

[illegible]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

Keywords: calcium, phosphate, parathyroid hormone, vitamin D, bone, primary hyperparathyroidism, hypoparathyroidism, hypophosphatemia, inactivating PTH/PTHrp signalling disorders, bone mass acquisition, bone mineralization, skeletal dysplasia, cellular senescence, diagnostic technologies, bone quality, osteocytes, osteoporosis, targeted treatments.

CONFIDENTIAL

Abstract:

This manuscript provides future research priorities and specifies health care needs in the fields of calcium and phosphate metabolic disorders and bone diseases, which are associated with significant disease burden and great societal impact. Specified areas of interest and unmet needs were identified by 16 European experts – members of the Calcium and Bone Focus Area of the European Society of Endocrinology (ESE), of the Bone and Growth Plate Working Group of the European Society of Paediatric Endocrinology (ESPE) and of the ESE Young Endocrinologists and Scientists committee (EYES). Priority topics were further developed in working groups with expertise in these specified areas. In the field of calcium and phosphate metabolism, topics included the clinical spectrum of primary hyperparathyroidism, the pathogenesis and management of chronic hypoparathyroidism, and the molecular basis of, and targeted treatments in, rare calcium and phosphate disorders. In the field of bone disorders, selected topics included the role of bone as an endocrine organ and action of hormones on bone development, bone mass acquisition in children and adolescents and the impact of chronic illness on this process, the frequently encountered secondary osteoporosis, the management of bone fragility disorders throughout life, the molecular basis and health implications of skeletal dysplasias, and targeted treatments in rare bone disorders. Some topics concerning both areas are discussed separately, including cellular senescence in bone health and beyond, the molecular underpinnings of the sex bias in some calcium, phosphate and bone diseases as well as the development of novel diagnostic tools for bone quality assessment.

Introduction:

The calcium and bone focus area covers a broad spectrum of common and rare calcium-phosphate metabolic disorders and of bone diseases, which are rarely overlapping, hence have inevitably an inherent duality. However, both groups of disorders are associated with significant burden and are of great societal importance.

Disturbances in calcium and phosphate metabolism in adults are most often related to excessive or deficient secretion of parathyroid hormone (PTH), as in primary hyperparathyroidism (PHPT) and chronic hypoparathyroidism (1-3). In children, both rare heritable and common acquired calcium and phosphate disorders are seen. Heritable mineralization disorders are caused by gene defects in calcium sensing, in vitamin D, PTH, FGF-23 and renal metabolism, as well as with PTH resistance in inactivating PTH/PTHrP signaling disorders (iPPSDs) (4). In recent years, some rare calcium and phosphate metabolism disorders gained interest also in the adult medical community because of targeted therapies that significantly improved patients' outcomes.

The skeleton performs multiple functions including acting as an endocrine organ in addition to its mechanical, hematopoietic, and metabolic functions. Thereby secreted factors regulate distant tissue functions in a biochemical crosstalk and contribute to overall health and well-balanced homeostasis. The drugs used today in some rare bone diseases have improved the outcomes of affected patients and changed the paradigm from treating the symptoms of the disease to correcting the molecular defect or its direct consequences. Based on the unraveled mechanisms of rare diseases, some targeted therapies have been developed and implemented in clinic, not just for individual rare diseases but also for common disorders such as osteoporosis, for example anti-sclerostin therapy for the treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis. However, a targeted therapy / cure is not available for most of the 771 rare and complex bone diseases (5).

This manuscript provides future research priorities and health care needs in the fields of calcium and phosphate metabolic disorders and of bone diseases. Calcium-phosphate disorders and bone diseases resulting from organ failure (such as kidney, heart or gut) or electrolyte disturbances (such as in sodium or magnesium) are beyond the scope of the present manuscript. Prioritized areas of interest and unmet needs were identified by 16 European experts – members of the Calcium and Bone Focus Area of the European Society of Endocrinology (ESE), of the Bone and Growth Plate Working Group of the European Society of Pediatric Endocrinology (ESPE) or of the ESE Young Endocrinologists and Scientists (EYES) committee. These priority topics were discussed and further developed in working groups including both basic researchers and clinicians with expertise in these specific areas. The manuscript is subdivided in 3 main sections, the first of which is related to the disorders of calcium and phosphate metabolism, the second to disorders of the skeleton, and the third to transversal topics such as cellular senescence, sex differences, and novel diagnostics tools used in these fields. As a conclusion, the summary of key research actions and health care needs from each of the chapters is presented in bullet points.

I/ Calcium and phosphate metabolic disorders

1. Clinical spectrum of primary hyperparathyroidism

Primary hyperparathyroidism (PHPT) is a disorder caused by an overactivity of one or more parathyroid glands, leading to excessive secretion of PTH, hypercalcemia and target organ (bone and kidney) involvement.

PHPT can present as a symptomatic form with overt skeletal and kidney complications. In addition to these classical complications, neurocognitive, cardiovascular, metabolic, and gastrointestinal functions,

as well as quality of life, can be compromised (2). More research is needed to understand how PHPT and hypercalcaemia affect the heart, blood vessels and brain, whether such effects are reversible following parathyroidectomy, and to translate the accumulated knowledge into clinical recommendations. Asymptomatic PHPT is characterized by the lack of symptoms or signs regardless of the presence of target organ involvement. In normocalcemic primary HPT (nHPT) ionized calcium and 25OH vitamin D are normal with elevated levels of PTH while target organ involvement might or might not be present. For this more recently defined entity, research is required to determine whether active monitoring of this conditions is required, or whether a few patients may benefit from early surgery (6). However, robust selection criteria are still missing (7). nPHPT may also represent an early precursor of PHPT (8). National, European or international registries from large patient longitudinal cohorts will be useful to better describe the wide range of clinical presentation of PHPT and treatment outcomes.

While PHPT is more prevalent in elderly females. but males and children can also be affected (9). The younger the age at presentation, and a positive family history or dysmorphic features should raise the suspicion of a heritable form. More than 10% of patients with PHPT will carry a pathological variant in one of 10 genes, most commonly those causing multiple endocrine neoplasia. The genetic diagnosis has clinical consequences, as the management of these disorders can differ from sporadic PHPT and investigation of other family members is required. Endocrine societies should establish education on the availability and clinical utility of genetic tests (10). Nationwide, European, and international genetic databases, including data from whole-genome sequencing of early onset or familial PHPT are needed to make a step forward in understanding the underlying genetic (or epigenetic) causes in those where no mutation can be identified.

PHPT most often arises from a single parathyroid adenoma, while multiple adenomas, parathyroid hyperplasia and carcinoma can also cause increase aberrant PTH secretion. The prognostic relevance of atypical parathyroid adenomas remains uncertain, and the areas of pathogenesis, diagnosis and therapy of parathyroid carcinoma pathogenesis are hot topics of current research.

Parathyroid surgery remains the only definitive treatment for PHPT, and recently updated consensus criteria for surgery have been published (7). Pharmacological therapy with calcimimetic agents and/or bone antiresorptive medications may be appropriate for selected patients, however the different mechanisms of actions need to be considered (7). In the surgical treatment of multigland and hyperplastic disease, ongoing research is required to define optimal strategy (total, subtotal or less than subtotal parathyroidectomy) depending i.e. on the age of the patient, and the potential efficacy of radiofrequency therapy. When PHPT is diagnosed during pregnancy, management guidance should be followed (11).

2. Pathogenesis and management of chronic hypoparathyroidism

Chronic hypoparathyroidism is a lifelong disorder that significantly decreases the quality of life of affected individuals and represents an important healthcare problem with non-negligible societal costs (1, 12). Many patients in low- and middle-income countries worldwide are not properly diagnosed and treated. The most common form of hypoparathyroidism in adults is iatrogenic, acquired following neck surgery in approximately 75% of cases (13). Therefore, actions to limit unnecessary thyroid surgery, and centralization of cervical surgery in high-volume expert centers, are essential to reduce the prevalence of iatrogenic hypoparathyroidism and other complications. In children, non-surgical forms prevail, including genetic and autoimmune causes (14). The underlying genetic causes remain, however, unidentified in some cases. In patients without genetic abnormalities in Sanger sequencing or in

targeted next generation sequencing, discovery of novel genes, deep intronic variations, epigenetic abnormalities or chromatin reorganization should be a priority for future research in familial or sporadic forms of the disease.

