

Pathogenetic correlation

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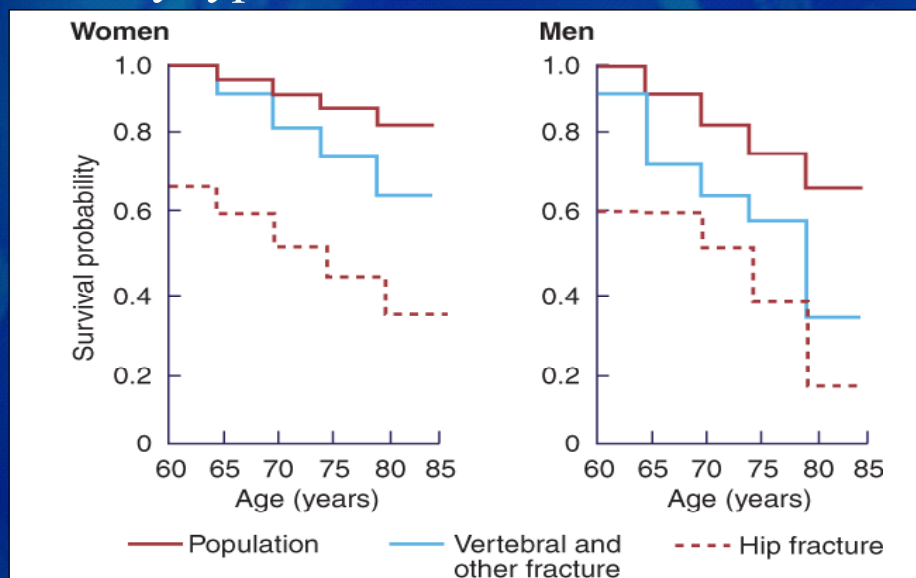
Reduced bone mineral density (BMD) is the most common bone lesion found in HIV-infected individuals. BMD is a parameter that predicts fracture risk, which in turn correlates with a shorter life expectancy. In the elderly, osteoporotic fractures and cardiovascular events are major causes of mortality and morbidity in the general population. In HIV-positive subjects, prevalence of these events is expected to rise in the next future, owing to the increasing longevity of our patients, so the need for early referral of high-risk subjects identified by different independent predictors of cardiovascular risk is also urged. Dao and colleagues compared total and fragility site fracture rates among 5826 HIV-infected adults participating in HOPS with rates among adults in the general US population. Fracture rates for the general population were estimated from National Hospital Discharge Survey data and

National Hospital Ambulatory Medical Care Survey data. The results showed that overall fracture rates were higher among HOPS participants than the US general population aged 25-54 years. In addition to increased rate of fracture at fragility sites such as the wrist, vertebra, and femoral neck, both men and women in the HOPS cohort had a significantly higher rate of fractures at nonfragility sites compared with the general population ($P \leq .05$). Osteoporosis and related fractures are well-recognized public-health concerns, and increased mortality after fracture is accepted. Excess mortality varies after hip fracture, with 12-month rates ranging from 12% to 35%. Increased mortality is associated with all major osteoporotic fractures in women and men, but there is also an association between increased mortality and a collective group of other fractures, including pelvis, distal femur, proximal tibia,

multiple rib, and proximal humerus. Most excess mortality occurs within the first 3-12 months after fracture, and increases with age. Fracture patients have a higher mortality than does the general population, especially those with hip fractures.

Low bone-mineral density has been associated with increased mortality independent of fracture. Many studies suggest that osteoporosis is a risk factor for cardiovascular events, suggesting an independent association between loss of BMD and vascular calcification, an index of atherosclerosis and cardiovascular risk.

