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A Case of Concurrent COPD Exacerbation, Osteoporosis, and Fracture: Unveiling the Interplay

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ABSTRACT

Background: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is a prevalent respiratory condition with systemic effects, including an increased risk of osteoporosis and fractures. This case report presents a patient with acute COPD exacerbation, osteoporosis, and vertebral fractures, highlighting the complex interplay between these conditions. **Case presentation:** A 68-year-old male patient presented with acute exacerbation of COPD. He had a history of smoking, hypertension, and a previous diagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis. Clinical examination revealed signs of respiratory distress, and imaging confirmed emphysema, pneumonia, osteoporosis, and vertebral fractures. The patient received treatment for COPD exacerbation and osteoporosis, showing improvement in respiratory symptoms and pain. **Conclusion:** This case underscores the importance of recognizing the association between COPD, osteoporosis, and fractures. Early diagnosis and appropriate management of these co-morbidities are crucial for improving patient outcomes and quality of life.

1. Introduction

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is a chronic and progressive lung condition that poses a significant global health burden. It is characterized by persistent airflow limitation, primarily caused by chronic inflammation and structural changes in the airways and lung parenchyma. COPD is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, ranking as the third leading cause of death globally. The World Health Organization estimates that COPD caused 3.23 million deaths in 2019, and the burden is projected to increase in the coming decades. The primary risk factor for COPD is tobacco smoking, with other contributing factors including exposure to air pollution, occupational dusts and chemicals, and

genetic susceptibility. The disease typically affects older individuals, with the majority of cases occurring in people over the age of 40. COPD is associated with a range of respiratory symptoms, including chronic cough, sputum production, and dyspnea, which progressively worsen over time. In addition to its respiratory effects, COPD is increasingly recognized as a systemic disease with multi-organ involvement. Systemic inflammation, a hallmark of COPD, plays a crucial role in the pathogenesis of various extrapulmonary manifestations. These comorbidities significantly impact the quality of life, healthcare utilization, and mortality of COPD patients.¹⁻³

One of the significant comorbidities associated with COPD is osteoporosis, a skeletal disorder

characterized by low bone mineral density and microarchitectural deterioration of bone tissue. Osteoporosis leads to increased bone fragility and susceptibility to fractures, particularly in the spine, hip, and wrist. The prevalence of osteoporosis in COPD patients is estimated to be substantially higher than in the general population, ranging from 2 to 5 times greater. Several factors contribute to the increased risk of osteoporosis in COPD patients. Smoking, a major risk factor for both COPD and osteoporosis, has detrimental effects on bone health by impairing bone formation and increasing bone resorption. Systemic inflammation, a key feature of COPD, also plays a role in bone loss by promoting osteoclast activity and inhibiting osteoblast function. Vitamin D deficiency, physical inactivity, and the use of certain medications, such as corticosteroids, are additional risk factors for osteoporosis in COPD patients. The presence of osteoporosis in COPD patients has significant clinical implications. Osteoporotic fractures, particularly vertebral fractures, are associated with increased morbidity and mortality in COPD patients. Fractures can lead to further respiratory compromise, reduced mobility, impaired quality of life, and increased healthcare costs. Early diagnosis and management of osteoporosis in COPD patients are essential to mitigate the risk of fractures and improve patient outcomes. However, the diagnosis of osteoporosis in COPD patients can be challenging due to the often non-specific symptoms, such as back pain or decreased height. Imaging studies, including vertebral X-rays or bone mineral density assessments, are crucial for confirming the diagnosis.⁴⁻⁷

The management of COPD patients with osteoporosis requires a comprehensive approach that addresses both respiratory and skeletal health. Optimization of COPD treatment, including smoking cessation and appropriate pharmacotherapy, is essential to reduce systemic inflammation and improve lung function. Pharmacological interventions for osteoporosis, such as calcium and vitamin D supplementation, bisphosphonates, or other bone-active agents, may be considered to improve bone

mineral density and reduce fracture risk. Non-pharmacological interventions, including exercise and fall prevention strategies, are also important components of osteoporosis management. This case report presents a patient with concurrent COPD exacerbation, osteoporosis, and vertebral fractures, highlighting the complex interplay between these conditions.⁸⁻¹⁰ The report aims to raise awareness among healthcare professionals about the increased risk of osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients and emphasize the importance of early diagnosis and appropriate management to improve patient outcomes and quality of life.

2. Case Presentation

This case report presents a 68-year-old male patient who presented with a complex clinical picture involving an acute exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), osteoporosis, and vertebral compression fractures. The patient's medical history, clinical presentation, and diagnostic findings are summarized below. The patient's primary complaint was worsening shortness of breath for one day, associated with exertion and coughing. His history revealed a 5-year history of COPD, with one prior hospitalization and three exacerbations in the past year. He had a chronic cough with white sputum for five years, which had recently changed to yellowish sputum for four days. He also reported fever for one week, back pain for six months, and epigastric pain for three days, accompanied by decreased appetite but no weight loss. His past medical history included pulmonary tuberculosis in 2022, which was treated and cured, and hypertension. He had a significant smoking history of 32 years (24 pack-years) but had quit four years prior. There was no history of malignancy, diabetes, or atopy. His medications included a combination inhaler of tiotropium bromide + formoterol-budesonide for COPD and amlodipine 10 mg once daily for hypertension. On examination, the patient was conscious, alert, and underweight, with a BMI of 15.4 kg/m². His vital signs showed elevated blood pressure (145/88 mmHg), tachycardia (108

