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Surgical Weight Loss: Impact on Energy Expenditure

David Thivel, Katrina Brakonieki, Pascale Duché, Béatrice Morio, Yves Y. Boirie, Blandine Laferrère

► **To cite this version:**

David Thivel, Katrina Brakonieki, Pascale Duché, Béatrice Morio, Yves Y. Boirie, et al.. Surgical Weight Loss: Impact on Energy Expenditure. *Obesity Surgery*, 2013, 23 (2), pp.255-266. 10.1007/s11695-012-0839-1 . hal-02646060

HAL Id: hal-02646060

<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-02646060v1>

Submitted on 29 May 2020

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1	Article Title	Surgical Weight Loss: Impact on Energy Expenditure
2	Article Sub- Title	
3	Article Copyright - Year	Springer Science+Business Media New York 2012 (This will be the copyright line in the final PDF)
4	Journal Name	Obesity Surgery
5		Family Name Thivel
6		Particle
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<hr/>		
74	Received	
75	Schedule	Revised
76		Accepted
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78	Keywords separated by ' - '	Bariatric surgery - Severe obesity - Energy expenditure - Weight loss
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79	Foot note information	

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Surgical Weight Loss: Impact on Energy Expenditure

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Abstract Diet-induced weight loss is often limited in its magnitude and often of short duration, followed by weight regain. On the contrary, bariatric surgery now commonly used in the treatment of severe obesity favors large and sustained weight loss, with resolution or improvement of most obesity-associated comorbidities. The mechanisms of sustained weight loss are not well understood. Whether changes in the various components of energy expenditure favor weight maintenance after bariatric surgery is unclear. While the impact of diet-induced weight loss on energy

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Keywords Bariatric surgery · Severe obesity · Energy expenditure · Weight loss

Introduction

The worldwide alarming progression of obesity and severe obesity has led to an array of diverse efforts aimed at developing effective weight loss strategies. Dietary restriction combined or not with physical activity programs are mainly used to induce a negative energy balance and subsequent weight loss. However, the weight loss is often of small magnitude and not sustained over time. Obesity surgery is currently the most effective treatment for severe obesity, resulting in significant and long-term weight loss, decreasing comorbidities, improving quality of life, and decreasing mortality [1–4]. The number of surgical procedures performed annually is increasing [5]. Restrictive surgical procedures such as laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding or vertical banded gastroplasty, malabsorptive procedures such as biliopancreatic diversion or duodenal

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switch, or mixed intervention such as gastric bypass (GBP) are currently the most used surgical techniques for the treatment of severe obesity [6]. Although it was believed that GBP induced weight loss only via calorie restriction and nutrient malabsorption [7], it is now thought that this surgery may also increase satiety [8] via enhanced gut peptide release, alter palatability toward high-fat and sweetened food [9], modify taste [10–12], and alter the metabolism of bile acids [13], all processes that may favor weight loss and maintenance of reduced weight.

Diet-induced weight loss results in adaptative decrease in energy expenditure (EE), which may explain the difficulty to sustained weight loss overtime. On the contrary, patients undergoing bariatric surgery often experience sustained weight loss years after the surgery [14]. The mechanisms of sustained weight loss after the surgery are not well understood. Some have suggested that changes in postoperative energy expenditure could explain the sustained weight loss. Better understanding of the changes of various component of energy expenditure after surgery, and their relation to weight loss, may provide insight into the mechanism for weight loss after bariatric surgery. The aim of this review is to highlight existing literature on the impact of bariatric surgery on total energy expenditure (TEE), resting energy expenditure (REE), and diet-induced thermogenesis (DIT) in obese patients and to review the evidence, or absence, of a differential effect between diet- and bariatric surgery-induced weight loss on EE. The implication of the physiological mechanisms affected by massive weight loss such as body composition, gastric regulations, or nutrient partitioning will be discussed and considered in a clinical perspective.