Complications of chronic hypoparathyroidism are highly variable. For instance, a minority of patients with persistent hypercalciuria will develop nephrolithiasis or nephrocalcinosis. To provide adequate personalized management, it is crucial to identify factors (metabolic, renal, genetic, residual PTH secretion) favoring, or protecting from, development of disease-related complications. National and international registries and genetic databases from large cohorts will facilitate identification of such disease modifying factors and developing efficient tools for precision medicine.

The main goals of treatment of chronic hypoparathyroidism are to avoid hypocalcaemia, control hyperphosphataemia, reduce disease-related complications and improve quality of Life. The existing (15-17) and upcoming (18) replacement therapies by PTH analogues represent a major step forward in the management of the disease. However, these replacement practices do not fully restore the physiological state of PTH secretion but are pharmacological approaches whose long-term repercussions - particularly on bone and kidney remain unknown and need to be carefully monitored (19). Continuous point-of-care capillary calcium monitoring with the option to adapt PTH replacement therapy would improve patients' biochemical control, which is currently relying on random serum calcium assessment every 3 - 6 months and not allowing adaption of daily calcium fluctuation. Similar to diabetes mellitus (20), replacement of parathyroid cells derived from human stem cells, permitting calcium sensing and restoring regulated PTH secretion, could be the future in the treatment of hypoparathyroidism. In autoimmune causes of hypoparathyroidism, especially those linked to *AIRE* gene mutations, JAK inhibition-based immunotherapy (21) is a novel promising approach, shedding also new light on the disease pathogenesis but requires further research.

3. Molecular mechanisms and targeted treatments in rare calcium and phosphate disorders

Disorders of mineral metabolism can result in profound morbidity involving both the skeleton and non-skeletal organs. Pathophysiologic mechanisms involve direct impairment of mineralization such as observed in hypophosphatasia (HPP), chronic hypophosphatemia related to fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF-23) excess in X-linked hypophosphatemia (XLH) or related to other mechanisms (22), or end-organ resistance to PTH in iPPSDs (22). Alterations in the CaSR activation or in calcitriol synthesis and signaling can cause life-threatening deviations of serum calcium levels.

The development of consensus guidelines (23), (24) and continuous efforts to analyse data in rare disease patient registries contribute to an improved state-of-the-art management and understanding of this heterogeneous family of disorders. Deep phenotyping including both skeletal and non-skeletal tissues should be more precisely performed in the coming years and constitute a priority for research. Recent advances in targeted treatments, such as FGF-23-neutralizing antibodies (burosumab) in XLH or bone-targeted recombinant ALP (asfotase alfa) in HPP could profoundly improve outcomes in specific conditions. Pharmacotherapies not specifically designed for rare disorders, including calcimimetics (cinacalcet) in neonatal severe hyperparathyroidism and the above-mentioned PTH analogues for the treatment of hypoparathyroidism including its rare inherited forms extend the spectrum of therapeutic options in PTH-related disorders. Calcilytic calcium sensing receptor (CaSR) modulators (encaloret) for autosomal dominant hypocalcemia looks very promising (25). Disorders such as iPPSD still await causal treatments targeting the specific molecular defects and should be the focus of research due to the high burden of disease.

Future research efforts should involve both optimization of existing therapeutic agents, extending their label to other indications such as burosumab in tumor induced osteomalacia or autosomal dominant hypophosphataemia from FGF23 gene mutations, as well as the development of new targeted drugs and re-purposing of drugs. Optimization of different management strategies are also an important area for future research. Alternative therapeutic concepts for rare diseases including gene therapy have shown promising results in preclinical models for mineralization disorders including XLH (26) or HPP (27) and could potentially mark a new era in the future treatment of rare diseases. Until then, non-pharmacologic treatment including functional therapy, psychosocial support and multidisciplinary patient care including the involvement of patient advocacy groups have to be optimised and evaluated. These rare disorders require prospective multicenter registries to assess outcomes of therapies far beyond pediatric age.

II/ Bone health and pathology

1. The role of bone as an endocrine organ, hormones and bone development

Advances in bone biology research during the past two decades highlighted the importance of bone as potential regulator of metabolic processes that are independent of mineral metabolism. Bone cells are found to express and bone matrix to release various bioactive factors e.g. prostaglandin E2, Wnt signalling molecules, nitric oxide, receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa-B ligand and many more. These factors act locally in a para- and autocrine manner to regulate skeletal development, biomechanical adaptation and mineral metabolism. Further, these factors allow to communicate with more distant tissues i.e. skeletal muscles, fat and other distant organs through the circulatory system (28), (29).

Highlighting the important future opportunities for discovery of bone-secreted factors, are the recently developed bone targeted therapies using antibodies, both for common and rare bone diseases. For example, romosozumab, a monoclonal antibody targeting osteocyte secreted sclerostin, increases bone formation and decreases bone resorption and effectively reduces fractures in postmenopausal osteoporosis (30). As already mentioned above, burosumab, a monoclonal antibody targeting FGF-23 - a factor mainly produced by osteocytes - improves phosphate homeostasis in both genetic XLH and acquired tumor-induced osteomalacia (31). In addition, novel studies have indicated that elevated levels of FGF-23 are associated with cardiovascular diseases (32), and FGF23-lowering therapy was associated with a reduction in the incidence of cardiovascular events (33). Some recent data also report possible links between FGF-23 and degenerative brain diseases, i.e. increased risk of dementia and Alzheimer's disease (34).

The multifunctional osteocyte with its intricate global network of osteocyte cell body housing lacunae and dendrite containing canaliculi appears of central importance in the endocrine communication of the bone tissue (35). Novel factor identification strategies including micro-RNAs and molecule-containing extracellular vesicles will provide novel insight into osteocyte-mediated communication. Furthermore, investigations that focus on osteocyte network properties that include advanced imaging modalities and 3D-analysis will aid our understanding of osteocyte communication on a different level (36), (37). With these tools, network disruptions via loss of canalicular or dendrite connectivity with aging-induced bone pathologies have been documented (38). Disruption in osteocyte communications may include osteocyte apoptosis or other forms of cell death together with the potential endpoint seen

in osteocyte lacunar mineralisation – micropetrosis (39). Further research in this area is needed to fully understand the pathophysiology and design therapeutic interventions.

2. Bone mass acquisition in children and adolescents, and impact of chronic illness

Childhood and adolescence are crucial lifetime stages for bone mass acquisition. Specific to bone development in children are the relatively higher remodelling rate and the influence of nutrition, function of all organs, locomotion, growth and puberty on the amount of natural mass bone acquisition (40). Correct evaluation of bone strength in young people who have not yet achieved peak bone mass is essential to diagnose bone fragility (41). As opposed to dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA), age and sex specific references data (accounting for ethnicity, height and pubertal status) still need to be developed for novel imaging modalities such as high-resolution peripheral quantitative computed tomography (HRpQCT), trabecular bone structure (TBS) or finite element analysis (FEM, FEA). Also, the influence on bone mass acquisition of conditions that, for limited or prolonged periods of time, either accelerate (precocious puberty/early onset sustained obesity) or delay bone mass acquisition (delayed puberty/ growth, nutritional impairment and chronic disease, hypogonadism) and their long-term consequences on bone health should be systematically studied (42).

In addition to imaging modalities, various bone material properties as assessed by histomorphometry determine and characterize bone strength. Based on existing bone biopsy data, rare bone and growth disorders should be better characterized from a bone material perspective (static and dynamic cortical and trabecular structures, material densities, matrix composition) to elucidate mechanistic pathways involved (43). Such information will help to develop targeted treatments to maximize bone strength in young patients with specific chronic illnesses, depending on their cause (44). Acquired osteoporosis may have a biomechanical (neuromuscular), inflammatory (cytokines), cytotoxic (medication, environment), autoimmune or endocrine basis (45). The timing, duration and progressivity of these factors during growth, be they of transient or permanent nature, may or may not cause sustained deleterious effects on bone mass acquisition. Therefore, the assessment of a patient's recovery potential has become standard of care in secondary osteoporosis (46) and requires collaborative research efforts. Analysis of the mechanisms determining bone mass acquisition impairment by chronic medications (i.e., glucocorticoids) and development of targeted therapeutic agents to be used simultaneously to prevent bone health impairment should be a priority (47).

Coordinated efforts to collect pediatric bone and DNA samples of patients affected by rare bone diseases (ideally in the context of society-driven international registries) will facilitate diagnostic and therapeutic studies.

