e-ISSN: 0976-822X, p-ISSN:2961-6042

Available online on http://www.ijcpr.com/

International Journal of Current Pharmaceutical Review and Research 2025; 17(9); 205-210

Original Research Article

Prevalence of Osteoporosis/Osteopenia in Postmenopausal Women

Shyora Bhavesh Nathabhai¹, Ahir Bhavesh Laljibhai², Baldaniya Lalji Gopalbhai³

¹MBBS, GMERS Medical College, Valsad, Gujarat, India ²MBBS, GMERS Medical College, Valsad, Gujarat, India ³MBBS, GMERS Medical College, Valsad, Gujarat, India

Received: 05-07-2025 / Revised: 04-08-2025 / Accepted: 05-09-2025

Corresponding Author: Baldaniya Lalji Gopalbhai

Conflict of interest: Nil

Abstract:

Background: Osteoporosis remains a frequent health issue in postmenopausal women due to the decline in bone mineral density after menopause. This study aimed to determine the prevalence of osteoporosis and osteopenia among women attending an orthopedic outpatient clinic.

Methods: A cross-sectional study was carried out over one year (August 2023–2024) among 192 postmenopausal women aged 50–80 years. BMD was measured using DXA at the lumbar spine and femoral neck, with classification based on WHO criteria. Demographic, reproductive, lifestyle, and clinical data were gathered using a structured pro forma.

Results: Nearly half of the women had osteopenia (44.8%), while 37.5% were osteoporotic and only 17.7% had normal BMD. Lower BMI, early menopause, low calcium intake, and Vitamin D insufficiency were significantly associated with poor bone health. Physical inactivity and prolonged immobilization further increased the risk. Osteoporosis was observed more frequently at the lumbar spine than at the femoral neck, indicating that the lumbar region may be more sensitive in detecting early bone loss.

Conclusion: Osteoporosis and osteopenia are highly prevalent in postmenopausal women, underscoring the need for early screening and preventive interventions.

Keywords: Osteoporosis, Osteopenia, Postmenopausal women, Bone mineral density, Vitamin D deficiency.

This is an Open Access article that uses a funding model which does not charge readers or their institutions for access and distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0) and the Budapest Open Access Initiative (http://www.budapestopenaccessinitiative.org/read), which permit unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided original work is properly credited.

Introduction

Osteoporosis is recognized as the most common metabolic disorder of the bone and is considered the fourth leading health threat, with its incidence rising with age. It is defined by reduced bone mass and deterioration of bone microarchitecture, which causes bone fragility and enhances the likelihood of fractures [1,2]. Because of its association with fractures, osteoporosis poses a significant health challenge across nations. The World Health Organization (WHO) has classified osteoporosis as a bone mineral density (BMD) value that is 2.5 standard deviations (SDs) or more below the mean peak BMD [3,4]. Bone density is assessed using Tscore and Z-score indices, with T-scores reflecting deviation from peak bone mass in young, healthy adults, and Z-scores comparing bone density to individuals of the same age, gender, and ethnicity. A T-score <-2.5 is diagnostic of osteoporosis, whereas osteopenia is defined by a T-score between -1 and -2.5. Several factors, including the demographic profile, calcium intake, and lifestyle habits, are known to alter bone mass [5].

One of the most critical risk factors for osteoporosis is menopause. Postmenopausal (PMP) women typically lose 3%–5% of bone mass every year, with

this accelerated bone loss continuing for up to seven years after menopause due to the decline in ovarian estrogen production [6,7]. Menopausal osteoporosis carries particular importance as women spend nearly one-third of their lives in this state of decreased bone mass and heightened fracture risk. The pattern of bone loss in women after menopause occurs in two phases: an initial rapid loss of trabecular bone over 3–5 years (menopause-related bone loss) followed by a slower, long-term decline in both trabecular and cortical bone spanning 10-20 years (age-related bone loss) [8]. Fractures associated with osteoporosis-most often involving the pelvis, vertebrae, and distal radius—can lead to disability, chronic pain, and increased mortality, with hip fracture-related deaths reaching 20% in the first year. The burden of osteoporosis in India is substantial, with disability-adjusted life years estimated at 36,026 annually [9,10].