Cumulative survival probability after any type of fracture (Center JR et al. Lancet 1999)

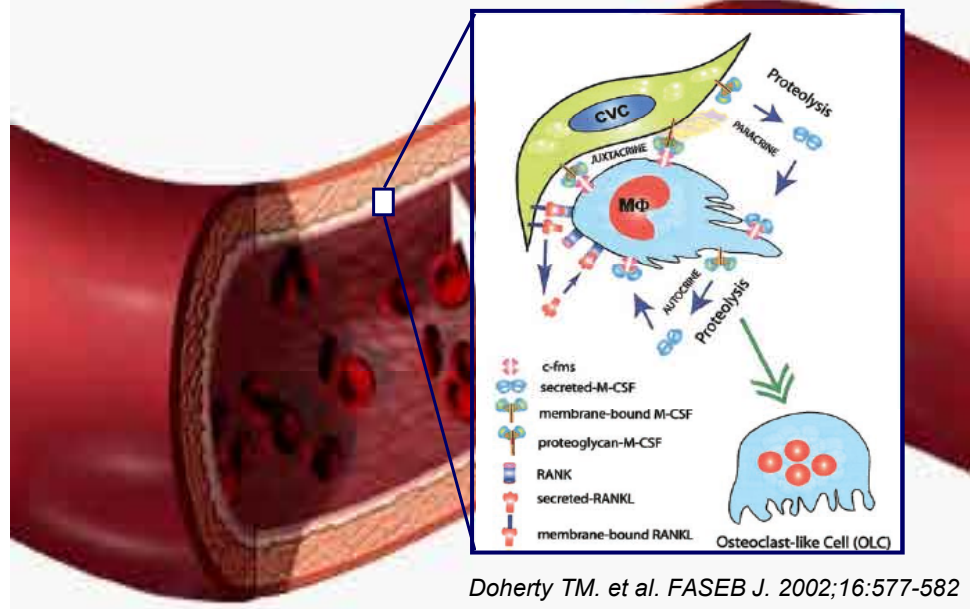


The increased risk associated with osteoporosis is independent of traditional cardiovascular risk factors, is proportional to the severity of osteoporosis, and is not part of a general inclination to morbidities caused by frailty of osteoporotic subjects. Arterial calcification is the result of organized, regulated processes with many similarities to osteogenesis. Low BMD is associated with increases in the relative risk of cardiovascular events and related mortality, and we need to use BMD and vertebral fracture assessment, and investigate the relationship between severity of osteoporosis and risk of cardiovascular events, to answer if low BMD values and vertebral fractures are associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events, and if the risk of cardiovascular events is proportional to the severity of osteoporosis. There is a significant age-independent association between the degree of aortic calcification and bone density and a strong inverse relation between gains in vascular calcification and bone loss. There is a graded association between the progression of vascular calcification and bone loss. After the mid-60s the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome, diabetes, and related cardiovascular complications show an increasing prevalence, so these patients are particularly suitable for assessing the use of bone assessment for the early prediction of the risk for cardiovascular events.

Low bone mass is an even stronger predictor of cardiovascular disease than other well-known risk factors, such as serum cholesterol and smoking. Diagnosis of osteoporosis indicate an increase in risk for a cardiovascular event, even when adjusted for the potential confounding effects of age, prior cardiovascular disease, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, diabetes, smoking habits, or the clustering of these risk factors into a composite cardiovascular risk score, suggesting that the increased risk cannot be explained by common risk factors impacting on both organ systems. The increase in risk for cardiovascular events associated with prior fracture suggests that the association with increased hospitalization and mortality may be at least in part attributable to coronary and stroke events. The presence of at least one vertebral fracture is associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events regardless of total hip BMD, and increasing number and severity of vertebral fracture are associated with a further increase in cardiovascular risk. Women with vertebral fractures have increased mortality, but clinically diagnosed vertebral fractures may represent only a third of all vertebral deformities. The vertebral fractures are generally only

those coming to clinical attention. Since routine radiography is not performed, symptomless, prevalent, or incident vertebral fractures, which may represent up to two-thirds of all morphometric vertebral deformities, may have been undetected. The mechanism by which osteoporosis and cardiovascular disease may be linked is not fully understood, although age, diabetes, dyslipidemia, and hypertension are all established risk factors for cardiovascular disease that also have been associated with decreased BMD or increased fracture risk. Vascular and skeletal biology may share some common pathophysiological mechanisms, suggested by similarities between vascular calcification and active bone formation. Arterial tissue is calcified in an organ-