3. Secondary osteoporosis and bone quality

Secondary osteoporosis, caused by underlying disease, specifically inflammation, toxins, medications, hypogonadism, sarcopaenia or immobility, occurs in up to 30% of postmenopausal women, > 50% of premenopausal women, and between 50% and 80% of men diagnosed as osteoporotic and is associated with an increased risk of fracture (48). The standard fracture risk assessment tool (FRAX) underestimates fracture risk in people with secondary osteoporosis, such as type 2 diabetes (49), (50), (51). Most systemic diseases and organ dysfunctions can lead to osteoporosis. Research on mechanistic understanding of the different causes of secondary osteoporosis will provide new insights into bone quality parameters relevant to bone strength/bone homeostasis and guide more targeted, and thus more effective, treatment modalities.

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a metabolic disease of pandemic dimensions and the most common endocrine contributor to osteoporosis development. Both type 1 (T1DM) and type 2 DM (T2DM) are associated with a higher risk of fracture (52). The formation of advanced glycation end products in the bone matrix associated with high blood glucose contributes to impaired biomechanical properties (53). More recently, additional compromised bone quality features have been discovered in DM, such as high cortical porosity in a subgroup of individuals with T2DM (54), lower local microhardness at the femoral neck in T2DM, and microcrack accumulation associated with osteocyte lacunar mineralisation in T1DM (55). The presence of vascular complications in T2DM leads to structural and mechanical deterioration of the trabecular bone at the femoral neck (56), (57). Therefore, it may be clinically useful to identify signs of vascular disease in individuals with T2DM to assess fracture risk beyond the results of DXA and FRAX (57).

Thyroid hormones influence skeletal development and linear growth in childhood and bone turnover and bone mass (58). Overt and subclinical hyperthyroidism, if left untreated, causes reduced bone mass, poor bone quality and increased fracture risk (59), (60). The molecular mechanisms of how thyroid hormones influence the osteoblasts and osteoclasts are the focus of recent research, whereby the Wnt-signaling pathway has been implicated (61). Future research should further focus on unravelling these, and other thyroid hormone induced pathways.

Chronic liver disease also has a negative effect on the skeleton and recent studies on the femoral neck and/or lumbar spine have provided evidence of stage-dependent microstructural bone changes in various liver diseases, including alcohol-related liver disease, metabolism-associated fatty liver disease, cholestatic hepatopathy, primary biliary cholangitis and liver cirrhosis (62-67). Much more evidence needs to be acquired to understand which biochemical changes cause impairment in biomechanical bone properties.

Drug treatment /pharmaceutical agents may also lead to bone loss (68) and glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis (GIOP) is certainly the most common medication-induced cause of secondary osteoporosis (69). About 1% of the population is treated with glucocorticoids on a long-term basis due to various inflammatory conditions (70), and the risk of fracture and re-fracture increases with higher/supra-physiological corticosteroid dosage or a treatment duration of more than 3-6 months (71). The pathophysiological mechanisms involve various effects on bone cells, i.e. altered osteocyte signaling and apoptosis, increased longevity of osteoclasts and reduction of calcium absorption (72), (73), (74). The changes in bone quality are complex and most likely depend on the variety of treatment methods. For example, bone loss in GIOP is characterized by an initial rapid, profound decrease in BMD and a continuous annual loss of smaller magnitude thereafter (75). However, the risk of fracture increases even faster, so that an additional determination of bone quality should be considered (76).

A largely neglected, but the by far most common form of secondary osteoporosis, which demonstrates the mechanical necessity of muscle pull for bone health, is immobility which appears to affect bone geometry and quality distinctly different to primary osteoporosis (40, 77-79). Future research should address the muscle-bone interplay (80), medical and biomechanical therapeutic interventions for bone mass acquisition, fracture reduction and quality of life in children and adults with reduced mobility.

Early detection of the cause of secondary osteoporosis is extremely important and necessary to improve bone health and prevent further bone loss. Therapy is primarily focused on treating the underlying cause, where possible. Research is needed to clarify whether individual types of osteoporosis medication should be favored for specific types of secondary osteoporosis. Multidisciplinary care is the basic principle of preventing osteoporosis-related fractures. However, there are still considerable deficits in the healthcare system concerning the early recognition, diagnosis,

treatment, and follow-up of patients with secondary osteoporosis (81). Future investigations will help to identify systematic gaps and help design and implement therapeutic solutions.

4. Management of bone fragility disorders in different periods of life:

Improved management of bone fragility disorders in all periods of life involves earlier and more accurate detection of skeletal disease, more sophisticated and targeted treatment options, and advanced technology to monitor treatment effects.

To improve detection rates of genetic and epigenetic causes of skeletal disease and decrease the need for interpretational manpower, the development of deeper molecular genetic analysis and faster interpretation using AI technology is required (82). Improvement in the understanding of predicted and functionally tested disease mechanisms will allow development of precision treatments on DNA, mRNA and protein level.

This requires in depth training of bone specialists and tertiary medicine in specialized centers that work together to ensure collective learning (83),(84). Large European grants should be made available to support these rare disease research networks demonstrating translational research from bedside to bench to bedside. To enable faster development of and early access to new precision therapies for rare disease, regulators need to simplify legislative procedures around clinical trials.

More detailed natural history data in secondary bone fragility will enable preventive measures and early treatment. Establishment of effective fracture liaison services will further refine secondary prevention of fragility fractures. Novel, non-invasive, readily available and cost-effective diagnostic and monitoring tools to reduce falls and fracture risk in the aging population will prevent significant morbidity, and improve quality of life, and is therefore a research priority.

In both the pediatric and adult setting, research into the long-term outcomes of skeletal disease-specific complications, such as growth, mobility, quality of life and societal participation should be conducted, and registries will help to achieve this.

5. Molecular basis and major health implications of skeletal dysplasias:

Skeletal dysplasias encompass a large spectrum of genetic disorders of the skeleton with abnormal bone growth, structure, or strength (85). Individually, they are rare but collectively, due to the large number of skeletal dysplasias (>700), result in significant morbidity. Underlying pathology remains inadequately understood and optimal therapy often undefined, and precision drug treatment targeting the underlying molecular mechanism not available for most skeletal dysplasias. Gene discoveries have increased exponentially, demonstrating the value of advanced genetic tools, and motivating further research to the complex pathogenesis of skeletal dysplasias.

However, further basic research is required to uncover the cellular pathology and implicated molecular pathways in various forms of skeletal dysplasia. Understanding the pathophysiology of skeletal dysplasias may also benefit a larger patient population. This is evidenced by anti-sclerostin treatment for osteoporosis (86), which at present is in clinical trials for osteogenesis imperfecta; preclinical data show positive effects on bone mass and strength (87).

The spectrum of disease manifestations of various skeletal dysplasias in different phases of life and health projections across the life course remain inadequately studied. Research on therapeutic approaches needs to focus not only on correcting the pathophysiology but also more broadly on surgical approaches, rehabilitation, functional / environmental adaptations, preventative measures, pain management, psychological support, and quality of life. Patient groups must be involved in

identifying these research goals. International registries should be utilized to collect and analyse such data.

A multidisciplinary approach is of particular importance in genetic skeletal disorders, to enable cohesive care throughout the life course. The patients have a range of physical impairments due to their skeletal disorder, but also a disease-specific spectrum of extraskkeletal manifestations requiring medical attention. These may include e.g., dental and oral health problems, immune deficiency, impaired hearing, and neurological or ophthalmologic manifestations. Research on multidisciplinary management by medical specialties, adequate personnel resources, and allied health professionals is likely to greatly improve patient care, quality of life, enable smooth transition from pediatric to adult care, and help in establishing management guidelines.

6. Targeted treatments in rare bone disorders

During the past decade treatment of some rare disorders has shifted from symptom-based management to targeted treatments which aim to resolve or negate the underlying molecular defect. In the bone field targeted therapies have been successfully implemented in a small number of disorders, as previously mentioned, e.g., using enzyme replacement such as asfotase alfa in hypophosphatasia (88); neutralizing an elevated hormone such as burosumab in XLH (89); and receptor inhibition or upregulating an alternative compensatory pathway in achondroplasia (46, 90).

The current nosology of genetic skeletal disorders (85) includes 771 conditions, most of which lack targeted treatment. These conditions are rare and complex as they affect bone development and homeostasis through multiple genes and pathways (91). Understanding the clinical manifestations and molecular and biochemical pathophysiology is a prerequisite for developing targeted therapies. Genetic animal models are also necessary for molecular characterization and testing preclinical interventions. Strategies to develop precision therapies for rare diseases involve not just targeting proteins (drug targets) but also mRNAs (e.g. anti-sense oligonucleotides) and gene therapy (92).

