285 Japan, 279 or Korea. 286 Two studies reported the race and ethnicity of the study population, a majority of whom were White (86.2%, 94.2%)^{278, 284} and another was conducted exclusively among Japanese individuals.²⁷⁹ Most were conducted in postmenopausal women (mean age range, 59 to 72 years) with low bone mass or osteoporosis (mean T-score ranging from -3.0 to -1.6 at LS, TH, or FN). One study was conducted exclusively in men ages 30 to 85 years with low bone mass or osteoporosis (mean Tscore ranging from -2.0 to -1.3 at the LS, TH, FN, or trochanter.²⁷⁸ Two trials excluded women with any previous fractures.^{284, 285} The other three trials in women had between 23 percent and 50 percent of participants with a prior fracture.^{279, 280, 286} The trial conducted in men had 39.3 percent of participants with any prior fracture.²⁷⁸ Five trials evaluated subcutaneous denosumab (60 mg every 6 months against placebo and measured outcomes at 1 to 3 years followup), $278-280$, $284,285$ while one trial compared a single 60-mg intravenous dose of denosumab with placebo at 6 months followup.²⁸⁶

Sensitivity Analyses KQ 4 Denosumab

Abbreviations: CI=confidence interval; FDA=U.S. Food and Drug Administration; KQ=key question; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk.

Appendix E.4 Table 4. Results From Sensitivity Analyses for KQ 4 Evaluating Effect of Denosumab on Different Types of Vertebral Fractures

* Only one study included in this stratum.

Abbreviations: CI=confidence interval; KQ=key question; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk.

KQ 5 Detailed Study Characteristics: Bisphosphonates

Alendronate

We identified 16 RCTs (total N=11,941) reporting on harms. Three were good quality;^{254, 298, 300} the rest were fair quality. Twelve RCTs were conducted exclusively in postmenopausal women.^{252-254, 256, 259, 267, 268, 276, 294, 296, 297, 300, 302} and two RCTs were conducted in combined populations of women and men (however, women made up over 90% of the study population in these two RCTs).^{298, 299} Four RCTs included participants with prior fracture at baseline,^{256, 267, 277,} 296 and the proportion with a prior fracture ranged from 6.8 percent to 48.5 percent. Four RCTs excluded participants with prior fractures, $252-254, 300$ and eight did not specify the proportion enrolled with prior fractures.^{259, 268, 276, 294, 297-299, 302} Fourteen RCTs reported the race or ethnicity of participants and one was conducted among exclusively African American women.²⁷⁶ The other studies reporting race or ethnicity were conducted among mostly White participants.^{252-254,} 256, 259, 267, 268, 277, 294, 296-299 Two RCTs did not specify the race or ethnicity of participants.300, 302

The largest trial was the Fracture Intervention Trial (FIT, $N=4,432$).²⁵⁴ The other trials had sample sizes ranging from 144 to 1,908, seven of which were international multicenter RCTs.^{252, 256, 259, 267, 294, 298, 302} Eight RCTs, including FIT, were conducted in the United States,^{253, 254, 268, 276, 277, 297, 299, 300} and one was conducted in Canada and Colombia.²⁹⁶ All RCTs compared daily or weekly oral alendronate with placebo for durations ranging from 3 months to 3 years. Six RCTs administered doses of 10 mg daily,252, 259, 276, 294, 296, 300 four RCTs administered 70 mg weekly, $267, 297-299$ and six administered doses ranging from 1 mg to 40 mg daily.253, 254, 256, 268, 277, 302 In the dose-ranging RCTs, the groups that received daily doses above 10 mg were switched to a lower dose or placebo during the study period.254, 256, 268

Zoledronic Acid

We identified six RCTs (total N=4,361) reporting on harms,^{251, 260, 262, 269, 272, 287} two of which were new to this update.^{269, 272} Two RCTs were good quality,^{251, 269} and the rest were fair quality. Study sample sizes ranged from 50 to 2,000. Five of these RCTs were conducted in postmenopausal women,^{260, 262, 269, 272, 287} and one was conducted in men ages 50 to 85 years.²⁵¹

Four of the RCTs reported the prevalence of prior fractures at baseline, ranging from 14 percent to 42 percent of the total study population, $^{251, 262, 269, 272}$ and two excluded participants with prior fractures.^{260, 269} Three RCTs reported the race and ethnicity of participants, a majority of whom were White or European, ^{251, 260, 269} and three RCTs did not report this information. ^{262, 272, 287} The duration of the RCTs ranged from 1 to 6 years. Five RCTs compared doses of 5-mg zoledronic acid IV with placebo as either a single dose^{262, 272, 287} or with a repeat dose every $1^{251,272}$ to 1.5 years.²⁶⁹ One trial administered doses between 0.25 mg and 4 mg at intervals ranging from 3 months to 1 year with shorter intervals being used for lower doses and longer intervals for higher d oses.²⁶⁰

Risedronate

We identified five fair-quality RCTs (total N=10,372) reporting on harms.^{257, 258, 261, 267, 295} The RCTs included sample sizes ranging from 111 to 9,331, with the largest being an international multicenter study.²⁵⁷ All RCTs were conducted in postmenopausal women. Four RCTs included nearly all White participants, ^{257, 258, 261, 267} and one RCT was conducted in Japanese women.²⁹⁵ The duration of the RCTs ranged from 3 months to 2 years. All RCTs compared 5 mg of daily risedronate with placebo. Some RCTs also compared placebo with 1 mg of daily risedronate.²⁹⁵ 2.5 mg of daily risedronate, $257, 295$ or a cyclic regimen of 5 mg daily for the first 2 weeks of the month followed by placebo for the rest of the month.²⁵⁸

Ibandronate

We identified eight fair-quality RCTs (N=2,281) reporting on harms.^{264-266, 275, 288, 291-293} The RCTs included sample sizes ranging from 126 to 653, all of whom were postmenopausal women. One trial in Denmark included all White participants,²⁶⁴ and the other trials took place at various sites across North America and Europe but did not report specific race and ethnicity of their participants. The duration of the trials ranged from 3 months to 2 years. Two trials compared 150-mg oral ibandronate monthly with placebo.^{275, 288} Four trials compared oral doses ranging from 0.25 to 5 mg daily,²⁶⁴ 0.5 to 2.5 mg daily,²⁹¹ 5 to 20 mg weekly,²⁹² or 50 to 150 mg monthly with placebo.²⁶⁶ Two trials compared placebo with cyclic oral regimens including 50 mg for 1 month followed by 100 mg for 2 months²⁶⁶ and 20 mg daily for the first 24 days of every 3 months followed by 9 weeks without active treatment.²⁶⁵ One trial compared IV doses of ibandronate ranging from 0.25 to 2 mg every 3 months paired with 1,000 mg daily calcium with placebo.²⁹³

K5 Sensitivity Analyses: Bisphosphonates

Appendix E.4 Table 5. Results From Sensitivity Analyses for KQ 5 Evaluating Various Dosages of Bisphosphonates and Methods for Pooling Data With Rare Events

Abbreviations: AE=adverse event; CI=confidence interval; FDA=U.S. Food and Drug Administration; GI=gastrointestinal; KQ=key question; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk.