Mechanisms contributing to M-CSF- and RANKL-mediated maturation of macrophage to OLC in the arterial wall



ized, regulated process by mechanisms similar to those involved in the mineralization of bone. The mineral deposit in the arterial wall, hydroxyapatite, is the same mineral found in bone, and it is structurally arranged with trabeculae and lacunae visible in the calcific deposit. Regulated osteogenesis may occur in some cells of the arterial wall. Indeed, cells with both osteoblastic and osteoclastic potential have been described in vascular tissues, and bone-related proteins have been identified in calcified arterial lesions. Monocyte and osteoclast precursors are both recruited by endothelial cells from circulating blood. Circulating monocytic and extraskeletal fibroblastic cells can be induced to differentiate into osteoclasts, and monocytes into OLCs, that show bone resorption activity. Osteoclasts are members of the monocyte/macrophage lineage originating from multiple cellular fusions of their precursors that proliferate and differentiate towards mature osteoclasts by means of macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) and RANKL.

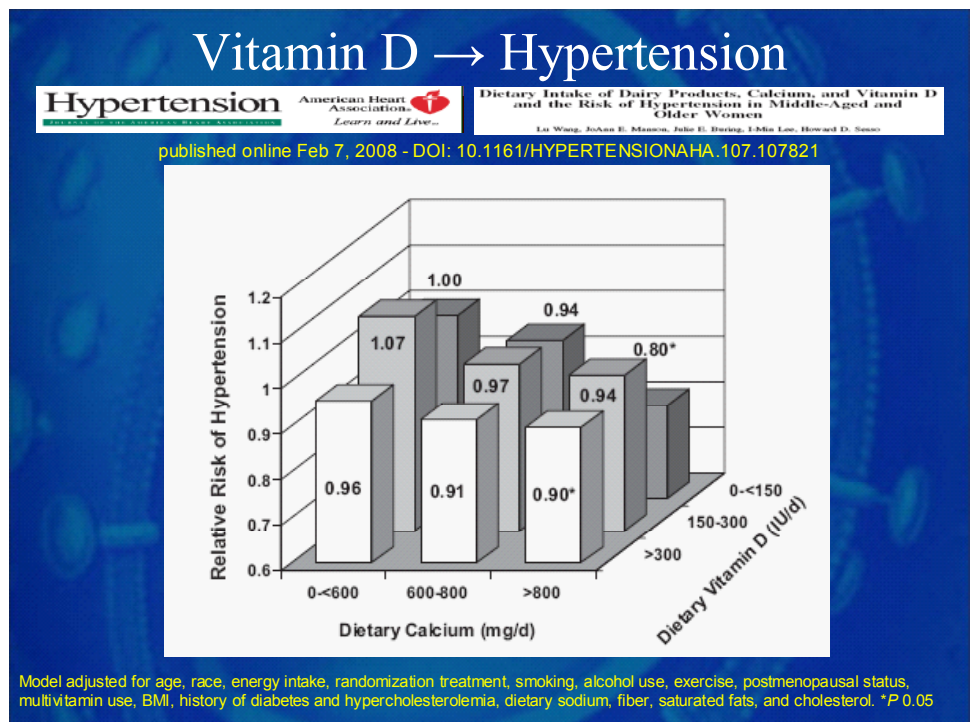
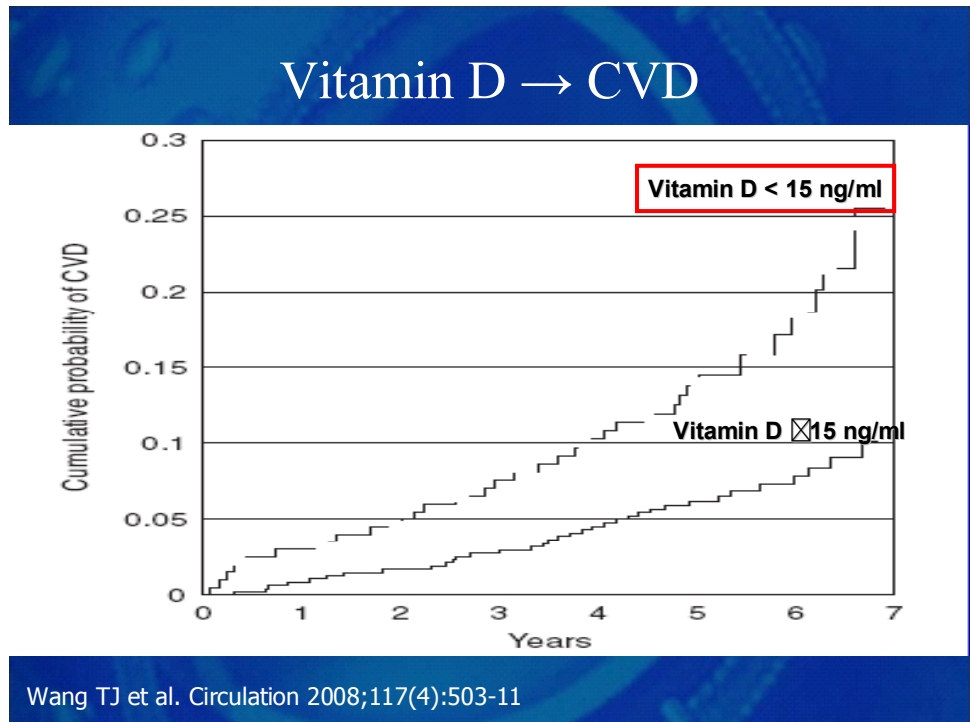
All cells of the vessel wall express M-CSF, and vascular endothelial cells express RANKL and OPG. RANKL

