

Bone Fragility Beyond Density: Insights into Bone Quality Determinants

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ABOVE THE STUDY

For decades, Bone Mineral Density (BMD) has served as the primary clinical metric for assessing fracture risk and diagnosing osteoporosis. While BMD provides valuable information about bone mass, it does not fully capture the complexity of skeletal strength. A growing body of evidence indicates that many fractures occur in individuals with only moderately reduced or even normal BMD. In my view, this disconnect underscores the importance of shifting our focus toward “bone quality,” a multifaceted concept encompassing structural, material, and biological properties that collectively determine bone fragility.

Bone quality refers to characteristics such as microarchitecture, collagen integrity, mineralization, turnover rate, and the presence of microdamage. Trabecular connectivity and cortical thickness, for example, play crucial roles in distributing mechanical loads. Even with adequate BMD, compromised microarchitecture can significantly weaken bone and increase susceptibility to fractures. Advanced imaging techniques, including High-Resolution Peripheral Quantitative Computed Tomography (HR-pQCT), have revealed that deterioration in trabecular structure and cortical porosity are strong predictors of fracture risk, independent of BMD.

At the material level, the composition and organization of the bone matrix are equally important. Collagen, the primary organic component of bone, provides flexibility and resistance to fracture. Alterations in collagen cross-linking particularly the accumulation of non-enzymatic cross-links such as Advanced Glycation End products (AGEs) can make bone more brittle. This is especially relevant in conditions like diabetes, where elevated glucose levels accelerate AGE formation and compromise bone quality without necessarily affecting BMD. In my opinion, these molecular changes represent a hidden dimension of bone fragility that is often overlooked in clinical practice.

Mineralization patterns also contribute to bone quality. The degree and uniformity of mineral deposition influence both stiffness and toughness. Over-mineralized bone may become excessively brittle, while under-mineralized bone lacks sufficient strength. The balance between these extremes is tightly regulated

during bone remodeling. Disruptions in this balance, whether due to aging, disease, or pharmacological interventions, can adversely affect bone performance.

Bone turnover dynamics represent another critical determinant of quality. Remodeling is essential for repairing microdamage and maintaining structural integrity. However, both excessively high and abnormally low turnover can be detrimental. High turnover, as seen in untreated osteoporosis, leads to the accumulation of microstructural defects. Conversely, very low turnover sometimes associated with long-term use of anti-resorptive therapies may impair the bone's ability to repair microdamage, potentially increasing the risk of atypical fractures. This highlights the need for therapeutic strategies that preserve a balanced remodeling process.

The role of osteocytes, the most abundant bone cells, is increasingly recognized in the context of bone quality. These cells regulate remodeling, sense mechanical strain, and maintain the health of the bone matrix. Osteocyte apoptosis and dysfunction, which increase with age and certain بیماری‌ها (diseases), can compromise the integrity of the lacuno-canalicular network and impair the bone's ability to adapt to mechanical stress. In my view, osteocyte health is a central but underappreciated factor in maintaining bone quality.

Mechanical loading and lifestyle factors further influence bone quality. Regular physical activity enhances bone strength not only by increasing BMD but also by improving microarchitecture and matrix properties. Conversely, sedentary behavior and immobilization lead to rapid deterioration in both bone mass and quality. Nutrition also plays a role, with deficiencies in calcium, vitamin D, and protein affecting matrix composition and remodeling dynamics.

From a clinical perspective, the challenge lies in translating these insights into improved diagnostic and therapeutic approaches. Current tools for assessing bone quality are limited and not widely available in routine practice. Biomarkers of bone turnover, advanced imaging, and emerging techniques such as microindentation are being explored to provide a more comprehensive assessment of fracture risk. In my opinion,

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integrating these tools with traditional BMD measurements could significantly enhance clinical decision-making.

Therapeutically, there is a need to move beyond a singular focus on increasing bone density. Treatments that improve matrix quality, enhance collagen integrity, and maintain balanced remodeling may offer more effective protection against fractures. Anabolic agents, for example, not only increase bone mass but also improve microarchitecture, representing a step in this direction.

In conclusion, bone fragility is a complex phenomenon that cannot be fully explained by bone density alone. A broader understanding of bone quality including structural, material, and cellular factors is essential for accurately assessing fracture risk and developing more effective therapies. In my view, embracing this multidimensional perspective will be key to advancing the prevention and management of skeletal disorders in the future.