

EXPERT OPINION

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Osteoporosis treatment: why ibandronic acid?

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Introduction: In this article, we have summarized the specific evidence on ibandronic acid (or ibandronate) efficacy, tolerability, and feasibility acquired from trials and clinical use.

Areas covered: This critical review focuses on evidence from randomized controlled clinical trials, meta-analyses, surrogate markers, bridging trials, long-term extension studies, observational studies, clinical experiences in osteoporosis in addition to postmenopausal treatment adherence in clinical practice, and safety profile of ibandronic acid.

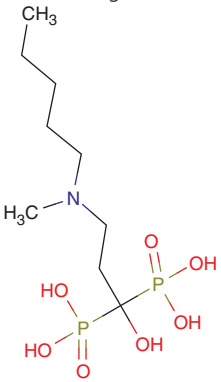
Expert opinion: Pivotal studies on ibandronic acid efficacy in terms of antifracture effects on nonvertebral fractures had some intrinsic limitations. However, a large body of indirect evidence suggests that ibandronate has significantly sustained vertebral and nonvertebral antifracture efficacies in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis, in comparison to those observed with other nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates. Discrepancies in efficacy between the available bisphosphonate regimens appear to be a function of dose rather than to inherent differences in their respective therapeutic potential. Drugs or treatment regimens that minimize the risk of osteoporotic fractures and make the treatment of osteoporosis more convenient and suitable for patients are preferred: ibandronic acid marketed at oral doses of 150 mg once monthly and 3 mg quarterly as intravenous injection has these characteristics. The safety profile of ibandronic acid treatment appears to be good overall and in some cases better than that of other nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates.

Keywords: bone turnover markers, fracture, ibandronate, ibandronic acid, osteoporosis

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1. Introduction

Fractures are the key clinical feature of osteoporosis and their prevention in the treatment of the disease is of vital importance because of the negative clinical, social, and economic implications osteoporotic fractures have on patients and healthcare systems. The nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates (N-BPs) have proven antifracture efficacy for the treatment of osteoporosis [1-4], and they are the preferred treatment option for this disease [5]. In this article, we summarized the evidence on ibandronate efficacy, tolerability, and feasibility acquired from trials and clinical use. Four different levels of supportive evidence from trials are utilized in this review: information from randomized clinical trials, from meta-analyses of clinical trials, clinical trials using surrogate markers, and observational studies. The most reliable way of gathering evidence of antifracture efficacy is directly from randomized clinical trials, which contain large patient cohorts and are designed specifically to control the chance of potential biases. However, it is becoming ethically unacceptable to perform randomized controlled trials versus placebo in populations at high risk for fracture [6,7]. Thus, it has been harder for the most recently investigated

| Box 1. Drug summary. | |
|--------------------------|---|
| Drug name | Ibandronic acid |
| Phase | Launched |
| Indication | Treatment and prevention of postmenopausal osteoporosis |
| Pharmacology description | Nitrogen-containing bisphosphonate |
| Route of administration | Oral or parenteral (intravenous injection); intermittent regimen |
| Chemical structure |  |
| Pivotal trials | BONE [3,17,19] IV Fracture Study [15] MOBILE [55,56,58] DIVA [52,54,60] |

drugs, such as ibandronate, to demonstrate an antifracture efficacy, because the studies had involved a nonhigh-risk fracture population. This is particularly true for the incidence of nonvertebral fractures, where the therapeutic effect is masked by a greater proportion of true traumatic fractures than for vertebral fractures. Therefore, it is becoming increasingly important to include further sources of evidence (Figure 1), for example, from meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials and indirect evidence from surrogate endpoints for fracture. Finally, observational database studies comparing ibandronate to other N-BPs are reviewed, also in terms of fracture incidence, as would never be obtained from unlikely “head-to-head” clinical trials.

Here, we review the antifracture efficacy of ibandronate over time, which at marketed doses of 150 mg once monthly oral and at 3 mg quarterly intravenous (i.v.), is licensed for the treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis. A literature search was carried out using the PubMed online scientific citation database of published, peer-reviewed manuscripts up to and including December 2012. The keywords used for the literature search were ibandronate, osteoporosis, fracture, bone mineral density, and bone turnover marker (BTM). To meet the inclusion criteria, manuscripts had to be primary, peer-reviewed publications, in English, which reported either fracture endpoints or surrogate marker endpoints. The results

were then further assessed to include only Phase III clinical trials, meta-analyses, or observational studies. Finally, observational database studies comparing ibandronate to other N-BPs were reviewed. The literature search results were supplemented with any study data that was known to the authors.