Despite some successes, much work is warranted to obtain targeted therapies in most rare bone diseases. This is a major research priority, with the aspiration that treatment strategies in rare skeletal disorders will be applicable also to more common disorders. Partnering with pharmaceutical companies and scientific engagement in every part of the process is important to enable realization of new therapies.

Expansion of the application profile for bone-targeted treatments, such as the use of burosumab in tumour-induced osteomalacia or achondroplasia drugs in hypochondroplasia and other growth failures, will increase the availability of therapeutic options for a broader range of conditions. Another more cost-effective approach may be in repurposing existing medications for alternative uses e.g., the use of carbamazepine, which stimulates intracellular proteolysis and alleviates Endoplasmatic Reticulum stress, in metaphyseal chondrodysplasia or other conditions with similar cellular pathology (93). Future research should focus on elucidating which drug may be effective and which biomarker(s) may be useful in this setting.

III/ Overarching topics

1. Cellular senescence and bone health

Cellular senescence is an irreversible cell arrest caused by several triggers including DNA damage, oxidative stress, telomere dysfunction or oncogenic stress, which cause tissue impairment. Cellular senescence can be triggered in normal cells in response to various intrinsic and extrinsic stimuli, as well as developmental signals and has been considered an underlying mechanism for multiple pathologies, including bone loss and fragility associated with aging and metabolic bone diseases. Thereby, the accumulation of senescent cells in bone microenvironment in various conditions has been considered as one of the possible triggers and has thus become an interesting target in the development of anti-senescence strategies in musculoskeletal diseases, known as senolytics.

Activation of the p53/p21^{WAF1/CIP1} and p16^{INK4A}/pRB tumor suppressor, mTOR, NFkB pathways and senescence-associated-beta-galactosidase (SA-β-gal) activity play a central role in regulating senescence (94). The current senolytic drugs including rapamycin, ruxolitinib, fisetin, navitoclax or metformin are designed to target a specific secretory phenotype (so-called senescence associated secretory phenotype, SASP) consisting of bioactive molecules that affect cell function (95), (96). Thus, SASP inhibitors address the inflammatory signal being sent off by senescent cells. However, these drugs administered systematically exhibit a variety of “off-target” effects because of tissue and cell specificity and their continuous use is not advised. Therefore, short term treatment to alleviate some SASP induced effects might be considered in future use (97) or combination with other drugs to increase the effectivity of the removal of the senescent cells only in damaged tissue as these cells manifest heterogeneous cellular phenotype. Animal studies focused to eliminate senescent cells targeting specific pathways - genetically with either using a selective ablation of p16^{INK4A}-positive senescent cells or pharmacologically using an intermittent treatment of the senolytics dasatinib plus quercetin, reported promising results on prevention of age-related bone loss by promoting bone formation while inhibiting bone resorption (98). Despite negative effects reported by some animal studies (99), a phase 2, open-label, randomized controlled clinical trial is currently undertaken to determine if the senolytics dasatinib, quercetin and fisetin would improve skeletal health in older humans (100). Therefore, more translational research is needed to specify the condition and effectivity of senolytic drugs for a long treatment. In addition, it would be worthy to include in the study design the comparison of senolytic with classical anti-osteoporotic drugs in terms of prevention of bone loss. As aging is causing accumulation of senescent cells in other organs besides bones, the effectiveness of senolytic drugs is a very attractive area of drug development targeting multiple-age related complications, including bone loss and fragility.

2. Sex differences in calcium and bone metabolism and diseases

The molecular mechanisms behind sexual dimorphism in some disorders of calcium and phosphate metabolism may be related to hormones, genetic or epigenetic factors. Primary hyperparathyroidism is one of the most common endocrine diseases in adults and is more common in women than in men (101), (102). The prevalence in women further increases to 1-3% after menopause, suggesting that the development of estrogen deficiency in postmenopausal women plays a role in unmasking hypercalcaemia (103, 104). Exactly how estrogens and other hormones lead to differences in the occurrence of primary hyperparathyroidism requires further investigation. This difference also underlined the importance of including both males and females in animal and clinical studies. X-linked hypophosphataemia is a well-known genetic disease. X-linked dominant inheritance means that male patients have a complete loss of PHEX function in all body cells, whereas in female patients, random inactivation of the X chromosome causes approximately 50% of the cells should express a functional PHEX protein, leading to a milder phenotype compared to male patients. However, such a gender-

specific difference in disease severity is observed in some (105) but not all studies (106) which could be due to biased inactivation of the X chromosome in female patients and requires further studies including allele-specific expression analyses. The inactivating PTH/PTHrP signalling disorders (iPPSD) type 2 and 3 (previously referred to as pseudohypoparathyroidism type 1a and 1b) are caused by inactivating variants on the maternal allele of the *GNAS* gene within exons 1–13 or by methylation abnormalities in the *GNAS* locus and are a typical example of imprinting disorders (24). In iPPSD3 in particular, the molecular events and their pathogenetic effects need to be further studied.

Both bone growth and the attainment of peak bone mass as well as the rate of bone loss during aging are profoundly influenced by sex, exemplified by the lifetime risk of fractures for women approaching 50% in comparison to only 25% in men. Estrogen has been shown to be one of the main hormones regulating bone metabolism and loss of estrogen action either through menopause or genetic mutations affecting the estrogen receptor led to bone loss. In addition, testosterone, either directly or by conversion to estradiol, also influences bone metabolism (107). More recently, also the gonadotrophic hormone follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) has been linked to changes in bone metabolism independent of estrogen (108), showing that the endocrinology underlying the sex differences in bone mass accrual and bone loss are incompletely understood and warrant further investigation to improve skeletal health during the life span.

From a clinical point of view, most studies for diagnosis, treatment and outcomes have been performed in women and studies investigating the generalizability to men have shown mixed results; 1) fracture prediction tools to identify the need for BMD measurement and osteoporosis treatment are less accurate in men than in women (109) 2) in comparison to women, men more often suffer from secondary osteoporosis (prevalence up to 30% in postmenopausal women, > 50% in premenopausal women, and between 50% and 80% in men) (48) 3) the clinical trials of anti-osteoporosis drugs have been much smaller in men than in women and usually use BMD rather than fracture as an outcome (110) and although antiresorptive treatments are licensed for both women and men with osteoporosis, romosozumab is only approved for the treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis in women 4) the male gender is an independent factor associated with mortality after a hip fracture (111). To ensure optimal diagnosis and treatment of osteoporosis and bone disease in both women and men, awareness of these differences is important for the design of future studies, including those on transgender bone health.

3. Novel diagnostic technologies for bone quality assessment

The lack of accuracy in fracture risk prediction via DXA in a large proportion of adult individuals creates the need for the development of novel approaches and the optimization of existing methods to ensure improved and personalized assessment of bone strength and metabolism (112), (113). Additionally, no tools for fracture risk prediction in children with bone fragility are available. Their development should also be a priority. Given the availability, low cost, and low radiation of DXA, several DXA add-ons are increasingly applied to improve its diagnostic performance (e.g., trabecular bone score [TBS] (114), hip structure analysis [HSA], 3D DXA, (115), Vertebral Fracture Assessment [VFA]) (116), which offer additional risk detection and the distinction between fracture and non-fracture groups. Considering that many individuals never receive a DXA scan but various routine clinical scans for other health reasons, studies examining the potential of opportunistic screening for osteoporosis using spine, chest, or abdomen X-rays or routine computed tomography (CT) scans are also emerging. These techniques could be expanded to include bone marrow changes related to impaired bone quality in some

individuals e.g., with diabetic bone disease with spectral and photon-counting applications (117), (118). New generations of high-resolution peripheral quantitative computed tomography (HRpQCT) are increasingly used in some countries for detailed assessment of 3D bone microarchitecture (e.g., trabecular thickness, cortical porosity) at an ultra-high resolution (less than 50 micrometers) at peripheral sites (distal radius, distal tibia) and predict major osteoporotic fractures (119), (120).

Applying finite element modelling or radiomics approaches based on machine learning on different imaging datasets may bring greater breakthroughs in this field, comparable to the advances in the field of cancer imaging (121).

While imaging methods provide surrogate indicators of bone strength, application of microindentation testing in clinical settings could offer more direct information on the mechanical competence of cortical bone.