bpm), tachypnea (24 breaths/min), and mild hypoxemia (SpO₂ 90% on room air, improving to 96% with 5 L/min oxygen via nasal cannula). His temperature was 36.8°C. Respiratory examination revealed a barrel chest, symmetrical chest expansion, prolonged expiration, and bilateral wheezing and rhonchi. A cardiovascular examination showed a regular heart rhythm with no murmurs or gallops. Gastrointestinal examination revealed epigastric tenderness but no organomegaly. Examination of the extremities showed clubbing in the fingers but no edema. Laboratory investigations revealed leukocytosis (WBC 12,880/mm³) and blood gas analysis showed respiratory acidosis (pH 7.37, pCO₂ 54 mmHg, pO₂ 111 mmHg, HCO₃⁻ 28 mEq/L, BE 2.1 mEq/L). The patient also had hypocalcemia (serum calcium 7.2 mg/dL). Chest X-ray showed emphysema and pneumonia. Vertebral X-ray revealed compression fractures of the 5th and 12th thoracic vertebrae and evidence of osteoporosis. Based on the clinical presentation, medical history, and diagnostic findings, the following diagnoses were made; Acute exacerbation of COPD, moderate severity, GOLD 4, Group E; Non-severe community-acquired pneumonia; Osteoporosis with compression fractures; Hypertension stage I; Dyspepsia. This case presents a patient with a complex interplay of conditions, highlighting the multi-system effects of COPD and its association with osteoporosis and fractures. The patient's history of smoking, low BMI, and male gender placed him at increased risk for both COPD and osteoporosis. The COPD exacerbation was likely triggered by an infection, as evidenced by the fever, purulent sputum, and leukocytosis. COPD exacerbations are associated with increased inflammation, which can further contribute to bone loss and fracture risk. The osteoporosis and vertebral fractures were likely multifactorial in etiology. In addition to smoking and low BMI, his use of inhaled corticosteroids may have contributed to bone loss. While inhaled corticosteroids are effective in reducing COPD exacerbations, they can have systemic effects, including decreased bone mineral density. The

diagnosis of osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients can be challenging, as these conditions often present with non-specific symptoms such as back pain or decreased height. Imaging studies, such as vertebral X-rays or bone mineral density assessments, are essential for confirming the diagnosis. The management of COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures requires a multidisciplinary approach. Treatment for COPD exacerbation should be optimized, and medications that may contribute to bone loss should be reviewed. Smoking cessation is crucial for improving both respiratory and bone health. Pharmacological treatment for osteoporosis may include calcium and vitamin D supplementation, bisphosphonates, or other bone-active agents. Non-pharmacological interventions, such as exercise and fall prevention strategies, are also important for reducing fracture risk. This case underscores the importance of recognizing the association between COPD, osteoporosis, and fractures. Early diagnosis and appropriate management of these co-morbidities are crucial for improving patient outcomes and quality of life (Table 1).

The management of this patient with concurrent COPD exacerbation, osteoporosis, and vertebral fractures involved a multi-faceted approach, addressing both acute and long-term needs. The treatment plan was tailored to the patient's specific clinical presentation and comorbidities, with close monitoring and follow-up to assess treatment effectiveness and adjust as needed. Upon presentation, the patient's respiratory distress was addressed with oxygen therapy at 5 L/min via nasal cannula to maintain adequate oxygen saturation. Intravenous fluids (normal saline 0.9% 500cc/12 hours) were administered to maintain hydration. Bronchodilators, including ipratropium bromide and salbutamol sulfate inhaler, were prescribed four times daily to relieve bronchoconstriction and improve airflow. Systemic corticosteroids, specifically methylprednisolone 62.5 mg IV twice daily, were initiated to reduce airway inflammation and improve lung function. Antibiotics, namely levofloxacin 750 mg

IV once daily, were given to treat the suspected pneumonia. Mucolytic therapy with acetylcysteine inhaler twice daily was used to help clear airway secretions. To manage the patient's epigastric pain, a proton pump inhibitor (ranitidine 1 ampule IV twice daily) was administered. His hypertension was managed with candesartan 8 mg once daily. Paracetamol 500 mg three times daily was prescribed as needed for fever and pain management. For the osteoporosis and vertebral fractures, the patient was referred to orthopedics for further evaluation and management. Calcium carbonate 500 mg three times daily was initiated to supplement calcium intake. On day 3, the patient showed improvement in shortness of breath, and his fever had subsided. However, his cough persisted, and back pain remained. Physical examination revealed prolonged expiration but no wheezing, with rhonchi still present. His white blood cell count had decreased to 8,430/mm³, indicating improvement in the infection. By day 5, the patient's shortness of breath had further improved, and he had only an occasional cough. His back pain had also improved. Physical examination showed prolonged expiration but no wheezing or rhonchi. Antibiotics were discontinued after five days of therapy. Systemic corticosteroids were tapered to methylprednisolone 8 mg twice daily to minimize long-term side effects. The mucolytic was switched to oral acetylcysteine 1 tablet twice daily for easier administration. Bronchodilators were switched to salbutamol 2 mg three times daily for maintenance therapy. Paracetamol was increased to 500 mg four times daily for better pain control. On day 6, the patient was deemed stable for discharge. His shortness of breath was present only with exertion, and he had an occasional cough. His back pain continued to improve. Physical examination showed prolonged expiration but no wheezing or rhonchi. Medications at discharge included; Levofloxacin 750 mg once daily to complete the course of antibiotics; Salbutamol 2 mg three times daily for bronchodilation; Methylprednisolone 8 mg twice daily, with a plan for further tapering; Calcium carbonate 500 mg three