2. Pharmacologic profile of ibandronate

Bisphosphonates are stable synthetic analogs of pyrophosphate with a P–C–P backbone that binds avidly to hydroxyapatite on the bone surface. The presence of a nitrogen atom on either of the two covalently attached side chains generally separates bisphosphonates into two classes, non-nitrogen- and nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates. N-BPs such as ibandronate are significantly more potent bone resorption inhibitors than the non-nitrogen agents such as clodronate. Following uptake by osteoclasts, non-N-BPs are metabolized to analogs of ATP, leading to osteoclast apoptosis. N-BPs principally inhibit farnesyl diphosphate synthase (FDPS) in the mevalonate pathway causing inhibition of important intermediates required for the prenylation of signaling GTPases, ultimately resulting in osteoclast dysfunction and apoptosis.

Inhibition of FDPS also causes an accumulation of isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP), which is metabolized to an intracellular ATP analog, that inhibits mitochondrial ADP/ATP translocase, causing loss of mitochondrial membrane potential and direct induction of osteoclast apoptosis. Accumulation of IPP, activating $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, also contributes to the acute-phase reaction (APR) that is commonly observed following the first infusion of a N-BPs, such as ibandronic acid. Recently, we found that the number of circulating $\gamma\delta$ T cells, together with age, are important determinants of the occurrence of APR after intravenous infusion of nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates [8], and that desensitization leading to the occurrence of the APR in patients previously treated with N-BPs is because of a long-lasting reduction in the number of circulating $\gamma\delta$ T cells [9]. The potency of ibandronate is because of its structural attributes (Box 1), with the addition of a tertiary nitrogen group on the R2 side chain, making the drug 2-, 50-, and 500-fold more potent than alendronate, pamidronate, and clodronate, respectively [10]. This increased potency, together with the strong binding affinity of ibandronate with the mineral component of bone (which is greater than that of clodronate or risedronate, even if lower than alendronate and zoledronate) [11], and its extended persistence in skeletal tissue, allows monthly or quarterly administration of ibandronate [12–14].

3. Evidence from antifracture randomized controlled clinical trials

Two randomized, controlled, antifracture trials have been carried out for ibandronate: The BONE (oral iBandronate Osteoporosis vertebral fracture trial in North America and Europe)

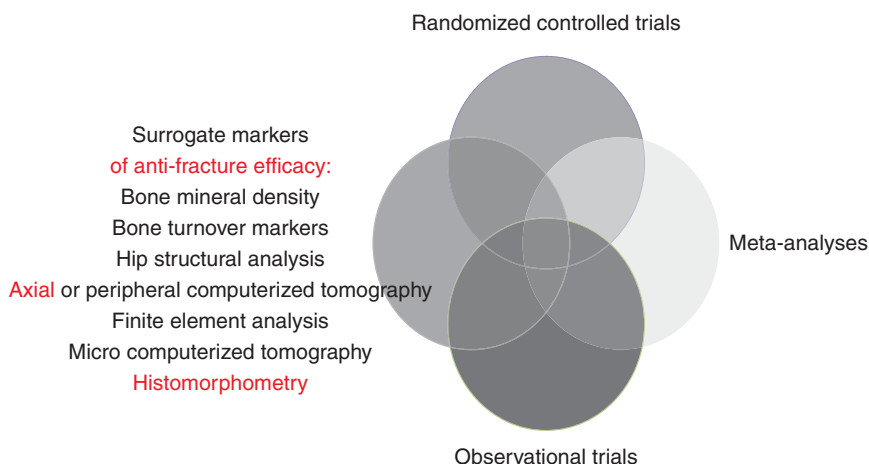


Figure 1. Sources of direct and indirect evidence of anti-fracture efficacy.