KQ 5 Detailed Study Characteristics: Denosumab

The studies included for KQ 5 were the same as the studies included for KQ 4. Please refer to the earlier section for a detailed description.

K5 Sensitivity Analyses: Denosumab

Appendix E.4 Table 6. Results From Sensitivity Analyses for KQ 5 Evaluating Various Dosages of Denosumab and Methods for Pooling Data With Rare Events

Abbreviations: AE=adverse event; CI=confidence interval; FDA=U.S. Food and Drug Administration; GI=gastrointestinal; KQ=key question; OR=odds ratio; RR=relative risk.

Appendix E.4 Figure 1. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Vertebral Fractures

Favors Intervention Favors Comparator

* Varied dose regimen of 5 mg/d for 2 years then 10 mg/d from 1 year for those without existing vertebral fractures and for 2 to 2.6 years for those with vertebral fractures.

† Varied dose regimen of 5 or 10 mg/d for 3 years or 20 mg/d for 2 years followed by 5 mg/d for 1 year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 1. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Vertebral Fractures

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 2. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Nonvertebral Fractures

Favors Intervention Favors Comparator

* Varied dose regimen of 5 mg/d for 2 years then 10 mg/d from 1 year for those without existing vertebral fractures and for 2 to 2.6 years for those with vertebral fractures.

† Varied dose regimen of 5 or 10 mg/d for 3 years or 20 mg/d for 2 years followed by 5 mg/d for 1 year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 2. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Nonvertebral Fractures

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FOSIT=Fosamax International Trial; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 3. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Hip Fractures

 * Varied dose regimen of 5 mg/d for 2 years then 10 mg/d from 1 year for those without existing vertebral fractures and for 2 to 2.6 years for those with vertebral fractures.

† Varied dose regimen of 5 or 10 mg/d for 3 years or 20 mg/d for 2 years followed by 5 mg/d for 1 year.

 \ddagger Data included for this analysis are a subgroup without vertebral fracture at baseline. The overall risk ratio when including the entire study population is 0.72 (95% CI, 0.58 to 0.91); Peto odds ratio is 0.71 (95% CI, 0.56 to 0.90).

Appendix E.4 Figure 3. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Hip Fractures

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FOSIT=Fosamax International Trial; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 4. Key Question 4 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Mortality

* 20 mg/2 d for the first 24 days out of every 3 months, followed by a 9-week period without active drug.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; m=month; MOPS=Monthly Oral Pilot Study; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 5. Key Question 4 Denosumab vs. Placebo Fractures

Note: RRs listed here may differ slightly from the RRs reported by study authors because of differences in statistical packages used. Vertebral fractures reported were radiographic in FREEDOM.

* RR reported by study authors was 0.60 (95% CI, 0.37 to 0.97).

† Peto odds ratio estimate, 1.00 (95% CI, 0.38 to 0.98).

‡ Peto odds ratio estimate, 1.00 (95% CI, 0.01 to 87.49).

 $\frac{8}{9}$ Peto odds ratio estimate, 0.37 (95% CI, 0.02 to 5.89).

Appendix E.4 Figure 5. Key Question 4 Denosumab vs. Placebo Fractures

Peto odds ratio estimate, 0.14 (95% CI, 0.00 to 6.62).

¶ Peto odds ratio estimate, 2.99 (95% CI, 0.57 to 15.65)

 $*$ Varied dose regimen of 6, 14, or 30 mg/3 mo or 14, 60, 100, or 210 mg/6 mo

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; FREEDOM=Fracture Reduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months; m=month; RR=relative risk; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 6. Key Question 4 Denosumab vs. Placebo Mortality

 $*$ Varied dose regimen of 6, 14, or 30 mg every 3 months or 14, 60, 100, or 210 mg every 6 months.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FREEDOM=Fracture Reduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months; m=month; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 7. Key Question 5 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Discontinuation due to Adverse Events

Appendix E.4 Figure 7. Key Question 5 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Discontinuation due to Adverse Events

* Varied dose regimen of 5 mg/d for 2 years then 10 mg/d for 1 year for those without existing vertebral fractures and for 2 to 2.6 years for those with vertebral fractures.

† Varied dose regimen of 5 or 10 mg/d for 3 years or 20 mg/d for 2 years followed by 5 mg/d for 1 year.

‡ This study included three study arms: alendronate, risedronate, and placebo. The same placebo group was used in each comparison to the active drug.

§ Varied dose regimen of 0.25, 0.5, or 1 mg every 3 months; 2 mg every 6 months; or 4 mg every year.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; d=day; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FOSIT= Fosamax International Trial; m=month; MOPS=Monthly Oral Pilot Study; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 8. Key Question 5 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Serious Adverse Events

Appendix E.4 Figure 8. Key Question 5 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Serious Adverse Events

* This study included three study arms: alendronate, risedronate, and placebo. The same placebo group was used in each comparison to the active drug.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; d=day; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FOSIT=Fosamax International Trial; m=month; MOPS=Monthly Oral Pilot Study; vs.=versus; y=year.

[†] Varied dose regimen of 0.25, 0.5, or 1 mg every 3 months; 2 mg every 6 months; 4 mg every year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 9. Key Question 5 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Gastrointestinal Adverse Events

Appendix E.4 Figure 9. Key Question 5 Bisphosphonates vs. Placebo Gastrointestinal Adverse Events

* Varied dose regimen of 5 mg/d for 2 years then 10 mg/d for 1 year for those without existing vertebral fractures and for 2 to 2.6 years for those with vertebral fractures.

† Varied dose regimen of 5 or 10 mg/d for 3 y or 20 mg/d for 2 y followed by 5 mg/d for 1 year.

‡ This study included three study arms: alendronate, risedronate, and placebo. The same placebo group was used in each comparison to the active drug.

§ Varied dose regimen of 0.25 mg, 0.5mg, 1.0 mg, or 2.0 mg every 3 months.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; d=day; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FOSIT=Fosamax International Trial; MOPS=Monthly Oral Pilot Study; vs.=versus; w=week; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 10. Key Question 5 Denosumab vs. Placebo Discontinuation due to Adverse Events

 $*$ Varied dose regimen of 6, 14, or 30 mg every 3 months or 14, 60, 100, or 210 mg every 6 months.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; m=month; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 11. Key Question 5: Denosumab vs. Placebo Serious Adverse Events

 $*$ Varied dose regimen of 6, 14, or 30 mg every 3 months or 14, 60, 100, or 210 mg every 6 months.

Abbreviations: ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; m=month; vs.=versus; y=year.

Appendix E.4 Figure 12. Key Question 5: Denosumab vs. Placebo Gastrointestinal Adverse Events

* Varied dose regimen of 6, 14, or 30 mg every 3 months or 14, 60, 100, or 210 mg every 6 months.