times daily for calcium supplementation; Paracetamol 500 mg four times daily for pain management. The patient was scheduled for follow-up appointments at the outpatient pulmonology and orthopedics clinics to monitor his COPD, osteoporosis, and fracture healing. The long-term management plan for this patient included; COPD: Continue maintenance inhalers, pulmonary rehabilitation, smoking cessation counseling, and vaccinations (influenza, pneumococcal) to prevent exacerbations and optimize lung function; Osteoporosis: Continue calcium and vitamin D supplementation, consider bisphosphonates or other bone-active agents to improve bone mineral density, and encourage regular exercise and fall prevention strategies to minimize fracture risk; Regular Follow-Up: Monitor lung function, symptoms, and medication effectiveness. Assess for exacerbations and adjust treatment as needed; Monitor Bone Health: Periodic bone mineral density assessments and assessment for new fractures. The treatment and follow-up plan for this patient reflects a comprehensive approach to managing the complex interplay of COPD, osteoporosis, and fractures. The initial management focused on stabilizing the patient's respiratory status and addressing the acute exacerbation. Subsequent management involved tapering medications, transitioning to oral formulations, and addressing long-term needs. The multidisciplinary approach, involving pulmonology and orthopedics, ensured that both respiratory and skeletal health were addressed. The emphasis on patient education, smoking cessation, and lifestyle modifications aimed to empower the patient to actively participate in their care and improve their overall health outcomes. Regular follow-up is crucial to monitor disease progression, assess treatment effectiveness, and identify any new issues. This proactive approach is essential to optimize patient outcomes and quality of life in the context of chronic conditions like COPD and osteoporosis (Table 2).

Table 1. Summary of patient findings.

Domain	Findings
Anamnesis	* Presenting Complaint: Worsening shortness of breath for 1 day, associated with exertion and coughing.
	* History of Present Illness: 5-year history of COPD with 1 prior hospitalization and 3 exacerbations in the past year. Chronic cough with white sputum for 5 years, recent change to yellowish sputum for 4 days. Fever for 1 week. Back pain for 6 months. Epigastric pain for 3 days. Decreased appetite. No weight loss.
	* Past Medical History: Pulmonary tuberculosis in 2022 (treated and cured). Hypertension. 32-year smoking history (24 pack-years), quit 4 years ago. No history of malignancy, diabetes, or atopy.
	* Medications: Tiotropium bromide + formoterol-budesonide inhaler. Amlodipine 10 mg once daily.
	* Social History: Former smoker. Former parking attendant.
Physical Examination	* General: Conscious, alert, underweight (BMI 15.4 kg/m ²).
	* Vital Signs: BP 145/88 mmHg, HR 108 bpm, RR 24 breaths/min, Temp 36.8°C, SpO ₂ 90% on room air, 96% with 5 L/min oxygen via nasal cannula.
	* Respiratory: Barrel chest. Symmetrical chest expansion. Prolonged expiration. Wheezing and rhonchi bilaterally.
	* Cardiovascular: Regular heart rhythm. No murmurs or gallops.
	* Gastrointestinal: Epigastric tenderness. No organomegaly.
	* Extremities: Clubbing in fingers. No edema.
Laboratory evaluation	* Complete Blood Count: Leukocytosis (WBC 12,880/mm ³).
	* Blood Gas Analysis: Respiratory acidosis (pH 7.37, pCO ₂ 54 mmHg, pO ₂ 111 mmHg, HCO ₃ ⁻ 28 mEq/L, BE 2.1 mEq/L).
	* Serum Calcium: 7.2 mg/dL (hypocalcemia).
Imaging	* Chest X-ray: Emphysema. Pneumonia (Figure 1).
	* Vertebral X-ray: Compression fractures of the 5th and 12th thoracic vertebrae. Osteoporosis (Figure 2).
Clinical Diagnosis	* Acute exacerbation of COPD, moderate severity, GOLD 4, Group E.
	* Non-severe community-acquired pneumonia.
	* Osteoporosis with compression fractures.
	* Hypertension stage I.
	* Dyspepsia.

Table 2. Treatment and follow-up.

