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ASSESSMENT OF FEMORAL NECK STRENGTH AND BONE MINERAL DENSITY CHANGES FOLLOWING EXERCISE USING 3D-DXA IMAGES

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ABSTRACT (250 words)

Physical exercise induces spatially heterogeneous bone changes in the proximal femur. Recent advances have enabled 3D dual-energy X-ray Absorptiometry (DXA)-based finite element (FE) models to estimate bone strength. However, its ability to detect exercise-induced BMD and strength changes is unclear. The aim of this study was to quantify the repeatability of vBMD and femoral neck strength obtained from 3D-DXA images and determine the changes due an exercise intervention. The DXA scans included pairs of same-day repeated scans from ten healthy females and pre- and post-exercise intervention scans of 26 males. FE models with element-by-element correspondence were generated by morphing a template mesh to each bone. BMD and femoral strength under single-leg-stance and sideways fall loading configurations were obtained for both groups and compared. In the repeated images, the total hip vBMD difference was $0.5 \pm 2.5\%$. Element-by-element BMD differences reached $30 \pm 50\%$. The strength difference in single-leg stance was $2.8 \pm 13\%$ and in sideways fall was $4.5\% \pm 19\%$. In the exercise group, strength changes were $6 \pm 19\%$ under single-leg stance and $1 \pm 18\%$ under sideways fall. vBMD parameters were weakly correlated to strength ($R^2 < 0.31$). The exercise group had a mean bone accrual exceeding repeatability values in the femoral head and cortical regions. The case with the highest vBMD change (6.4%) caused 18% and -7% strength changes under single-leg stance and sideways fall. 3D-DXA technology can assess the effect of exercise interventions in large cohorts but its validity in individual cases should be interpreted with caution.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Osteoporosis is an age-related disease characterised by decreased bone mineral density
3 (BMD) and increased risk of fracture after minimal trauma. Osteoporotic hip fractures are
4 associated with a high burden of morbidity, healthcare costs, and mortality (Abrahamsen et al.,
5 2009; Johnell and Kanis, 2006). Physical exercise is recommended for mitigating the effects
6 of age-related bone loss (Beck et al., 2017) as it causes higher than normal strain in bone which
7 elicits an adaptive skeletal response (Rubin and Lanyon, 1985). Typically, the bone response
8 to exercise is assessed using areal Bone Mineral Density (aBMD) calculated over large bone
9 portions. However, few data exist on spatially heterogeneous bone changes in response to
10 exercise (Lang et al., 2014) and even fewer on the relationship of such changes to alterations
11 in femoral neck strength.

12 According to the World Health Organization (WHO), the assessment of the risk of hip
13 fracture is based on population-based aBMD values measured using dual-energy X-ray
14 Absorptiometry (DXA) imaging. The process involves calculating the bone area and mass over
15 the total hip, neck, trochanter, and sub-trochanter region from planar DXA images. However,
16 aBMD obtained from DXA has shown to discriminate fracture cases from non-fracture with
17 area under the curve (AUC) values of approximately 0.75 (Qasim et al., 2016; Yang et al.,
18 2009) and been only weakly associated with bone strength ($R^2 = 0.3 - 0.69$) (Cheng et al.,
19 1997; Taddei et al., 2014), motivating research into advanced diagnostic methods. Recent
20 technologies have used finite-element modelling based on 3D femur geometry and the
21 volumetric BMD (vBMD) distribution derived from computed-tomography (CT) images to
22 estimate bone strength. These CT-based models predict femoral neck strength better than
23 standard empirical relationships using aBMD, ($R^2 = 0.8$, SEE = 1314N vs $R^2 = 0.66$, SEE =
24 1687N) (Dall'Ara et al., 2016), and are better able to identify clinical fracture and non-fracture
25 cases (Falcinelli et al., 2014). However, the dose of ionizing radiation in clinical CT scanners

26 limits the applicability of CT-based methods in large clinical trials and in routine clinical
27 practice.

28 Recent advances of image processing technologies have enabled reconstructing the 3D
29 geometry and BMD distribution from planar DXA images, referred to as the 3D-DXA images
30 hereinafter, and studying volumetric bone density and strength changes following clinical
31 interventions. One viable procedure embedded in the 3D-SHAPER (Galgo Medical, Barcelona,
32 Spain) software, involves extracting from a statistical shape and appearance model (SSAM) of
33 hip geometry and bone mineral density the instance that best-matches the DXA image from the
34 patient, providing in output a best-match 3D-DXA image volume and a variety of geometrical
35 and bone mineral density parameters (Humbert et al., 2017). Finite-element calculation of bone
36 strength based on DXA images have been validated against experimental results (Dall'Ara et
37 al., 2016; Grassi et al., 2017) and shown to improve aBMD clinical classification of fracture
38 and non-fracture cases ($AUC > 0.8$ vs. $AUC < 0.7$) (Wills et al., 2019). Yet, the repeatability
39 of 3D-DXA images for assessing exercise-induced hip BMD and strength changes is unclear.

40 The aim of this study was 1) to quantify the repeatability of vBMD and femoral neck
41 strength obtained from 3D-DXA images and 2) to determine vBMD and femoral neck strength
42 changes in an exercise group of reference in relation to corresponding repeatability values. To
43 this purpose, we developed a method for assessing changes in BMD and femoral neck strength
44 from 3D-DXA images. The repeatability of the 3D-DXA method was quantified using single-
45 day repeated images in a cohort of healthy women for which no BMD and femoral neck
46 strength changes are to be expected. Spatial BMD and femoral neck strength changes following
47 the exercise intervention by Harding and co-workers (Harding et al., 2020a), used as reference,
48 were then analysed and compared to the repeatability of the 3D-DXA method.

49 **METHODS**

50 *3D-DXA data*

51 Two sets of DXA images were obtained using the same DXA machine (Medix DR,
52 Medilink, France). The first set of images included pairs of same-day repeated DXA scans of
53 the hip for ten healthy female participants (54 ± 7.1 years). The second set of images included
54 pre- and post-exercise intervention DXA scans of the proximal femur of 27 male participants
55 (64.9 ± 8.6 years) taken from an earlier eight-month, semi-randomized controlled exercise
56 intervention trial (Harding et al., 2017). The participants analysed in the current report were
57 from the high-intensity resistance and impact training (HiRIT) group. The HiRIT program
58 incorporated multi-joint, compound movement, high-intensity progressive resistance training
59 and high-impact jumping exercises and was shown to promote a moderate aBMD response in
60 the proximal femur (Harding et al., 2020a; Harding et al., 2020b).

61 *Femoral neck strength calculation*

62 The 3D-DXA images calibrated to equivalent bone mineral content levels were
63 obtained with 3D-SHAPER software (v.2, Galgo Medical, Barcelona, Spain) (Humbert et al.,
64 2017). Briefly, the software uses a 3D statistical shape and appearance model (SSAM) of the
65 proximal femur built from a database of QCT scans. The database included 111 Caucasian
66 subjects (30 male and 81 female) with a mean age of 56 ± 12 years and no signs of skeletal
67 disease other than osteoporosis. The software delivers a 3D volume of images of the proximal
68 femur from the planar DXA image.

69 The proximal femur surface geometry for each 3D-DXA image was retrieved through
70 threshold-based segmentation and meshed with triangular elements. The triangulated meshes
71 underwent 5 iterations of smoothing using curvature flow smoothing (Desbrun et al., 1999)
72 (MATLAB 2018b, The MathWorks Inc., MA, USA) (Figure 1). Smoothing resulted in a point-

73 to-point distance error of 0.09 ± 0.38 mm between the retrieved and smoothed geometries
74 across all repeatability participants. Geometrical errors of this size were found to cause $< 10\%$
75 error in the maximum and minimum principal strains (Taddei et al., 2006).