study, involving an oral ibandronate regimen administered daily (2.5 mg) or intermittently (20 mg every other day for 12 doses every 3 months) for 3 years [3] and the fracture prevention study, of an i.v. ibandronate regimen (0.5 and 1.0 mg every 3 months) for 3 years [15]. In the IV fracture prevention study, the cumulative incidence of new vertebral fractures with both 0.5 and 1 mg i.v. ibandronate once every 3 months was lower than that observed with the placebo at the end of 3 years, but the magnitude of the reduction of relative risk (RRR) did not attain statistical significance in the intention to treat (ITT) analysis [15]. In the per-protocol (PP) population, the RRR with 1 mg i.v. ibandronate (26%) approached statistical significance ($p = 0.0549$). The Intermittent Regimen Intravenous Ibandronate Study (IRIS) showed that a higher (2 mg i.v.) ibandronate dose once every 3 months provided greater substantial increases in Bone Mineral Density (BMD) than a 1 mg dose (increase in lumbar spine BMD from baseline of 5.0 vs. 2.8%, respectively) [16]. Therefore, the authors concluded that the dose of ibandronate used in the IV fracture prevention study (0.5 and 1.0 mg every 3 months) was suboptimal. The sustained efficacy of a daily oral ibandronate regimen to reduce the incidence of vertebral fractures was demonstrated in BONE, a Phase III clinical trial in which vertebral fracture risk reduction was the primary endpoint [3,17]. After the first year of treatment, the RRR in ITT analysis of a new vertebral fracture was 58% ($p = 0.0561$; ITT population) with a 2.5 mg daily oral dose of ibandronate compared with placebo. This RRR was sustained over 3 years of treatment (year 3: 62% $p = 0.0001$), indicating that ibandronate sustained considerable vertebral antifracture efficacy over time [18]. Interestingly, this was also the first trial to demonstrate vertebral antifracture efficacy of an intermittent regimen (20 mg every other day for 12 doses every 3 months), with a RRR of new vertebral fracture of 56% ($p = 0.0017$) and 50% ($p = 0.0006$) over 2 and 3 years, respectively. A *post hoc* analysis of data from the BONE study showed that daily ibandronate also has a significant and

sustained effect on the incidence of new moderate or severe vertebral fractures [19]: the relative risk was reduced by 59% at years 1, 2, and 3. In BONE, nonvertebral fracture risk reduction was demonstrated in a *post hoc* subgroup analysis of high-risk patients with a baseline femoral neck BMD T -score < 3.0 (RRR 69%, $p = 0.013$ [3] or < 2.5 and a history of clinical fracture in the past 5 years (RRR 60%, $p = 0.037$) [20]. In the overall BONE study population, there was no statistically significant reduction in the risk of nonvertebral fracture between ibandronate treatment and calcium and vitamin D supplementation alone, although this was not the primary endpoint of the trial, the study was not designed or powered to demonstrate an effect at nonvertebral sites. The patient population in the BONE study was at relatively low risk for new nonvertebral fractures, with a relatively high mean BMD at the total hip at baseline (mean T -score = 1.73). Various randomized controlled trials for the treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis with the oral bisphosphonates alendronate [1,21] and risedronate [22] have reported reductions in nonvertebral fractures; however, they were not significant. Unlike vertebral fractures, nonvertebral fractures generally occur as a result of external trauma. Therefore, the nonvertebral fracture risk of the patient cannot be considered as the only predictor of the osteoporotic condition [23]. External factors are unlikely to be modified by treatment and may become more important if the patient population recruited into a study is not at a high risk of fracture [23,24].

4. Evidence through meta-analyses

Two meta-analyses of ibandronate trials have demonstrated efficacy even on nonvertebral fracture, if given in proper doses [25,26]. Of note, these were analyses of individual patient data rather than the mean values reported in each study, thus increasing the validity of the analyses. This was achieved by merging patient data into Annual Cumulative Exposition (ACE) groups, based on a mean absorption rate of 0.6% for

oral dosing [27], and 100% for i.v. dosing (ACE = single dose \times number of doses/year \times absorption rate). Overall, licensed ibandronate doses were grouped into ACE categories equal to 5.5 mg (2.5 mg daily) and 10.8 mg (including 150 mg once monthly, 3 mg quarterly i.v. and 2 mg every 2 months i.v.); the effects of which have been compared to the ones in the placebo group (ACE = 0) or between them. Ibandronate, at the licensed oral and i.v. doses versus calcium and vitamin D supplements, has proved to significantly reduce the relative risk of clinical fracture (RRR: 28.8%, 95% IC: 0.55 – 0.92%, $p = 0.010$), including vertebral fractures, and all nonvertebral fractures (RRR: 29.9%; 95% CI: 0.50 – 0.99%; $p = 0.041$), moreover those in the most clinical relevant sites (RRR: 34.4%; 95% CI: 0.45 – 0.96%; $p = 0.032$) [26]. A comparison was made for the first time between two different drug doses: ibandronate doses equivalent to 150 mg oral monthly or 3 mg i.v. quarterly has been associated with a significant reduction in nonvertebral fracture incidence (RRR 38%; IC95%: 0.40 – 0.97%; $p = 0.038$), compared to the dose of 2.5 mg oral daily that had already proved to decrease vertebral fracture incidence [25].

