



Effect of Bariatric Surgery an Application of Metabolism

Rahul Dnyaneshwar Mahajan

AIIMS, Nagpur, Maharashtra

***Corresponding Author:**

Rahul Dnyaneshwar Mahajan

AIIMS, Nagpur, Maharashtra

Type of Publication: Original Research Paper

Conflicts of Interest: Nil

Abstract

The University of Minnesota pioneered bariatric surgery in the 1950s. It has continued to evolve since then, providing new or improved treatment options for not only obesity but also associated comorbidities. Metabolomics is also a relatively new science area, but it has a lot of promise for studying the metabolome's dynamic changes in a comprehensive way. It's been employed extensively in medicine, biological research, biomarker identification, and prognostic assessments. Several dozen metabolomics studies are currently being conducted to investigate the effects of bariatric surgery. The most commonly used techniques for studying the major impacts of RYGB or SG are LC-MS and NMR. A change in amino acids, lipids, carbohydrates, or the gut microbiota was detected. It proves that bariatric surgery should be included in metabolic surgery. However, many molecular changes that occur as a result of these operations are still unknown. As a result, using metabolomics to research this topic appears to be a viable option. New discoveries may point to new avenues for surgical technique adjustments, contribute to a greater understanding of obesity and disorders associated with it, and possibly lead to the development of nonsurgical treatment techniques in the future.

Keywords: bariatric surgery, RYGB or SG, Metabolomics, nonsurgical, treatment

Introduction

Severe obesity is defined as a BMI of 40 kg/m² or more, and it is a major and widespread health problem in many Western countries, including the United States (1). Obesity is now considered a disease by the American Medical Association (2), and it can result in a variety of health problems, including type 2 diabetes (T2D), cancer, arthritis, hypertension, and cardiovascular disease. According to historical accounts, bariatric surgery began in the 10th century, when King of León Sancho I (known as the Fat) was treated by Hasdai ibn Shaprut, a great Jewish doctor. In modern terms, the University of Minnesota is the birthplace of bariatric surgery. Arnold J. Kremen conducted the first metabolic surgery there, a jejunoileal bypass, in 1954 [1, 2]. Nonetheless, success has many parents, so many brilliant brains were involved in the invention of

bariatric surgery. As pioneers in this branch of medicine, Allan C. Wittgrove, Nicola Scopinaro, Walter J. Pories, Picard Marceau, and Douglas S. Hess must be mentioned [1, 3]. Henry Buchwald, Richard L. Varco, Edward E. Manson (long regarded as the father of bariatric surgery), Allan C. Wittgrove, Nicola Scopinaro, Walter J. Pories, Picard Marceau, and Douglas S. Hess must also be mentioned. Of course, they represent a small percentage of the total number of professionals working on the bariatric surgery subject, but their contributions are undeniable. Since the earliest treatments, bariatric surgery has come a long way. Its development can be observed from a variety of angles. The reality that bariatric surgery involves metabolic surgery is highlighted by Henry Buchwald. He and Richard L. Varco wrote *Metabolic Surgery* in 1978, defining it

as "the operational manipulation of a normal organ system to obtain a biological result for a prospective health gain." As a result, not only was weight loss expected in the early stages of bariatric surgery, but also overall health improvement. Other studies were conducted in other years, and further data about the benefits of bariatric surgeries were published. In the previous century, at the turn of the century.

Bariatric surgery, which includes a variety of treatments, is a typically safe and successful treatment option for obesity (3). In a substantial percentage of patients, the most frequent bariatric surgical techniques in the United States, sleeve gastrectomy and Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGB), result in significant weight loss, improvements in peripheral tissue insulin sensitivity, and diabetes remission. A planned exercise programme is a realistic and effective adjuvant therapy for bariatric surgery patients that produces additional cardiometabolic advantages when compared to weight loss caused by the surgery alone. Structured exercise enhances skeletal muscle mitochondrial energetics, lipid oxidation, and insulin sensitivity while increasing total daily energy expenditure (TDEE). However, it is unclear whether exercise or physical activity (PA) can counteract the "metabolic adaption" or decreased energy expenditure that occurs as a result of surgery-induced weight loss and affect total daily energy balance. The development of technology that allows for quantitative and complete measurement of nonexercise physical activity (NEPA) and sedentary behaviour in recent years has highlighted the importance of these behaviours in energy balance, weight management, and the development or worsening of obesity. It was announced that bariatric surgery can help people with type 2 diabetes. What's more intriguing is that T2DM remission can happen very quickly, even before patients can lose weight [4–6]. Many other clinical indicators (BMI, HbA1c, glucose and cholesterol levels, insulin resistance, and modulations of gut hormones) are also improved by bariatric surgeries [7]. Those modulations, however, are not the focus of