is expressed in small blood vessels of the skin, OPG is expressed in normal arteries, and OPG, RANK, and RANKL transcripts, normally expressed by osteoblastic stromal cells and osteoclast precursors, are found in cells associated with calcified arterial lesions of OPG-deficient mice. Regulators of bone turnover have all been identified in calcified atherosclerotic plaques in humans, and increased expression in these proteins has been associated with unstable carotid artery disease. The artery wall contains cells that retain the capacity to differentiate into osteoblastlike cells. The primary determinant of net mineral deposition in diseased arteries is inhibition of mineral resorption by OLCs rather than mineral deposition of osteoblast-like cells. Reduced mineral resorption might be secondary to decreased maturation, survival, and/or function of OLCs within developing calcified vascular lesion. Low levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25-OH D) are present in as many as one third to one half of otherwise healthy middle-aged to elderly adults. Low levels of vitamin D may adversely affect the cardiovascular system.

Vitamin D receptors have a broad tissue distribution that includes vascular smooth muscle, endothelium, and cardiomyocytes. In vitro, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D (1,25-OH D) suppresses renin gene expression, regulates the growth and proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells and cardiomyocytes, and inhibits cytokine release from lymphocytes. 1,25-OH D participates in the regulation of renin-angiotensin axis by directly suppressing renin gene expression. Putative vascular effects of vitamin D are wide-ranging and include modulation of smooth muscle cell proliferation, inflammation, and thrombosis. Vitamin D deficiency directly promotes the development of hypertension, which provides another potential mechanism linking vitamin

D deficiency, hypertension, and cardiovascular risk. Many studies have reported cross-sectional associations between lower vitamin D levels and plasma renin activity, blood pressure, coronary artery calcification, and prevalent cardiovascular disease.