5. Evidence from surrogate endpoints

A statistically significant linear relationship between BMD changes at the spine and hip and RRR in nonvertebral fracture was shown in a meta-analysis of controlled trials [28]. Individual trials have also demonstrated the correlation between BMD changes and antifracture efficacy: analysis from the Fracture Intervention Trial (FIT) showed that patients who had $\geq 3\%$ increases in total hip BMD after 12 months of alendronate therapy were at the lowest risk of new vertebral fracture (3.2 vs. 6.3% of patients whose BMD levels remained stable or declined [29]). Ibandronate studies data analysis that exhibited densitometric effect comparable to alendronate treatment [30], also proved a similar result on the correlation between BMD increment and fracture risk reduction [16,31]. Although there is evidence, probably because of limited precision of the densitometry or BMD unrelated bone effects, even with decrease or no change in BMD value there could be a reduction in fracture risk [32,33], it is also true that patients who display an increase of BMD have a higher reduction of fracture risk. Recently, a meta-analysis of spine BMD dose–response relationships for alendronate, risedronate, and ibandronate was performed [34]. All three nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates were approximately equipotent and exhibited a log-linear relationship between dose and the increase in spine BMD. Differences in efficacy between the available bisphosphonate regimens appear to be a function of dose rather than to inherent differences in their respective therapeutic potential. Reductions in BTMs are also regarded as valid surrogate endpoints for antifracture efficacy. A relationship between reductions in BTMs and fracture incidences has also been reported: as BTM decreases, fracture incidence decreases [28,35,36]. Overall, a 70% reduction in

bone resorption markers and a 50% reduction in bone formation markers significantly reduced the nonvertebral fracture risk by 40% [28]. A reduction of 30% in BMT is sufficient to cause a significant decrease in vertebral fracture risk. The decrease has to be over 50% to have an effect on nonvertebral fracture incidence, reflecting the effect on cortical bone, which is less responsive to treatment (Figure 2). In the BONE study, both the daily and intermittent ibandronate regimens provided a pronounced reduction in median urinary c-telopeptide of type I collagen (CTX) levels relative to baseline within 3 months of administration (58.9 and 49.2%, respectively). These median reductions from baseline were sustained throughout the 3-year study (65.3 and 52.7%, respectively; $p < 0.0001$ for both regimens versus calcium and vitamin D supplement only). In the studies using lower doses of ibandronate (0.5 and 1 mg e.v.), which later turned out to be insufficient, the incidence of new vertebral fractures was lower than placebo at 3 years, but this did not reach statistical significance [15]. This is associated with small elevation in mean lumbar spine BMD (0.5 mg, 3.9%; 1 mg, 4.9%) and reductions in median urinary CTX (0.5 mg, 41.4%; 1 mg, 45.0%) relative to baseline. A significant CTX reduction, over 50% within 3 days from administration, has been observed with the licensed higher doses of ibandronate [37]. CTX level variations after 3 months of ibandronate treatment proved to be predictive in almost all patients of lumbar BMD increase at 1-year [38]. It is important to underline that a reduction greater than 50% in CTX level, persistent during the study years and index of vertebral and nonvertebral fracture prevention, has occurred in more patients using the current monthly or quarterly doses instead of the 2.5 mg daily dose [39].

New techniques evaluating bone strength surrogate markers are available currently. Some can better describe densitometric variations in different sites, others express bone geometrical features correlated to fracture risk independently from densitometry. An increase of volumetric BMD at vertebral edge and at trabecular and subcortical femoral regions has been observed with computerized tomography, either axial or peripheral (pQCT), after treatment with oral ibandronate [40]. Moreover, studies documented an increase in strength indices by pQCT, Finite Element Analysis, and hip structural analysis [41,42], or an improved cortical BMD at the tibia by high-resolution pQCT [43]. Ibandronate's positive effects on trabecular bone microarchitecture has been observed with microCT [44,45] and histomorphometry [46,47].