Total Energy Expenditure

Decreased TEE has been observed after diet-induced weight loss in relation to decreased lean body mass (LBM) in obese adults and adolescents [15–17] and persist well beyond the period of dynamic weight loss [18]. In animal models, it has been shown that postoperative weight loss is not restrictively due to decreased energy intake, with operated rats losing more weight than pair-fed ones, which raises the hypothesis of other surgery-induced modifications likely affecting energy expenditure [19]. A higher total energy expenditure (assessed by open circuit indirect calorimetry in diet-induced obesity male Wistar rats) has effectively been found in rats after gastric bypass compared with fed- and body weight-matched controls [20]. Stylopoulos et al. also underlined an increase in both total (19 %) and resting energy expenditure (31 %) after gastric bypass in rats (Sprague–Dawley, Levin Sprague–Dawley, and Osborne Mendel) [21]. In this study, energy expenditure was also assessed in rats that underwent other surgical methods such as sleeve gastrectomy or gastric banding, but no

energy expenditure modification was found postoperatively [21], suggesting that the type of surgical procedure may modulate subsequent changes in energy metabolism. Such an increased TEE in rats is however contradictory with the available literature in humans. Few studies have investigated the impact of bariatric surgery on TEE in humans (Table 1). Recently, Tamboli et al. assessed 24-h energy expenditure, using metabolic chambers, in 29 obese patients (body mass index (BMI) 43.6±5.5 kg/m²) before, 6 and 12 months after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGBP) [22]. Their results show that the reduced fat mass and fat-free mass, assessed by DXA, was accompanied by a significantly decrease in TEE (–25 %) 6 months after surgery, with no further changes at 12 months. Previous studies have shown a 25 % decrease in TEE 14 months after RYGBP (using doubly labeled water) [23], and 3 and 12 months after vertical banded gastroplasty (VBG) (by indirect calorimetry) [24] (accompanied by a decreased of both fat mass (FM) and fat-free mass (FFM), as detailed in Table 2). The literature shows then the discrepancies between animal and human studies which are mainly explained by the fact that animal studies express EE relatively to body size while in human exploration EE is expressed relative to time. Comparisons between animal and human studies are then not possible.

Non-resting Energy Expenditure

While REE is the main component of TEE, some authors have been interested in non-resting energy expenditure (NREE). NREE accounts for approximately 30 to 35 % of TEE and is mainly determined by spontaneous physical activity [25]. It has been suggested that the decline in weight loss-induced TEE may be partly explained by a decreased NREE in people decreasing their habitual physical activity level while dieting [15, 16, 26]. Even with unchanged physical activity behaviors, the lower energy needs during activity after weight loss, for the same activity, can also explain such a decreased NREE [26, 27]. After bariatric surgery, NREE has been found to decrease independent of the level of physical activity [23, 24]. Although Das et al. did not show any difference in physical activity level after surgery compared with preoperative values, a recent review suggest that the level of physical activity tends to increase after bariatric surgery [28]. Physical activity behaviors and the NREE can be modified by lifestyle interventions, contrary to REE, the main parameter of TEE, and/or DIT.

Resting Energy Expenditure

REE corresponds to the minimum energy needed to maintain an individual integrated system and homeothermic

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Table 1 Data referring to the impact of bariatric surgery on total energy expenditure

Authors	Population (n/BMI)	Surgery	Assessment periods	Energy expenditure measure	TEE
Das et al. [23]	30/50±9.3 kg/m ²	GBP	Preoperative After weight stabilization (WS) (14±2 months)	Doubly labeled water (15 days)	↓ by ≈25 % 14.8±2.6 to 11.2±3.1 MJ/day
van Gemert et al. [24]	8/45.87±5.1 kg/m ²	Vertical banded gastroplasty	Preoperative 3 months post 12 months post	Doubly labeled water (14 days)	↓ Preoperative: 9,400±1,300 J/min 3 months post: 6,700±1,000 J/min 12 months post: 6,900±1,200 J/min
Tamboli et al. [22]	29/43.6±5.5 kg/m ²	RYGBP	Preoperative 6 months post 12 months post	Metabolic chamber	↓ at 6 months ↓ at 12 months Preoperative: 2,768±474 kcal/day 6 months post: 2,010±260 kcal/day 12 months post: 1,987±228 kcal/day

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviations

↓, decrease, *post* postoperative, *n* sample size, *BMI* body mass index, *TEE* total energy expenditure, *RYGP* Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, *GPB* gastric bypass

temperature at rest. Diet-induced weight loss induces an important reduction in the REE (6 to 10 %), in association with decreased LBM, measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry [29] or densitometry [30].