this work. Obviously, like with any surgical procedure, there are potential risks and drawbacks. Patients may be subjected to dumping syndrome or be obliged to take vitamin supplements for the rest of their lives, depending on the type of operation.

Long-term Efficacy of Bariatric Surgery

Bariatric surgery is usually an effective treatment option for severe obesity, as well as diabetic remission in individuals with a low BMI (5). Recent research suggests that bariatric surgery is more beneficial than medical therapy alone, even after a 5-year follow-up period (5). Indeed, some professional organisations have lately proposed that the grounds for bariatric surgery be expanded to encompass those with poorly controlled T2D and BMIs as low as 30 kgm² for white patients and 27.5 kgm² for Asian patients. This consensus, however, is mostly based on data from randomised clinical trials with only 1 to 3 years of follow-up. Studies with small sample sizes, insufficient long-term (>1 year) follow-up in cohorts with adequate retention rates (>80%), and single-site studies without nonsurgical comparison groups limit the evidence (6). Long-term (>5-year) weight reduction maintenance after bariatric surgery is less well understood (5,7). Furthermore, weight recovery could be a role in research dropout and loss to follow-up, resulting in a skewed and too positive conclusion about the efficacy of bariatric surgery–induced weight loss when follow-up is insufficient. Despite a paucity of high-quality long-term trials, existing evidence suggests that bariatric surgery's advantages are not universal. In a considerable number of patients, weight gain and diabetes recurrence might occur (8). Suboptimal weight loss (defined as either 50 percent or 40 percent excess body weight loss after gastric bypass (GB) surgery (9)) is predicted to occur in 10%–30% of bariatric surgery patients. Indeed, weight regain and unsatisfactory weight reduction are major factors connected to diabetes relapse (8), which can occur in 20%–30% of individuals who had been in remission for 5 years after bariatric surgery.

Table:1 Mean value parameters for barometric study

Parameters	Total (n = 163)		Women (n = 136)	Men (n = 27)	p-Value
	X ± SD	Me (Q1-Q3)	X ± SD	X ± SD	
Age	39.6 ± 10.6	40.0 (31.0–46.0)	38.4 ± 10.0	43.4 ± 11.5	0.0071
Height (cm)	168.2 ± 8.5	167.0 (164–172)	166.3 ± 8.4	175.4 ± 9.5	<0.0001
Initial weight (kg)	123.6 ± 21.5	120.0 (109–134)	120.9 ± 19.4	148.1 ± 25.0	<0.0001
Initial BMI (kg/m ²)	44.5 ± 6.8	43.4 (40.2–46.3)	44.0 ± 9.2	48.1 ± 8.3	0.0003
Initial ideal body weight (kg)	61.3 ± 5.8	60.2 (58.4–64.3)	59.8 ± 5.0	67.8 ± 6.7	<0.0001
Initial excess weight (kg)	62.3 ± 18.5	59.8 (49.8–72.0)	61.2 ± 18.6	80.15 ± 23.4	<0.0001

X: arithmetic mean; SD: standard deviation; Me: median; Q1: first quartile; Q3: third quartile; BMI: body mass index.

Analysis of Metabolic Parameters

Glucose (n = 120), triglycerides (n = 83), and total cholesterol (n = 75) were all assessed before surgery. Table 3 shows the number of patients who had their metabolic parameters assessed. During the year following surgery, changes in glucose levels exhibited a consistent downward trend and were statistically significant (p = 0.003). (Table 4). Before the surgery, the mean glucose concentration was 110.45 mg/dL, and one year later, it was 89.88 mg/dL. One year following surgery, the percentage of patients with normal fasting glycemia climbed from 40% before surgery to 67 percent. The reduction in glucose levels was not linked to weight loss.