[†] GI AEs include constipation (Tx 5/69, Ctl 2/66) and Gastritis (Tx 3/69, Ctl 1/66).

Abbreviations: AE=adverse event; ARD=absolute risk difference; CI=confidence interval; Ctl=control; DL=DerSimonian & Laird estimator for pooling estimates; GI=gastrointestinal; m=month; Tx=treatment; vs.=versus; y=year.

F.1. Contextual Question 1

What is the evidence from modeling studies about the effectiveness of risk screening strategies that use different ages at which to start and stop screening and different screening intervals?

Contextual evidence comes from a small number of publications that have attempted to identify appropriate screening intervals based on the time in which it takes individuals to transition to osteoporosis or a certain fracture risk threshold. This range varied across studies.

A publication using healthy postmenopausal women age 65 years or older from the Study of Osteoporotic Fractures evaluated the time for 10 percent of women to develop osteoporosis across the various BMD categories;³¹⁷ it found that baseline T-score is the most important determinant of BMD testing intervals, with results suggesting that the times for 10 percent of women to develop osteoporosis are as follows: 16.8 years (95% CI, 11.5 to 24.6) for women with normal BMD (T-score, -1.00 or higher), 17.3 years (95% CI, 13.9 to 21.5) for women with mild osteopenia (T-score, -1.01 to -1.49), 4.7 years (95% CI, 4.2 to 5.2) for women with moderate osteopenia (T-score, -1.50 to -1.99), and 1.1 years (95% CI, 1.0 to 1.3) for women with advanced osteopenia (T-score, -2.00 to -2.49).³¹⁷ Within a given T-score range, the estimated time for 10 percent of women to transition from osteopenia to osteoporosis was longer for women with younger age and for those taking estrogen at baseline. For women with moderate osteopenia at baseline, the estimated BMD testing interval was 5.6 years (95% CI, 4.9 to 6.4) for women age 67 years compared with 3.2 years (95% CI, 2.6 to 3.9) for women age 85 years. Also for women with moderate osteopenia, the estimated BMD testing interval for past or never-users of estrogen was shorter, 4.3 years (95% CI, 3.9 to 4.8), than for women with current estrogen use, 6.9 years (95% CI, 5.7 to 8.4).³¹⁷

Using an absolute risk-based prognostic model with a sample of nonosteoporotic women and men older than age 60 years from the Dubbo Osteoporosis Epidemiology study, authors found that current age and BMD T-score could be used to estimate the optimal time to repeat BMD testing for both men and women.⁴⁵¹ For example, the time for women age 60 years with a normal BMD to reach a 10 percent risk of sustaining a fracture or developing osteoporosis was 8.9 years (90% CI, 6.7 to 10.6); it was 2.7 years (90% CI, 2.3 to 3.1) for women age 80 years.

A third study provided contextual evidence for identifying the time to transition to fracture (rather than osteoporosis) in younger postmenopausal women ages 50 to 64 years. 452 In a study of women from the Women's Health Initiative with a baseline BMD, investigators estimated the time for 1 percent of women to sustain a hip or clinical vertebral fracture and for 3 percent of women to sustain a MOF.⁴⁵² Women were followed for up to 11 years after the initial BMD. Similar to findings of studies estimating time to transition to osteoporosis, the study found that age and baseline T-score were associated with the estimated time for 1 percent of women to transition to fracture. For women without osteoporosis at baseline (T-score >-2.50), the estimated times for 1 percent of women to transition to hip or clinical vertebral fracture were 12.8 years (95% CI, 8 to 20.4) for ages 50 to 54 years, 11.7 years (95% CI, 6.9 to 20) for ages 55 to 59

years, and 7.6 years (95% CI, 4.8 to 12.1) for ages 60 to 64 years. For all women with osteoporosis at baseline (T-score \leq -2.50), the time interval for 1 percent of women ages 50 to 64 years to transition to hip or clinical vertebral fracture was 3.0 years (95% CI, 1.3 to 7.1). There were similar findings for MOF.

F.2. Contextual Question 5

What are the implications of using fixed-fracture risk thresholds for decisions regarding stepwise screening or treatment?

The predictive and diagnostic accuracy of risk assessment instruments are described in detail in KQs 2a and 2c of this update evidence report. The most reported accuracy outcome was AUC, which represents the average value of sensitivity and specificity over all possible values. However, for risk assessments to be usable in clinical practice to inform shared decision making about who to screen with DXA or who to treat with pharmacotherapy, risk thresholds must be established. Although many studies included for KQ 2a and KQ 2c reported AUC, fewer studies reported the sensitivity or specificity of specific risk thresholds. In considering the role of risk assessments in clinical practice, an understanding of the origin of commonly cited thresholds and advantages and disadvantages of fixed or variable risk thresholds is warranted. Nearly all articles that discussed intervention thresholds focused on FRAX because it is the most ubiquitous and widely studied risk assessment tool. Thus, this CQ will focus exclusively on the impact of using fixed-fracture risk thresholds with FRAX and challenges related to a mechanistic application of thresholds versus their use as part of shared decision making.

Origins of FRAX Fixed Threshold for Intervention

For primary fracture prevention in the United States, the Bone Health and Osteoporosis Foundation (formerly known as the National Osteoporosis Foundation [NOF]) recommends treatment for individuals with osteoporosis, prior fragility fracture, or in persons with low bone mass (i.e., formerly called osteopenia) who have a 10-year hip fracture risk of at least 3 percent or a 10-year MOF risk of at least 20 percent based on $FRAX$.⁸⁴ The hip fracture risk threshold was selected based on a U.S.-specific economic analysis of cost-effectiveness from a societal perspective sponsored by the NOF and that assumed one-step BMD screening, use of generic bisphosphonates, a relative risk reduction of 35 percent for all fracture types, and a willingnessto-pay threshold of $$60,000$ per quality-adjusted life-year gained.^{80, 85} The MOF threshold was derived from the hip fracture threshold through a complex transformation.⁸⁸ These thresholds (3% hip, 20% MOF) are pervasively cited in the literature and have formed the basis of intervention thresholds used in many countries other than the United States but have never been evaluated in trials. Some countries have used a similar methodology to derive their own countryspecific intervention thresholds for considering treatment. Such studies have factored in reimbursement considerations, access to DXA, local health economic assessments, and willingness to pay for osteoporosis-related care.⁸⁸ Thus, intervention thresholds that are often recommended for use in clinical practice are based on a variety of factors beyond clinical benefit or harms, including economic considerations.