76 A template surface mesh was generated from the 20 proximal femoral geometries used
77 in the repeatability set of images, by first morphing one femur surface mesh to all 20 femurs
78 and then calculating the mean shape. The template mesh was characterised by a triangular
79 surface mesh (33,954 elements). A smoothing algorithm was applied to the surface mesh for
80 regularity so that 90% of the elements had a Jacobian > 0.8 and minimum edge sizes of 1.25 –
81 1.75 mm. A template volume mesh of linear tetrahedral elements (205,233 elements) was
82 generated from the surface mesh using an advancing front algorithm (Hypermesh 14.0, Altair
83 Engineering Inc., Troy, USA).

84 The template was morphed over the shape of each bone in the dataset in multiple steps.
85 Firstly, the template surface mesh was rigidly registered to the target surface mesh by aligning
86 the principal axes of inertia of the template and the target. Secondly, the rigid registration was
87 optimized with a rigid iterative closest point (ICP) algorithm so that rotation, translation, and
88 scaling of the template vertices were iteratively calculated as solutions to a weighted least
89 squares minimisation problem by Singular Value Decomposition (SVD). The algorithm
90 converged when the root mean squared error (RMSE) between the previous and current
91 template vertices dropped below a threshold value ($< 10^{-5}$ mm). Third, an ICP based non-rigid
92 registration algorithm, modelled as a sum of Gaussian Radial Basis Functions (G-RBF) with
93 10 iterations, was applied to locally deform the template surface mesh to match the geometry
94 of the target surface mesh (Audenaert et al., 2019). Finally, a custom finite element solution
95 (MATLAB 2018b, The MathWorks Inc., MA, USA) was implemented in which the
96 displacements at the nodes on the surface of the template volume mesh were imposed to equal

97 those calculated while registering the surface meshes. This process delivered morphed volume
98 meshes with node numbering and connectivity correspondence.

99 Bone was assumed to be linear-elastic and have inhomogeneous isotropic material
100 properties. The material properties were mapped to the morphed template volume mesh from
101 the 3D-DXA image. A calibration correction was applied to the radiological density obtained
102 in the 3D-SHAPER modelling process to estimate ash density (Schileo et al., 2008a). An
103 empirical relationship was then used to convert the ash density (g/cm^3) to elastic modulus
104 (MPa) (Morgan et al., 2003) with an ash-to-wet density correction applied (Schileo et al.,
105 2008a):

$$106 \quad E=14644 \times \rho^{1.49} \quad (1)$$

107 The elastic modulus distribution was integrated over the element volume using Gaussian
108 quadrature with an in-house custom code (MATLAB 2018b, The MathWorks Inc., MA, USA)
109 delivering the element modulus used for FEA. The Poisson's ratio was set to 0.3.

110 A local femoral co-ordinate system was defined by first defining two rings of nodes on
111 the proximal femoral shaft above and below the lesser trochanter. The line joining the centre
112 points of the node rings defined the Z-axis. The Z-X plane was defined by establishing a
113 temporary axis between the centre point above the lesser trochanter and the centre of the
114 femoral head. The Y-axis was defined as the cross-product of the Z-axis and temporary axis in
115 the Z-X plane. The X-axis was defined as the cross-product of the Z-axis and Y-axis.

116 Two sets of boundary conditions were used, one representing a static single-leg stance
117 load configuration and the other representing a fall on the side (Figure 2). The single-leg stance
118 configuration was simulated by constraining the distal end of the femur. A nominal load of 100
119 N lying in the frontal plane and passing through the femoral head centre at 8° abduction from
120 the diaphysis was applied (Cristofolini et al., 2007). The force was distributed over a 5 mm

121 diameter node patch on the superior femoral head surface to minimise numerical artefacts. To
122 account for variation in load direction, nine simulations were run for the single-leg stance
123 loading configuration with the load direction varied by $\pm 5^\circ$, and $\pm 10^\circ$ from the standard load
124 case in the coronal and sagittal planes.

125 Similarly, the sideways fall loading configuration was simulated with a nominal load
126 of 100 N distributed over a 5 mm diameter node patch on the medial side of the femoral head
127 and pointing laterally with 0° rotation in the coronal and axial planes of the local co-ordinate
128 system. The loading direction for sideways fall was varied in the coronal and axial planes by \pm
129 5° and $\pm 10^\circ$ from the standard load case. The distal extremity of the femur was free to rotate
130 about the anterior-posterior axis and the surface of the greater trochanter was constrained in
131 the medial-lateral direction. All simulations were performed in ANSYS (19.1, ANSYS Inc.,
132 PA, USA).

133 The femoral neck strength was calculated for each femur and loading configuration
134 using a maximum principal strain criterion (Schileo et al., 2014; Schileo et al., 2008b). The
135 maximum and minimum principal bone strains were recorded for each element in a region of
136 interest on the external surface of the femoral neck (Appendix 1). The region of interest was
137 set below the head-neck junction to minimize the effect of the strain concentration caused by
138 the load application on the results. The risk of fracture (RF) was calculated as the ratio between
139 the maximum principal and minimum principal strain (ϵ_{MAX}) and the asymmetric elastic limit
140 values of bone in compression ($\epsilon_{LIM} = 10,000 \mu\epsilon$) and tension ($\epsilon_{LIM} = 7,000 \mu\epsilon$) (Bayraktar et
141 al., 2004). Bone strength (F_s) was determined as the nominal load applied (100 N) over the
142 maximum RF:

$$143 \quad F_s = F_{nominal} / RF_{max} \quad (2)$$

144

145 *Data analysis*

146 The repeatability of the analysis was assessed in terms of DXA-based BMD parameters
147 in the total hip region, vBMD distribution, and strength. The difference in bone outcomes
148 between repeated scans was calculated and expressed as a percentage of the corresponding
149 mean value. Femoral neck strength differences were calculated for both the nominal single-leg
150 stance and sideways fall configurations and the corresponding eight perturbations of loading
151 direction. The effect of geometric and BMD differences and that of perturbations of the loading
152 direction were analysed by calculating the standard deviation of the pooled results obtained for
153 all 10 participants and all the nine loading orientations, respectively.

154 Bone and strength changes in the exercise group were analysed using linear regression
155 (MATLAB, The MathWorks Inc., Natick, USA) for both the single-leg-stance and the side fall
156 loading using the 64 different parameters provided by the 3D-SHAPER software describing
157 bone geometry and quality (Appendix 2). The significance level for regression was set at 0.05.
158 The spatial BMD changes in the exercise group and the repeatability group were compared by
159 displaying the element-by-element mean BMD change in the exercise group with respect to
160 the mean BMD change in the repeatability group. We also examined the spatial BMD and
161 strength changes in individual participants who represented the extreme cases of total hip
162 vBMD and femoral neck strength changes in the exercise group to provide an insight into the
163 validity limits of 3D-DXA analyses.

164 **RESULTS**

165 The total hip BMD difference in repeated images cumulatively averaged over 6 or more
166 participants was consistently below 0.5% and the standard deviation was consistently within
167 the 2.5 – 2.7% range (Table 1). Local element-by-element BMD differences reached $0.06 \pm$
168 0.12 g/cm^3 ($30 \pm 50\%$) in the greater trochanter and calcar regions (Figure 3). The peak strain

169 in single-leg stance occurred within the region of interest (i.e. superior surface of the femoral
170 neck) except for participants 3, 4, 6, and where it occurred on posterior aspect of the femur
171 near the intertrochanteric ridge. By grouping the femoral neck strength differences obtained
172 for each participant, the average standard deviation was 13% for sideways fall and 19% for
173 single-leg stance loading, while pooling the strength differences obtained for each load
174 orientation, the average standard deviation was 3% for sideways fall and 11% for single-leg
175 stance loading (Table 2).