An examination of changes in cholesterol levels one year following the treatment revealed considerable oscillations in this parameter; however, these changes were unrelated to weight loss. Because of the foregoing, it was impossible to assess the post-surgery trend of alterations. The total percentage of individuals having cholesterol levels greater than 190 mg/dL remained stable at 39%. The other lipidogram parameters (total cholesterol, LDL, and HDL) did not change significantly during the follow-up period for individual patients.

Table: 2 Biological parameters

Biochemical Parameters	Time (Months) After Surgery			
	1	6	12	>12
Glucose	4	9	8	8
Triglyceride	23	15	14	10
Total cholesterol	28	23	19	12
LDL	18	5	6	6
HDL	17	6	5	8

LDL: low-density lipoprotein; HDL: high-density lipoprotein.

The reduction in glucose levels was not linked to weight loss. An examination of changes in cholesterol levels one year following the treatment revealed considerable oscillations in this parameter; however, these changes were unrelated to weight loss. Because of the foregoing, it was impossible to

assess the post-surgery trend of alterations. The total percentage of individuals having cholesterol levels greater than 190 mg/dL remained stable at 39%. The other lipidogram parameters (total cholesterol, LDL, and HDL) did not change significantly during the follow-up period for individual patients.

Our study recently reported that 91 percent of RYGB patients who were randomly assigned to a 6-month fitness regimen completed it satisfactorily. We also discovered that two-thirds of the patients followed the a priori set exercise prescription of >120 minutes per week of aerobic training (mostly walking) and exercised an average of 185 minutes per week, which is higher than the current PA guidelines. Furthermore, the exercise group improved cardiorespiratory fitness (absolute (L per min) and relative (L per min per kg) V O₂ peak), with more minutes of exercise resulting in bigger increases in V O₂max (33). Because cardiorespiratory fitness is linked to a lower risk of all-cause mortality and other cardiovascular comorbidities, this is a therapeutically significant discovery. As a result, not only is an aerobic exercise training programme feasible in this patient population, but it is also effective in improving cardiorespiratory fitness, a finding that directly contradicts the belief that severely obese people cannot respond to or will not stick to a lifestyle or exercise intervention. This was the first proof-of-concept study to show that an exercise intervention can enhance health outcomes in people who had had bariatric surgery.

Exercise alone usually leads to weight loss of less than 3% of one's starting weight. Obese individuals sometimes regard exercise as having no health advantages in the absence of significant weight loss, despite the fact that it has physiological and psychological health benefits independent of weight loss. Exercise combined with diet-induced caloric restriction, on the other hand, results in significantly greater weight loss (8.4% vs. 11.4% for men and 5.5 percent vs. 7.5 percent for women after a 4-month workout period (34) even in patients with severe obesity (10.9 kg vs. 8.2 kg after a 6-month intervention (35) in patients with severe obesity. There is currently little comparable evidence on the effect of exercise on bariatric surgery patients. We found that a 6-month exercise programme did not result in extra weight loss after RYGB (22.0 kg vs 22.8 kg conventional therapy vs 3-month exercise programme, respectively) (see Table 2 for exercise prescription (7,36–41)). These findings are comparable to those of Shah *et al.* (27) who found that after bariatric surgery, a high-volume exercise prescription (>2000 kcalwk⁻¹ at 60–70 percent VO₂max) had no effect on body weight and waist

circumference (4.2 kg and 3.7 cm) when compared to a control group (4.7 kg and 3.6 cm).

Conclusion

Obesity is linked to a higher risk of death and a variety of health problems, including type 2 diabetes, hypertension, dyslipidemia, coronary heart disease, cancer development, and osteoarticular disorders. The risk of illness and mortality increases as the body mass index (BMI) rises [25]. Weight loss with lifestyle or pharmacological treatment has been proven in randomised studies to reduce morbidity by lowering risk factors for cardiovascular disease (CVD) [26], while its efficacy is less than that of surgical treatment.