Phase	Treatment	Follow-up
Initial management (Day 1)	* Oxygen therapy: 5 L/min via nasal cannula.	* Day 3: Shortness of breath improved. Cough persisted. No fever. Back pain persisted. Examination: prolonged expiration, no wheezing, rhonchi present. WBC decreased to 8,430/mm ³ .
	* Intravenous fluids: Normal saline 0.9% 500cc/12 hours.	
	* Bronchodilators: Ipratropium bromide and salbutamol sulfate inhaler 4 times daily.	
	* Systemic corticosteroids: Methylprednisolone 62.5 mg IV twice daily.	
	* Antibiotics: Levofloxacin 750 mg IV once daily.	
	* Mucolytic: Acetylcysteine inhaler twice daily.	
	* Proton pump inhibitor: Ranitidine 1 ampule IV twice daily.	
	* Antihypertensive: Candesartan 8 mg once daily.	
	* Analgesic: Paracetamol 500 mg 3 times daily (as needed for fever).	
	* Osteoporosis management: Referral to orthopedics. Calcium carbonate 500 mg 3 times daily.	
Subsequent management (Day 5)	* Antibiotics: Discontinued after 5 days.	* Day 5: Shortness of breath further improved. Occasional cough. No fever. Back pain improved. Examination: prolonged expiration, no wheezing or rhonchi.
	* Systemic corticosteroids: Tapered to methylprednisolone 8 mg twice daily.	
	* Mucolytic: Switched to acetylcysteine 1 tablet twice daily.	
	* Bronchodilators: Switched to salbutamol 2 mg 3 times daily.	
	* Analgesic: Increased to paracetamol 500 mg 4 times daily.	
Discharge (Day 6)	* Medications at discharge: Levofloxacin 750 mg once daily, salbutamol 2 mg 3 times daily, methylprednisolone 8 mg twice daily, calcium carbonate 500 mg 3 times daily, paracetamol 500 mg 4 times daily.	* Day 6: Shortness of breath only with exertion. Occasional cough. No fever. Back pain improved. Examination: prolonged expiration, no wheezing or rhonchi.
	* Follow-up: Scheduled for outpatient pulmonology and orthopedics clinics.	
Long-term management	* COPD: Continue maintenance of inhalers. Pulmonary rehabilitation. Smoking cessation counseling. Vaccinations (influenza, pneumococcal).	* Regular follow-up: Monitor lung function, symptoms, and medication effectiveness. Assess for exacerbations and adjust treatment as needed.
	* Osteoporosis: Continue calcium and vitamin D supplementation. Consider bisphosphonates or other bone-active agents. Encourage regular exercise and fall prevention strategies.	* Monitor bone health: Periodic bone mineral density assessments. Assess for new fractures.



Figure 1. Chest radiograph demonstrating findings consistent with pulmonary emphysema and pneumonia.

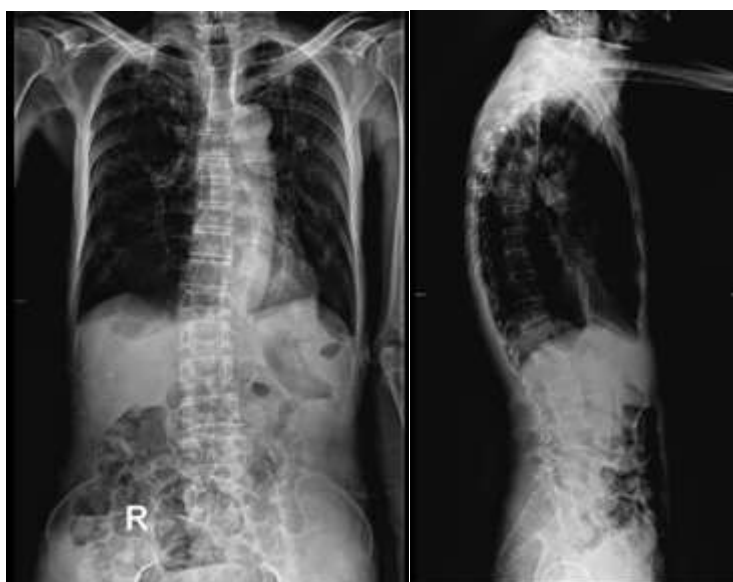


Figure 2. Vertebrothoracolumbar radiograph demonstrating osteoporosis with compression fractures of the 5th and 12th thoracic vertebrae.

3. Discussion

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), once primarily viewed as a localized respiratory condition, is now increasingly recognized as a complex systemic disease with far-reaching effects beyond the lungs. This broader understanding stems from the recognition that chronic systemic inflammation, a hallmark of COPD, acts as a key driver of various extrapulmonary manifestations, including osteoporosis, a skeletal disorder characterized by

compromised bone strength and increased susceptibility to fractures. At the heart of this intricate interplay lies the persistent state of systemic inflammation that characterizes COPD. The chronic inflammation in COPD is not confined to the airways and lung parenchyma, it extends throughout the body, impacting various organ systems and contributing to the development of comorbidities such as cardiovascular disease, metabolic disorders, and musculoskeletal abnormalities. The inflammatory