176 In the exercise group, femoral neck strength improved by $6 \pm 19\%$ following exercise
177 under single-leg stance loading and by $1 \pm 18\%$ under side fall loading (Appendix 3). Femoral
178 neck strength changes under a single-leg stance loading were weakly, or moderately, associated
179 with positive changes in 13 of the 64 parameters analysed including both geometric and bone
180 quality parameters (Table 3). The total hip BMD changes were $1.3 \pm 2.8\%$ in the exercise
181 group. The highest coefficient of determination between bone and femoral neck strength
182 changes ($R^2 = 0.31$) was found for the femoral neck bone mineral content (BMC) for the single-
183 leg stance loading (Table 3). There was either no association or very weak association ($R^2 <$
184 0.1) between changes of every bone parameter analysed and changes of femoral neck strength
185 under side fall loading.

186 Comparing the exercise and the repeatability groups, the element-by-element BMD
187 changes were comparable across the entire bone volume in terms of mean BMD and standard
188 deviation (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Nevertheless, the exercise group displayed a mean bone
189 accrual exceeding corresponding repeated values in the femoral head and cortical regions and
190 a mean bone decrease exceeding corresponding repeated values predominantly in the sub-
191 cervical and the calcar regions (Figure 5).

192 The highest positive BMD change (6.4%) occurred in the medial neck causing a 18%
193 and -7% change of femoral neck strength under single-leg and sideways fall loading. The
194 highest negative change (-5.1%) largely occurred in the calcar region causing an 8% and -8%
195 change of femoral neck strength under single-leg stance and sideways fall loading, respectively
196 (Figure 6). Furthermore, the highest positive change of femoral neck strength (63%) occurred
197 under single-leg stance loading in response to a 1.3% increase of the total hip vBMD while
198 under sideways fall loading the femoral neck strength change was -0.2% (Figure 7).

199 **DISCUSSION**

200 The aim of the present study was to compare the repeatability of BMD and femoral
201 neck strength estimates to corresponding changes caused by exercise using a common 3D-
202 DXA procedure. The 3D-DXA procedure analysed provided repeatable changes of typical
203 BMD parameters calculated over large bone portions and strength averaged over 6 participants
204 or more to enable a mean error below 0.5%. Changes of strength were load-dependent and were
205 about one order of magnitude higher than corresponding BMD changes. Local (element-by-
206 element) BMD values displayed a much higher dispersion than common vBMD parameters
207 similar in the repeatability and the exercise group. Therefore, the 3D-DXA technology
208 analysed can be used to determine the main effect of an exercise intervention on commonly
209 used vBMD parameters and strength. However, the validity of BMD and femoral neck strength
210 changes on a case-by-case base should be considered with caution.

211 The total hip BMD and femoral neck strength difference in repeated images was
212 consistently below 0.5% and 5% when six to ten participants were considered, providing the
213 minimal effect size that can be detected using the 3D-DXA procedure analysed. Larger cohorts
214 may enable detection of a smaller effect size. Interestingly, the variation of the element-by-
215 element BMD (SD = 50%) was much higher than that in commonly used geometrical and
216 vBMD parameters analysed (SD = 2.5 – 2.7%), hence contributing to the variance in femoral

217 neck strength, which was found to be affected by geometrical and BMD differences (13% –
218 19%) and load direction (3% – 11%). This information is important for understanding the
219 variations observed in 3D-DXA analyses.

220 For the exercise group, femoral neck strength increased by 6% and 1% under single-
221 leg stance and sideways fall loading, showing a load-dependent strength response above and
222 below the respective repeatability values. Only 20% (13 of 64) of the geometrical and BMD
223 parameters analysed here were weakly, or moderately, correlated to femoral neck strength
224 changes indicating local variations are important determinants of bone strength. This finding
225 supports the notion that inferring strength from BMD measurement may lack sensitivity and
226 can be misleading (Turner and Robling, 2005). However, the exercise group displayed a larger
227 but comparable variation of BMD and femoral neck strength changes (SD: 2.8% and 18 – 19%)
228 to those in the repeated images (SD: 2.5 – 2.7% and 13 – 19%), suggesting that the 3D-DXA
229 procedure analysed here should be used with caution on a case-by-case basis.

230 Although extreme cases in the exercise group analysed here may not well represent
231 BMD and strength changes in the participants, the extreme cases can provide insights into
232 understanding of the potential of exercise for promoting bone strength. For example, 1.3%
233 increase in total hip vBMD caused a 63% femoral neck strength increase under a single-leg
234 stance loading in one participant. Therefore, it appears that exercise can have a remarkable
235 effect on strength despite inducing a relatively modest BMD response. Yet, the optimal
236 exercise type and amount for optimal hip strength in each participant remains to be determined
237 (Martelli et al., 2020).

238 The present results compare well with earlier findings. The larger changes of femoral
239 neck strength (6%) over that of BMD (1.3%) is in agreement with the notion that exercise, in
240 contrast to drug therapies alone that act systemically, best promote bone strength by causing

241 local bone changes (Warden et al., 2020) at the highest possible distance from the neutral axis
242 thereby best promoting strength (Oden et al., 1999). The load-dependent response of femoral
243 neck strength to exercise can be attributed to the exercise type which depends on hip load
244 orientation and intensity resulting from an exercise-specific muscle contraction (Martelli et al.,
245 2014; Martelli et al., 2017) causing a spatially heterogeneous bone mechanical stimulus and
246 response.

247 There were limitations in the present study. The use of a single DXA device has enabled
248 to quantify the repeatability of the 3D-DXA procedure alone. However, the use of multiple
249 devices may lead to increased dispersion of the data. Also, the assumption of linear elastic and
250 brittle fracture behaviour affected the calculation of femoral neck strength. However, models
251 implementing linear and non-linear elastic bone behaviour similarly explain 89% and 80 – 85%
252 of the variance of the fracture load (Dall'Ara et al., 2013), hence providing confidence on the
253 use of linear models in the present study. Nevertheless, bone strain and strength calculation
254 based on 3D-DXA images was found less accurate than corresponding calculation based on
255 CT images (Grassi et al., 2017) due to repeatability errors in the 3D-DXA reconstruction
256 process. Addressing this limitation may require improving, eventually via dedicated validation
257 studies, the repeatability of the participant position during imaging, the search algorithm for
258 extracting the 3D volume from the SSAM model and/or the SSAM model itself, and improving
259 the representativeness of the training set.

260 In conclusion, this study quantified the repeatability of a specific 3D-DXA procedure
261 for the assessment of volumetric BMD and femoral neck strength and compared the
262 repeatability analysis with corresponding values following a selected exercise intervention of
263 reference. As such, the present findings can inform the use of 3D-DXA technologies for the
264 analysis and the design of exercise therapy for promoting hip health. The present results support
265 the use of the 3D-DXA technology analysed for studying the main effect of exercise

266 interventions. However, the use of the 3D-DXA technology for the analysis of bone density
267 and strength changes caused by exercise in individual participants should be considered with
268 caution.