Data on the prevalence and risk factors of PMP osteoporosis are scarce in India, despite its high burden, affecting nearly one-third of women. Understanding key determinants is crucial for planning prevention and management strategies. Regional studies assessing both osteoporosis and

osteopenia are particularly limited. This study aims to evaluate the prevalence of osteopenia in postmenopausal women and identify factors associated with low bone mass in this population.

Methods

Study Design and Setting: This was a prospective cross-sectional study carried out in the Orthopedics Outpatient Department over a period of one year, from August 2023 to 2024.

Participants and Recruitment: A total of 192 PMP women aged 50–80 years, with at least one year of amenorrhea, were included. Women with musculoskeletal, cardiovascular, cerebrovascular, thyroid, renal, or liver disorders, sarcopenia, diabetes, a history of osteoporotic fractures, or those receiving hormone therapy, psychotropic drugs, or supplements affecting bone metabolism were excluded.

Data Collection: BMD was assessed using dualenergy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) at the femoral neck and lumbar spine (L1–L4). Based on WHO criteria, participants were classified as osteoporotic, osteopenic, or normal. The demographic information, reproductive and menstrual history, lifestyle factors (smoking, tobacco use, physical activity, immobilization), and clinical/laboratory parameters including BMI, blood pressure, calcium intake, and serum Vitamin D3 levels of the patients were collected.

e-ISSN: 0976-822X, p-ISSN: 2961-6042

Data Analysis: Continuous data were presented as means \pm standard deviations, while categorical data were expressed as frequencies and percentages. Group differences were assessed using the Chisquare test for categorical variables and the Student's t-test for continuous variables. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Among the 192 postmenopausal women studied, the majority were between 55 and 65 years of age. Most women had normal or slightly elevated BMI values, with only a minority falling in the underweight category. A considerable proportion reported low dietary calcium intake and limited sun exposure, which reflected in the overall prevalence of Vitamin D insufficiency. Lifestyle behaviors such as smoking and prolonged physical inactivity were uncommon but still noted in a small percentage of participants (Table 1).

Table 1: Participant Demographics and Reproductive History (n = 192)

| Characteristic | n (%) |
|------------------------|------------|
| Age group (years) | , , |
| 50–59 | 105 (54.7) |
| 60–80 | 87 (45.3) |
| Education level | |
| No formal education | 100 (52.1) |
| Primary/middle school | 53 (27.6) |
| Secondary or higher | 39 (20.3) |
| Marital status | |
| Single | 3 (1.6) |
| Married | 174 (90.6) |
| Widowed/divorced | 15 (7.8) |
| Number of children | |
| 2 or fewer | 37 (19.3) |
| 3–5 | 83 (43.2) |
| 6 or more | 72 (37.5) |
| History of miscarriage | |
| None | 132 (68.8) |
| 1–2 | 39 (20.3) |
| More than 2 | 21 (10.9) |
| Breastfeeding history | , , , |
| Yes | 152 (79.2) |
| No | 40 (20.8) |
| Tobacco use | |
| Never | 164 (85.4) |
| Current user | 28 (14.6) |

Analysis of bone mineral density showed that nearly half of the women fell into the osteopenic range, while a smaller but significant group was classified as osteoporotic. Only a minority maintained normal bone density values. The lumbar spine demonstrated a slightly higher incidence rate of low bone mass compared to the femoral neck, highlighting site-

e-ISSN: 0976-822X, p-ISSN: 2961-6042

specific variations in bone health among the cohort (Table 2).