6. Bridging trials

In case a drug has already demonstrated antifracture efficacy in a randomized, controlled trial authorities such as the European Medicines Agency (EMA) and the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) suggest the use of “bridging studies” using surrogate endpoints for fracture for the approval of new dosing regimens or routes of administration [48]. Bridging studies, with BMD changes as their primary endpoint and

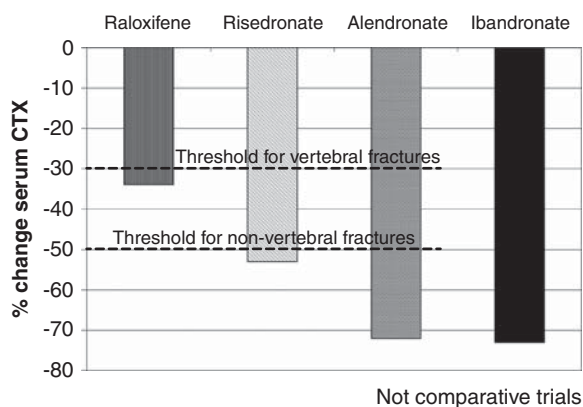


Figure 2. A reduction of 30% in BMT is sufficient to cause a significant decrease in vertebral fracture risk. The decrease has to be over 50% to have an effect on nonvertebral fracture incidence than reflect effect on cortical bone, less responsive to treatment. A significant serum CTX reduction, over 50% within 3 days from administration, has been observed with the licensed doses of ibandronate.

BTM changes as their secondary endpoint, have led to the approval of 70 mg weekly alendronate and 35 mg weekly risedronate regimens [49,50]. A monthly dosing of 75 mg risedronate on two consecutive days a month (5 mg daily 30 days 150 mg) was also approved in 2008 based on data from a bridging trial [51]. Changes in BMD and BTMs have been widely used as surrogate markers for antifracture efficacy with different ibandronate regimens [52-56]. Ibandronate at doses of 150 mg oral once monthly (double the equivalent of the daily dose, 2.5 mg daily \times 30 = 75 mg) and 3 mg quarterly i.v. were also approved based on results from two bridging studies, the MOBILE (Monthly Oral iBAndronate In LadiEs) study [55,56] and the Dosing IntraVenous Administration (DIVA) study [52,54]. The MOBILE and DIVA studies demonstrate that both ibandronate oral once monthly and quarterly i.v. regimens are able to increase BMD and suppress BTMs to levels that are consistent with antifracture efficacy at vertebral and nonvertebral sites. In the MOBILE trial, after 1 year, lumbar spine BMD significantly increased from baseline by 4.9% with 150 mg once-monthly ibandronate versus 3.9% with daily 2.5 mg treatment [56]. This increment was sustained for 2 years, with an increase in lumbar spine BMD from baseline of 6.6% with 150 mg once monthly ibandronate versus 5.0% with daily treatment [55]. Similarly, ibandronate 3 mg quarterly i.v. was shown to increase BMD significantly > 2.5 mg oral daily in the DIVA study [52,54]: after 1 year, lumbar spine BMD increased from baseline by 4.8% with 3 mg quarterly i.v. ibandronate versus 3.8% with daily oral treatment [54]. This increase was sustained for 2 years (+ 6.3 vs. 4.8%) [52], at the end of which significant BMD increases at total hip and trochanter with 3 mg quarterly i.v. ibandronate were seen. Monthly oral and quarterly i.v. regimens were better also in terms of BTM associated with

decrease in fracture risk: serum CTX was markedly reduced from baseline after 3 months (> 50% change from baseline) and this change was sustained throughout the 2-year study [52,54-56]. Furthermore, the proportion of patients reporting a > 50% reduction in serum CTX from baseline was significantly higher with the once-monthly dose versus daily dosing after 2 years, with a greater antifracture effect ($p = 0.002$) [39].