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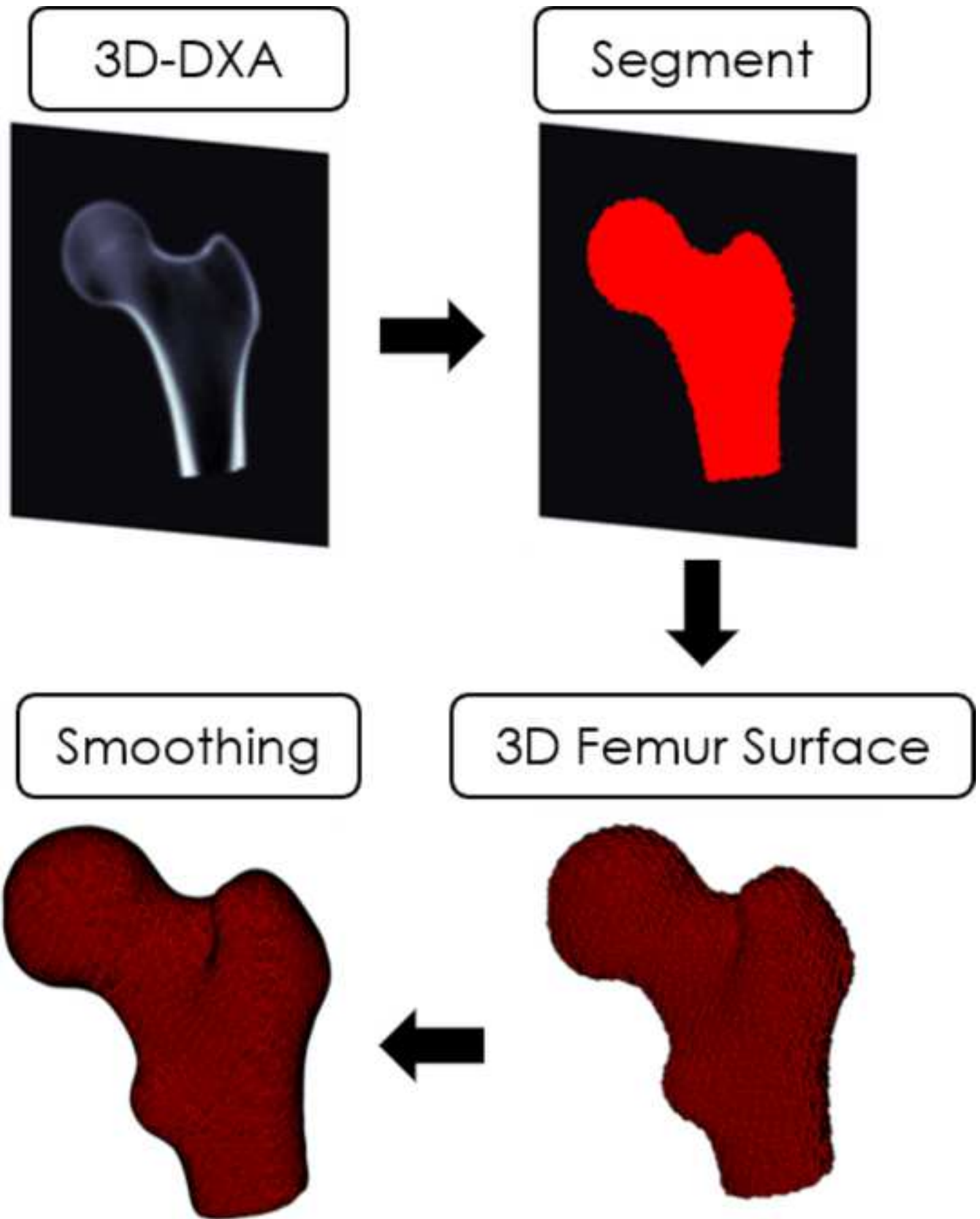
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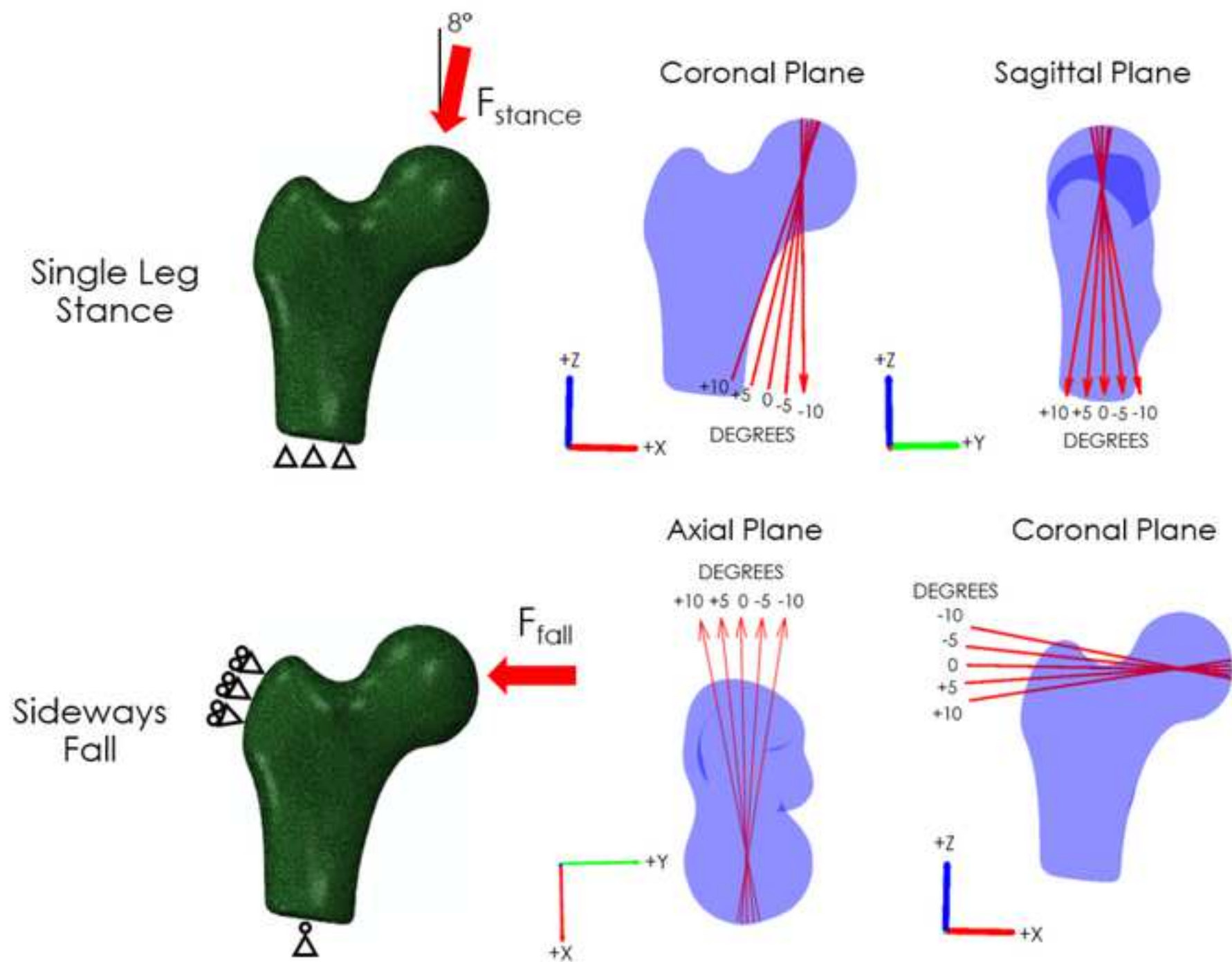
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