Table 2: Menstrual Profile of Participants (n = 192)

| Characteristic | n (%) / Mean ± SD | |
|--|-------------------|--|
| Age at first menstruation (years) | 13.2 ± 1.9 | |
| Duration of reproductive years (years) | 37.2 ± 3.8 | |
| Age at menopause (years) | | |
| ≤50 | 119 (62.0) | |
| >50 | 73 (38.0) | |
| Years since menopause | | |
| ≤5 | 51 (26.6) | |
| 6–10 | 48 (25.0) | |
| >10 | 93 (48.4) | |

When clinical factors were compared with BMD categories, higher age and lower BMI were consistently associated with poor bone health. Women with inadequate dietary calcium intake and

insufficient Vitamin D levels, physical inactivity and a history of prolonged immobilization also correlated significantly with reduced bone density (Table 3).

Table 3: Clinical Features and Family Background (n = 192)

| Characteristic | n (%) |
|--|------------|
| Body weight status (BMI) | |
| Normal | 17 (8.9) |
| Overweight | 58 (30.2) |
| Obese | 117 (60.9) |
| Exercise routine | |
| Active | 32 (16.7) |
| Sedentary | 160 (83.3) |
| Prolonged bed rest | |
| Yes | 10 (5.2) |
| No | 182 (94.8) |
| Diabetes status | |
| Yes | 95 (49.5) |
| No | 97 (50.5) |
| Hypertension status | |
| Yes | 123 (64.1) |
| No | 69 (35.9) |
| Daily calcium consumption | |
| <600 mg/day | 59 (30.7) |
| 600–1000 mg/day | 85 (44.3) |
| >1000 mg/day | 48 (25.0) |
| Use of cholesterol-lowering medication | |
| Yes | 130 (67.7) |
| No | 62 (32.3) |
| Vitamin D supplementation | |
| Yes | 171 (89.1) |
| No | 21 (10.9) |
| Serum Vitamin D status | |
| Normal (≥30 ng/mL) | 115 (59.9) |
| Insufficient (20–29 ng/mL) | 36 (18.8) |
| Deficient (<20 ng/mL) | 41 (21.3) |
| Family history of low bone density | |
| Yes | 61 (31.8) |
| No | 131 (68.2) |
| Family history of fractures | |
| Yes | 47 (24.5) |
| No | 145 (75.5) |

| Personal history of fracture | |
|------------------------------|------------|
| Yes | 36 (18.8) |
| No | 156 (81.2) |

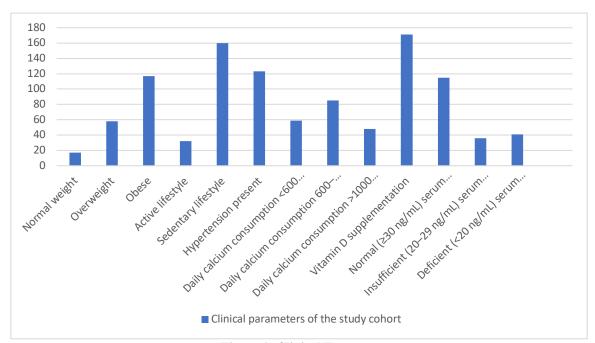


Figure 1: Clinical Features.

Reproductive and lifestyle history revealed that women with an earlier onset of menopause were more likely to develop low bone mass. Lack of regular physical activity further aggravated the risk. On the other hand, longer reproductive years and

regular activity appeared to provide some protection against bone loss. The associations suggest the combined influence of both hormonal and lifestyle factors on bone health (Table 4).

Table 4: Bone Health Status Among Participants (n = 192)

| Bone Health Category | Lumbar Spine, n (%) | Hip (Femoral Neck), n (%) | Overall, n (%) |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|----------------|
| Osteoporosis | 62 (32.3) | 28 (14.6) | 72 (37.5) |
| Low bone mass (Osteopenia) | 80 (41.7) | 107 (55.7) | 86 (44.8) |
| Normal bone density | 50 (26.0) | 57 (29.7) | 34 (17.7) |

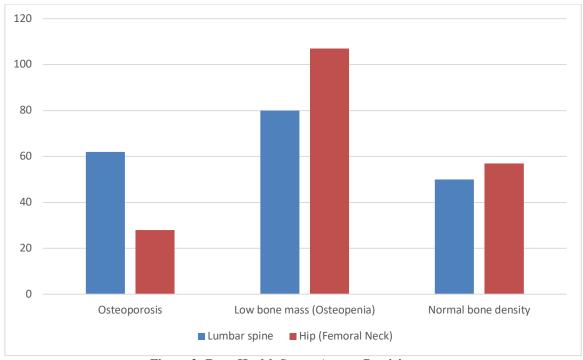


Figure 2: Bone Health Status Among Participants.