7. Long-term extension studies

In a chronic disease such as osteoporosis, it is important to test the efficacy of the treatment also in the long-term scenario. In the MOBILE Long Term (MOBILE LTE) study, patients from MOBILE who received either ibandronate 100 mg monthly or 150 mg monthly continued on the same treatment for another 3 years. In the extension study, oral 150 mg ibandronate showed sustained efficacy in lumbar spine BMD with an increase from baseline of 7.8% at 4 years to 8.4% at 5 years [20,57]. BMD gains at the total hip, femoral neck, and trochanter, achieved during the 2-year MOBILE study, were generally maintained during the extension study [57] (BMD total hip + 3.5%, femoral neck + 3.2%, and trochanter + 6.0%). A rapid and significant decrease of BTM (CTX) from baseline was noticed during the first 3 months of treatment which was sustained > 50% over 5 years of 150 mg once monthly ibandronate therapy [58], indicating a sign of antifracture efficacy. Similar to P1NP, a marker of new bone formation, that reached its nadir after 12 months of treatment and remained stable during the study years, proving the absence of a deleterious cumulative effect of the treatment [58]. In terms of absolute changes in BTM, in contrast with the results of the study with suboptimal doses of ibandronate [15], the BTM decrease described in MOBILE (with the adequate licensed doses) shows evidence for reductions to the “premenopausal” normal reference range [59]. In the DIVA Long TErm study, patients from DIVA who received either i.v. ibandronate 2 mg every 2 months or 3 mg every 3 months continued on the same treatment for 5 years, and similar data were observed [60].

8. Observational studies

Owing to the requirement of large sample sizes, any direct comparative clinical trial of antifracture efficacy is unrealistic. Observational studies offer one possibility of overcoming this hurdle, if well designed. Data regarding the use of osteoporotic drugs and the incidence of clinical fractures can be collected and analyzed from medical claims databases, derived from insurance companies. They offer a real-world clinical perspective into the effects of different bisphosphonate regimens, outside the confines of a controlled clinical trial with their strict inclusion and exclusion criteria [61]. However, because of the lack of randomization and disregard to patients features (i.e., baseline BMD), observational studies are subject to potential bias and confounding, which can be reduced but

not fully eliminated by appropriate statistical methods. A 12-month observational study, VIBE (The eValuation of Ibandronate Efficacy database fracture study), comparing the risk of fracture in women treated with monthly oral ibandronate or weekly bisphosphonates (alendronate and risedronate), was carried out in patients from two US-based databases [62]. In > 64,000 patients, the incidence of any clinical fracture was significantly lower ($p = 0.052$) in patients receiving ibandronate therapy compared with patients on weekly bisphosphonates (adjusted relative risk: 0.82, 95% CI: 0.66 – 1.00%). The incidence of vertebral fracture was significantly lower in patients receiving ibandronate compared with patients on weekly bisphosphonates (adjusted relative risk: 0.36, 95% CI: 0.18 – 0.75%; $p = 0.006$). The RRR in nonvertebral and hip fractures was comparable among the monthly and weekly bisphosphonates.

9. Experiences in osteoporosis other than postmenopausal

Some studies are available on the effects of ibandronate, in terms of BMD, in some forms of secondary osteoporosis or in particular to men. In 2003, patients with glucocorticoid-induced osteoporosis treated with ibandronate 2 mg quarterly were reported to demonstrate a significant BMD improvement, a decrease in back pain, and a progressive reduction in new vertebral fracture risk [63]. An improvement in cortical BMD measured with pQCT was also observed in SLE patients receiving 150 mg oral monthly ibandronate [64]. Results of an RCT with 150 mg oral monthly ibandronate versus placebo aiming to verify efficacy and safety in males with low BMD have recently been published [65]. After 1 year, in ITT analysis, ibandronate proved to increase BMD, both at lumbar spine (+ 3.5%) and proximal femoral epiphysis (+ 1.8%), significantly higher than in calcium–vitamin D supplementation. Among males who have completed the study with a good adherence to the treatment, it has exhibited a good tolerability and a greater decrease in BTMs. In addition, ibandronate treatment also proved to be effective in bone loss and fracture prevention in heart- and liver-transplanted patients [66,67].

10. Treatment adherence

Adherence is fundamental for clinical effectiveness of any treatment. Among treatments with the same efficacy, safety profiles, and cost, the one that guarantees the best adherence, especially in the long term is most preferred. A treatment course shorter than 6 months as demonstrated through an observational study was found to have no effect on fracture risk [68]. The fracture risk decreases only with an adherence > 50%, over this value fracture risk declines in an exponential trend [69]. It has been reported that about half of the patients discontinue the daily oral osteoporosis therapy within the first year [70]; moreover, compliance is often insufficient for many reasons [71]. To overcome this kind of problem in clinical