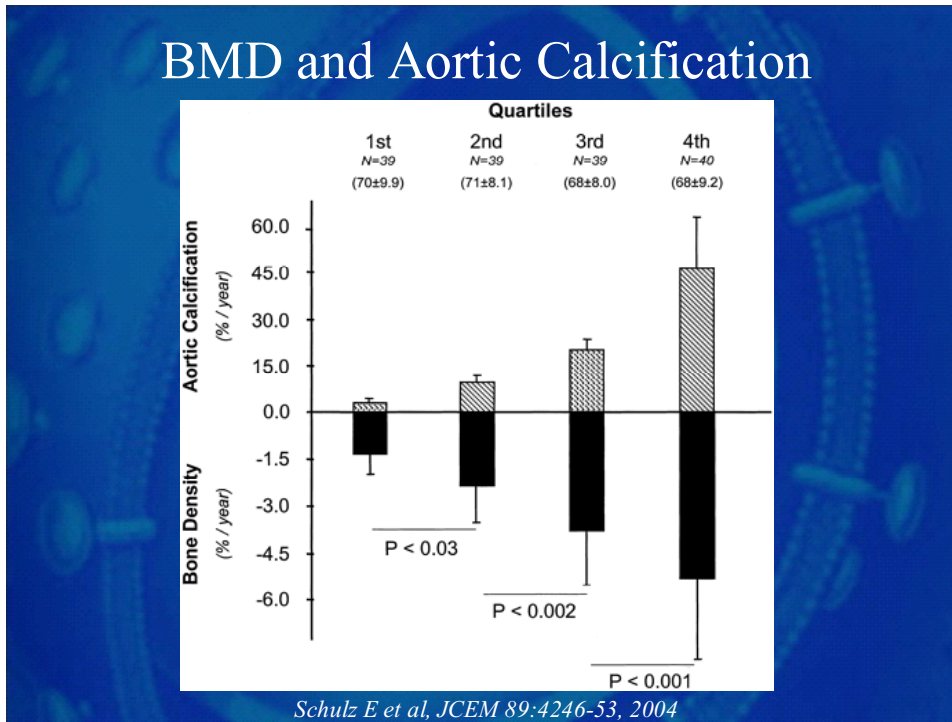
Other studies have reported higher rates of coronary heart disease and hypertension with increasing distance from the equator, a phenomenon that has been attributed to the higher prevalence of vitamin D deficiency in regions with less exposure to sunlight. Vitamin D deficiency is associated with increased cardiovascular risk, above and beyond established cardiovascular risk factors. Increased cardiovascu-



lar risk is present at 25-OH D levels (<15 ng/mL) compatible with at least moderate vitamin D deficiency. In many studies, lower 25-OH D levels have been observed in individuals with acute myocardial infarction, stroke, heart failure, and cardiovascular disease. In 2 studies, 25-OH D was assayed on presentation to the hospital with the cardiovascular event, which suggests that the low 25-OH D levels predated the cardiovascular event.

Vitamin D supplementation has promoted reductions in blood pressure, left ventricular hypertrophy, and inflammatory cytokines. Vitamin D did appear to reduce cardiovascular risk in obese individuals, and also in those with multiple coronary risk factors. In conclusions, there is an association between osteoporosis and risk of cardiovascular events that is independent of age and cardiovascular risk factors. Clinical management of patients with osteoporosis

should include not only prevention of fractures but also prevention of cardiovascular disease. Moderate to severe vitamin D deficiency is a risk factor for developing cardiovascular disease. These findings may have potentially broad public health implications, given the high prevalence of vitamin D deficiency, the contribution of lifestyle and geography to vitamin D status, and the ease, safety, and low cost of treating vitamin D deficiency. Treatment of vitamin D deficiency, via supplementation or lifestyle measures, could reduce cardiovascular risk.



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