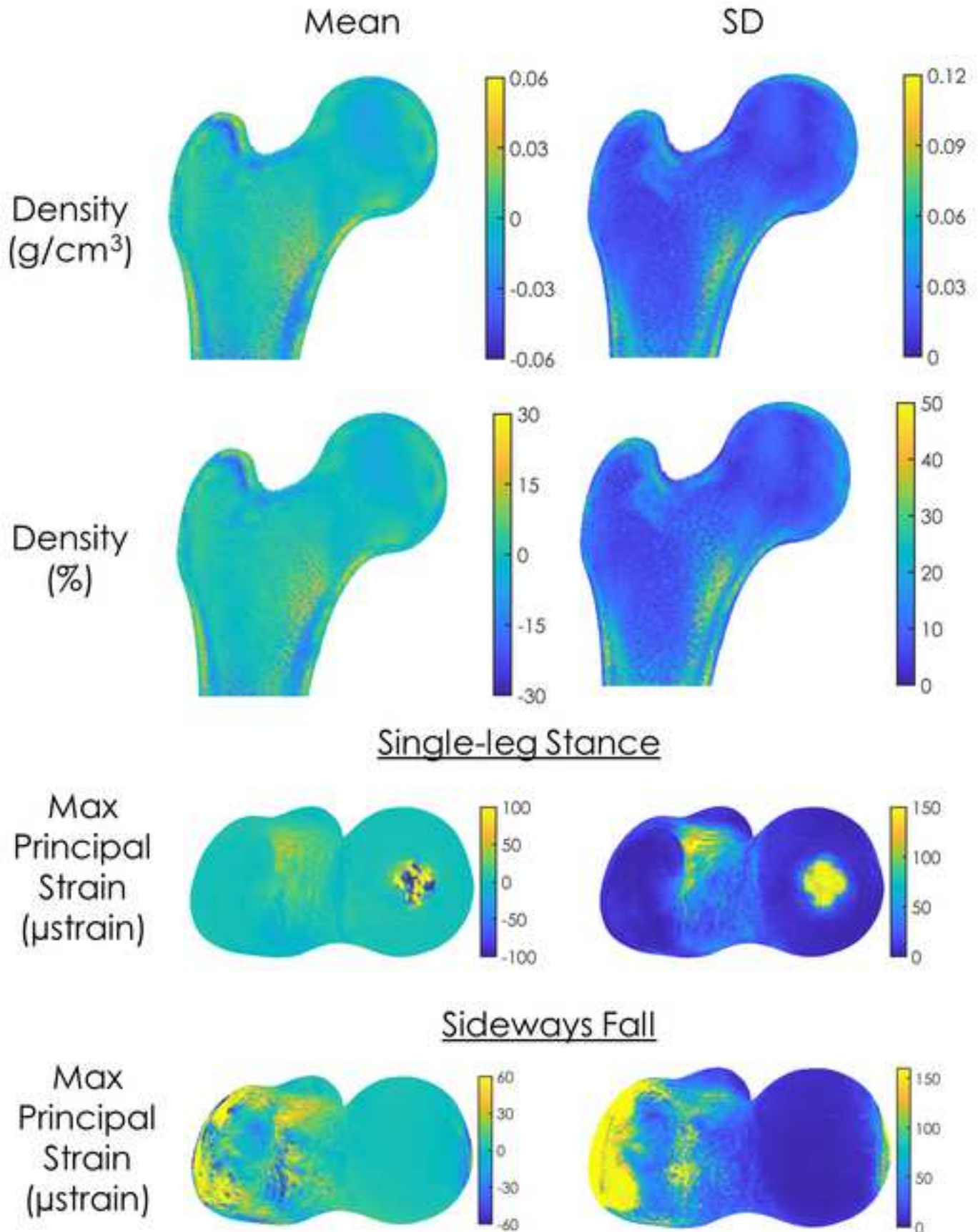
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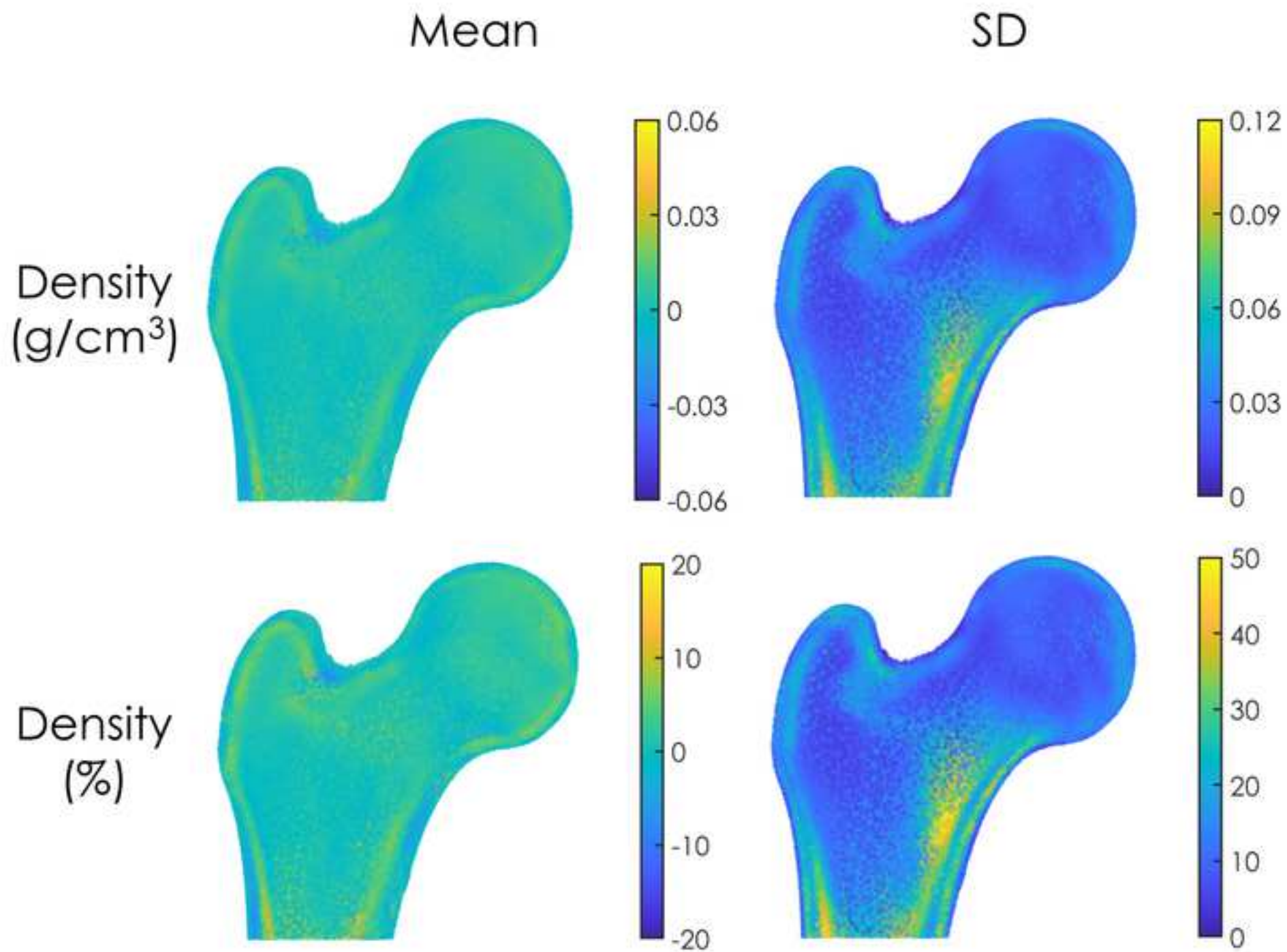
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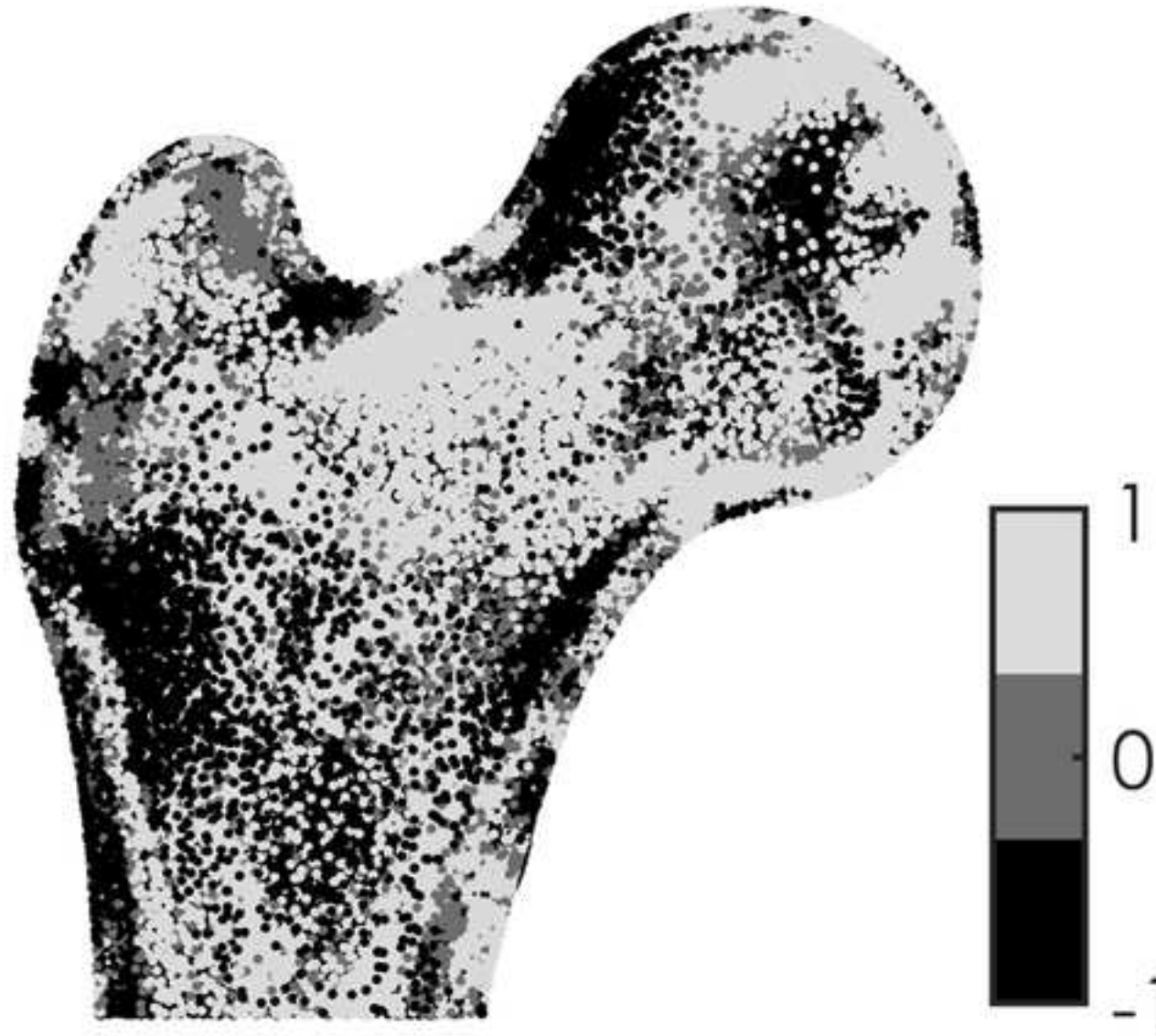