Bariatric surgery results in 30–40 % weight loss, both of FM and FFM, which may then highly impact REE. Although postoperative REE reduction has been mainly explained by the decreased FFM that accompanies weight loss [31–36], Das et al. suggests that both FFM and FM losses are responsible for the REE reduction (please see Table 2 for body composition assessment methods) [37]. However, body composition studies, particularly the measure of LBM, are difficult in the severely obese individuals since the physical size limitations imposed by severe obesity pose challenges to the measurement of body composition [37]. As illustrated in Table 2, various methods have been used to assess body composition in bariatric patients, which limits comparisons between studies. Further studies are needed to clearly establish the implication of body composition on the REE modifications during large weight loss, particularly after bariatric surgery. Interestingly, recent studies have determined the specific resting metabolic rates of major organs and tissues in the body in order to better adjust for the REE changes in relation to changes in specific regions of the body [38]. Current data available on the impact of bariatric surgery on REE are presented in Table 2. Patients who undergo surgical intervention experience decreased REE within few day postoperatively and some data

underlined significant decreases at 6 weeks postoperatively [39], regardless of the surgical method used (RYGBP, open or laparoscopic RYGBP, vertical gastroplasty (VBG), or adjustable gastric banding) or the limb-length of the bypass [40]. Two different surgical methods and their impact on postoperative REE were compared in 36 obese patients undergoing RYGBP and 39 having VBG [9]. The two groups were matched in terms of preoperative REE, and both showed decreased REE 12 months after the operation (−498±273 and −481±234 kcal, respectively). REE at 12 months was not significantly different between groups [9]. According to these data and others [41] (Table 2), it is not the nature of the bariatric surgery but rather factors such as energy balance status (active weight loss, weight stability, or weight regain) or body composition that impact the postoperative change in REE.

Many factors can be implicated in the weight regain experienced by some patients after surgery such as unhealthy eating habits [42], progressive increase in food intake [43], or anatomical and physiological adaptations occurring over time [44]. In 2009, Faria et al. measured REE in patients that underwent RYGBP 2 years before their investigations [45]. Among the 36 patients enrolled, 15 were classified as healthy weight (no weight regain observed) whereas 21 experienced weight regain. According to the results of this cross-sectional study, individuals who experienced weight regain 2 years after RYGBP had lower REE, compared to the healthy weight group. Such results could

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Table 2 Publications related to the effects of bariatric surgery on resting energy expenditure

Authors	Population	Surgery	Assessment periods	Body composition	Energy expenditure measure	REE
Flancbaum et al. [39]	70/52±10 kg/m ²	RYGBP	Preoperative 6 weeks post 3 month post 6 months post 12 months post 18 months post 24 months post	Not assessed	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	↓ Preoperative, 2,017±700 kcal/day 6 weeks post, 1,983±409 kcal/day 3 month post, 1,930±352 kcal/day 6 months post, 1,868±400 kcal/day 12 months post, 1,862±326 kcal/day 18 months post, 1,831±414 kcal/day 24 months post, 1,873±224 kcal/day
Das et al. [23], 2003	30/50±9.3 kg/m ²	GBP	Preoperative After weight stabilization (WS) (14±2 months)	Total body water ↓ FM (51.3±4.6 to 33.9±8.6 %) and FFM (72.2±23.0 to 30.1±13.1 kg)	Indirect calorimetry/30 min (hood)	↓ by ≈25 % 9.3±1.8 to 6.9±1.1 MJ/day
De Castro et al. [46]	21/47.31±5.81 kg/m ²	Banded RYGBP	Preoperative 3 months post	Not assessed	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	↓ Preoperative, 2,006.7±376.4 kcal/day 3 months post, 1,763.3±310.5 kcal/day
Tamboli et al. [22]	29/43.6±5.5 kg/m ²	RYGBP	Preoperative 6 months post 12 months post	DXA ↓ FM/FFM 0-6 months, -38±9/-18±6 % 6-12 months, -21±13/-1±5 % 0-12 months, -50±13/-19±7 %	Metabolic chamber From Sleep EE	↓ at 6 months ↓ at 12 months Preoperative, 2,092±342 kcal/day 6 months post, 1,495±190 kcal/day 12 months post, 1,513±192 kcal/day
Faria et al. [45]	Total, 36 15 with healthy weight (HW)/27.90±3.76 kg/m ²	RYGBP	2 years postoperative	Bioelectrical multifrequency bioimpedance Fat mass WR, 34.51 % Fat mass HW, 30.59 %	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	WR REE (1,369.33 kcal/day) < HW REE (1,582.73 kcal/day)