response in COPD is triggered by a complex interplay of factors, including inhaled noxious particles (e.g., cigarette smoke, air pollution), genetic predisposition, and impaired immune regulation. These factors lead to the activation of inflammatory cells, such as neutrophils, macrophages, and T lymphocytes, which release a cascade of inflammatory mediators, including cytokines, chemokines, and reactive oxygen species. These inflammatory mediators, while initially aimed at combating harmful stimuli, can have detrimental effects on various tissues and organs when chronically elevated. In the context of bone health, systemic inflammation disrupts the delicate balance between bone formation and bone resorption, tipping the scales towards bone loss and increased fracture risk. Osteoporosis, a condition characterized by low bone mineral density (BMD) and microarchitectural deterioration of bone tissue, is a significant comorbidity in COPD patients. The prevalence of osteoporosis in COPD is estimated to be substantially higher than in the general population, ranging from 2 to 5 times greater. This increased prevalence is attributed to the complex interplay of factors, including smoking, systemic inflammation, vitamin D deficiency, physical inactivity, and the use of certain medications, such as corticosteroids. Smoking, a major risk factor for both COPD and osteoporosis, exerts direct and indirect effects on bone health. Nicotine, a major component of cigarette smoke, impairs bone formation by inhibiting osteoblast activity, the cells responsible for bone building. Additionally, smoking increases oxidative stress and inflammation, further contributing to bone loss. The detrimental effects of smoking on bone health are mediated through various mechanisms. Nicotine directly interferes with osteoblast function, reducing their ability to synthesize new bone matrix. Smoking also increases the production of reactive oxygen species, which damage bone cells and promote bone resorption. Furthermore, smoking impairs the absorption of calcium, a crucial mineral for bone health, and increases the excretion of calcium in the urine, leading to a negative calcium balance. Systemic

inflammation, as discussed earlier, plays a pivotal role in the pathogenesis of osteoporosis in COPD. Inflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6), promote osteoclast activity, the cells responsible for bone resorption, and inhibit osteoblast function, leading to an imbalance favoring bone loss. TNF- α , a potent pro-inflammatory cytokine, stimulates osteoclast differentiation and activity, leading to increased bone resorption. IL-6, another key inflammatory cytokine, also promotes osteoclastogenesis and inhibits osteoblast function. These cytokines create a microenvironment in the bone that favors bone breakdown over bone formation, contributing to the development of osteoporosis. Vitamin D deficiency, commonly observed in COPD patients, further exacerbates the risk of osteoporosis. Vitamin D is essential for calcium absorption and bone mineralization. Its deficiency impairs bone formation and increases fracture risk, particularly in weight-bearing bones such as the spine and hip. COPD patients are particularly susceptible to vitamin D deficiency due to several factors. Reduced sun exposure, common in COPD patients due to limited mobility and respiratory symptoms, limits the body's ability to synthesize vitamin D from sunlight. Malabsorption of vitamin D, which can occur in COPD patients with gastrointestinal complications, further contributes to deficiency. Additionally, certain medications used in COPD management, such as corticosteroids, can interfere with vitamin D metabolism and contribute to deficiency. Physical inactivity, often prevalent in COPD patients due to dyspnea and reduced exercise capacity, also contributes to bone loss. Weight-bearing exercise stimulates bone formation and helps maintain bone mineral density. The sedentary lifestyle associated with COPD can lead to decreased bone mass and increased fracture risk. The relationship between physical inactivity and bone loss is complex and involves both mechanical and hormonal factors. Weight-bearing exercise stimulates bone formation by applying mechanical stress to the skeleton, which

triggers bone cells to increase bone mass. Physical activity also increases the production of hormones, such as growth hormone and testosterone, which promote bone health. Conversely, physical inactivity leads to decreased bone stimulation and reduced hormone production, contributing to bone loss. Certain medications used in COPD management, such as corticosteroids, can also have adverse effects on bone health. While corticosteroids are effective in reducing airway inflammation and improving lung function, they can also decrease bone mineral density and increase fracture risk, especially with long-term use. The mechanisms by which corticosteroids affect bone health are complex and involve decreased calcium absorption, increased calcium excretion, and direct inhibition of osteoblast function. Corticosteroids, while essential for managing COPD exacerbations and reducing airway inflammation, should be used judiciously to minimize their adverse effects on bone health. The lowest effective dose should be used for the shortest duration possible. Inhaled corticosteroids are generally preferred over systemic corticosteroids due to their lower risk of systemic side effects, including bone loss. The culmination of these factors – smoking, systemic inflammation, vitamin D deficiency, physical inactivity, and medication use – leads to a significantly increased risk of fractures in COPD patients. Fractures, particularly vertebral fractures, are a common and debilitating complication of osteoporosis. Vertebral fractures can cause pain, deformity, and reduced mobility, further compromising respiratory function and quality of life in COPD patients. The pain associated with vertebral fractures can limit chest expansion and impair cough effectiveness, increasing the risk of respiratory infections and exacerbations. Deformity caused by vertebral fractures can alter lung mechanics and reduce lung volumes, further compromising respiratory function. Reduced mobility due to fractures can lead to deconditioning and further decline in exercise capacity, creating a vicious cycle of physical inactivity and bone loss. In addition to vertebral fractures, COPD patients are also at

increased risk of other types of fractures, including hip fractures and rib fractures. Hip fractures are associated with significant morbidity and mortality in older adults, and COPD patients are particularly vulnerable due to their compromised bone health and increased risk of falls. Rib fractures, while less severe than hip fractures, can cause significant pain and respiratory compromise, particularly in patients with pre-existing lung disease. The interplay of COPD, osteoporosis, and fractures has a profound impact on the quality of life and mortality of COPD patients. Osteoporosis and fractures contribute to pain, disability, and reduced mobility, limiting patients' ability to perform daily activities and participate in social activities. This can lead to social isolation, depression, and anxiety, further compromising their quality of life. Fractures are also associated with increased mortality in COPD patients. Vertebral fractures, in particular, are associated with a higher risk of death, likely due to their impact on respiratory function and overall health. Hip fractures are also associated with increased mortality, particularly in older adults with multiple comorbidities.¹¹⁻¹³