Non-X-ray-based methods such as radiofrequency echographic multi-spectrometry (REMS) (122) and quantitative methods based on magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (123) are particularly promoted given their lack of X-ray exposure and promising initial results that may outperform DXA in prediction of osteoporotic fracture risk. Single-voxel proton MR spectroscopy (1H-MRS) (124) can evaluate volume of bone marrow fat fraction and saturation index of the lipids in bone as a novel parameter for fracture risk. It would be useful if other spectral approaches, i.e., Raman spectroscopy, could be employed on a larger scale to provide information of the organic part of the bone matrix, given the implications of advanced glycation end products and others inflicting bone quality.

The interesting developments in the field of non-imaging methods (biomarkers, biosensors) rely on the identification (125) of i) new biomarkers, including micro-RNAs (126) and other omics-detected candidate biomarkers that could provide complimentary data for timely diagnosis of bone fragility; ii) types of invasive or noninvasive biosensors that could allow quicker, cheaper, more reliable, and real-time assessment of bone status to monitor bone mechanical competence, remodelling, or healing; and iii) biosensors for point-of-care testing of capillary calcium or phosphate for a variety of conditions such as hypoparathyroidism, iPPDS, XLH or renal failure (127, 128). Further studies are warranted to clarify the applicability and usefulness of these developments in the context of bone and calcium metabolism.

Key future actions:

- Regular clinical updates should aid the education of both pediatric and adult endocrinologists on the uncertainties and advancements in the management of patients affected by PHPT at different stages of life.
- Actions to limit unnecessary thyroid surgery, and to centralize neck surgery in high-volume expert centers, are essential to reduce the prevalence of post-surgical hypoparathyroidism.
- Point-of-care calcium monitoring for treatment adjustment and clinical trials on therapeutic modalities approaching the physiologic state of regulated PTH secretion, including replacement of parathyroid cell derived from human stem cells, are the key future steps to improve treatment of chronic hypoparathyroidism.
- Advances in the targeted treatment of some rare calcium and phosphate disorders are leading to better outcomes and have potential for treatment for use in other, both common and rare, conditions. Many rare disorders in the field are still awaiting causal treatment and should be the focus of research due to the high socioeconomic and medical disease burden. Patient registries are required to better understand this heterogeneous group of disorders and the effect of interventions.

- Future research should aim to decipher novel underlying mechanisms in trans-tissue crosstalk.
- Age- and sex-specific reference data for novel imaging modalities are required to facilitate the assessment of the impact of conditions that either accelerate, delay or impair bone mass acquisition and bone fragility.
- Further research on secondary osteoporosis shall clarify whether specific types of drugs or interventions should be favored for certain types of secondary osteoporosis.
- Implementation of early detection investigations of bone fragility disorders at different stages of life requires not just advanced diagnostic techniques, more sophisticated monitoring and tertiary training of medical and radiology staff in specialist centers.
- The treatment of skeletal dysplasia requires a multidisciplinary team effort and should include functional and environmental adaptations, psychological support, and quality of life aspects. Further genetic and epigenetic research will expand our molecular understanding of bone homeostasis.
- The precision treatments applied today to some rare diseases need to be tested in other rare and common disorders. Massive research efforts are needed to identify disease mechanisms in most genetic skeletal diseases.
- Cellular senescence is a characteristic of aged, damaged cells that secrete bioactive molecules to promote a vicious inflammatory environment driving disease states. A more detailed mechanistic understanding in relation to bone homeostasis remains necessary and requires collaborative research strategies. Senolytics targeting senescent cells in the body might be potential candidates in the treatment of bone pathologies (osteoporosis, diabetic bone disease).
- Sex differences in various common or rare calcium & phosphate and bone diseases can be attributed to hormonal, genetic or epigenetic factors. For example, men suffer more frequently from secondary osteoporosis, clinical studies are less developed, fracture prediction tools are less accurate, and the male sex has a higher mortality rate after hip fracture. Research needs to be transparent and inclusive to allow for detailed investigations including sex-specific mechanisms.
- With new insights into the quality of bone (material) and the role of new factors contributing to bone strength, imaging techniques are being developed, optimized and repurposed to enable personalized medical diagnosis.

References:

1. Bollerslev J, Rejnmark L, Zahn A, Heck A, Appelman-Dijkstra NM, Cardoso L, et al. European Expert Consensus on Practical Management of Specific Aspects of Parathyroid Disorders in Adults and in Pregnancy: Recommendations of the ESE Educational Program of Parathyroid Disorders. *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2022;186(2):R33-R63.
2. Bilezikian JP, Khan AA, Silverberg SJ, Fuleihan GE, Marcocci C, Minisola S, et al. Evaluation and Management of Primary Hyperparathyroidism: Summary Statement and Guidelines from the Fifth International Workshop. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2022;37(11):2293-314.
3. Bilezikian JP. Hypoparathyroidism. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2020;105(6):1722-36.
4. Calcium and Bone Disorders in Children and Adolescents. In: Shaw JANJ, editor. SKarger AG. 282015.
5. Tosi LL. Rare genetic skeletal disorders: Evolving terminology, therapies, education and advocacy. *Journal of the Pediatric Orthopaedic Society of North America*. 2024;7.
6. Kulkarni P, Goldenberg D. Surgery for Normocalcemic Hyperparathyroidism. *Otolaryngol Clin North Am*. 2024;57(1):111-6.

7. Bilezikian JP, Silverberg SJ, Bandeira F, Cetani F, Chandran M, Cusano NE, et al. Management of Primary Hyperparathyroidism. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2022;37(11):2391-403.
8. Schini M, Jacques RM, Oakes E, Peel NFA, Walsh JS, Eastell R. Normocalcemic Hyperparathyroidism: Study of its Prevalence and Natural History. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2020;105(4):e1171-86.
9. Rizk Y, Saad N, Arnaout W, Chalah MA, Farah S. Primary Hyperparathyroidism in Older Adults: A Narrative Review of the Most Recent Literature on Epidemiology, Diagnosis and Management. *J Clin Med.* 2023;12(19).
10. Minisola S, Arnold A, Belaya Z, Brandi ML, Clarke BL, Hannan FM, et al. Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, and Genetics of Primary Hyperparathyroidism. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2022;37(11):2315-29.
11. Ali DS, Dandurand K, Khan AA. Primary Hyperparathyroidism in Pregnancy: Literature Review of the Diagnosis and Management. *J Clin Med.* 2021;10(13).
12. Gafni RI, Collins MT. Hypoparathyroidism. *N Engl J Med.* 2019;380(18):1738-47.
13. Clarke BL. Epidemiology and Complications of Hypoparathyroidism. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am.* 2018;47(4):771-82.
14. Bastepe M, Gensure RC. Hypoparathyroidism and Pseudohypoparathyroidism. In: Feingold KR, Anawalt B, Blackman MR, Boyce A, Chrousos G, Corpas E, et al., editors. *Endotext.* South Dartmouth (MA)2024.
15. Winer KK, Ko CW, Reynolds JC, Dowdy K, Keil M, Peterson D, et al. Long-term treatment of hypoparathyroidism: a randomized controlled study comparing parathyroid hormone-(1-34) versus calcitriol and calcium. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2003;88(9):4214-20.
16. Mannstadt M, Clarke BL, Vokes T, Brandi ML, Ranganath L, Fraser WD, et al. Efficacy and safety of recombinant human parathyroid hormone (1-84) in hypoparathyroidism (REPLACE): a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomised, phase 3 study. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol.* 2013;1(4):275-83.
17. Khan AA, Guyatt G, Ali DS, Bilezikian JP, Collins MT, Dandurand K, et al. Management of Hypoparathyroidism. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2022;37(12):2663-77.
18. Takacs I, Mezosi E, Soto A, Kamenicky P, Figueres L, Galvez Moreno MA, et al. An Open-Label Phase 2 Study of Eneboparatide, a Novel PTH Receptor 1 Agonist, in Hypoparathyroidism. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2024.
19. Goujard C, Salenave S, Briot K, Chanson P, Grimon G, Kamenicky P. Treating hypoparathyroidism with recombinant human parathyroid hormone (1-34): long-term safety concerns. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10232):1304.
20. Vantyghem MC, de Koning EJP, Pattou F, Rickels MR. Advances in beta-cell replacement therapy for the treatment of type 1 diabetes. *Lancet.* 2019;394(10205):1274-85.
21. Oikonomou V, Smith G, Constantine GM, Schmitt MM, Ferre EMN, Alejo JC, et al. The Role of Interferon-gamma in Autoimmune Polyendocrine Syndrome Type 1. *N Engl J Med.* 2024;390(20):1873-84.
22. Suma Uday WH. Rickets and Osteomalacia. In: Martini IHn, editor. *Encyclopedia of Endocrine Diseases.* 5: Elsevier; 2019.
23. Haffner D, Emma F, Eastwood DM, Duplan MB, Bacchetta J, Schnabel D, et al. Clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and management of X-linked hypophosphataemia. *Nat Rev Nephrol.* 2019;15(7):435-55.
24. Mantovani G, Bastepe M, Monk D, de Sanctis L, Thiele S, Usardi A, et al. Diagnosis and management of pseudohypoparathyroidism and related disorders: first international Consensus Statement. *Nat Rev Endocrinol.* 2018;14(8):476-500.
25. Gafni RI, Hartley IR, Roszko KL, Nemeth EF, Pozo KA, Lombardi E, et al. Efficacy and Safety of Encalaret in Autosomal Dominant Hypocalcemia Type 1. *N Engl J Med.* 2023;389(13):1245-7.