Table 2 (continued)

Authors	Population	Surgery	Assessment periods	Body composition	Energy expenditure measure	REE
Carey et al. [41]	21 with weight regain (WR)/32.49 kg/m ^{2a} 19/48.5±2.5	16/laparoscopic RYGBP 2/open RYGBP	Preoperative 1 month post 3 months post 6 months post	FFM data not provided Under water weighing ↓ (FFM/FFM) Preoperative, 67.0±12.1/ 73.8±15.8 kg 1 month, 58.3±11.2/70.2 ±14.0 kg 3 months, 50.5±11.6/64.4 ±12.5 kg 6 months, 40.6±12.0/60.6 ±11.2 kg	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	↓ significantly at 1 month Preoperative, 2,091.0±588.0 kcal/day 1 month post, 1,758.4±412.1 kcal/day 3 months post, 1,647.1±306.0 kcal/day 6 months post, 1,651.0±460.0 kcal/day
Benedetti et al. [54]	14 obese/132.66±18.90 kg 15 lean/62.96±7.46 kg	Biliopancreatic diversion (BPD)	Preoperative 30 months post	Total body water 30 months post (obese), ↓ FM (60.13 ±13.01 to 19.02±8.61 kg) and FFM (72.50±12.42 to 53.22±9.07 kg)	Indirect calorimetry	Preoperative, obese > lean 30 months post, ↓ REE in obese (2,293±284 to 1,640±254 kcal/ 24 h)
Carrasco et al. 2007	38/44.0±4.5 kg/m ²	RYGBP	Preoperative 6 months post	Total body water ↓ FM and FFM FM, 51.6 ±5.4 to 41.2±6.2 % FFM, 56.1±10.2 to 48.0±7.3 kg	Indirect calorimetry in a ventilated chamber system	↓ Preoperative, 1,845±302 kcal/day 6 months post, 1,449±215 kcal/day
Bobbioni-Harsch et al.[34]	20/43.9±1.3 kg/m ²	RYGBP	Preoperative 3 months post 6 months post 12 months post	Bioelectrical impedance ↓ FFM (graphical reading) Preoperative, 60 kg 3 months post, 55 kg	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	↓ Preoperative, 1,823±45 kcal/day 3 months post, 1,585±39 kcal/day 6 months post, 1,529±34 kcal/day 12 months post, 1,475±34 kcal/day
Olbers et al.[9]	75 G1, 36/42.3±4.5 kg/m ² G2, 39/42.6±4.2 kg/m ²	G1: RYGBP G2: vertical banded gastroplasty (LYBG)	Preoperative 12 months post	DXA Greater FM reduction after LGBP 1 year FM LGBP, 26.9±9.4 kg	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	↓ Preoperative, G1, 2,156±618 kcal

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Thivel, D., Brakoniek, K., Duche, P., Morio, B., Boirie, Y., Lafere, B. (2013). Surgical Weight Loss: Impact on Energy Expenditure. Obesity Surgery, 23 (2), 255-266. DOI : 10.1007/s11695-012-0839-1

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Table 2 (continued)