Diagnosing osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients presents a unique set of challenges due to the often subtle and non-specific nature of their presenting symptoms, the presence of confounding factors related to COPD itself, and the reliance on imaging techniques that may not be routinely employed in COPD management. These challenges underscore the need for heightened clinical awareness, careful consideration of patient-specific factors, and appropriate utilization of diagnostic tools to ensure timely and accurate diagnosis. One of the primary challenges in diagnosing osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients is the non-specific nature of their symptoms. Back pain, a common symptom of vertebral fractures, may be attributed to other causes, such as muscle strain, arthritis, or even COPD exacerbations, leading to delayed or missed diagnosis. COPD patients often experience back pain due to various reasons, including chronic cough, hyperinflation of the lungs, and use of accessory

respiratory muscles. These factors can lead to musculoskeletal strain and pain, making it difficult to differentiate between back pain caused by vertebral fractures and back pain from other etiologies. Furthermore, the pain associated with vertebral fractures may be insidious in onset and gradually worsen over time, making it difficult for patients to pinpoint the exact cause of their discomfort. This gradual onset can also lead to a delay in seeking medical attention, further hindering diagnosis. COPD itself can contribute to diagnostic challenges by masking or mimicking symptoms of osteoporosis and fractures. COPD patients may have reduced height due to kyphosis or hyperinflation, making it difficult to detect height loss associated with vertebral fractures. Kyphosis, an excessive curvature of the thoracic spine, is common in COPD patients due to changes in lung mechanics and posture. Hyperinflation, an increase in lung volume due to air trapping, can also contribute to reduced height. These factors can make it challenging to assess height loss accurately, which is a potential indicator of vertebral fractures. Additionally, COPD patients may experience fatigue, weakness, and decreased exercise tolerance, which can be mistaken for symptoms of osteoporosis or fractures. These overlapping symptoms can further complicate diagnosis and delay appropriate intervention. Imaging studies, such as vertebral X-rays or bone mineral density assessments, are crucial for confirming the diagnosis of osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients. Vertebral X-rays can identify vertebral fractures, while bone mineral density measurements assess bone health and fracture risk. Vertebral X-rays are particularly useful in identifying vertebral compression fractures, which are common in COPD patients with osteoporosis. These fractures often occur in the mid-thoracic and thoracolumbar regions of the spine and can be identified on X-rays as wedge-shaped or biconcave deformities of the vertebral bodies. Bone mineral density (BMD) measurements, typically performed using dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), provide a quantitative assessment of bone health.

BMD is expressed as a T-score, which compares the patient's BMD to that of a healthy young adult. A T-score of -2.5 or lower is diagnostic of osteoporosis, while a T-score between -1.0 and -2.5 indicates osteopenia, a condition that increases the risk of osteoporosis. DXA scans are considered the gold standard for diagnosing osteoporosis and assessing fracture risk. However, access to DXA scans may be limited in some settings, and the cost of the procedure can be a barrier for some patients. In addition to imaging studies, other diagnostic considerations may be relevant in evaluating COPD patients for osteoporosis and fractures. A thorough medical history, including assessment of risk factors for osteoporosis, such as smoking, family history, and medication use, is essential. Physical examination should include assessment of height, posture, and any signs of spinal deformity. A careful neurological examination is also important to rule out any neurological complications associated with vertebral fractures. Laboratory tests, such as serum calcium, vitamin D, and parathyroid hormone levels, may be helpful in identifying contributing factors to osteoporosis. While imaging studies and other diagnostic tests are important tools in diagnosing osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients, clinical judgment remains paramount. Clinicians should carefully consider the patient's medical history, physical examination findings, and risk factors for osteoporosis when interpreting diagnostic test results. In some cases, a diagnosis of osteoporosis or fracture may be made based on clinical suspicion alone, even in the absence of definitive imaging findings. This is particularly true in patients with a high risk of osteoporosis and suggestive symptoms, such as back pain or height loss.^{14,15}

The management of COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures necessitates a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach that addresses both respiratory and skeletal health. This multifaceted strategy involves optimizing COPD treatment to minimize systemic inflammation and improve lung function, implementing pharmacological