26. Zhukouskaya VV, Jauze L, Charles S, Leborgne C, Hilliquin S, Sadoine J, et al. A novel therapeutic strategy for skeletal disorders: Proof of concept of gene therapy for X-linked hypophosphatemia. *Sci Adv.* 2021;7(44):eabj5018.
27. Amadeu de Oliveira F MF, Kinoshita Y, Narisawa S, Farquharson C, Miyake K, Foster BL, Millan JL. . Gene Therapy Using Recombinant AAV Type 8 Vector Encoding TNAP-D10 Improves the Skeletal Phenotypes in Murine Models of Osteomalacia. *JBMR Plus.* 2022;Dec 15;7(1):e10709.
28. Maurel DB, Jahn K, Lara-Castillo N. Muscle-Bone Crosstalk: Emerging Opportunities for Novel Therapeutic Approaches to Treat Musculoskeletal Pathologies. *Biomedicines.* 2017;5(4).
29. Kirk B, Feehan J, Lombardi G, Duque G. Muscle, Bone, and Fat Crosstalk: the Biological Role of Myokines, Osteokines, and Adipokines. *Curr Osteoporos Rep.* 2020;18(4):388-400.
30. Cosman F, Crittenden DB, Adachi JD, Binkley N, Czerwinski E, Ferrari S, et al. Romosozumab Treatment in Postmenopausal Women with Osteoporosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375(16):1532-43.
31. Lamb YN. Burosumab: First Global Approval. *Drugs.* 2018;78(6):707-14.
32. Panwar B, Judd SE, Wadley VG, Jenny NS, Howard VJ, Safford MM, et al. Association of Fibroblast Growth Factor 23 With Risk of Incident Coronary Heart Disease in Community-Living Adults. *JAMA Cardiol.* 2018;3(4):318-25.
33. Moe SM, Chertow GM, Parfrey PS, Kubo Y, Block GA, Correa-Rotter R, et al. Cinacalcet, Fibroblast Growth Factor-23, and Cardiovascular Disease in Hemodialysis: The Evaluation of Cinacalcet HCl Therapy to Lower Cardiovascular Events (EVOLVE) Trial. *Circulation.* 2015;132(1):27-39.
34. McGrath ER, Himali JJ, Levy D, Conner SC, Pase MP, Abraham CR, et al. Circulating fibroblast growth factor 23 levels and incident dementia: The Framingham heart study. *PLoS One.* 2019;14(3):e0213321.
35. Dallas SL, Prideaux M, Bonewald LF. The osteocyte: an endocrine cell ... and more. *Endocr Rev.* 2013;34(5):658-90.
36. Ayoubi M, van Tol AF, Weinkamer R, Roschger P, Brugger PC, Berzlanovich A, et al. 3D Interrelationship between Osteocyte Network and Forming Mineral during Human Bone Remodeling. *Adv Healthc Mater.* 2021;10(12):e2100113.
37. Kerschnitzki M, Kollmannsberger P, Burghammer M, Duda GN, Weinkamer R, Wagermaier W, et al. Architecture of the osteocyte network correlates with bone material quality. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2013;28(8):1837-45.
38. Milovanovic P, Zimmermann EA, Hahn M, Djonic D, Puschel K, Djuric M, et al. Osteocytic canalicular networks: morphological implications for altered mechanosensitivity. *ACS Nano.* 2013;7(9):7542-51.
39. Busse B, Djonic D, Milovanovic P, Hahn M, Puschel K, Ritchie RO, et al. Decrease in the osteocyte lacunar density accompanied by hypermineralized lacunar occlusion reveals failure and delay of remodeling in aged human bone. *Aging Cell.* 2010;9(6):1065-75.
40. Bianchi ML, Leonard MB, Bechtold S, Hogler W, Mughal MZ, Schonau E, et al. Bone health in children and adolescents with chronic diseases that may affect the skeleton: the 2013 ISCD Pediatric Official Positions. *J Clin Densitom.* 2014;17(2):281-94.
41. Chevalley T, Rizzoli R. Acquisition of peak bone mass. *Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2022;36(2):101616.
42. Gafni RI, Baron J. Childhood bone mass acquisition and peak bone mass may not be important determinants of bone mass in late adulthood. *Pediatrics.* 2007;119 Suppl 2:S131-6.
43. Raimann A, Misof BM, Fratzl P, Fratzl-Zelman N. Bone Material Properties in Bone Diseases Affecting Children. *Curr Osteoporos Rep.* 2023;21(6):787-805.
44. Rodrick E, Kindler JM. Bone mass accrual in children. *Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes.* 2024;31(1):53-9.

45. Hogler W, Ward L. Osteoporosis in Children with Chronic Disease. *Endocr Dev.* 2015;28:176-95.
46. Hogler W, Ward LM. New developments in the management of achondroplasia. *Wien Med Wochenschr.* 2020;170(5-6):104-11.
47. Ward LM, Bakhamis S, Koujok K. Approach to the Pediatric Patient with Glucocorticoid-Induced Osteoporosis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2024.
48. Ebeling PR, Nguyen HH, Aleksova J, Vincent AJ, Wong P, Milat F. Secondary Osteoporosis. *Endocr Rev.* 2022;43(2):240-313.
49. Giangregorio LM, Leslie WD, Lix LM, Johansson H, Oden A, McCloskey E, et al. FRAX underestimates fracture risk in patients with diabetes. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2012;27(2):301-8.
50. Kanis JA, Hans D, Cooper C, Baim S, Bilezikian JP, Binkley N, et al. Interpretation and use of FRAX in clinical practice. *Osteoporos Int.* 2011;22(9):2395-411.
51. Schacter GI, Leslie WD. DXA-Based Measurements in Diabetes: Can They Predict Fracture Risk? *Calcif Tissue Int.* 2017;100(2):150-64.
52. Vilaca T, Schini M, Harnan S, Sutton A, Poku E, Allen IE, et al. The risk of hip and non-vertebral fractures in type 1 and type 2 diabetes: A systematic review and meta-analysis update. *Bone.* 2020;137:115457.
53. Dhaliwal R, Ewing SK, Vashishth D, Semba RD, Schwartz AV. Greater Carboxy-Methyl-Lysine Is Associated With Increased Fracture Risk in Type 2 Diabetes. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2022;37(2):265-72.
54. Wolfel EM, Jahn-Rickert K, Schmidt FN, Wulff B, Mushumba H, Sroga GE, et al. Individuals with type 2 diabetes mellitus show dimorphic and heterogeneous patterns of loss in femoral bone quality. *Bone.* 2020;140:115556.
55. Dragoun Kolibova S, Wolfel EM, Hemmatian H, Milovanovic P, Mushumba H, Wulff B, et al. Osteocyte apoptosis and cellular micropetrosis signify skeletal aging in type 1 diabetes. *Acta Biomater.* 2023;162:254-65.
56. Cirovic A, Schmidt FN, Vujacic M, Sihota P, Petrovic B, Zivkovic V, et al. Lower microhardness along with less heterogeneous mineralization in the femoral neck of individuals with type 2 diabetes mellitus indicates higher fracture risk. *JBMR Plus.* 2024;8(3):ziae005.
57. Cirovic A, Vujacic M, Petrovic B, Cirovic A, Zivkovic V, Nikolic S, et al. Vascular Complications in Individuals with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Additionally Increase the Risk of Femoral Neck Fractures Due to Deteriorated Trabecular Microarchitecture. *Calcif Tissue Int.* 2022;110(1):65-73.
58. Bassett JH, Williams GR. Role of Thyroid Hormones in Skeletal Development and Bone Maintenance. *Endocr Rev.* 2016;37(2):135-87.
59. Vestergaard P, Mosekilde L. Hyperthyroidism, bone mineral, and fracture risk--a meta-analysis. *Thyroid.* 2003;13(6):585-93.
60. Nicholls JJ, Brassill MJ, Williams GR, Bassett JH. The skeletal consequences of thyrotoxicosis. *J Endocrinol.* 2012;213(3):209-21.
61. Lademann F, Tsourdi E, Hofbauer LC, Rauner M. Thyroid Hormone Actions and Bone Remodeling - The Role of the Wnt Signaling Pathway. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes.* 2020;128(6-07):450-4.
62. Jadzic J, Tomanovic N, Djukic D, Zivkovic V, Nikolic S, Djuric M, et al. Micro-scale assessment of bone quality changes in adult cadaveric men with congestive hepatopathy. *Histochem Cell Biol.* 2022;158(6):583-93.
63. Jadzic J, Milovanovic P, Tomanovic N, Zivkovic V, Djukic D, Nikolic S, et al. Micro-scale vertebral features in postmenopausal women with alcohol-associated and metabolic-associated fatty liver disease: ex vivo bone quality analyses. *J Endocrinol Invest.* 2024;47(1):131-40.