Authors	Population	Surgery	Assessment periods	Body composition	Energy expenditure measure	REE
Busetto et al. [32]	12/46.9±6.8 kg/m ²	Adjustable silicone gastric banding	Preoperative 6 months post	1 year FM LVBG, 20.2±8.6 kg Bioelectrical impedance ↓ (FM/FFM)	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	G2, 2,237±344 kcal 12 months post, G1=G2 G1, -498±273 kcal G2, -481±234 kcal ↓ Preoperative, 7.96± 1.77 MJ/day 6 months post, 6.57± 6.90 MJ/day
van Gemert et al. [31]	15 G1, 6/48.1±7.0 kg/m ² G2, 9/45.7±5.7 kg/m ²	Vertical banded gastroplasty	G1 Preoperative 3 months post 6 months post 12 months post	Deuterium oxide component of doubly labeled water G1, ↓ (FM/FFM) Preop, 74.0±28.6/ 81.5±13.6 kg 3 months, 49.2±22.3/ 73.9±13.7 kg 6 months, 36.6±17.0/ 70.8±13.6 kg 12 months, 30.0±11.4/ 72.3±13.0 kg	Metabolic chamber	↓ Preoperative, 11.1± 1.8 MJ/day 3 months post, 8.4± 1.6 MJ/day 6 months post, 7.9± 1.6 MJ/day 12 months post, 8.1± 0.9 MJ/day REE G2 (>36 months) < REE G1 preoperative
van Gemert et al. [24]	8/45.87±5.1 kg/m ²	Vertical banded gastroplasty	G2 >36 months post Preoperative 3 months post 12 months post	Deuterium oxide component of doubly labeled water ↓ (FM/FFM) Preoperative, 68.3±11.7/ 61.8±9.2 kg 3 months, 50.8±11.1/ 53.0±6.2 kg 12 months, 31.4±12.1/ 52.4±4.4 kg	Metabolic chamber	↓ Preoperative, 5,800± 800 J/min 3 months post, 4,400± 400 J/min 12 months post, 4,200± 300 J/min
Galtier et al. [55]	73/43.3±7.0 kg/m ²	Laparoscopic adjustable banding	Preoperative 6-12 months post (n=39=G1)	Bioelectrical multifrequency bioimpedance ↓ (FM/FFM)	Indirect calorimetry (hood)	↓ for each group ^b

Table 2 (continued)

Authors	Population	Surgery	Assessment periods	Body composition	Energy expenditure measure	REE
t2.69			12–18 months post (n=21=G2)	Preoperative, 43.0±2.6 %/66.5±8.9 kg		
t2.68			>18 months post (n=18=G3)	Postop, 35.5±7.2 %/57.5±7.6 kg		
t2.69				Postoperative results are the means for all groups		
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Data are presented as mean ± standard deviations

↓ decrease, *post* postoperative, *n* sample size, *FM* fat mass, *FFM* fat-free mass, *BMI* body mass index, *REE* resting energy expenditure, *RYGP* Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, *GPB* gastric bypass

^aSD were not provided for the WR group in Faria et al. [45]

^bThe original paper only presents results graphically

support the hypothesis that FFM loss, and the quality of FFM loss (in terms of fibers typology for instance) that accompanied body weight reduction after surgery, may be responsible for decreased REE, leading to an increased risk of weight regain. However, unfortunately, similarly to other studies of EE after bariatric surgery [39, 46], LBM was not measured in the study by Faria et al. [45].

In another study, REE was assessed in 70 morbidly obese patients (52±10 kg/m²) up to 24 months postoperatively [39]. Preoperatively, they stratified participants based on actual measured and predicted REE values. They defined patients as “hypometabolic” when their measured REE was less than 85 % of the predicted REE, based on the Harris and Benedict equation [47], or “normometabolic” when it was within ±15 % of the predicted REE. The authors showed that the preoperative measured REE correlated with postoperative weight loss in “normo metabolic” patients. In hypometabolic patients however, REE increased toward normal range immediately after surgery. These differences between the two groups have been observed while both groups were on the same very low calorie diet [39]. Others have been interested in the impact of preoperative REE, on postoperative change in REE and weight loss [35, 36]. Data from these studies remain inconsistent, with some papers stating that preoperative REE may be predictive of weight loss 6 months after surgery [35], while others did not find any association up to 1 year after operation [36].

Since measuring REE needs an elaborated protocol realized under strictly controlled condition, some predictive equations, mainly based on gender, body weight, and age, have been developed and provide satisfactory results [48, 49]. The results obtained using such equations need however to be considered carefully, especially during longitudinal weight changes in adults or in obese adolescents [16]. Ruiz et al. have for instance recently compared measured REE by indirect calorimetry, with estimated REE before and after diet-induced weight loss in obese women [50]. According to their results, the best estimations of REE were not obtained using the same equation before and after weight loss. The equation proposed by Mifflin et al. [51] provided the best REE prediction at baseline, while after the 12-week diet, the best results were obtained using the equation proposed by Owen et al. [52]. In bariatric patient, van Gemert et al. [31] compared measured REE with predicted REE, using the equation proposed by Westerterp et al. [53], before and 3, 6, 12, and 36 months after vertical banded gastroplasty. Their results indicated that preoperatively, there was no difference between measured and calculated REE. However during the weight loss stages, at months 3, 6, and 12, REE was significantly overestimated when compared with measured values. This overestimation remained true during the weight stabilization period experienced by the patients more than 36 months after surgery. Although later studies obtained