Discussion

Osteoporosis is a systemic skeletal disorder which according to the WHO is defined by DXA as a BMD 2.5 SDs below the reference for young Caucasian women [2,11]. Although DXA remains the gold standard, its high cost and limited access make it impractical for mass screening in resourceconstrained settings. In our study of 192 postmenopausal women, the prevalence of osteoporosis was 37.5%, which is comparable to the rates reported in Indian studies, where more than 61 million individuals are estimated to be affected, with women forming nearly 80% of this burden [12-14]. Pande et al. [15] reported an age-related decline in BMD in both sexes above 50 years, while Patni [16] observed that mean BMD values in Indian women were almost 2 SDs lower than in Western populations. Our findings align with these reports and reinforce that PMP women in India are disproportionately affected by osteoporosis.

Vitamin D deficiency, an important determinant of bone health, is widespread worldwide, affecting over one billion individuals [11]. Prevalence is relatively low in countries with fortified foods (1.6%–14.8%) [17], but much higher in Asian nations, including India, where 30%–50% of the population is deficient [12]. In our study, a substantial proportion of women showed Vitamin D insufficiency or deficiency, correlating strongly with reduced BMD. These results are consistent with earlier reports from Tunisia (47.6%) [18], Boston (24.1%) [12], and China (45.2% in females) [19]. The high prevalence in India is further compounded by cultural practices such as limited sun exposure,

predominantly vegetarian diets, and unaffordability of supplements, especially in women from lower socioeconomic strata. Our findings also reflected the well-established link between low BMI and osteoporosis risk, which has been repeatedly highlighted in Indian populations [15,16].

Several socio-demographic and lifestyle determinants emerged in our study population. Nearly one-fifth (18.9%) of women reported a history of fragility fractures, closely mirroring the trends reported by Nikose et al. [20], who found significant correlations between BMD. socioeconomic status, and family support in over 3500 women. Similarly, we observed higher osteoporosis prevalence in women with lower education, poor dietary calcium intake, and reduced physical activity. These factors, together with early menopause and repeated childbirth, compounded bone loss in our cohort. The prevalence of osteoporosis in our study (37.5%) is slightly higher than some regional Indian reports, but remains within the wide range noted across studies [15,16]. This emphasizes the urgent need for pragmatic screening tools such as FRAX [21] and simplified risk assessment methods developed for Indian women [22], given the limited access to DXA. Community-based awareness programs, affordable Vitamin D and calcium fortification, and culturally sensitive interventions targeting dietary practices remain essential to reducing the growing burden of osteoporosis in PMP women.

Conclusion

This study highlights a high prevalence of osteoporosis (37.5%) and osteopenia (44.3%)

e-ISSN: 0976-822X, p-ISSN: 2961-6042

among postmenopausal women, with nearly one-fifth reporting a history of fragility fractures. Low Vitamin D status, inadequate calcium intake, obesity, reduced physical activity, and socio-demographic factors such as low education and multiparity were key contributors to poor bone health in this cohort. These conclusions emphasize the need for early screening, nutritional interventions, lifestyle modifications, and community-based awareness programs to reduce the burden of this disorder in PMP women, particularly in low-resource settings.