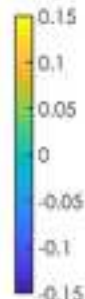
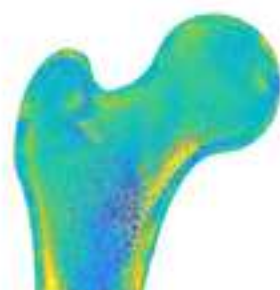
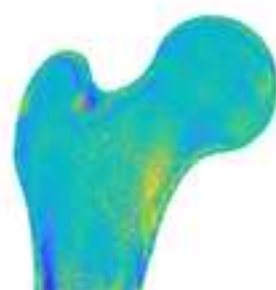
Mean BMD Change – Exercise vs. Repeatability Group



Min/Max Total Hip Integral vBMD Changes

Min Case

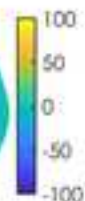
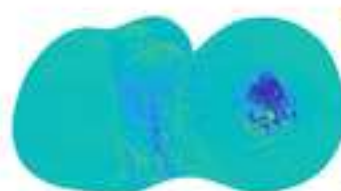
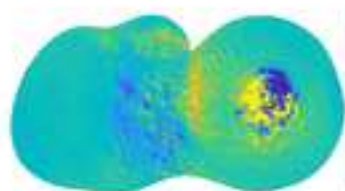
Max Case

Density
(g/cm³)Total Hip Integral vBMD(g/cm³)

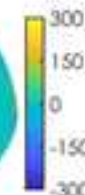
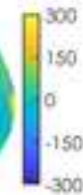
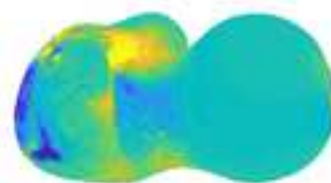
	INITIAL	FINAL	DIFF (g/cm ³)	DIFF (%)
MIN	0.239	0.227	-0.012	-5.1%
MAX	0.303	0.322	0.019	6.4%

Single-leg Stance

Fracture Load (N)

Max
Principal
Strain
(μstrain)