262 similar results confirming an overestimation of REE when
 263 using predictive equations compared to measured values
 264 during the first months after surgery [41], others found no
 265 differences between measured and predicted REE before
 266 and 30 months after surgery [54]. In their study, Carey et
 267 al. used the equations proposed by Harris and Benedict [47]
 268 to estimate REE [41]. They found that 3 months postoper-
 269 atively, using LBM instead of body weight in the equation,
 270 the equations lead to a reduction of the overestimation of
 271 REE (almost 112 kcal less). However, others did not con-
 272 firm these results and showed no differences between the
 273 two methods [23, 34, 55]. The use of predictive equations to
 274 estimate REE, although offering translational applicability
 275 at population or clinical level, remains approximative and
 276 results from these equations should be used as indicators
 277 and not as the basis for any nutritional or energetic
 278 interventions.

279 **Diet-Induced Thermogenesis**

280 DIT approximately accounts for 10 % of TEE and is defined
 281 as the energy needed for digestion, absorption, and storage
 282 of nutrients from our food. The changes in any of the
 283 aforementioned processes justify the interest in DIT changes
 284 after surgery, particularly after GBP, where the anatomical
 285 and physiological functions of the gut undergo significant
 286 modifications. Postprandial physiological mechanisms have
 287 been shown to be involved in DIT. The response to a meal
 288 results in bile acid secretion as well as gut hormone release.
 289 Some of the gut hormones have been found to alter diet-
 290 induced energy expenditure. Although cholecystokinin
 291 (CCK) does not seem to affect DIT as reflected by a study
 292 based on CCK-KO mice [56], peptide YY (PYY) or
 293 glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) may do. Studies have
 294 effectively suggested the role of PYY in energy expenditure
 295 modulations [57, 58]. In the arcuate nucleus of the hypo-
 296 thalamus, PYY binds to inhibitory Y2 receptor (Y2R),
 297 where neuro-peptide Y (NPY) and pro-opiomelanocortine
 298 (POMC) neurons are located. PYY binds to Y2R on NPY
 299 neurons, inhibiting orexigenic NPY secretion, which in turn
 300 results in a greater POMC activation and thus secretion of
 301 anorexigenic hormones (alpha-melanocyte-stimulating hor-
 302 mone) [59–61] ultimately leading to an increase in total
 303 energy expenditure. In humans, correlations have been
 304 found between PYY concentration and REE [62, 63] and
 305 infusion of PYY have been shown to result in increased
 306 TEE in both lean and obese adult [64]. Polypeptide P has
 307 also been implicated in the regulation of energy expenditure
 308 in rodents, with peripheral administration favoring de-
 309 creased total expenditure [65]. Data regarding the role of
 310 GLP-1 are inconsistent, with some animal studies showing
 311 increased TEE after both central and peripheral infusion [66,

67], whereas GLP-1 infusion in lean and/or obese humans 312
 led to reduced DIT and postprandial CHO oxidation [68, 313
 69]. In 2006, Pannacciulli et al. found a positive association 314
 between fasting plasma GLP-1 concentrations and REE in 315
 humans, independent of body composition [70]. Bile acids 316
 (BA) have also been implicated in the regulation of oxygen 317
 consumption and energy expenditure [71]. So far, in vivo 318
 data on the relationships between BA and EE are mainly 319
 restricted to animal work. In humans, Brufau et al. did not 320
 find any association between bile acid and resting energy 321
 expenditure [71], contrary to Ockenga et al. who found a 322
 positive association between serum BA levels and EE (DIT) 323
 and to VO₂, in ten healthy individuals and eight patients 324
 with liver cirrhosis [72]. 325

Bariatric surgery, particularly RYGBP, results in change of 326
 meal pattern and size, decrease energy intake during meals, 327
 change in food choices and taste, maldigestion, possible nu- 328
 trient malabsorption [73–76], and enhanced postprandial re- 329
 lease of GLP-1, PYY [77–79], and oxyntomodulin [80], all of 330
 which could impact DIT after GBP. To our knowledge, there 331
 are only two studies on DIT after GBP in humans [23, 81]. In 332
 one longitudinal study where DIT, measured by indirect cal- 333
 orimetry for 4 h after a 1.67-MJ meal (43.9 g carbohydrate= 334
 44 % of energy/12.0 g protein=12 % of energy/19.9 g fat= 335
 44 % of energy), did not differ 14 months after surgery 336
 compared to preoperative values (*n*=30 patients). On the 337
 contrary, a recent cross-sectional study suggests that DIT 338
 (assessed by indirect calorimetry) increased by 200 % 339
 12 months after RYGBP, compared to a control group [81]. 340
 As previously underlined between human and animal studies 341
 on total energy expenditure, it has to be noticed that those two 342
 last studies did express EE differently which certainly explain 343
 their different conclusions. 344