Appendix F. Contextual Questions 1, 5, 6, and 7

The prevalence of estimated FRAX risks above the 3 percent hip/20 percent MOF risks based on 2013–2014 U.S. NHANES data are summarized in **Table F.2-1**. ⁴⁵³ Across all adults age 50 years or older, 81 percent will have estimated fracture risks below these thresholds for both fracture types, 8 percent will have an estimated risk above both the hip fracture and MOF thresholds, 11 percent will have an estimated hip risk above the threshold alone, and less than 1 percent will have an estimated MOF risk above the threshold alone.⁴⁵³ If these prevalences are applied to the entire U.S. population based on 2020 Census data, the absolute number of persons with estimated fracture risk at or above these thresholds can be estimated (**Table F.2-1**). If a lower risk threshold is used, more people would be above the threshold, and even small changes have the potential to affect a large absolute number of persons.⁴⁵⁴ Similarly, the use of a higher threshold (such as what might result from an increase in the price of medications or willingnessto-pay assumption) would result in fewer persons above the threshold.

As the use of fracture risk assessments has become more common, experts continue to emphasize that decisions about treatment should not be based solely on fracture risk and that clinical judgment and shared decision making should continue to play a key role in decision making.^{20, 80} An overlay mechanistic application of thresholds can lead to clinically illogical scenarios, for example, offering treatment to someone just above the threshold but not to someone with the same clinical risks who might fall just below the threshold because they are a few years younger. Further, the sensitivity of the currently established thresholds to the price of medication may be of concern for implementing fixed thresholds for individual clinical decision making. Although much has been published on establishing treatment thresholds, relatively less has been published concerning thresholds for screening with DXA.

Characteristics	Proportion With 10-Year Hip Fracture Risk 3% or Higher	Number of Persons	Proportion With 10- Year MOF Risk 20% or Higher	Number of Persons
All persons	22.6%*	26,088,315	9.6% *	11,081,762
Men	16.6%*	8.948.369	2.3% *	1,239,834
Women	27.4%*	16,858,997	15.5%*	9.537.024
Ages 50 to 59	6.7%	2,864,685	2.9%	1,239,938
Ages 60 to 69	11.3%	4.250.776	6.4%	2,407,519
Ages 70 to 79	38.6%	8.630.918	16.1%	3,599,943
Age 80 or older	71.6%	9.094.026	27.4%	3.480.116
Non-Hispanic White	25.5%*	20.970.366	11.6%*	9,539,461
Non-Hispanic Black	4.8%*	589.696	Unstable estimate	NA
Hispanic	10.7% *	1,530,225	1.8% *	257,421
Non-Hispanic Asian	16.0% *	991.740	Unstable estimate	NA.

Table F.2-1. Prevalence of High Fracture Risk Among Adults Age 50 or Older Based on NHANES Data (NHANES, 2013–2014)⁴⁵³ Extrapolated to the Size of the U.S. Population Based on 2020 Census Data⁴⁵⁵

* Age-adjusted estimate.

Note: We calculated the number of persons by multiplying the number of persons in the age/sex/race category by the proportion with a 10-year FRAX fracture risk equal to or more than the 3% (hip) or 20% (MOF) risk. The number of persons represent the ceiling of potential persons who would be candidates for screening or treatment as some will not be eligible for various clinical or other reasons.

Abbreviations: MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; NA=not available; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; U.S.=United States.

Types of Intervention Thresholds

The intervention threshold described in the previous section is considered a fixed threshold because it is applied to men and women irrespective of age. Fixed thresholds are the easiest to implement in clinical practice. However, if one considers that persons with prior fragility fracture should be treated (regardless of BMD), then a fixed threshold creates a problem for younger persons (i.e., women younger than age 65 years and men younger than age 70 years), who will seldom have a risk above established thresholds even with a prior fracture. Yet, lowering established thresholds means a sizable proportion of the population would suddenly become eligible, and nearly all persons at older ages would be eligible. Further, because hip fracture incidence in the United States is lower in most non-White racial and ethnic groups, predicted fracture risk estimates for persons in non-White racial and ethnic groups will always be lower than risk estimates for White persons of the same age, sex, weight, BMD, and clinical risks used in the FRAX model.⁸⁰ **Figure F.2-1** illustrates the predicted FRAX 10-year hip fracture risk (without BMD input) for women with BMI of 25 kg/m^2 without any clinical risk factors for women across ages 50 to 90 years. Estimates at the oldest ages decline because of competing mortality. The pattern is similar for men except that the steep increase in predicted fracture starts a decade later in men compared with women. White women cross the hip fracture risk intervention threshold of 3 percent just after age 70 years, while Black women do not cross for 6 to 7 years later. A systematic review published in 2016 reported 82 guidelines recommending the use of FRAX; 58 recommended fixed thresholds and 24 recommended age-dependent thresholds.⁸⁸ In almost all cases, these guidelines were recommending thresholds for treatment intervention, and the role of these thresholds for informing decisions about DXA testing varied across guidelines.

Age-specific thresholds vary the threshold for intervention by age. The most common way this is done is by setting the intervention threshold at the risk equivalent of a person of the same age with a prior fracture. The rationale for this approach is that if a person at a certain age with prior fracture is eligible for treatment, then a person without fracture but at the same risk (presumably because of other risk factors) should also be eligible for treatment. Under this model, the intervention thresholds are generally lower at younger ages and increase with age, but then plateau or even decrease to account for competing mortality at the oldest of ages.⁸⁸ This allows for younger persons at elevated relative risk to be identified without having to lower the threshold for all ages, which would result in most older persons being above the threshold. Agedependent thresholds are more complicated to implement in practice but may be better at efficiently identifying the persons at highest risk. 88 Age-dependent thresholds also have the advantage of not being dependent on cost-effectiveness findings, which become outdated as costs of drugs or willingness-to-pay thresholds change.²⁰ However, some have suggested that the use of a threshold equivalent to someone with a prior fracture sets the risk threshold too high, and empiric evaluations of this approach suggests it misses many persons who end up having fractures who may have benefited from treatment.⁴⁵⁶ Further, in one application of agedependent thresholds in the United Kingdom, analyses suggested the creation of a disparity in access to treatment for some women age 70 years or older without prior fracture, as these women had higher estimated fracture risks than women of same age with a prior fracture, yet were not getting offered treatment.^{454, 457} As a result, hybrid thresholds were implemented that included age-dependent thresholds through age 70 years and then applied fixed thresholds after age 70 years.⁸⁸

Figure F.2-1. Ten-Year Hip Fracture Risk According to the Fracture Risk Assessment Tool (FRAX) for Women Ages 50 to 90 Years

Note: Fracture risk based on woman with BMI of 25.0 (height 64 in, weight 141 lb) and no other clinical risks. The horizontal dashed line at 3% percent 10-year hip fracture risk represents a common threshold for treatment intervention promoted in the United States.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; FRAX= Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; U.S.=United States.