practice, new regimens have been developed for some drugs, such as bisphosphonates, with a pharmacokinetics that allows an intermittent administration. Intermittent oral treatment has produced the expected improvement in adherence to therapy [72]. However, compliance is still unsatisfactory even with weekly regimen [73]. Bisphosphonates licensed for osteoporosis treatment differ in their chemical, physical, and biological properties which in turn influence administration intervals [74]. Only the most powerful, as ibandronate and zoledronate, are eligible for an administration regimen less frequent than weekly. On the other hand, fracture risk reduction with intermittent regimen has been documented only for some molecules [2,3]. Persistence in bisphosphonates therapy after 1 year seems to be mostly related to the occurrence of gastro-enteric adverse events and administration interval [71,75,76]. A weekly dose is associated with better tolerability and adherence versus a daily dose [71,73], similarly there are studies reporting a better tolerability of monthly ibandronate versus weekly bisphosphonates [76,77]. A retrospective pharmaco-epidemiologic French study in a wide database made by a general practitioner underlines a minor risk of treatment discontinuation and better compliance with the monthly dose compared to the weekly bisphosphonates: patients receiving oral monthly ibandronate showed a discontinuation rate minor than patients with weekly bisphosphonates by 37% [78]. A similar database in Italy has been recently used to compare persistence and compliance of weekly or monthly bisphosphonates with daily administration of strontium ranelate [79,80]. Patients taking weekly risedronate have an increased risk of treatment discontinuation after first prescription compared to ibandronate (OR 1.43; 95% CI 1.36 – 1.49); this risk was more than double in patients with strontium ranelate. Moreover, risedronate and strontium ranelate compared to ibandronate had a risk of low compliance increased by two and three times, respectively. These results reveal that monthly ibandronate in Italian clinical practice guarantees better adherence, either in terms of compliance and persistence, than weekly risedronate and especially daily strontium ranelate. Thus, it could attribute to a greater effect on osteoporotic fracture risk reduction and probably a better pharmaco-economic profile. In our opinion, the good results from MOBILE [55] and MOBILE LTE [57] with the lower dose of 100 mg ibandronate monthly (equivalent to a MPR = 67% of 150 mg dose) should be considered, as they give further evidence of ibandronate efficacy even in low-compliance condition, quite common in real-life practice.

In conclusion, the treatment with ibandronate appears better than other pharmacological approaches in terms of adherence and effectiveness.

11. Safety profile and tolerability of ibandronate compared to other BPs

Clinical trials reported no differences in gastrointestinal adverse events between BPs and placebo [81]. Nevertheless,

gastrointestinal side effects are commonly caused on discontinuation of daily or weekly bisphosphonates [71,82]. This could be explained by many factors such as improper administration procedure, concomitant gastrointestinal diseases, or just the fear of adverse events. In Italian population, poor compliance has been observed in patients undergoing treatment with gastroprotective drugs [71]. In clinical trials on ibandronate [3,55], there was no difference in gastrointestinal adverse events between the study groups, even if patient with concomitant gastrointestinal discomforts or taking NSAID or anti-ulcer drugs, common in patients with vertebral fracture [83], were not excluded. Moreover, reducing the frequency of contact of bisphosphonates with upper gastrointestinal way with weekly or monthly regimen should lead to a decrease in relevant gastrointestinal adverse events. The potential increase of gastrointestinal events because of a higher monthly dose could be balanced by a reduction in administration frequency. In fact it has been observed that expanding the administration interval, thanks to monthly ibandronate, results in a better adherence in patients who had discontinued oral daily or weekly bisphosphonates because of poor gastrointestinal tolerability [76,84]. There are other studies reporting a better compliance and a minor frequency in gastrointestinal side effects with weekly vs daily regimen [85] or monthly vs weekly [76,86]. Thus, monthly bisphosphonate treatment should be preferred in patients at high risk of gastrointestinal adverse events or taking several drugs, frequent conditions in elder people in whom a good tolerability has been confirmed [87]. In patients with overt contraindication or gastrointestinal diseases, parenteral administration of bisphosphonates is recommended.