64. Schmidt T, Schmidt C, Schmidt FN, Butscheidt S, Mussawy H, Hubert J, et al. Disease Duration and Stage Influence Bone Microstructure in Patients With Primary Biliary Cholangitis. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2018;33(6):1011-9.
65. Jadzic J, Milovanovic PD, Cvetkovic D, Zivkovic V, Nikolic S, Tomanovic N, et al. The altered osteocytic expression of connexin 43 and sclerostin in human cadaveric donors with alcoholic liver cirrhosis: Potential treatment targets. *J Anat*. 2022;240(6):1162-73.
66. Jadzic J, Milovanovic P, Cvetkovic D, Ivovic M, Tomanovic N, Bracanovic M, et al. Mechanostructural alteration in proximal femora of individuals with alcoholic liver disease: Implications for increased bone fragility. *Bone*. 2021;150:116020.
67. Hogler W, Baumann U, Kelly D. Endocrine and bone metabolic complications in chronic liver disease and after liver transplantation in children. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr*. 2012;54(3):313-21.
68. Sobh MM, Abdalbary M, Elnagar S, Nagy E, Elshabrawy N, Abdelsalam M, et al. Secondary Osteoporosis and Metabolic Bone Diseases. *J Clin Med*. 2022;11(9).
69. Messina OD, Vidal LF, Wilman MV, Bultink IEM, Raterman HG, Lems W. Management of glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis. *Aging Clin Exp Res*. 2021;33(4):793-804.
70. Fardet L, Petersen I, Nazareth I. Monitoring of patients on long-term glucocorticoid therapy: a population-based cohort study. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2015;94(15):e647.
71. Weinstein RS. Clinical practice. Glucocorticoid-induced bone disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365(1):62-70.
72. Wang T, Liu X, He C. Glucocorticoid-induced autophagy and apoptosis in bone. *Apoptosis*. 2020;25(3-4):157-68.
73. O'Brien CA, Jia D, Plotkin LI, Bellido T, Powers CC, Stewart SA, et al. Glucocorticoids act directly on osteoblasts and osteocytes to induce their apoptosis and reduce bone formation and strength. *Endocrinology*. 2004;145(4):1835-41.
74. Thiele S, Hannemann A, Winzer M, Baschant U, Weidner H, Nauck M, et al. Regulation of sclerostin in glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis (GIO) in mice and humans. *Endocr Connect*. 2019;8(7):923-34.
75. LoCascio V, Bonucci E, Imbimbo B, Ballanti P, Adami S, Milani S, et al. Bone loss in response to long-term glucocorticoid therapy. *Bone Miner*. 1990;8(1):39-51.
76. Van Staa TP, Laan RF, Barton IP, Cohen S, Reid DM, Cooper C. Bone density threshold and other predictors of vertebral fracture in patients receiving oral glucocorticoid therapy. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2003;48(11):3224-9.
77. Rolvien T, Milovanovic P, Schmidt FN, von Kroge S, Wolfel EM, Krause M, et al. Long-Term Immobilization in Elderly Females Causes a Specific Pattern of Cortical Bone and Osteocyte Deterioration Different From Postmenopausal Osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2020;35(7):1343-51.
78. Weber DR, Boyce A, Gordon C, Hogler W, Kecskemethy HH, Misra M, et al. The Utility of DXA Assessment at the Forearm, Proximal Femur, and Lateral Distal Femur, and Vertebral Fracture Assessment in the Pediatric Population: 2019 ISCD Official Position. *J Clin Densitom*. 2019;22(4):567-89.
79. Modlesky CM, Majumdar S, Narasimhan A, Dudley GA. Trabecular bone microarchitecture is deteriorated in men with spinal cord injury. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2004;19(1):48-55.
80. Foessel I, Ackert-Bicknell CL, Kague E, Laskou F, Jakob F, Karasik D, et al. A perspective on muscle phenotyping in musculoskeletal research. *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2024;35(6):478-89.
81. Ganesan K, Jandu JS, Anastasopoulou C, Ahsun S, Roane D. Secondary Osteoporosis. StatPearls. Treasure Island (FL) ineligible companies. Disclosure: Jagmohan Jandu declares no relevant financial relationships with ineligible companies. Disclosure: Catherine Anastasopoulou declares no relevant financial relationships with ineligible companies. Disclosure: Sana Ahsun declares no relevant financial relationships with ineligible companies.

Disclosure: Douglas Roane declares no relevant financial relationships with ineligible companies.2024.

82. Formosa MM, Bergen DJM, Gregson CL, Maurizi A, Kampe A, Garcia-Giralt N, et al. A Roadmap to Gene Discoveries and Novel Therapies in Monogenic Low and High Bone Mass Disorders. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*. 2021;12:709711.
83. Funck-Brentano T, Zillikens MC, Clunie G, Siggelkow H, Appelman-Dijkstra NM, Cohen-Solal M. Osteopetrosis and related osteoclast disorders in adults: A review and knowledge gaps On behalf of the European calcified tissue society and ERN BOND. *Eur J Med Genet*. 2024;69:104936.
84. Priego Zurita AL, Grasemann C, Boarini M, Chapurlat R, Mordenti M, Group EBW, et al. Data collection on rare bone and mineral conditions in Europe: The landscape of registries and databases. *Eur J Med Genet*. 2023;66(12):104868.
85. Unger S, Ferreira CR, Mortier GR, Ali H, Bertola DR, Calder A, et al. Nosology of genetic skeletal disorders: 2023 revision. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2023;191(5):1164-209.
86. McClung MR, Grauer A, Boonen S, Bolognese MA, Brown JP, Diez-Perez A, et al. Romosozumab in postmenopausal women with low bone mineral density. *N Engl J Med*. 2014;370(5):412-20.
87. Marom R, Rabenhorst BM, Morello R. Osteogenesis imperfecta: an update on clinical features and therapies. *Eur J Endocrinol*. 2020;183(4):R95-R106.
88. Whyte MP, Greenberg CR, Salman NJ, Bober MB, McAlister WH, Wenkert D, et al. Enzyme-replacement therapy in life-threatening hypophosphatasia. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366(10):904-13.
89. Carpenter TO, Whyte MP, Imel EA, Boot AM, Hogler W, Linglart A, et al. Burosumab Therapy in Children with X-Linked Hypophosphatemia. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;378(21):1987-98.
90. Taylor-Miller T, Savarirayan R. Progress in managing children with achondroplasia. *Expert Rev Endocrinol Metab*. 2024;1-8.
91. Briggs MD, Bell PA, Wright MJ, Pirog KA. New therapeutic targets in rare genetic skeletal diseases. *Expert Opin Orphan Drugs*. 2015;3(10):1137-54.
92. Villalon-Garcia I, Alvarez-Cordoba M, Suarez-Rivero JM, Povea-Cabello S, Talaveron-Rey M, Suarez-Carrillo A, et al. Precision Medicine in Rare Diseases. *Diseases*. 2020;8(4).
93. Forouhan M, Sonntag S, Boot-Handford RP. Carbamazepine reduces disease severity in a mouse model of metaphyseal chondrodysplasia type Schmid caused by a premature stop codon (Y632X) in the Col10a1 gene. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2018;27(22):3840-53.
94. Kumari R, Jat P. Mechanisms of Cellular Senescence: Cell Cycle Arrest and Senescence Associated Secretory Phenotype. *Front Cell Dev Biol*. 2021;9:645593.
95. Farr JN, Khosla S. Cellular senescence in bone. *Bone*. 2019;121:121-33.
96. Doolittle ML, Monroe DG, Farr JN, Khosla S. The role of senolytics in osteoporosis and other skeletal pathologies. *Mech Ageing Dev*. 2021;199:111565.
97. Khosla S, Farr JN, Tchkonja T, Kirkland JL. The role of cellular senescence in ageing and endocrine disease. *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2020;16(5):263-75.
98. Farr JN, Xu M, Weivoda MM, Monroe DG, Fraser DG, Onken JL, et al. Targeting cellular senescence prevents age-related bone loss in mice. *Nat Med*. 2017;23(9):1072-9.
99. Sharma AK, Roberts RL, Benson RD, Jr., Pierce JL, Yu K, Hamrick MW, et al. The Senolytic Drug Navitoclax (ABT-263) Causes Trabecular Bone Loss and Impaired Osteoprogenitor Function in Aged Mice. *Front Cell Dev Biol*. 2020;8:354.
100. Wyles SP, Tchkonja T, Kirkland JL. Targeting Cellular Senescence for Age-Related Diseases: Path to Clinical Translation. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. 2022;150:20S-6S.
101. Marcocci C, Cetani F. Clinical practice. Primary hyperparathyroidism. *N Engl J Med*. 2011;365(25):2389-97.
102. Insogna KL. Primary Hyperparathyroidism. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379(25):e43.
103. Cusano NE, Silverberg SJ, Bilezikian JP. Normocalcemic primary hyperparathyroidism. *J Clin Densitom*. 2013;16(1):33-9.