The U.K. National Osteoporosis Guideline Group recommends a hybrid-threshold and direct treatment (without BMD testing) for those above the threshold considered high risk and reassurance and no BMD testing for those below the threshold considered low risk.^{457, 458} In this approach, BMD measurement is reserved for those considered at intermediate risk based on initial fracture risk assessment. The fracture risk is then recomputed with BMD, and the patient is reclassified as high risk or low risk. At least one study has demonstrated that the use of a fixed threshold in the oldest age groups reduced the need for BMD in older age groups compared with

an age-dependent threshold.⁴⁵⁷ Opponents of an approach that recommends direct treatment for high fracture risk cited the lack of trial evidence in persons without BMD testing.²⁰ Proponents argued that because many (if not the majority of) fragility fractures occur in community-dwelling people with T-scores greater than -2.5, requiring a BMD assessment in the osteoporosis range for treatment is not useful.²⁰ Post hoc analyses of some treatment trials demonstrated no treatment heterogeneity based on baseline BMD level, and larger fracture reductions in persons at higher baseline FRAX risk compared with lower baseline risk seemed to support this position.⁴⁵⁴ Proponents also suggested this approach may be most useful in low-resource settings where DXA resources are limited.⁴⁵⁴

F.3 Contextual Question 6

What is the evidence for rare harms of bisphosphonate treatment (i.e., osteonecrosis of the jaw, atypical femur fractures) from observational studies that use noneligible control groups or are uncontrolled?

Summary

In addition to studies eligible for inclusion in the SR portion of this update (KQ 5: Harms of Treatment), we sought recent seminal reviews and reports supplemented with new observational studies with large sample sizes $(≥1,000)$ to address this CQ. The studies we identified for this CQ consistently suggest increased risk of atypical femur fractures (AFF) or osteonecrosis of the jaw (ONJ) with bisphosphonate (BP) use and increases in risk with longer duration of therapy, though risk estimates vary widely given differences in comparator arms, definitions and method of outcome ascertainment, and followup duration. In addition, estimates related to long-term use may be subject to confounding by indication as longer-term users may also have lower initial BMD or elevated fracture risk factors. However, the absolute risk of these outcomes is rare.⁴⁵⁹ Risk for these harms typically declined with cessation of BP treatment. Few studies included for this CQ reported on BPs other than alendronate. Studies frequently also considered BPs as a class in analyses. Studies typically included primarily postmenopausal women.

Detailed Findings

Atypical Femur Fracture

Definition. The American Society for Bone Mineral Research revised its definition of AFF in 2013 to include fractures located along the femoral diaphysis from just distal to the lesser trochanter to just proximal to the supracondylar flare, with four of five major features present. Major features include:

- Fracture associated with minimal or no trauma
- Fracture line originating at lateral cortex with substantially transverse orientation
- Complete fractures extend through both cortices, incomplete involve only lateral cortex
- Noncomminuted or minimally comminuted fractures
- Localized periosteal or endosteal thickening of the lateral cortex at fracture site.⁴⁵⁹

The definition also outlines minor features (increased cortical thickness of the femoral diaphysis, prodromal groin or thigh pain, bilateral incomplete or complete femoral diaphysis fractures, delayed fracture healing) that are not required to be present but have been associated with AFF.

Evidence From Systematic Reviews and Seminal Reports

Bisphosphonates. ASBMR reports noted variable risk ratios (RRs) for AFF but consistently low absolute risk (3.2 to 50 cases/100,000 person-years [**Appendix F.3 Table 1**]).459, 460 Risk increased with prolonged BP use $(>= 3$ years) and declined with discontinuation. While the optimal duration of use is not clear and likely varies based on patient risk factors, ASBMR suggests that for up to 5 years of BP use among 100,000 users, 175 hip fractures, 1,470 vertebral fractures, and 945 wrist fractures would be averted (2,590 total) and 16 AFFs would occur, for a total of 162 fractures of the spine, hip, or forearm prevented per AFF caused.⁴⁶⁰ It should be noted that AFF also occurs in individuals who did not receive antiresorptive therapies.⁴⁶⁰

Three $SRs^{461-463}$ reported consistently increased risk of AFF with BP use, though the magnitude of risk varied by agent and study design (**Appendix F.3 Table 1**). Absolute numbers of AFF cases, when reported, varied from 0 to 412 in populations ranging from 2,000 to over 2 million. One review of SRs reported an adjusted odds ratio (OR) for AFF of 1.99 to 2.08 in studies of BP users vs. control or no exposure and RR estimates ranging from 1.52 to 11.12 depending on the type of studies (RCTs, observational studies) included and the duration of use (variably defined α as >1 year to >6 years).⁴⁶¹ Strength of evidence reported for these findings in this SR ranged from very low to moderate. Overlap among the studies included in these SRs was not described, and the authors reported variable methodologic quality (median 7.5 rating on 11-point AMSTAR scale). 461

A second SR examined fracture risk with long-term use of BPs in postmenopausal women with at least 12 months of exposure and similarly reported higher AF risk in women taking alendronate vs. placebo.⁴⁶² Observational studies included in this SR reported increased risk of AFF with longer treatment duration. In one Kaiser Permanente cohort, the incidence rate of AFF after 2 years of BP exposure was 2 per 100,000 person-years and 78 per 100,000 person-years after 8 years.

A third SR assessed long-term (>3 years) use of BPs and reported wide-ranging risk estimates for AFF depending on study design: in an RCT and observational studies of alendronate vs. placebo or no treatment, HRs for AFF (with or without radiologic confirmation) ranged from 1.03 to 2.90, while in observational studies of BPs vs. no BPs, ORs ranged from 9.46 to 116.⁴⁶³ Overall, this SR reported increased AFF risk with BP use with low strength of evidence.

Appendix F.3 Table 1. Reviews and Seminal Reports Addressing Atypical Femoral Fracture and Bisphosphonate Use

Appendix F. Contextual Questions 1, 5, 6, and 7

 \degree One FIT publication (Cummings et al, 1998²⁵⁴) included to address KQs.

[†] RCT included to address KQ—Reid et al, 2018.²⁶⁹

Abbreviations: AFF**=**atypical femoral fracture; aIR**=**adjusted incidence rate; aOR**=**adjusted odds ratio; AR=absolute risk; aRR**=**adjusted risk ratio; ARR**=**absolute risk reduction; ASBMR**=**American Society for Bone and Mineral Research; BP**=**bisphosphonates; CI**=**confidence interval; FIT=Fracture Intervention Trial; FLEX=Fracture Intervention Trial Long-term Extension; GRADE**=**Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluation; HR**=**hazard ratio; IR**=**incidence rate; KQ=key question; N=number; NA**=**not applicable; NR**=**not reported; obs**=**observational; OP**=**osteoporosis; OR**=**odds ratio; RCT**=**randomized, controlled trial; RR=risk ratio; SOE**=**strength of the evidence; SR**=**systematic review; ST/FS**=**subtrochanteric and femoral shaft; vs.=versus.

Evidence From Observational and Long-Term Extension Studies

Bisphosphonates. Recent observational studies from the Republic of Korea $(k=1)$ and the United States (k=2) included primarily postmenopausal women and reported cases of AFF ranging from 46 to 113 in populations ranging from 6,000 to more than 94,000 individuals receiving BPs (**Appendix F.3 Table 2**).464-466 Two studies included radiographic evaluation of fractures using blinded or dual assessment and used 2013 ASBMR criteria for AFF. Duration of BP use ranged from less than 1 year to 10 years.