	INITIAL	FINAL	DIFF (N)	DIFF (%)
MIN	2603	2822	219	8%
MAX	3915	4620	705	18%

Sideways Fall

	INITIAL	FINAL	DIFF (N)	DIFF (%)
MIN	1280	1181	-99	-8%
MAX	1384	1284	-100	-7%

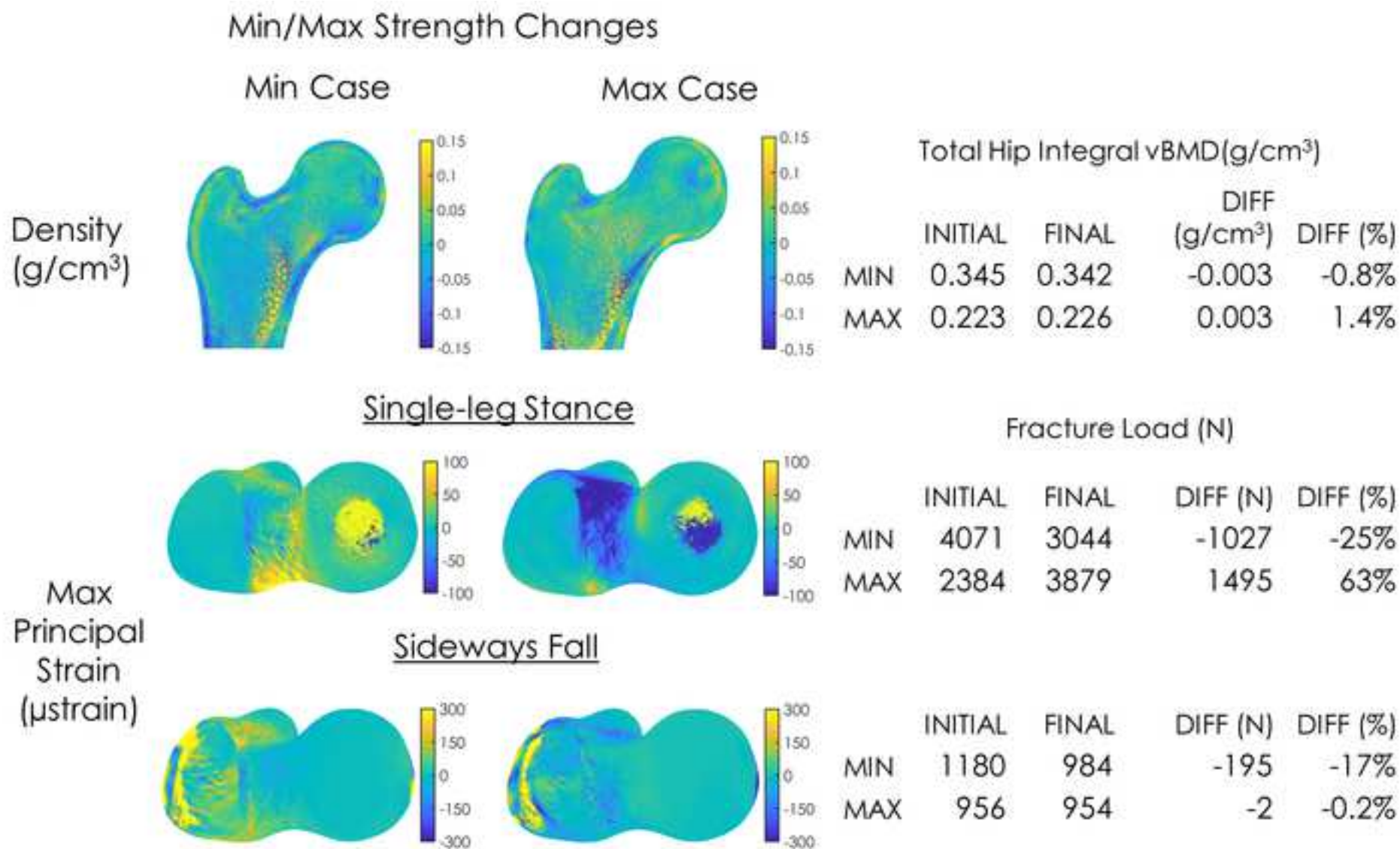


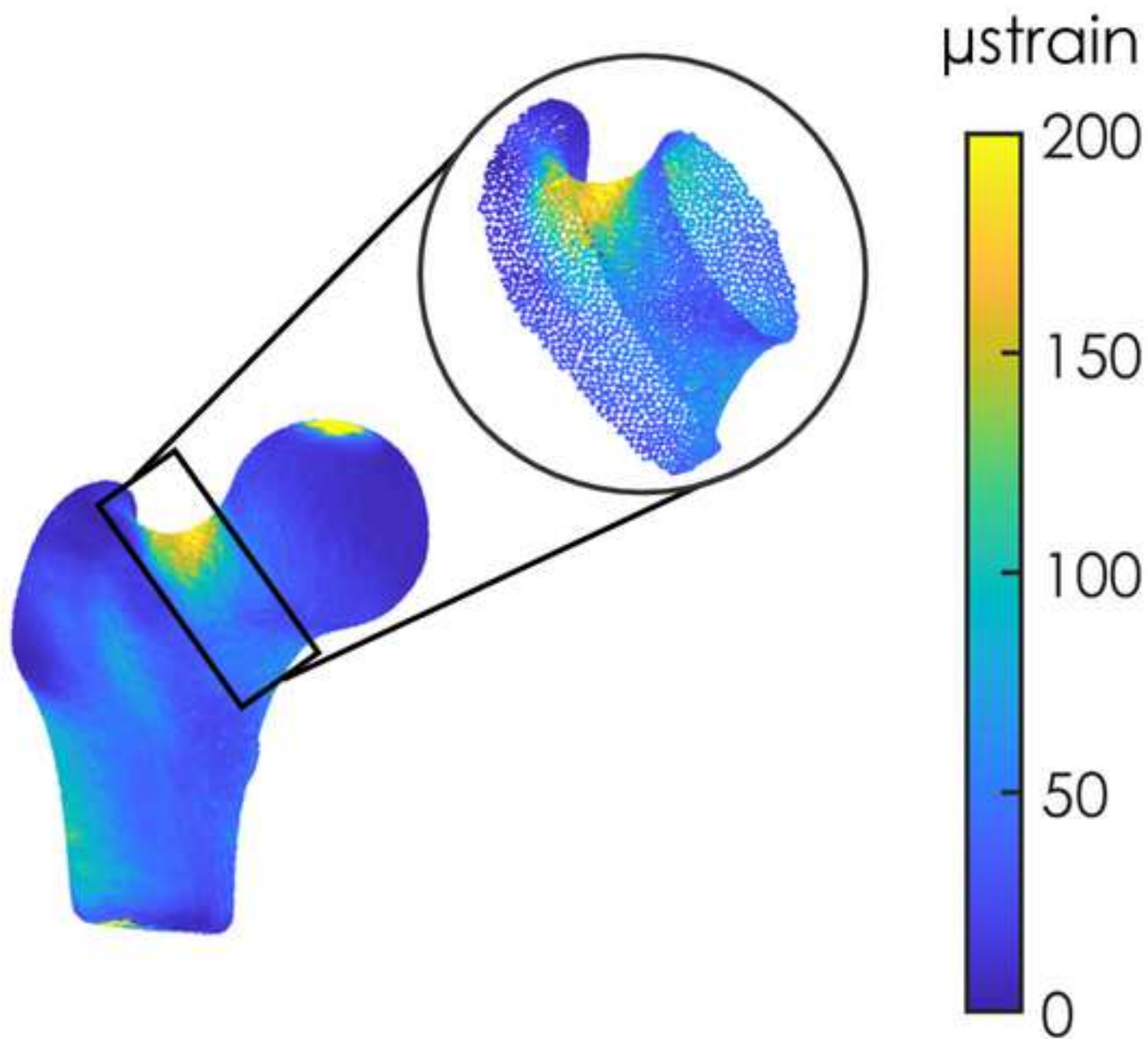
Table 1: Repeatability for the ten healthy female participants for the DXA-derived total hip integral vBMD.

Participant	Total Hip Integral vBMD					
	SCAN1 (g/cm ³)	SCAN2 (g/cm ³)	DIFF (g/cm ³)	DIFF (%)	Cumulative Mean	Cumulative SD
001	0.779	0.802	0.022	2.8	2.8	-
002	0.754	0.753	-0.001	-0.1	1.3	2.1
003	0.511	0.493	-0.018	-3.6	-0.3	3.2
004	0.598	0.591	-0.007	-1.2	-0.5	2.6
005	0.76	0.774	0.014	1.8	-0.1	2.5
006	0.609	0.632	0.023	3.7	0.6	2.7
007	0.715	0.702	-0.013	-1.8	0.2	2.6
008	0.482	0.492	0.01	2.1	0.5	2.5
009	0.792	0.771	-0.021	-2.7	0.1	2.6
010	0.842	0.87	0.029	3.4	0.4	2.7

Table 3: Coefficient of determinations (R^2) for the linear regression of the strength estimates and total hip (TH), femoral neck (FN), and trochanter (Troch) DXA-derived vBMD measurements. *indicates statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

DXA Parameter	Linear Regression							
	Single-Leg Stance				Sideways Fall			
	R^2	Adj. R^2	RMSE	p-value	R^2	Adj. R^2	RMSE	p-value
TH integral vBMD	0.19	0.15	526	0.03*	0.09	0.05	125	0.14
FN integral vBMD	0.12	0.08	548	0.09	0.09	0.05	125	0.14
Troch integral vBMD	0.06	0.02	566	0.23	0.06	0.02	127	0.22
TH trabecular vBMD	0.22	0.18	516	0.02*	0.03	-0.009	129	0.39
FN trabecular vBMD	0.12	0.08	547	0.08	0.02	-0.02	130	0.49
Troch trabecular vBMD	0.09	0.05	556	0.14	0.04	-0.001	128	0.33
TH cortical vBMD	0.003	-0.04	582	0.80	0.02	-0.02	130	0.47
FN cortical vBMD	0.001	-0.04	583	0.86	0.04	-0.003	129	0.35
Troch cortical vBMD	0.005	-0.04	582	0.73	0.03	-0.008	129	0.38

Strength Estimate ROI



Appendix 2: Linear regression of the strength estimates for single-leg stance (SLS) and sideways fall (SF) with all DXA-derived vBMD measurements from the software for the HiRIT exercise group.