Surgical surgery should be explored for patients who are unable to lose weight through behavioural therapy and pharmaceutical medication. Even so, comprehensive behavioural therapy, including adequate dietary advice and physical activity tailored to the patient's abilities, is required.

Second, it's possible that it's due to the fact that GB surgery was conducted on 21% of our patients. Although the difference in weight loss based on surgery method was statistically insignificant (due to size limitations), the weight loss observed following this form of surgery was substantially lower. All of the patients in the cited trials [29,30] underwent SG. Our findings did not differ significantly from those of others during the long term (>24 months of follow-up). After 24 months, the average BMI loss was 10.3 kg/m², and the average percentage of excess weight loss was 50.5 percent.

Our findings demonstrate beneficial metabolic changes during bariatric treatment, including considerable improvements in glycemia and triglycerides, as well as a tendency to normalise. HDL cholesterol is good cholesterol. The individuals in the follow-up research had lower glucose concentrations (89.9 vs. 98.0 mg/dL), which was similar to how total cholesterol, LDL, and TG behaved, and lower HDL (42.6 vs. 55.0 mg/dL) when compared to the patients.

References

1. Kabała, M.M.; Wilczyński, J. Obesity and postural stability in women after mastectomy. *Med. Stud.* 2019, 35, 48–54. [CrossRef]

2. Rebak, D.; Suliga, E.; Gluszek, S. Metabolic syndrome and professional aptitude. *Med. Stud.* 2016, 31, 286–294.
3. Suliga, E.; Koziel, D.; Ciesla, E.; Rebak, D.; Gluszek, S. Coffee consumption and the occurrence and intensity of metabolic syndrome: A cross-sectional study. *Int. J. Food Sci. Nutr.* 2017, 68, 507–513. [CrossRef]
4. Suliga, E.; Koziel, D.; Ciesla, E.; Rebak, D.; Gluszek, S. Factors Associated with Adiposity, Lipid Profile Disorders and the Metabolic Syndrome Occurrence in Premenopausal and Postmenopausal Women. *PLoS ONE* 2016, 11, e0154511. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
5. Suliga, E.; Koziel, D.; Gluszek, S. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in normal weight individuals. *Ann. Agric. Environ. Med.* 2016, 23, 631–635. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
6. Suliga, E.; Koziel, D.; Ciesla, E.; Gluszek, S. Association between dietary patterns and metabolic syndrome in individuals with normal weight: A cross-sectional study. *Nutr. J.* 2015, 14, 55. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
7. Kraschnewski, J.L.; Boan, J.; Esposito, J.; Sherwood, N.E.; Lehman, E.B.; Kephart, D.K.; Sciamanna, C.N. Long-term weight loss maintenance in the United States. *Int. J. Obes.* 2010, 34, 1644–1654. [CrossRef]
8. Krekora-Wollny, K.; Suliga, E. Changes in body mass during weight loss treatment—A two-year prospective study. *Med. Stud.* 2017, 33, 290–294. [CrossRef]
9. Coughlin, J.W.; Brantley, P.J.; Champagne, C.M.; Vollmer, W.M.; Stevens, V.J.; Funk, K.; Dalcin, A.T.; Jerome, G.J.; Myers, V.H.; Tyson, C.; et al. The impact of continued intervention on weight: Five-year results from the weight loss maintenance trial. *Obesity* 2016, 24, 1046–1053. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
10. Khera, R.; Murad, M.H.; Chandar, A.K.; Dulai, P.S.; Wang, Z.; Prokop, L.J.; Loomba, R.; Camilleri, M.; Singh, S. Association of Pharmacological Treatments for Obesity with Weight Loss and Adverse Events: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA* 2016, 315, 2424–2434. [CrossRef]
11. Correction to Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol 2015, 3, 243–253. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol.* 2015, 3, e4. [CrossRef]
12. Koziel, D.; Matykiewicz, J.; Klusek, J.; Wawrzycka, I.; Głuszek, S. Opieka okołoperacyjna nad chorymi na otyłość—doświadczenia własne. *Stud. Med.* 2011, 24, 4–35.
13. Janik, M.R.; Stanowski, E.; Paśnik, K. Present status of bariatric surgery in Poland. *Videosurg. Miniinvasive Tech.* 2016, 11, 22–25. [CrossRef]
14. Spivak, H.; Sakran, N.; Dicker, D.; Rubin, M.; Raz, I.; Shohat, T.; Blumenfeld, O. Different effects of bariatric surgical procedures on dyslipidemia: A registry-based analysis. *Surg. Obes. Relat. Dis.* 2017, 13, 1189–1194. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
15. Friedman, A.N.; Wahed, A.S.; Wang, J.; Courcoulas, A.P.; Dakin, G.; Hinojosa, M.W.; Kimmel, P.L.; Mitchell, J.E.; Pomp, A.; Pories, W.J.; et al. Effect of Bariatric Surgery on CKD Risk. *J. Am. Soc. Nephrol.* 2018, 29, 1289–1300. [CrossRef]
16. Lee, J.; Lee, Y.A.; Kim, J.H.; Lee, S.Y.; Shin, C.H.; Yang, S.W. Discrepancies between Glycosylated Hemoglobin and Fasting Plasma Glucose for Diagnosing Impaired Fasting Glucose and Diabetes Mellitus in Korean Youth and Young Adults. *Diabetes Metab. J.* 2019, 43, 174–182. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
17. Alosco, M.L.; Spitznagel, M.B.; Strain, G.; Devlin, M.; Cohen, R.; Crosby, R.D.; Mitchell, J.E.; Gunstad, J. Improved serum leptin and ghrelin following bariatric surgery predict better postoperative cognitive function. *J. Clin. Neurol.* 2015, 11, 48–56. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
18. Jensen, M.D.; Ryan, D.H.; Apovian, C.M.; Ard, J.D.; Comuzzie, A.G.; Donato, K.A.; Hu, F.B.; Hubbard, V.S.; Jakicic, J.M.; Kushner, R.F.; et al. 2013 AHA/ACC/TOS guideline for the management of overweight and obesity in adults: A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines and The Obesity Society. *Circulation* 2014, 129, S102–S138. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
19. Knowler, W.C.; Barrett-Connor, E.; Fowler, S.E.; Hamman, R.F.; Lachin, J.M.; Walker, E.A.; Nathan, D.M. Diabetes Prevention Program Research, G. Reduction in the incidence of type 2 diabetes with lifestyle intervention or