104. Castellano E, Attanasio R, Boriani A, Pellegrino M, Garino F, Gianotti L, et al. Sex Difference in the Clinical Presentation of Primary Hyperparathyroidism: Influence of Menopausal Status. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2017;102(11):4148-52.
105. Boros E, Ertl DA, Berkenou J, Audrain C, Lecoq AL, Kamenicky P, et al. Adult height improved over decades in patients with X-linked hypophosphatemia: a cohort study. *Eur J Endocrinol.* 2023;189(4):469-75.
106. Zhang H, Zhang Y, Terajima M, Romanowicz G, Liu Y, Omi M, et al. Loss of BMP signaling mediated by BMPRI1A in osteoblasts leads to differential bone phenotypes in mice depending on anatomical location of the bones. *Bone.* 2020;137:115402.
107. Zhang YY, Xie N, Sun XD, Nice EC, Liou YC, Huang C, et al. Insights and implications of sexual dimorphism in osteoporosis. *Bone Res.* 2024;12(1):8.
108. Zaidi M, Lizneva D, Kim SM, Sun L, Iqbal J, New MI, et al. FSH, Bone Mass, Body Fat, and Biological Aging. *Endocrinology.* 2018;159(10):3503-14.
109. Pluskiewicz W, Adamczyk P, Franek E, Sewerynek E, Leszczynski P, Wichrowska H, et al. FRAX calculator and Garvan nomogram in male osteoporotic population. *Aging Male.* 2014;17(3):174-82.
110. Vilaca T, Eastell R, Schini M. Osteoporosis in men. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol.* 2022;10(4):273-83.
111. Jiang HX, Majumdar SR, Dick DA, Moreau M, Raso J, Otto DD, et al. Development and initial validation of a risk score for predicting in-hospital and 1-year mortality in patients with hip fractures. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2005;20(3):494-500.
112. Wainwright SA, Marshall LM, Ensrud KE, Cauley JA, Black DM, Hillier TA, et al. Hip fracture in women without osteoporosis. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2005;90(5):2787-93.
113. Carey JJ, Chih-Hsing Wu P, Bergin D. Risk assessment tools for osteoporosis and fractures in 2022. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol.* 2022;36(3):101775.
114. Shevroja E, Reginster JY, Lamy O, Al-Daghri N, Chandran M, Demoux-Baiada AL, et al. Update on the clinical use of trabecular bone score (TBS) in the management of osteoporosis: results of an expert group meeting organized by the European Society for Clinical and Economic Aspects of Osteoporosis, Osteoarthritis and Musculoskeletal Diseases (ESCEO), and the International Osteoporosis Foundation (IOF) under the auspices of WHO Collaborating Center for Epidemiology of Musculoskeletal Health and Aging. *Osteoporos Int.* 2023;34(9):1501-29.
115. Humbert L, Bague A, Di Gregorio S, Winzenrieth R, Sevillano X, Gonzalez Ballester MA, et al. DXA-Based 3D Analysis of the Cortical and Trabecular Bone of Hip Fracture Postmenopausal Women: A Case-Control Study. *J Clin Densitom.* 2020;23(3):403-10.
116. Ginther JP, Ginther AW, Brodersen LD. Adding Vfa to Dxa Identifies Fracture Risk in a Way Not Duplicated by Other Measures. *Endocr Pract.* 2017;23(12):1375-8.
117. Zhang AL. CORR Insights(R): A Cam Morphology Develops in the Early Phase of the Final Growth Spurt in Adolescent Ice Hockey Players: Results of a Prospective MRI-based Study. *Clin Orthop Relat Res.* 2021;479(5):919-21.
118. Cohen A, Foldes AJ, Hiller N, Simanovsky N, Szalat A. Opportunistic screening for osteoporosis and osteopenia by routine computed tomography scan: A heterogeneous, multiethnic, middle-eastern population validation study. *Eur J Radiol.* 2021;136:109568.
119. Mikolajewicz N, Bishop N, Burghardt AJ, Folkestad L, Hall A, Kozloff KM, et al. HR-pQCT Measures of Bone Microarchitecture Predict Fracture: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2020;35(3):446-59.
120. Cheung WH, Hung VW, Cheuk KY, Chau WW, Tsoi KK, Wong RM, et al. Best Performance Parameters of HR-pQCT to Predict Fragility Fracture: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2021;36(12):2381-98.
121. Hong N, Park H, Kim CO, Kim HC, Choi JY, Kim H, et al. Bone Radiomics Score Derived From DXA Hip Images Enhances Hip Fracture Prediction in Older Women. *J Bone Miner Res.* 2021;36(9):1708-16.

122. Sollmann N, Loffler MT, Kronthaler S, Bohm C, Dieckmeyer M, Ruschke S, et al. MRI-Based Quantitative Osteoporosis Imaging at the Spine and Femur. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2021;54(1):12-35.
123. Cortet B, Dennison E, Diez-Perez A, Locquet M, Muratore M, Nogues X, et al. Radiofrequency Echographic Multi Spectrometry (REMS) for the diagnosis of osteoporosis in a European multicenter clinical context. *Bone*. 2021;143:115786.
124. Beekman KM, Regenboog M, Nederveen AJ, Bravenboer N, den Heijer M, Bisschop PH, et al. Gender- and Age-Associated Differences in Bone Marrow Adipose Tissue and Bone Marrow Fat Unsaturation Throughout the Skeleton, Quantified Using Chemical Shift Encoding-Based Water-Fat MRI. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*. 2022;13:815835.
125. Schoeb M, Hamdy NAT, Malgo F, Winter EM, Appelman-Dijkstra NM. Added Value of Impact Microindentation in the Evaluation of Bone Fragility: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*. 2020;11:15.
126. Smout D, Van Craenenbroeck AH, Jorgensen HS, Evenepoel P. MicroRNAs: emerging biomarkers and therapeutic targets of bone fragility in chronic kidney disease. *Clin Kidney J*. 2023;16(3):408-21.
127. Rani S, Bandyopadhyay-Ghosh S, Ghosh SB, Liu G. Advances in Sensing Technologies for Monitoring of Bone Health. *Biosensors (Basel)*. 2020;10(4).
128. Nash KE, Ong KG, Guldberg RE. Implantable biosensors for musculoskeletal health. *Connect Tissue Res*. 2022;63(3):228-42.