The study conducted in the Republic of Korea reported that the incidence of AFF increased with duration of use from 31.2 per 100,000 person-years for short-term users to 67.1 per 100,000 person-years in long-term users $(p< 0.001)$.⁴⁶⁴ The two studies conducted in the United States reported a similarly increased incidence of AF with duration of use.465, 466 In these two studies reporting on an overlapping cohort of more than 80,000 Kaiser Permanente health plan users, for postmenopausal women incidence increased from 9 per 100,000 person-years with between 2 and 4 years of BP exposure to 112 per 100,000 person-years with 8 or more years of BP exposure in one of the studies.⁴⁶⁵ In the second study from the United States, the adjusted cumulative AFF incidence in short-term (<3 years) BP users was 27 per 100,000 patient-years compared with 363 per 100,000 person-years in long-term (\geq 3 years) users.⁴⁶⁶

Denosumab. Few AFF were reported with denosumab use in studies reviewed for this CQ. In the multinational FREEDOM RCT and long-term extension (up to 7 years of denosumab after the 3-year RCT), 2 AFF occurred (0.8 per 10,000 participant-years): one in a participant receiving 7 years of denosumab and one in a crossover participant who had received denosumab for 3 years. 467

Appendix F.3 Table 2. Recent Observational Studies Addressing Atypical Femoral Fracture and Bisphosphonate Use

Appendix F. Contextual Questions 1, 5, 6, and 7

* Lo et al (2020) and Lo et al (2019) included an overlapping population of women from the Kaiser Permanente Northern California System.

Abbreviations: AFF**=**atypical femoral fracture; aHR=adjusted hazard ratio; ASBMR=American Society for Bone and Mineral Research; BP**=**bisphosphonates; CI**=**confidence interval; ICD=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems; IR**=**incidence rate; IV**=**intravenous; n=number; NNH=number needed to harm; RCT**=**randomized, controlled trial; SD**=**standard deviation; vs.=versus.

Osteonecrosis of the Jaw

Definition. ONJ nomenclature has changed over time to reflect the agents with which ONJ has been associated (e.g., BPs, denosumab, tyrosine kinase inhibitors), which may complicate understanding of risk and incidence. In 2014, the American Association of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgeons (AAOMS) revised characteristics used to define medication-related $ONJ⁴⁶⁸$:

- Current or previous treatment with antiresorptive or antiangiogenic agents, and
- Exposed bone or bone in the maxillofacial region for longer than 8 weeks, and
- No history of radiation therapy to or obvious metastatic disease of the jaws.

ONJ pathogenesis is likely related to multiple factors including infection, immune system dysfunction, tooth extraction, smoking, poor oral hygiene, and use of antiresorptive or antiangiogenic medications.460, 468, 469

Evidence From Systematic Reviews and Seminal Reports

Bisphosphonates. An ASBMR report noted that the incidence of ONJ is rare: approximately 1 case per 10,000 to 100,000 person-years, with a largely self-limiting clinical course in patients with osteoporosis treated with BPs (Appendix F.3 Table 3).⁴⁶⁰ Three SRs addressed the association between ONJ and BP use. $^{46\overline{1}, 463, 469}$ One SR conducted for the European Calcified Tissue Society noted incidence estimates in individuals using BPs ranging from 0.01 percent to 0.06 percent, with higher incidence among persons in Asian countries.⁴⁶⁹ A review of SRs reported increased risk of ONJ with BPs vs. control in observational studies (ORs ranging from 2.57 to 3.29, low strength of evidence).⁴⁶¹ Another SR similarly reported increased risk for ONJ (with and without radiographic review) with alendronate vs. no treatment or raloxifene (HRs from 0.86 to 7.42); the review authors recalculated the reported HR estimate of 0.86 because incidence rates suggested a higher risk of ONJ. The recalculated estimate was 1.20 (95% CI, 0.59 to 2.56). 463

Denosumab. One SR noted incidence of ONJ with denosumab use; the review cited the FREEDOM RCT and extension study which is discussed in the next section.⁴⁶⁹ This review also cited a postmarketing study that reported 47 adjudicated cases of ONJ in 1,960,405 patient-years of denosumab exposure; all patients had risk factors for ONJ development.⁴⁶⁹

Appendix F.3 Table 3. Recent Reviews and Seminal Reports Addressing Osteonecrosis of the Jaw and Bisphosphonate or Denosumab Use

Abbreviations: ASBMR=American Society for Bone and Mineral Research; BP**=**bisphosphonates; CI=confidence interval; ECTS**=**European Calcified Tissue Society; GRADE**=**Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluation; HR**=**hazard ratio; IV**=**intravenous; N=number; NA=not applicable; NR=not reported; obs**=**observational; ONJ**=**osteonecrosis of the jaw; OP=osteoporosis; OR**=**odds ratio; RCT**=**randomized, controlled trial; SOE**=**strength of the evidence; SR**=**systematic review; vs.=versus.

Evidence from Observational and Long-Term Extension Studies

Bisphosphonates or Denosumab. As noted in **Appendix F.3 Table 4**, 13 cases of ONJ occurred in the FREEDOM RCT and open-label extension: seven in participants who received denosumab in the RCT and extension and six in participants who received placebo in the RCT and crossed over to denosumab $(5.2 \text{ cases per } 10,000 \text{ participants-years})$.⁴⁶⁷ Other recent observational studies also addressed the association between ONJ and use of BPs or denosumab or denosumab alone. One study conducted in Switzerland reported a rate of ONJ cases of 4.5 per 10,000 BP users and 28.3 per 10,000 denosumab users, all of whom had been previously treated with BPs.⁴⁷⁰ A 3-year Japanese postmarketing study reported 15 ONJ cases in 3,534 patients; six of these met AAOMS criteria for an incidence rate of 76.2 per 100,000 person-years.⁴⁷¹

Abbreviations: AAOMS**=**American Association of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgeons; BP**=**bisphosphonates; CI**=**confidence interval; DXA**=**dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry; HR**=**hazard ratio; IR**=**incidence rate; IV**=**intravenous; ONJ**=**osteonecrosis of the jaw; OP**=**osteoporosis; RCT**=**randomized, controlled trial; SD**=**standard deviation; vs.=versus.

F.4. Contextual Question 7

What is the evidence for rebound fractures after discontinuation of denosumab?

Summary

We identified recent (within the last 5 years) reviews and observational studies to address this CQ. We also included data from the seminal FREEDOM RCT extension analysis. Overall, studies included relatively few participants, and some included mixed populations of persons receiving denosumab for osteoporosis or for cancer-related bone problems. No consensus definition for "rebound fracture" currently exists. Study followup periods varied and typically did not exceed 24 months post-treatment cessation, while what authors classified as rebound fractures occurred from roughly 2 months' to 16 months' post-cessation. Analyses primarily from FREEDOM suggest that the risk of multiple vertebral fractures is increased relatively soon after treatment discontinuation and may be higher in persons with prior fractures.