Bueter et al. however found greater energy expenditure in 345
 rats that underwent GBP after a 5-g test meal compare to a 346
 control group, underlying the impact of surgery on DIT 347
 [20]. Further investigations are needed to know the exact 348
 impact of surgery on DIT and whether or not it can contrib- 349
 ute to the decreased TEE observed in operated obese indi- 350
 viduals and thus maybe play a role in weight regain. 351

352 **Clinical Implications**

Bariatric surgery is currently the best way to achieve signifi- 353
 cant and sustained weight loss. With weight loss, both fat 354
 mass and lean body mass decrease, which results in decreased 355
 REE. Such decreased REE may then limit weight loss over 356
 time and even favor weight regain in some patients. Diet- 357
 induced weight loss is also associated with long-term changes 358
 in hormonal profiles, i.e., leptin, ghrelin, peptide YY, gastric 359
 inhibitory polypeptide (this nomenclature is not sure for GIP 360
 anymore, should be glucose-dependent insulinotropic 361

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362 polypeptide), amylin, pancreatic polypeptide, and cholecysto-
 363 kinin, which may together influence TEE and appetite control
 364 favoring a rapid weight regain [82]. Further studies are needed
 365 to establish whether or not interventional strategies (clinical or
 366 behavioral) may be a great solution to maintain energy expen-
 367 diture and then limit weight regain.

368 Physical activity represents the main tool that can be
 369 used to maintain energy expenditure after weight loss.
 370 Although physical activity is considered as a cornerstone
 371 in the nonsurgical treatment of obesity for weight loss and
 372 maintenance [83, 84], very few data are available on
 373 physical activity level (PAL) of patients that underwent
 374 bariatric surgery. Jacobi et al. have recently reviewed this
 375 topic and concluded that PAL tends to increase postoper-
 376 atively [28]. However, they pointed out that one study
 377 assessed PAL 10 years postoperatively and observed a
 378 weight regain accompanied by declined PAL [1]. The
 379 increased PAL reported in most of the studies has to be
 380 considered with caution regarding the subjective nature of
 381 most of the results that are based on self-reported ques-
 382 tionnaires. Overreporting is an inherent limitation of va-
 383 lidity when using such PA questionnaires [85], particularly
 384 in obese people [86]. Few objective data are then avail-
 385 able regarding the level of physical activity in such
 386 patients, and even less is known in terms of exercise
 387 prescription (frequency, intensity, and duration). Shang
 388 and Hasenberg randomly assigned 60 obese patients that
 389 underwent RYGBP to either a low aerobic exercise pro-
 390 gram (1 h/week) or a multiple aerobic session intervention
 391 (2×1 h/week) and found a lower decreased lean body
 392 mass in the multiple exercise group, underlying then the
 393 qualitative importance of physical activity to prevent the
 394 fat-free mass reduction that occurs after surgery [87].
 395 Although aerobic exercise leads to improved type 1a
 396 (aerobic) muscle fibers which increases the patients aero-
 397 bic capacities and activity and then favors a greater energy
 398 expenditure, further work are needed to question the im-
 399 pact of resistance training that should favor a higher
 400 muscle mass. Making people engage in physical activity
 401 remains difficult at a time where sedentary behaviors are
 402 prevalent and particularly in obese persons with comor-
 403 bidities limiting their mobility. Recently, Vatieer et al.
 404 described changes in both physical activity and sedentary
 405 behaviors of obese patients after GBP [88] Self-reported
 406 physical activity and time spent watching TV (as a typical
 407 sedentary behavior) and body composition (assessed by
 408 DXA) were assessed in 86 obese patients (BMI 41.3–53.5 kg
 409 m⁻²) prior, 6, and 12 months after RYGBP. Their results
 410 pointed out that the increased leisure time physical activity is
 411 accompanied by a decrease in the time spent to sedentary
 412 activities, which is related to body composition improvements
 413 1 year after surgery (mean loss of weight -37.1 kg, fat
 414 mass -25.7 kg, lean body mass -9.4 kg).