interventions to enhance bone mineral density and reduce fracture risk, and incorporating non-pharmacological measures to promote bone health and prevent falls. This integrated approach aims to improve both respiratory and skeletal outcomes, enhancing the overall quality of life for COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures. Optimizing COPD treatment is paramount in managing patients with co-existing osteoporosis and fractures. The primary goal is to reduce systemic inflammation and improve lung function, which can indirectly benefit bone health by mitigating the inflammatory burden that contributes to bone loss. Smoking cessation is of utmost importance, as smoking exacerbates both COPD and osteoporosis, further compromising respiratory and skeletal health. Smoking cessation is arguably the single most important intervention for COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures. Smoking not only accelerates the progression of COPD and worsens respiratory symptoms but also directly contributes to bone loss and increases fracture risk. Nicotine and other toxins in cigarette smoke impair bone formation, increase bone resorption, and reduce calcium absorption, leading to decreased bone mineral density and increased fracture susceptibility. Smoking cessation can have significant benefits for both respiratory and skeletal health. Quitting smoking can slow the decline in lung function, reduce the frequency and severity of COPD exacerbations, and improve exercise tolerance. It can also improve bone mineral density, reduce fracture risk, and enhance the healing of existing fractures. Various smoking cessation strategies are available, including counseling, behavioral therapy, and pharmacotherapy. Nicotine replacement therapy, bupropion, and varenicline are commonly used medications to aid smoking cessation. Combining pharmacological and non-pharmacological approaches often yields the best results. Pharmacotherapy for COPD, including bronchodilators and inhaled corticosteroids, should be carefully considered in patients with osteoporosis and fractures. While these medications are essential for managing COPD symptoms and reducing

exacerbations, their potential adverse effects on bone health should be weighed against their benefits. Bronchodilators, such as beta-agonists and anticholinergics, are the mainstay of COPD treatment. They relax airway smooth muscle, improve airflow, and reduce dyspnea. Bronchodilators generally have a neutral or even slightly positive effect on bone health, as they can improve exercise capacity and reduce systemic inflammation. Inhaled corticosteroids, while effective in reducing airway inflammation and preventing COPD exacerbations, can have adverse effects on bone health, particularly with long-term use. Inhaled corticosteroids can decrease bone mineral density and increase fracture risk, especially in patients with other risk factors for osteoporosis. The decision to use inhaled corticosteroids in COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures should be individualized based on the severity of COPD, the frequency of exacerbations, and the patient's overall risk of fractures. The lowest effective dose should be used for the shortest duration possible. In some cases, alternative therapies, such as long-acting bronchodilators or phosphodiesterase-4 inhibitors, may be considered. Pharmacological interventions for osteoporosis play a crucial role in improving bone mineral density and reducing fracture risk in COPD patients. Calcium and vitamin D supplementation are often recommended as the first-line treatment for osteoporosis, providing the essential building blocks for bone health. Bisphosphonates, a class of drugs that inhibit bone resorption, are another option for osteoporosis management, particularly in patients with established osteoporosis or a history of fractures. Other bone-active agents, such as denosumab and teriparatide, may also be considered in certain cases. Calcium and vitamin D are essential nutrients for maintaining bone health. Calcium is the primary mineral component of bone, providing its structural integrity. Vitamin D is crucial for calcium absorption and bone mineralization. COPD patients are often at risk of calcium and vitamin D deficiency due to various factors, including reduced dietary intake, decreased sun exposure, and malabsorption. Supplementation

with calcium and vitamin D can help correct these deficiencies and improve bone health. The recommended daily intake of calcium for adults is 1000-1200 mg, depending on age and gender. Vitamin D supplementation is typically recommended at a dose of 800-1000 IU per day, although higher doses may be necessary in patients with severe deficiency. Bisphosphonates are a class of drugs that inhibit bone resorption by binding to hydroxyapatite, the mineral component of bone, and inhibiting osteoclast activity. This leads to increased bone mineral density and reduced fracture risk. Several bisphosphonates are available, including alendronate, risedronate, ibandronate, and zoledronic acid. The choice of bisphosphonate depends on patient-specific factors, such as the severity of osteoporosis, the risk of fractures, and the presence of comorbidities. Bisphosphonates are generally well-tolerated, but they can have gastrointestinal side effects, such as esophageal irritation and abdominal pain. They can also rarely cause osteonecrosis of the jaw, a serious condition that affects the jawbone. Other bone-active agents, such as denosumab and teriparatide, may also be considered in certain cases. Denosumab is a monoclonal antibody that inhibits RANKL, a protein that promotes osteoclast formation and activity. Teriparatide is a recombinant form of parathyroid hormone that stimulates bone formation. These agents are typically reserved for patients with severe osteoporosis or those who have failed to respond to other treatments. They can be expensive and may have potential side effects, so their use should be carefully considered. Non-pharmacological interventions play a vital role in osteoporosis management and fracture prevention in COPD patients. Regular exercise, particularly weight-bearing and resistance training, can improve bone health and reduce fracture risk. Fall prevention strategies are also essential, as falls are a major cause of fractures in older adults. Regular exercise is essential for maintaining bone health and preventing fractures. Weight-bearing exercise, such as walking, jogging, and dancing, stimulates bone formation by applying

mechanical stress to the skeleton. Resistance training, such as lifting weights or using resistance bands, also strengthens bones and improves muscle mass, which can help prevent falls. COPD patients should engage in regular exercise that is tailored to their individual abilities and limitations. Exercise programs should be gradually increased in intensity and duration to avoid overexertion and respiratory distress. Fall prevention strategies are crucial for reducing fracture risk in COPD patients. Falls are a major cause of fractures in older adults, and COPD patients are particularly vulnerable due to their compromised bone health, impaired balance, and reduced muscle strength. Identifying and modifying environmental hazards that increase the risk of falls, such as loose rugs, poor lighting, and clutter. Improving balance and coordination through exercises such as tai chi and yoga. Using assistive devices, such as canes or walkers, to improve stability and reduce the risk of falls. Reviewing medications that may increase the risk of falls, such as sedatives, antidepressants, and antihypertensives.¹⁶⁻¹⁸