References

- 1. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE). Bone Health Programme: A Proactive Population Approach to Bone Health. London: NICE; 2017.
- 2. World Health Organization. WHO Scientific Group on the Assessment of Osteoporosis at Primary Health Care Level. Geneva: WHO; 2007.
- 3. International Osteoporosis Foundation. Facts and Statistics. Nyon: IOF; 2017.
- 4. World Health Organization. Nutrition: Recommendations for Preventing Osteoporosis. Geneva: WHO; 2007.
- Khadilkar AV, Mandlik RM. Epidemiology and treatment of osteoporosis in women: An Indian perspective. Int J Womens Health. 2015;7:841-50. doi:10.2147/IJWH.S54623.
- Kaushal N, Vohora D, Jalali RK, Jha S. Prevalence of osteoporosis and osteopenia in an apparently healthy Indian population A cross-sectional retrospective study. Osteoporos Sarcopenia. 2018;4(2):53-60. doi:10.1016/j.afos.2018.04.002.
- 7. Alonge TO, Adebusoye LA, Ogunbode AM. Factors associated with osteoporosis among older patients at the Geriatric Centre in Nigeria: A cross-sectional study. S Afr Fam Pract. 2017;59(3):87-93.
- 8. Thomas-John M, Codd MB, Manne S, Watts NB, Mongey AB. Risk factors for the development of osteoporosis and osteoporotic fractures among older men. J Rheumatol. 2009;36(9):1947-52. doi:10.3899/jrheum.080527.
- 9. Sahni S, Mangano KM, McLean RR, Hannan MT, Kiel DP. Dietary approaches for bone health: Lessons from the Framingham Osteoporosis Study. Curr Osteoporos Rep. 2015;13(4):245-55. doi:10.1007/s11914-015-0272-1.

- Government of India. Elderly in India: Profile and Programmes. New Delhi: Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation; 2016
- Holick MF. Vitamin D deficiency. N Engl J Med. 2007;357:266–81. doi:10.1056/NEJMra070553.
- 12. Gordon CM, DePeter KC, Feldman HA, Grace E, Emans SJ. Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency among healthy adolescents. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 2004;158:531–7. doi:10.1001/archpedi.158.6.531.
- 13. Rao H, Rao N, Sharma LR. A clinical study of bone mineral density using heel ultradensitometer in Southern Maharashtra. Indian J Orthop. 2003;37:9.
- 14. Joshi VR, Mangat G, Balakrishnan C, Mittal G. Osteoporosis–approach in Indian scenario. J Assoc Physicians India. 1998;46:965–7.
- Pande KC, Veeraji E, Pande SK. Normative reference database for bone mineral density in Indian men and women using digital X-ray radiogrammetry. J Indian Med Assoc. 2006;104:288–91.
- 16. Patni R. Normal BMD values for Indian females aged 20–80 years. J Midlife Health. 2010;1:70–3. doi:10.4103/0976-7800.76215.
- 17. Lips P. Which circulating level of 25-hydroxyvitamin D is appropriate? J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol. 2004;89–94. doi:10.1016/j.jsbmb.2004.03.040.
- 18. Meddeb N, Sahli H, Chahed M, Abdelmoula J, Feki M, Salah H, et al. Vitamin D deficiency in Tunisia. Osteoporos Int. 2005;16:180–3. doi:10.1007/s00198-004-1658-6.
- Du X, Greenfield H, Fraser DR, Ge K, Trube A, Wang Y. Vitamin D deficiency and associated factors in adolescent girls in Beijing. Am J Clin Nutr. 2001;74:494–500. doi:10.1093/ajcn/74.4.494.
- 20. Nikose S, Singh P, Khan S, Arora M, Taywade S, Gudhe M, et al. Prevalence of osteoporosis in female population in rural central India by calcaneal ultrasound. J Womens Health Care. 2015;4:262.
- 21. Kanis JA; World Health Organization Scientific Group. Assessment of osteoporosis at the primary health care level. Sheffield: WHO Collaborating Centre for Metabolic Bone Diseases, University of Sheffield; 2008.
- 22. Sharma S, Khandelwal S. Effective risk assessment tools for osteoporosis in the Indian menopausal female. J Midlife Health. 2010;1:79–85. doi:10.4103/0976-7800.76217.