So, i.v. bisphosphonates have a slight risk of renal toxicity that could be reduced by appropriate hydration and infusion time. Both ibandronate and zoledronate have a good renal safety profile in postmenopausal women with glomerular filtration rate (GFR) > 30 ml/min [88,89]. The lack of head-to-head trials in osteoporotic patients makes a comparison also in terms of safety [90] impossible. Ibandronate was found to be safer than zoledronate in patients treated for myeloma [91]. Furthermore, there are evidence of ibandronate's lack of renal toxicity in patients with impaired renal function earlier to the first administration [92,93]. These aspects could be explained by the different pharmacokinetic features of ibandronate [94]: compared to pamidronate and zoledronate, ibandronate has higher protein binding rate (87%) that could reduce renal exposure to free circulating drug; moreover, ibandronate tissue half-life is much shorter than zoledronate (24 days vs 150 – 200 days, respectively). I.v. ibandronate might be preferable to zoledronate in patients with chronic renal failure or at high risk of renal toxicity because of concomitant medications. However, patients with renal function impairment should be investigated for osteomalacia or a dynamic bone disease before bisphosphonate administration and the dose adjusted for GFR [90]. The Designed for i.v. Ibandronate reNal safety Evaluation (DIVINE) study was a 1-year

prospective, randomized, open label, multi-center study that evaluated the renal safety of quarterly (every 3 months) ibandronate i.v. injection given over 15 – 30 s compared with infusion given over 15 min in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis at increased risk for renal disease [95]. The results of this study demonstrate the profile of i.v. ibandronate, which allows it to be dosed as an i.v. injection in the primary care setting without the need for an infusion, even in patients with pre-existing hypertension or diabetes mellitus. In conclusion, among the N-BPs, there are evidence of a better gastrointestinal and renal tolerability profile for oral and i.v. ibandronate administration, respectively. Recently, arisen safety issues of long-term bisphosphonate treatment, attributed to extended oversuppression of bone turnover, are the risk of osteonecrosis of the jaw (ONJ) and atypical fractures. In a recent review, 88% of ONJ cases were associated with intravenous therapy, primarily zoledronate, and only 11% had received oral bisphosphonates, in most cases alendronate [96]. Only few case reports of ONJ have been reported with the use of ibandronate. The lower binding affinity of ibandronate with the mineral component of bone in comparison to zoledronate or alendronate [11], might potentially be associated with lower risk of both ONJ and atypical fractures.

12. Conclusions

In the evaluation of any treatment, the whole body of evidence should be considered. A large amount of data from randomized, controlled fracture trials, bridging studies using surrogate endpoints, meta-analyses, and observational studies based on a clinical setting is available to suggest that ibandronate has sustained vertebral and nonvertebral antifracture efficacies in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis.

13. Expert opinion

The purpose of pharmacologic treatment of osteoporosis is to reduce the risk of fractures, both vertebral and nonvertebral. The most reliable way of gathering evidence of antifracture efficacy is directly from randomized placebo-controlled clinical trials, which contain large patient cohorts and are designed specifically to control the potential biases. Pivotal studies on ibandronic acid efficacy in terms of antifracture effects on nonvertebral fractures had some intrinsic limitations with respect to the inclusion criteria for ethical reasons of a low-risk population. This is particularly true in case of nonvertebral fractures, where the therapeutic effect is masked by a greater proportion of traumatic fractures than for vertebral fractures. Nevertheless, additional evidence of efficacy is available from meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials and from surrogate endpoints for fractures. This large body of evidence suggests that ibandronate has sustained vertebral and nonvertebral anti-fracture efficacies in women with postmenopausal osteoporosis comparable to those observed with other N-BPs. Differences in efficacy between the available

bisphosphonate regimens appear to be a function of dose rather than inherent differences in their therapeutic potential.

Efficacy in the clinical practice (effectiveness) may be compromised by poor treatment compliance and/or failure to persist with the prescribed treatment. Drugs or treatment regimens that reduce the risk for osteoporotic fractures and make the treatment of osteoporosis more convenient and suitable for patients are preferred: ibandronic acid at marketed doses of 150 mg once monthly oral and 3 mg quarterly i.v. injection, given over 15 – 30 s, has these characteristics. The robust results observed even with the lower oral dose of 100 mg monthly should be considered: they give further warranty when a suboptimal compliance is expected, which is quite common in real-life practice.

A notable progress in the pharmacological treatment of osteoporosis over the last two decades has been achieved, such that patients with skeletal fragility now have a variety of effective therapeutic choices that may be tailored to individual preferences. Other factors such as improved therapeutic adherence and/or a better safety profile now play a greater role in the medication choice. Among N-BPs, there are evidence of a better gastrointestinal and renal tolerability profile for oral and i.v. ibandronate administration, respectively.

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