- metformin. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2002, 346, 393–403. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
20. Kuna, S.T.; Reboussin, D.M.; Borradaile, K.E.; Sanders, M.H.; Millman, R.P.; Zammit, G.; Newman, A.B.; Wadden, T.A.; Jakicic, J.M.; Wing, R.R.; et al. Long-term effect of weight loss on obstructive sleep apnea severity in obese patients with type 2 diabetes. *Sleep* 2013, 36, 641–649. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
21. Mathus-Vliegen, E.M. Obesity and the elderly. *J. Clin. Gastroenterol.* 2012, 46, 533–544. [CrossRef]
22. Wojciak, P.A.; Pawłuszewicz, P.; Diemiszczyk, I.; Komorowska-Wojtunik, E.; Czerniawski, M.; Krętownski, A.; Błachnio-Zabielska, A.; Dadan, J.; Ładny, J.; Hady, H. Laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy: A study of efficiency in treatment of metabolic syndrome components, comorbidities and influence on certain biochemical markers. *Videosurg. Miniinvasive Tech.* 2020, 15, 136–147. [CrossRef]
23. Kowalewski, P.K.; Olszewski, R.; Walędziak, M.S.; Janik, M.R.; Kwiatkowski, A.; Gałazka-Swiderek, N.; Cichoń, K.; Brągoszewski, J.; Paśnik, K. Long-Term Outcomes of Laparoscopic Sleeve Gastrectomy—A Single-Center, Retrospective Study. *Obes. Surg.* 2018, 28, 130–134. [CrossRef]
24. Khosravi-Largani, M.; Nojomi, M.; Aghili, R.; Otaghvar, H.A.; Tanha, K.; Seyedi, S.H.S.; Mottaghi, A. Evaluation of all Types of Metabolic Bariatric Surgery and its Consequences: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Obes. Surg.* 2019, 29, 651–690. [CrossRef]