HiRIT	SLS		SF		SLS	SF
	R2	p	R2	p		
""sdens Total (mg/cm2)""	-0.016	0.443	0.010	0.276	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Trabecular Total (mg/cm3)""	0.183	0.017	-0.009	0.387	TRUE	FALSE
""vbmd Integral Total (mg/cm3)""	0.151	0.028	0.050	0.140	TRUE	FALSE
""bmc Integral Total (g)""	0.096	0.068	-0.027	0.565	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Integral Neck (g)""	0.310	0.002	-0.036	0.717	TRUE	FALSE
""bmc Integral Troch (g)""	-0.042	0.954	-0.020	0.482	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Integral Shaft (g)""	0.109	0.055	-0.035	0.701	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Trabecular Total (g)""	0.137	0.035	-0.039	0.809	TRUE	FALSE
""bmc Trabecular Neck (g)""	0.295	0.002	-0.042	0.996	TRUE	FALSE
""bmc Trabecular Troch (g)""	-0.036	0.729	-0.033	0.665	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Trabecular Shaft (g)""	0.150	0.029	-0.041	0.895	TRUE	FALSE
""bmc Cortical Total (g)""	0.006	0.297	-0.022	0.505	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Cortical Neck (g)""	0.096	0.068	-0.019	0.476	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Cortical Troch (g)""	-0.040	0.826	-0.019	0.473	FALSE	FALSE
""bmc Cortical Shaft (g)""	0.025	0.211	-0.033	0.666	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Integral Neck (mg/cm3)""	0.079	0.088	0.049	0.144	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Integral Troch (mg/cm3)""	0.019	0.234	0.023	0.221	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Integral Shaft (mg/cm3)""	0.123	0.044	0.022	0.223	TRUE	FALSE
""vbmd Trabecular Neck (mg/cm3)""	0.084	0.083	-0.020	0.486	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Trabecular Troch (mg/cm3)""	0.052	0.136	-0.001	0.330	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Trabecular Shaft (mg/cm3)""	0.159	0.025	-0.023	0.514	TRUE	FALSE
""vbmd Cortical Total (mg/cm3)""	-0.039	0.804	-0.019	0.469	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Cortical Neck (mg/cm3)""	-0.040	0.858	-0.003	0.349	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Cortical Troch (mg/cm3)""	-0.036	0.729	-0.008	0.380	FALSE	FALSE
""vbmd Cortical Shaft (mg/cm3)""	-0.041	0.933	-0.027	0.569	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Integral Total (cm3)""	-0.013	0.420	-0.023	0.519	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Integral Neck (cm3)""	0.134	0.037	-0.026	0.555	TRUE	FALSE
""volume Integral Troch (cm3)""	0.021	0.226	-0.030	0.604	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Integral Shaft (cm3)""	0.034	0.182	-0.032	0.633	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Trabecular Total (cm3)""	-0.030	0.608	-0.006	0.368	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Trabecular Neck (cm3)""	0.115	0.050	-0.016	0.443	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Trabecular Troch (cm3)""	0.027	0.207	-0.017	0.452	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Trabecular Shaft (cm3)""	0.001	0.323	-0.021	0.494	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Cortical Total (cm3)""	0.031	0.192	-0.036	0.732	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Cortical Neck (cm3)""	0.135	0.036	-0.039	0.802	TRUE	FALSE
""volume Cortical Troch (cm3)""	-0.038	0.759	-0.032	0.637	FALSE	FALSE
""volume Cortical Shaft (cm3)""	0.091	0.074	-0.041	0.885	FALSE	FALSE
""mct Total (mm)""	-0.003	0.346	-0.004	0.351	FALSE	FALSE
""mct Neck (mm)""	0.053	0.134	0.015	0.251	FALSE	FALSE
""mct Neck Lat (mm)""	-0.031	0.624	0.133	0.038	FALSE	TRUE
""mct Neck Med (mm)""	0.006	0.295	-0.042	0.957	FALSE	FALSE
""mct InterTroch (mm)""	-0.019	0.472	-0.013	0.419	FALSE	FALSE

"mct InterTroch Lat (mm)"	-0.041	0.912	-0.019	0.474	FALSE	FALSE
"mct InterTroch Med (mm)"	0.028	0.201	-0.042	0.967	FALSE	FALSE
"mct Shaft_cort (mm)"	0.009	0.280	-0.028	0.577	FALSE	FALSE
"mct Shaft_cort Lat (mm)"	-0.033	0.653	-0.020	0.487	FALSE	FALSE
"mct Shaft_cort Med (mm)"	-0.021	0.488	-0.022	0.502	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens Neck (mg/cm2)"	0.016	0.249	0.041	0.164	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens Neck Lat (mg/cm2)"	-0.035	0.689	0.117	0.049	FALSE	TRUE
"sdens Neck Med (mg/cm2)"	-0.019	0.469	-0.033	0.667	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens InterTroch (mg/cm2)"	-0.027	0.562	0.008	0.286	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens InterTroch Lat (mg/cm2)"	-0.041	0.876	-0.009	0.388	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens InterTroch Med (mg/cm2)"	-0.016	0.444	-0.029	0.595	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens Shaft_cort (mg/cm2)"	-0.015	0.433	-0.017	0.450	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens Shaft_cort Lat (mg/cm2)"	-0.032	0.646	-0.034	0.680	FALSE	FALSE
"sdens Shaft_cort Med (mg/cm2)"	-0.028	0.571	-0.016	0.443	FALSE	FALSE
"Neck SA (cm2)"	0.068	0.106	-0.012	0.412	FALSE	FALSE
"Neck CSA (cm2)"	0.226	0.008	-0.039	0.815	TRUE	FALSE
"Neck CSMI (cm4)"	0.226	0.008	-0.036	0.722	TRUE	FALSE
"Neck Z (cm3)"	0.199	0.013	-0.041	0.940	TRUE	FALSE
"InterTroch SA (cm2)"	-0.038	0.759	-0.003	0.345	FALSE	FALSE
"InterTroch CSA (cm2)"	0.100	0.064	-0.027	0.563	FALSE	FALSE
"InterTroch CSMI (cm4)"	-0.006	0.365	-0.038	0.772	FALSE	FALSE
"InterTroch Z (cm3)"	-0.028	0.583	-0.033	0.653	FALSE	FALSE

Appendix 3: Proximal femoral strength estimations at baseline and 8-month follow-up in single-leg stance and sideways fall for the HiRIT exercise group.

Participant	SINGLE-LEG STANCE				SIDEWAYS FALL			
	BASELINE (N)	FOLLOW- UP (N)	DIFF (N)	DIFF (%)	BASELINE (N)	FOLLOW- UP (N)	DIFF (N)	DIFF (%)
001	2384	3879	1495	63%	956	954	-2	-0.2%
002	2356	3024	667	28%	864	904	40	5%
003	2603	2822	219	8%	1280	1181	-99	-8%
004	4423	4249	-173	-4%	1127	1149	22	2%
005	3433	3481	48	1%	936	1064	128	14%
006	4004	4546	541	14%	1230	1274	44	4%
007	4341	4575	234	5%	1133	1108	-25	-2%
008	3413	2988	-425	-12%	615	1023	408	66%
009	3219	4037	818	25%	1148	992	-156	-14%
010	4262	3831	-431	-10%	1690	1584	-106	-6%
011	4163	3751	-412	-10%	1048	1094	46	4%
012	3626	4443	817	23%	913	833	-80	-9%
013	3915	4620	705	18%	1384	1284	-100	-7%
014	4071	3044	-1027	-25%	1180	984	-195	-17%
015	4200	4187	-12	0%	1444	1389	-55	-4%
016	4123	3900	-222	-5%	1169	1213	44	4%
017	3851	3982	131	3%	851	636	-215	-25%
018	3866	3391	-475	-12%	1443	1331	-113	-8%
019	3749	4535	785	21%	951	779	-172	-18%
020	3792	3645	-147	-4%	1070	1360	290	27%
021	2388	2078	-310	-13%	865	852	-13	-1%
022	3127	2828	-299	-10%	879	1030	151	17%
023	3355	3347	-8	-0.2%	975	1042	67	7%
024	2360	3491	1131	48%	917	1119	202	22%
025	4644	4549	-94	-2%	887	774	-112	-13%
026	3003	2936	-67	-2%	1227	1044	-182	-15%
027	2471	2527	57	2%	1049	1134	86	8%

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

Prof. Beck is the Director of The Bone Clinic. The other authors have nothing to disclose.