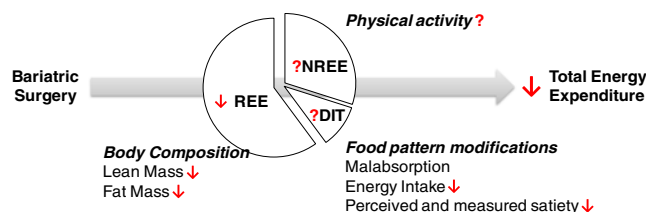


Fig. 1 Actual evidence regarding the impact of bariatric surgery on total (TEE), resting (REE), non-resting (NREE), and diet-induced (DIT) energy expenditure (downward arrow decrease; upward arrow increase; question mark remains unknown)

415 Dietary strategies, particularly with high protein diet [89],
 416 may be used to prevent the decline in lean mass and coun-
 417 teract the reduced energy expenditure after surgery. There is
 418 effectively increasing evidence to support that a high protein
 419 supplementation may promote weight loss and prevent
 420 weight regain thanks to its impact on diet-induced thermo-
 421 genesis, satiety, and muscle mass conservation [90–92].
 422 Faria et al. recently reviewed the implications of protein
 423 diet in bariatric patients [89]. They concluded that high
 424 protein supplementation can lead to increased satiety,
 425 weight loss enhancement, and improved body composition
 426 in such patients. According to their data, the quality and
 427 nature of the protein are as important as the quantity, with
 428 leucine favoring a better muscle mass maintenance. Indeed
 429 new concepts like the “slow/fast protein” concept could be
 430 applied to obese subjects especially after bariatric surgery
 431 [93]. More experimental studies are necessary to develop
 432 dietary recommendations to be done in bariatric patients
 433 who may be at risk for protein deficiency after surgery
 434 [94]. Indeed, these patients often have inadequate protein
 435 intake and/or absorption because of reduced energy intake
 436 and/or food intolerance [45, 94, 95]. As a result, bariatric
 437 patients have difficulties maintaining the recommended lev-
 438 els of protein consumption (expressed per kilogram of body
 439 weight) [45]. Dietary strategies are thus necessary, particu-
 440 larly in terms of protein intake, to avoid protein deficiency
 441 and prevent the decline of lean mass and resting energy
 442 expenditure.

Conclusion

443
 444 Patients who undergo bariatric surgery experience a de-
 445 creased TEE, mainly due to reduced REE, explained by a
 446 decreased LBM, similarly to patients after diet-induced
 447 weight loss (Fig. 1). There is little evidence so far that
 448 surgical weight loss modifies the various components of
 449 EE differentially than dietary calorie restriction, and that
 450 altered EE may explain the sustained weight loss after
 451 surgery. However, there are numerous changes in hormones
 452 involved in the regulation of energy homeostasis. Moreover,
 453 assessment of body composition in severely obese patients

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454 is not always optimal mainly due to methodological limita-
 455 tions. The anatomical changes resulting from intestinal
 456 modifications after bypass surgeries may modify DIT. For
 457 now, similarly to diet-induced weight loss, physical activity
 458 and dietary protein intake appear as the best strategies
 459 available to increase NREE and TEE, and to prevent the
 460 decline in LBM and REE after surgical weight loss.

461 **Acknowledgments** The Dr Laferrere and Miss Brakoniec-
 462 ki are supported through the NIH NIDDK ROI 067561 grant. The Dr Thivel
 463 is supported by the Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism Society through its
 464 2011 Research Award.
 465
 466

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- Q1. Please check captured email address of the corresponding author if correct.
- Q2. Please check the authors' affiliations if presented correctly.
- Q3. The abbreviated term “EE” was provided with its expanded form “energy expenditure.” Please check if correct.
- Q4. Please check the changes made in Tables 1 and 2 if correct.
- Q5. “Carrasco et al. 2007” is cited in the body but its bibliographic information is missing. Kindly provide its bibliographic information. Otherwise, please delete it from the text/body.
- Q6. The occurrences of “(9)” were changed to reference citation “[9].” Please check if correct.
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- Q9. Missing citation for Fig. 1 was inserted here. Please check if correct.

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