In studies in which participants had a delay in denosumab dosing, higher fracture risk was similarly estimated to occur with a delay of as little as 4 months. A limitation across studies reporting on rebound fractures is that they were not designed to evaluate causality or estimate potential net benefits to denosumab over the long run, despite the occurrence of rebound fractures after treatment discontinuation.

Detailed Findings

Definition. Bone loss may rebound to levels experienced pretreatment when patients discontinue denosumab.⁴⁷² Rebound fractures, typically vertebral fractures, have been described as fractures that occur shortly after cessation of denosumab therapy; however, the timing of fracture occurrence is variable and no consensus definition exists. In the FREEDOM trial of denosumab, fracture assessment occurred in patients who received two to five doses of denosumab or placebo and continued study participation for at least 7 months after the study ended for a maximum of 24 months followup (mean 0.8 years/patient).^{473, 474} Followup periods post-treatment cessation in other studies have generally not exceeded 20 months.

Association Between Rebound Fractures and Denosumab Discontinuation

The FREEDOM RCT and extension study^{473, 474} assessed the incidence and risk factors for rebound fractures after denosumab use (**Appendix F.4 Table 1**). In a post hoc analysis including participants in both the RCT and extension study and analyzing vertebral fractures specifically, more denosumab discontinuers had multiple vertebral fractures vs. placebo discontinuers (60.7% vs. 38.7%) with rates of 4.2 per 100 in denosumab discontinuers and 3.2 per 100 in placebo discontinuers.⁴⁷⁴

Across two observational studies reporting time to fracture, months to fracture ranged from 1.8 to 16 after the last denosumab dose; $440,441$ in a third cross-sectional study, fractures occurred a

median 12 months (mean 13 months) after the last injection⁴⁴² (**Appendix F.4 Table 1**). One dose-ranging study reported 17 fractures in eight participants: four women had multiple vertebral fractures, three had single vertebral fractures, and one had a radius fracture.⁴⁷⁵ Additionally, in two studies, both including persons with cancer and persons with osteoporosis, more than 50 percent of patients had multiple vertebral fractures post-discontinuation.^{476, 477}

In the FREEDOM RCT and extension study, risk factors for rebound fracture included prevalent vertebral fractures, greater gains and losses in hip BMD on therapy and after therapy, and longer duration off therapy. In this study, prior fracture was the strongest predictor of post-treatment fracture (OR 3.9 [95% CI, 2.1 to 7.2]).⁴⁷⁴ In addition, the association between duration of denosumab therapy and rebound fracture was not clear. In one observational study, the number of injections was not significantly associated with rebound facture, 477 while in another, women taking denosumab for 2 or more years had more fractures than those taking denosumab for less than 2 years.⁴⁷⁶ Both of these studies, however, included participants with cancer and osteoporosis.

Association Between Rebound Fractures and Delays in Denosumab Dosing

Recent studies have also evaluated the association between rebound fractures and delay in denosumab treatment (**Appendix F.4 Table 2**).478, 479 A typical dosing schedule is every 6 months. Several studies evaluated delays ranging from 1 month to 4 months.⁴⁷⁸ In one study, higher vertebral (but not other fractures) fracture rates were estimated with a delay in denosumab therapy of more than 16 weeks vs. treatment within 4 weeks of the last denosumab dose, 478 and fracture incidence rates were significantly increased in patients with a delay of at least 3 months vs. persistent users in a second study.⁴⁷⁹

Abbreviations: BP**=**bisphosphonates; CI=confidence interval; FREEDOM=Fracture REduction Evaluation of Denosumab in Osteoporosis Every 6 Months; HR**=**hazard ratio; IQR=interquartile ratio; n/N**=**number; NR**=**not reported; OP**=**osteoporosis; OR=odds ratio; RCT**=**randomized, controlled trial; SD=standard deviation; SEM**=**standard error of the mean; vs.=versus.

Author, Year			
Country	Population (Mean	Denosumab Use and	
Study Design	Age)	Discontinuation	Key Findings
Lyu et al, 2020 ⁴⁷⁸	2,594 patients	6,144 injections, Treatment delay	Fracture risk within 4 weeks of prior denosumab injection: composite fracture
U.K.	initiating denosumab	defined as within 4 weeks of prior	27.3 per 1,000 persons; MOF 14.7 per 1,000 persons; vertebral fracture 2.2
Cohort study	for OP; mean age	injection, 4-16 weeks delay, >16	per 1,000 persons
	75.8 (SD 9.5)	weeks delay	Fracture risk with delay of 4 to 16 weeks to next denosumab injection:
			composite fracture 32.2 per 1,000 persons; MOF 18.1 per 1,000 persons;
			vertebral 3.6 per 1,000 persons
			Fracture risk with >16 weeks delay in denosumab injection: composite fracture
			42.4 per 1,000 persons; MOF 27.2 per 1,000 persons; vertebral 10.1 per 1,000
			persons
			aHR for fracture between dosing within 4 weeks and delay of 4-16 weeks or
			>16 weeks were elevated but not significant except for vertebral fractures; aHR
			for vertebral fracture with delay of >16 weeks vs. within 4 weeks 3.91 (95% CI,
			1.62 to 9.45)
Tripto-Shkolnik et al,	1,500 patients	Patients were included if they had	54 of 1,500 patients had any MOF post-denosumab discontinuation (21 with
2020479	discontinuing	at least 2 denosumab purchases;	any vertebral, 12 with multiple vertebral, 13 with hip, 22 with non-hip,
Israel	denosumab	treatment discontinuation defined	nonvertebral fractures); incidence rate for any fracture 5.1 per 100 person-
Cohort study	treatment; mean age	as refill gap of ≥3 months	years (95% CI, 3.94 to 6.62)
	72.4 (SD 9.6) at first		Fracture incidence rate per 100 person-years in discontinuers with prior
	denosumab	Post-discontinuation fractures	vertebral fracture 6.81 (95% CI, 4.0 to 11.3)
	purchase	defined as occurring within 1 year	Higher rates of MOF, vertebral fractures, multiple vertebral fractures, hip
		of discontinuation	fractures in discontinuers vs. persistent users: IRRs ranging from 2.23 to
			14.63, all p≤0.005
			Unadjusted HR for fracture within 1 year in discontinuers vs. persistent users
			was 2.5 (95% CI, 1.3 to 4.7, p=0.003) in patients with 2 denosumab purchases
			and 3.18 (95% CI, 1.6 to 6.5, p<0.001) in patient with 3 purchases; HRs not
			significant in those with 4 or 5 purchases

Appendix F.4 Table 2. Observational Studies Assessing Fracture After Delays in Denosumab Treatment

Abbreviations: aHR**=**adjusted hazard ratio; CI**=**confidence interval; HR**=**hazard ratio; IRR=incidence rate ratio; MOF**=**major osteoporotic fracture; OP**=**osteoporosis; SD**=**standard deviation; U.K.**=**United Kingdom; vs.=versus.