This case report serves as a stark reminder of the intricate link between COPD, osteoporosis, and fractures, emphasizing the need for a paradigm shift in the clinical management of COPD patients. It underscores the importance of recognizing osteoporosis and fractures as significant comorbidities in COPD, particularly in patients with specific risk factors. This recognition necessitates a proactive approach to screening, diagnosis, and management, ultimately aiming to improve patient outcomes and enhance their quality of life. Clinicians should maintain a high index of suspicion for osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients, especially those with identifiable risk factors. This heightened awareness is crucial for early detection and intervention, as osteoporosis often remains asymptomatic until a fracture occurs. Several risk factors increase the likelihood of osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients. Smoking is a major risk factor for both COPD and osteoporosis, as it impairs bone formation, increases bone resorption, and reduces calcium

absorption. Low body mass index (BMI) is associated with reduced bone mineral density and increased fracture risk. COPD patients are often underweight or have low BMI due to malnutrition, systemic inflammation, and increased energy expenditure. Vitamin D is essential for calcium absorption and bone mineralization. COPD patients are often deficient in vitamin D due to reduced sun exposure, malabsorption, and medication use. While inhaled corticosteroids are effective in reducing COPD exacerbations, they can also decrease bone mineral density and increase fracture risk, especially with long-term use. Identifying these risk factors in COPD patients can help clinicians stratify their risk of osteoporosis and fractures and guide appropriate screening and management strategies. Early diagnosis of osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients is crucial for preventing further bone loss, minimizing fracture risk, and improving patient outcomes. This requires a proactive approach to screening and assessment, utilizing appropriate diagnostic tools and interpreting their results in the context of the patient's clinical presentation and risk factors. Screening for osteoporosis in COPD patients should be considered, especially in those with risk factors such as smoking, low BMI, vitamin D deficiency, and use of inhaled corticosteroids. Bone mineral density (BMD) measurements, typically performed using dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), are the gold standard for diagnosing osteoporosis and assessing fracture risk. Vertebral X-rays may also be indicated in COPD patients with back pain or height loss to identify vertebral fractures, which are common in patients with osteoporosis. The management of COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures requires a multidisciplinary approach that addresses both respiratory and skeletal health. This often involves collaboration between pulmonologists, orthopedists, geriatricians, physical therapists, and other healthcare professionals to provide comprehensive care. Optimizing COPD treatment is essential for reducing systemic inflammation and improving lung function, which can indirectly benefit bone health.

Smoking cessation is paramount, as smoking exacerbates both COPD and osteoporosis. Pharmacotherapy for COPD, including bronchodilators and inhaled corticosteroids, should be carefully considered, balancing their benefits for respiratory health with their potential adverse effects on bone health. Pharmacological interventions for osteoporosis may be considered to improve bone mineral density and reduce fracture risk. Calcium and vitamin D supplementation are often recommended as the first-line treatment for osteoporosis. Bisphosphonates, a class of drugs that inhibit bone resorption, are another option for osteoporosis management, particularly in patients with established osteoporosis or a history of fractures. Other bone-active agents, such as denosumab and teriparatide, may also be considered in certain cases. Non-pharmacological interventions play a vital role in osteoporosis management and fracture prevention. Regular exercise, particularly weight-bearing and resistance training, can improve bone health and reduce fracture risk. Fall prevention strategies are also essential, as falls are a major cause of fractures in older adults. These strategies may include home safety assessments, balance training, and assistive devices. Patient education and empowerment are crucial components of comprehensive care for COPD patients with osteoporosis and fractures. Patients should be educated about their condition, its risk factors, and the importance of adherence to treatment. They should also be encouraged to adopt healthy lifestyle habits, such as smoking cessation, regular exercise, and a balanced diet, to promote both respiratory and skeletal health.^{19,20}

4. Conclusion

This case report highlights the complex interplay between COPD, osteoporosis, and vertebral fractures, emphasizing the importance of recognizing and managing these co-morbidities in COPD patients. The patient's history of smoking, low BMI, and male gender placed him at increased risk for both COPD and osteoporosis. COPD exacerbations, often triggered

by infections, contribute to increased inflammation, further exacerbating bone loss and fracture risk. The diagnosis of osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients can be challenging due to non-specific symptoms, highlighting the need for imaging studies. Management requires a multidisciplinary approach, including optimizing COPD treatment, smoking cessation, and pharmacological interventions for osteoporosis. Non-pharmacological interventions, such as exercise and fall prevention strategies, are also important for reducing fracture risk. Early diagnosis and appropriate management of these co-morbidities are crucial for improving patient outcomes and quality of life. This case underscores the importance of recognizing the association between COPD, osteoporosis, and fractures. Healthcare professionals should maintain a high index of suspicion for osteoporosis and fractures in COPD patients, especially those with risk factors such as smoking, low BMI, vitamin D deficiency, and corticosteroid use. Early diagnosis and appropriate management of these co-morbidities are crucial for improving patient outcomes and quality of life.

5. References

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