Appendix G. Risk of Bias in Development Cohorts of Fracture Risk Assessment Instruments for Key Question 2a

The tables included in this section offer risk-of-bias assessments for the development studies and cohorts for five of the six instruments included in addressing the KQ on the predictive accuracy of risk assessment instruments (KQ 2a).

- Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC)
- Fracture Risk Assessment Tool (FRAX)
- Fracture Risk Evaluation Model (FREM)
- Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator
- QFracture
- Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model

Risk of bias was assessed using a modified version of the Prediction model study Risk Of Bias Assessment Tool (PROBAST^{111, 112}). This instrument was modified to include additional health equity signaling items. These items as denoted with an "a" after the signaling item in the tables that follow.

The seventh risk assessment instrument included for KQ 2a (Osteoporosis Self-Assessment Tool, OST) was not developed as a fracture risk prediction instrument; therefore, we cannot assess the risk of bias of the development study or cohort for predicting fractures.

Appendix G Table 1. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Step 1 and 2 Specification of Review Questions

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator.

Appendix G Table 2. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 1 Participants

Appendix G Table 2. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 1 Participants *Applicability*

Abbreviations: CaMOS=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; Dev=development; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; ICD-9=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 9th Edition; ICD=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems; NA=not available; NI=no information; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; Val=validation.

Appendix G Table 3. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 2 Predictors

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; Dev=development; NA=not available; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; Val=validation.

Appendix G Table 4. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Appendix G Table 4. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Abbreviations: Dev=development; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; ICD-9=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 9th Edition; N=no; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 5. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Appendix G Table 5. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Appendix G Table 5. Fracture Risk Calculator (FRC) Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; CaMOS=Canadian Multicentre Osteoporosis Study; Dev=development; FRC=Fracture Risk Calculator; HR=hazard ratio; N=no; NA=not available; NR=not reported; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; RR=relative risk; SD=standard deviation; SOF=Study of Osteoporotic Fractures; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 6. Fracture Risk Assessment Tool (FRAX) Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Step 1 and 2

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; U.K.=United Kingdom.

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; CDC=Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; Dev=development; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; HCUP=Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project; ICD-9=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 9th Edition; MN=Minnesota; N=no; NI=no information; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; U.S.=United States; Val=validation; WHO=World Health Organization.

Abbreviations: BIPOC=Black, Indigenous, and People of Color; BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; Dev=development; N=no; NHANES=National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; NI=no information ; PY=probably yes; U.S.=United States; Val=validation; WHO=World Health Organization; Y=yes.

Dev=development; DOES=Dubbo Osteoporosis Epidemiology Study; ER=emergency room; FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; HCUP=Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project; ICD=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems; ICD-9=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 9th Edition; MN=Minnesota; N=no; NI=no information ; OFELY=Os des Femmes de Lyon; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; U.S.=United States; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BIPOC=Black, Indigenous, and People of Color; BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; Dev=development; N=no; NA=not available; NI=no information; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; RA=rheumatoid arthritis; U.S.=United States; Val=validation; WHI=Women's Health Initiative; WHO=World Health Organization; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 11. Fracture Risk Evaluation Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Step 1 and 2

Abbreviations: ICD-10=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Edition; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture.

Appendix G Table 12. Fracture Risk Evaluation Model Development Cohort Assessment from Prediction From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 1 Participants

Abbreviations: ICD-10=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Edition; NA=not applicable; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 13. Fracture Risk Evaluation Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 2 Predictors

Abbreviations: ICD-10=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Edition; NA=not applicable.
Appendix G Table 14. Fracture Risk Evaluation Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Abbreviations: ICD-10=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Edition; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N=no; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 15. Fracture Risk Evaluation Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Appendix G Table 15. Fracture Risk Evaluation Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; ICD-10=International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Edition; MOF=major osteoporotic fracture; N=no; NA=not available; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; OC=receiver-operating characteristic; U Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 16. Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Step 1 and 2 Specification of Review Question

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density.

Appendix G Table 17. Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 1 Participants

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; Dev=development; DOES=Dubbo Osteoporosis Epidemiology Study; N=no; NA=not available; PY=probably yes; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; Val=validation.

Appendix G Table 18. Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 2 Predictors

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMD=bone mineral density; Dev=development; DXA=dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry; NA=not available; PY=probably yes; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 19. Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; Dev=development; DOES=Dubbo Osteoporosis Epidemiology Study; N=no; NA=not available; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 20. Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Appendix G Table 20. Garvan Fracture Risk Calculator Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; BMI=body mass index; CI=confidence interval; Dev=development;

FNBMD=femoral neck bone mineral density; HR=hazard ratio; N=no; NA= not available; NI= no information; NR=not reported; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 21. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Steps 1 and 2 Specification of Review Question

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density.

Appendix G Table 22. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 1 Participants

Abbreviations: BMI=body mass index; Dev=development; N=no; PY=probably yes; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; U.K.=United Kingdom; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 23. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 2 Predictors

Appendix G Table 23. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 2 Predictors

Abbreviations: BMI=body mass index; COPD=chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; Dev=development; HR=hazard ratio; HRT= hormone replacement therapy; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; RA=rheumatoid arthritis; SLE=systemic lupus erythematosus; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 24. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Appendix G Table 24. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Abbreviations: Dev=development; ER=emergency room; GP=general practitioner; N=no; NI=no information ; NR=not reported; PY=probably yes Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 25. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Appendix G Table 25. QFracture Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMI=body mass index; Dev=development; HR=hazard ratio; N=no; NICE=National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; RF=risk factor; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 26. Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Step 1 and 2 Specification of Review Question

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density.

Appendix G Table 27. Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 1 Participants

Abbreviations: BMD=bone mineral density; Dev=development; DXA=dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry; N=no; NA=not available; NR=not reported; PY=probably yes; RCT=randomized, controlled trial; ROC=receiver operator characteristic; Val=validation.

Appendix G Table 28. Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 2 Predictors

Abbreviations: Dev=development; N=no; NA=not applicable; PY=probably yes; Val=validation.

Appendix G Table 29. Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 3 Outcome

Abbreviations: Dev=development; N=no; NA=not applicable; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; SD=standard deviation; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix G Table 30. Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Appendix G Table 30. Women's Health Initiative Fracture Risk Model Development Cohort Assessment From Prediction Model Study Risk-of-Bias Assessment Tool—Domain 4 Analysis

Abbreviations: AUC=area under the curve; BMI=body mass index; CI=confidence interval; Dev=development;

MET=metabolic equivalents; n=number; N=no; NA= not available; NI=no information; NR=not reported; PN=probably no; PY=probably yes; ROC=receiver operator characteristic; WHI=Women's Health Initiative; Val=validation; Y=yes.

Appendix H. Ongoing Studies

Abbreviations: FRAX=Fracture Risk Assessment Tool; KQ=key question; NCT=National Clinical Trial.